

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CHALLENGES FACED BY WOMEN  
IN LEADERSHIP: A CASE OF FOSKOR AND THE DEPARTMENT  
OF LABOUR IN MHLATHUZE MUNICIPALITY**

**BY**

**THEMBELIHLE INNOCENTIA MASEKO**

**A Dissertation submitted in accordance with the requirement for the  
degree of Masters in Commerce in the Faculty of Commerce,  
Administration and Law at  
University of Zululand**

**2013**

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**Faculty of Commerce, Administration and Law in the Department of Business**

**Management**

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND**

**2013**

**Supervisor: Prof. E. Contogiannis**

**Co-Supervisor: Dr. Chris Isike**

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**Date**.....

**Date**.....

**DECLARATION**

I declare that this project is my original work, achieved through my own research. It is submitted for the degree of Master of Commerce in Business Management at the University of Zululand, KwaDlangezwa. This work has never before been submitted to any institution for academic credit. All sources have been duly acknowledged.

**Thembelihle Innocentia Maseko**

.....

**Date**.....

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my mother Zomthetho, my angels Mfundo and Siyamthanda, my brothers, George and Nsika, my cousins Sandile, Bebe, Lerato and Portia, my nieces Georgegina and Trudy, Nkanyezi, my nephews, Khanyisani and Solethu, my grandson Siphon-Esihle, my aunts Thule, Mavis, Innocentia, Pinky, Thoko and Tsidi, uncle Sam and the whole family. They gave me love, support and encouragement in my studies during difficulties and happy times.

May this work inspire you to persevere in your quests to excel and empower yourselves with knowledge even when circumstances challenge you.

Lastly this thesis is dedicated to the memory of my late father Steve Maseko, grandparents MaSehole, sister in law Nonhlanhla, my aunts Bongi, and Khanya who taught me to reach for the stars but keep my feet rooted on the ground. It is always said education is the key to success.

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## **ABSTRACT**

This study is a comparative investigation of challenges faced by women in leadership/management in the public and private sector, using Foskor and the Department of Labour in Mhlathuze Municipality as a case analysis. Literature was sourced to support the study from the following areas: gender equity in leadership positions, gender and leadership in South Africa, gender inequality in management: globally and in South Africa, affirmative action and discrimination within organization, gender differences in leadership, gender stereotype, challenges to women in leadership, inequity in education, recruitment, employment and advancement, government policies supporting and promoting status and welfare, black women in management facing dual challenges, mentoring, and key issues pertaining to women in management.

The theoretical framework used for this research was the transformational leadership. A descriptive design grounded on qualitative approach of interviews was used to elicit data from respondents with a sample size of 30. The method of data analysis was the use of SPSS and content. Based on analysed data, the following findings were reached: from both sectors women are suffering from domestic constraints, psychological factors, pressure at work and home, while some men said that the place for women is the kitchen. Women are suffering from cultural factors as such finding it difficult to take orders from men.

There are similar challenges faced by women in both sectors. The findings also indicate that women at Foskor are disproportionately represented, while in the Department of Labour they are proportionally represented. Foskor needs to follow the Employment Equity Act in terms of balancing gender in the working environment. From the foregoing findings, several recommendations were attained such as: that recruitment, selection and placement in organisation should avoid tokenistic patterns. When advertising for posts, organisations need to adhere to the Employment Equity Act. Organisations should restructure their framework to avoid favouritism.

## **LIST OF ACRONYMS**

AIDS – Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

BBC – British Broadcasting Corporation

BEE – Black Economic Empowerment

BWA – Business Women Association

CEE – Commission for Employment Equity

CEO- Chief Executive Officer

CGE – Commission of Gender Equality

DR - Doctor

GEAR - Growth Employment and Redistribution

HIV – Human Immune Virus

IES - Inspection and Enforcement Services

ILO – International Labour Organisation

JSE – Johannesburg Stock Exchange

MBA – Master of Business Administration

MSS - Management Support Services

NGO – Non Governmental Organisation

PES - Public Employment Services

RS - Registration Services

SADC – Southern African Development Community

SOE – State Owned Enterprises

SPSS- Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

TELP - Tertiary Education Linkages Project

UK – United Kingdom

UN – United Nations

UNCFSP– United Negro College Fund Special Programs

US – United States

USA – United States of America

USAID – United States Agency for International Development

WEF – World Economic Forum

WITS – Witswatersrand

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

#### **1.1 Introduction**

Globally, in spite of the golden age of women which was ushered in by the Berlin Conference of 1995, women continue to be disadvantaged when it comes to public participation both in the public and private sectors of society. Even when they are eminently qualified and in spite of the mainstreaming of more women into public life in the last 17 years (1995 – 2012), women remain discriminated against in terms of accessing top management/leadership positions. This is even though more women are getting educated and hold more jobs worldwide than ever before.

However, most continue to suffer from occupational segregation in the workplace and rarely break through the so-called glass ceiling in public life which separates them from top-level management and professional positions. Again, even the few that push through to occupy top leadership/management positions face serious challenges that can and do circumscribe their performance in these positions. This is a serious concern as it reinforces existing stereotypes of women's ability to perform at the top level of public life and thus perpetuates a vicious cycle of marginalization and disempowerment of women.

In Africa, where the status of women and their public participation has significantly improved over the last 17 years, the problem of not breaking through the glass ceiling and the gender-based challenges the few women in top positions face remains a topical issue.

For example, in South Africa, which occupies second spot in Africa in terms of women's representation and participation in politics, the issue of women accessing top leadership positions especially in the private sector persists, as women are only 24% in economic decision-making positions in both the public and private sectors (SADC Gender Protocol, 2010). Indeed, the last 17 years of democracy in South Africa has also come with its challenges for women empowerment in terms of mainstreaming women into key or top leadership/management positions in both the public and private sectors.

In spite of efforts at transforming both the country and the public service to embrace national priorities of development and economic growth, challenges persist for women across the public and private sectors. For example, while women have the potential and ability to be leaders, they often lack opportunities, resources and support for realizing their potential<sup>1</sup>. And this is not peculiar to the private sector where women in leadership are fewer. It also applies to the public sector where there are more women entering leadership positions in South Africa.

Given this context, both sectors have to interpret the challenges they face and align them to processes that would ensure efficiency and effectiveness of women in leadership positions in these sectors. Against this background, the study therefore aimed at examining the challenges faced by women in leadership/management positions in both the public and private sectors by undertaking a comparative analysis of the Department of

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<sup>1</sup> Women represent only a small proportion of managers, managerial personnel or well - educated technical and professional personnel from whom managers are often drawn. Across all vocation types, male managers on average earn more than female managers (Fagenson, 2003).

Labour (public sector) and Foskor (private sector) in the Richards Bay area in Umhlathuze Municipality.

## **1.2 Research Problem and the Motivation of the Study**

As aforementioned, in spite of seeming progress towards empowering women in public life in South Africa since 1994, they remain marginalized in many ways as their representation in key decision-making positions in critical areas of public life remains low. Despite impressive stride towards mainstreaming/appointing more women into leadership positions through the Employment Equity Act and Affirmative Action, women continue to experience challenges in dispensing their management responsibilities. It is not readily known if women in both the public and private sectors have similar challenges in this regard as there is a dearth of studies that focus specifically on comparing women in leadership/management positions in the public and private sectors. This study therefore sought to find out whether there are differences or similarities in challenges faced by women leaders in both the public and private sector respectively. These are some of the gaps this study seeks to highlight and address.

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), being in management is bound to have an impact on women's social and personal lives and in turn affect how they perform. Whether the public and private sectors present different challenges to women in management remains to be seen. In fact the pressures women in public spaces face may be increased for women leaders/managers whose entrance into the management/leadership domain is not viewed as being part of traditional women occupations. Thus, as Larwood & Wood

(2007) suggest, that a woman entering a management/leadership position must decide the extent and the types of demands she is willing to accept.

To be concise, this study attempts to deal with broad questions around what challenges women in leadership positions in the public and private sectors face and whether they experience similar or different challenges. Other questions include whether women leaders in the private sector prefer particular leadership styles that are different from those of public sector? Are there any differences and similarities in the leadership style of women leaders in both the public and private sectors in South Africa? And how can women best enter and succeed at leadership/management positions in both sectors? As such, this study intended to understand the extent and the nature of the challenges faced by women in leadership positions in both sectors using a comparative lens.

Although questions about women's leadership positions and roles have often arisen, their leadership styles and challenges facing women are understudied. Problematizing this from a literature review perspective, we find that perceptions of gender equality as well as the eradication of discrimination against women are very often closely linked to the values and attitudes that the political elite hold. If it is true that women follow different paths to leadership positions, then different experiences must inform different values, priorities and interests. As Siemienska (2004) argues cultural factors influence the level of support for women candidates and they influence the electoral behaviour of men and women. Values shape the beliefs of party gatekeepers and perceptions of what should count as political priorities, for example whether gender equality is important or not.

In an important cross national analysis involving countries in Western Europe (Protestant and Catholic), Eastern Europe (Post-Communist countries) as well as Scandinavian and North American countries Siemienska (2004) found that the attitude related to gender roles are connected in some way with more general value orientations consisting of sets of interrelated attitudes and values within the cultures of the different societies. She argues that attitudes towards gender equality differ in different groups of countries and are held with varying degrees of intensity. In some regards the attitudes and opinions of women and men are very similar and others clearly differ. Women notice the inequalities as well as social and cultural barriers more frequently than men. While men and women may be aware of gender differences men will interpret them differently.

Men argue that women lack the skills and preparation for leadership positions, while women argue that they are professionally isolated and not integrated into male leadership structures. They also often believe that men in power are reluctant to elect them to the highest office (Siemienska, 2004). The experience of globalization of the past few decades has affected the consciousness of different societies and their elites about gender equality but as Siemienska (2004) argues value orientation around the roles of women and men are deeply embedded in the cultures of various societies. They are preconditioned by the system of political and economic factors that exist both in the present and in the past.

Deeply rooted traditional values very often pose serious obstacles to women's equality. South Africa has gone through a liberation struggle during which values of non-racialism and to a certain extent, non-sexism were given priority. The Women's National Coalition

and its Women's Charter Campaign played an important role to put women's issues on the political agenda during the transitional phase when the male dominated process excluded women. Today the preamble of the constitution puts the emphasis on a non-racial and non-sexist democracy.

It was the women leaders of the Women's National Coalition who became the political elites as well as important leaders in the NGO sector of the South African society. There are 41% women in the labour force but only 14% are executive managers and only 7.1% are directors of companies (De La Rey, 2005). There are torch-bearers for women's equality but how much do we really know about their personal values? South Africa is characterized by high levels of wealth but also by a growing gap between the rich and the poor. It has one of the highest Gini coefficients in the world and is also characterized by a rural-urban divide with nearly eight million people still living under customary law. South Africa has one of the highest and fastest infection rates of HIV/Aids in the world with more women being infected than men. The society is also ravaged by extremely high levels of rape and domestic violence and the neo liberal economic policies of GEAR have diminished the role of the state in contributing to gender equality. All these conditions have a very serious and direct impact on the values of women and perceptions of gender equality.

Maccoby (2004) states that until recently the general perception of business management/leadership were structured dominated by males whose leadership styles was hierarchal, action orientated and even quasi-military. The ideal leader was seen as an independent, tough, individualistic hero. But according to Helgensen (2005) a new

generation of women is bringing to business style often described as more consensus building more open and inclusive, more likely to encourage participation by others and even more caring than that of many males.

In Fast company, “Women and Men, Work and Power” Patrick (2008), President and CEO, Martha Stewart Living, is quoted as saying, “We cannot ignore a million years of history at the office or in the living room. Men hunt, women gather.” A funny but true attribute of the modern hunter is “going for the jugular and then inviting you out for a beer afterwards.” According to Joy & Kane-Benson (2004) women tend to encourage harmony and agreement, consult with experts, employees and peers before making a decision and make personal connections with others at work.

Most proponents of more women in management/leadership start by talking about the qualities women bring to the workplace that makes them better managers: Imagination, Intuition, Inventiveness, Innovation and Involvement. The immediate response from any rational manager/leader whether man or woman is: those are qualities that a manager any manager would have to possess to succeed. Any manager would have to possess these qualities to be a good manager, and to succeed (Carey, 2007).

The difference lies in the fact that women bring in a freshness of thought to the workplace. This is the kind of freshness of thought that a new and talented recruit would bring in to a creative organisation. The edge that women have in their original approach is brought about by the very reason why they were referred to as the “weaker sex” till recently. Kiran Mazumdar-Shaw, CEO, Biocon in Nagaraj (2009) insists that this freshness of thought is the quality that makes her prefer women candidates for any vacant

position in her company. There is no other way to manage work in the home other than by exhibiting the very qualities that are touted as the difference they bring to the workplace.

Apart from skills for the workplace, women also bring with them a special quality to the negotiating table. Sangita Singh in Nagaraj (2009) argues that the fact that she is a woman is an advantage in itself. For instance she is able to get a meeting with a prospective client when a male colleague cannot wangle one. Also she argues that clients are more polite to her and are at the least, willing to listen to her. This is again very peculiar in our society because the reason why woman is “the weaker sex” is also the reason why she is powerful at the negotiating table.

The strong people skills possessed by women leaders enable them to read situations accurately and take in information from all sides. This willingness to see all sides of a situation enhances their persuasive ability. They can zero in on concerns them into the grander scheme of things as appropriate. These women leaders genuinely understand and care about where others are coming from, allowing them to approach a subject from others perspective. The people they lead feel better understood, supported and valued (Mwangi, 2007).

This engaging style of persuasion possessed by women leaders differs from that of male leaders, who tend to start from their own point of view. Because they are not as flexible or sociable, male leaders will often force their point of view, convincing through the strength of their position, rather than by actually persuading (Greenberg & Sweeny, 2006). Women express a unique approach toward dealing with disappointment, rejection

or situations that don't work out their way. They feel the sting of being set back. They may even dwell on it, and tend to be a little self-critical (Greeberg & Sweeney, 2006).

Women are additionally unwilling, as well as unable to compartmentalize their lives and so draw upon personal experience to bring private sphere information and insights to their jobs (Jacobs in April & Dreyer, 2007). When it comes to decision making and problem solving MacDonald (2005) demonstrated an inclusive, team building leadership style. They are genuinely interested in hearing all points of view, and then making the best possible decision and the final decision do not necessarily have to be their initial point of view. They are able to read situations accurately, take in information from all sides and then make the most informed decision possible.

The difference in leadership styles between men and women starts with listening to form your answer, but really listening, learning, reflecting, and then implementing a plan that incorporates the best of everyone's ideas. Greenberg & Sweeney (2006) explain that the top down, hierarchal approach to leadership does not work very well in today's economy. With information much more easily accessible, leadership depends less upon protecting information and more upon sharing what is known. It is not about who has the most information but who the best perspective is.

In a Havard Business review report on a leadership survey conducted for the international Women's Forum in Washington, Rosener in Nelton (2001) states that she found that women respondents tended to use what she calls an "interactive" leadership style, in which they do not only encourage others' participation but also attempted "to enhance other peoples' sense of self-worth and to energize followers." These women leaders, she

says, ‘believe that people perform best when they feel good about themselves and their work.’ Rosener in Nelton (2001) also points out, a high proportion of young professional workers are increasingly typical in organisations.

“They demand to participate and contribute,” she says. “In some cases, they have knowledge or talents their bosses do not have.” She sees these kinds of workers as likely to respond more to interactive leaders. According to the study conducted by Greenberg & Sweeney (2006) women leaders scored significantly lower than male leaders in external structure adhering to establish procedures and cautiousness. They were also significantly higher in their level of urgency and risk taking. And they have high scores in abstract reasoning.

One of the most surprising findings from the study is that women leaders are more likely to push back if they are overly bound by regulations and rules and they will engage in more risk taking than male counterparts. Women leaders are venturesome, less interested in what has been than in what can be. They run the risk of occasionally being wrong in order to get things done. And with their fine abstract reasoning skills, they will learn from their mistakes and carry on. Women prefer direct communication to communication up and down a chain of command. They are hailed for intuitive, communicative and feminine style of leadership (Nelton, 2001).

In the past 10 years gender scholars have developed the literature on women in government further (Fick et al., 2002; Goetzee & Hassim, 2003). South Africa has one of the highest numbers of women in parliament globally. After the 2004 election there was a critical mass of 32.8% women in parliament 11<sup>th</sup> position globally and 43% women in

cabinet positions. Most of the research literature until now has mainly dealt with getting women into power. There is a huge body of literature dealing with pros and cons of quotas and impact of different types of electoral systems on women's representation.

One of the vexing questions that gender researchers have been grappling with is whether the number of women parliamentarians represent women's issues or whether the number of has any correlation with gender issues. Therefore, the question is often how to translate women's presence in the parliament into political power for women issues. Goetzee & Hassim (2003) emphasizes on assessing whether the increase of women in government is merely a legitimate exercise for the state or whether it creates a space for women to advance their needs and interests and to enable them to make policy responses.

Women in South African parliament have already made a difference to the parliamentary culture to turn it into a more women friendly institution such as creating child care facilities, accepting a sexual harassment policy and changing the times of parliamentary meetings and the male culture of parliamentary proceedings. They have also had an impact on sexist language and jokes (Commission on Gender Equality, 2009, Sadie, 2005).

In recent years, a significant number of women are entering in management/leadership positions. Women managers/leaders play an important role in challenging gender stereotypes. This study therefore critically analyses challenges facing women leaders in management/leadership in the Department of Labour and Foskop in Mhlathuze Municipality to shed more light on some of the issues raised above.

### **1.3 Research Objectives**

#### **1.3.1 Main Objective**

This study investigated challenges facing women leaders in leadership or management position in both the public and private sectors departments in Mhlathuze Municipality with the purpose of addressing policy intervention and strategies to improve women leaders' leadership and competences in the KwaZulu-Natal province.

#### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives**

- ❖ To identify the challenges faced by women leaders/managers in both the public and private sectors in the study area
- ❖ To analyze the similarities and differences in the challenges women in both sectors face
- ❖ To analyze the differences and similarities in the leadership style of women leaders in both the public and private sectors
- ❖ To determine how women can best enter and succeed at leadership/management positions in both the private and public sectors in Umhlathuze Municipality with implications for South Africa.

#### **1.3.3 Research Questions**

- ❖ What challenges do women leaders/managers face in both the public and private sectors in South Africa?
- ❖ Are there similarities and differences in the challenges women in both sectors face?

- ❖ Do women have preferred leadership styles and if so are there any differences and similarities in the leadership style of women leaders in both the public and private sectors?
- ❖ How can women best enter and succeed at leadership/management positions in both sectors in Umhlathuze Municipality and South Africa generally?

#### **1.4 Hypotheses**

Although qualitative approach was used as the main research approach to understand the research problem, yet, this approach to research was supplemented with quantitative one so as to understand some causal links. The following hypothesis was tested:

- ❖ Women in leadership/management in the public sector fare better than women in leadership/management the private sector

#### **1.5 Significance of the study**

First, the study is intended to add to the existing body of knowledge on women leadership in public and private sectors. Second, the findings of a study intended to provide insights to policy makers and researchers on challenges facing women leaders in order to effectively and efficiently address them. Lastly, it aimed at empowering women leaders in fulfilling their potentials through adding value on women leaders skills and strategies.

#### **1.6 Research Methodology**

This section presents the research methodology and profile study area that was used towards the production of the research output. It is organized into seven sub sections as

follows; research design, area of the study, target population, sampling and sampling techniques, data collection methods and tools, data analysis plan and ethical considerations.

### **1.6.1 Research Design**

An interdisciplinary study of this nature requires a certain amount of methodological flexibility to produce a nuanced understanding of the phenomena being studied. In this light, the study was carried out using a combination of various overlapping research methods and approaches to answer the key research questions outlined. The study employed the qualitative research method in an attempt to get peoples insights, and describe a situation of the challenges facing women in leadership positions in the both sectors. Qualitative research has its roots in social science (Kumar, 2005).

This qualitative approach to research was however supplemented with quantitative approaches to research in an attempt to provide a snapshot of useful data from the sample to justify causal explanations for the findings. As such, this study employed an approach known as “sequential-qualitative first” (Cresswell, 2003:211) where in this mixed method, qualitative research features dominantly and quantitative data feature in the analysis and interpretation of data.

The study also incorporates a case study method to approach the research problem. Two case studies from Mhlathuze Municipality (the Department of Labour and Foskor) were utilized by the study. The criteria of choosing both two case studies in Mhlathuze municipality are discussed in sub section 1.6.2.

“Case studies are the preferred strategy when ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context” (Yin, 1994, p. 1). This is one among its strengths. Also, research associated with case study is performed at the site where the program or activity occurs naturally, and multiple forms of inquiry (document review, observation, and interviews) are usually utilized. A study that contains more than a single case is called a multiple-case study (Yin, 1994). In this study, two case studies served for multiple-case inquiry.

### **1.6.2 Area of Study**

This comparative study was conducted in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province in the Republic of South Africa. Within KZN province, Mhlathuze Municipality was chosen for an in-depth study. Umhlathuze Municipality is the fastest growing industrial hub and employer in KwaZulu-Natal province. The Department of Labour and Foskor were utilized by the study as unit of analysis. The criteria of choosing both two case studies in Mhlathuze municipality were two folds. The first criterion is an intensity of challenges facing women in leadership positions and the second criterion is an availability of documentary evidence. This helped to explore the nature and genesis of challenges in order to draw systematically the logical conclusion.

### **1.6.3 Target Population**

Kothari (2004) conceives the term target population to refer to the intended population covered by a study in a specific geographical area such as country, region and town in terms of the age group and gender. Since the total population for all staffs in the

Department of Labour and Foskop in Richards Bay was 38, the study managed to sample only 30 respondents who had stayed in the respective department for at least in a year, in order to air their views on the challenges facing women in leadership positions. As such, purposively sampling technique was the method employed towards sampling this group.

Since this number did not suffice the required proposed sample of 80 respondents, the study used probability sampling technique to select 28 respondents out of 284 recipients who received services from both the Department of Labour and Foskop in Richards Bay. This group came from both public and private entities in Richards Bay in order to get their view on how they perceive women leaders in the respective department in terms of services delivery, and whether they know any challenges that women leaders in management position face.

Apart from that group, 22 respondents were also purposively sampled and interviewed as key informants for this study. These respondents came from Civil Society organizations such as churches, Non-Government Organization addressing women affairs, Community Based Organizations and Government Offices dealing with the issues related to women empowerment in a society. Therefore the total number of a study sample was 80 respondents.

#### **1.6.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques**

A sample size is defined by Bailey (1987) to refer to the number of representatives respondents selected for interview from a research population. The number depends on the accuracy needed, population size, population heterogeneity and resources available. The sample size for this study was 80 respondents.

In this study both non probability and probability sampling techniques were employed. Non probability sampling also known as purposive sampling technique was used to select both, a sample of 30 respondents who had been working and had stayed in the department of Labour and Foskop in Richerds Bay for at least in a year, and 22 respondents who were interviewed as key informants for this study. On the other hand, the study used probability sampling to select 28 respondents out of 284 who were primary recipients of services from both the department of Labour and Foskop in Richerds Bay in the year 2012. This group of respondents came from both public and private entities.

### **1.6.5 Data Collection Methods**

Weber (1990) writes that once the data collection techniques are identified, the researcher is now ready to undertake the main fieldwork in order to collect the data which will be used to answer the research questions of the study. The data collection strategies must be relevant to the problem under investigation and the research approach followed. Before undertaking data collection, an Ethical Clearance Certificate (see Appendix A), and a letter of permission to conduct the study (see Appendices B and C) were given. Also, respondents were asked to sign a consent form after they agreed to participate for study.

Data was generated from both secondary and primary sources. Primary data was collected directly through the use of semi structured interviews to allow for probing in the qualitative approach. Indeed the study was benefited from utilizing questionnaire based approach, which provided a snapshot of useful data from the sample to justify causal explanations for the findings. Secondary data not only provided broad contextual and bibliographical information, but also supported the primary source and hence illuminates

the essence of the study. Relevant secondary data was sourced from books, government documents and legislation, research reports and statistics, academic journals and internet articles, press releases, archival materials, seminar papers and unpublished theses.

Two methods of data collection were used for collecting primary data. These included questionnaire based approach and the use of semi-structured interview. A pilot test was done in order to improve reliability of research instruments. While questionnaires were used to generate information from a sample of 28 respondents who were recipients of services from both public and private entities in Richards Bay, a semi structured interview guide probed qualitative data from both, 30 respondents from the general management who had worked in the department of Labour and Foskor for not less than a year, and 22 key informants who supplemented data for this study.

Among the 30 respondents from both departments, 16 men were chosen to in order to get their views on perception of women in organizational leadership and attitudes of men in aligning with women leaders in the department, since the literature suggests that there is a dominant culture of patriarchy which pervades women leaders development in both the public and private sectors.

#### **1.6.6 Data Analysis**

According to Neuman and Robson (2009), data analysis refers to a search for pattern in data recurrent behaviours, objects or body of knowledge. Once a pattern is identified, it is interpreted in terms of a social theory or the setting in which it occurred.

It should be understood that in this study, qualitative research features dominantly and quantitative data feature in the analysis and interpretation of data. This is because quantitative approach to research was supplemented in an attempt to provide a snapshot of useful data from the sample to justify causal explanations for the findings. As such, since in this study both quantitative and qualitative research methods were employed, a sequential data analysis was preferred towards analyzing qualitative data first, followed by quantitative once later.

Qualitative data analysis begins early in a research project while still collecting data (Berg, 2007). The results of early data analysis in qualitative research guided subsequent data collection. Technique of memo writing and coding were the approaches employed in the analysis of qualitative data. This is also known as thematic coding. In this study, the coding of qualitative data involved organizing data into themes, data reduction that's refining, and finally drawing links between themes, thus arriving at conclusion and verification.

On the other hand, when the field exercises were completed, all quantitative information collected were coded, organized, analyzed and converted into percentages, tables, and figures by using a statistical package for social sciences abbreviated as SPSS.

### **1.7 Ethical Considerations**

The permission to conduct this research was given by the Higher Degrees Committee after issuing the Ethical Clearance Certificate, Supervisors, and the Faculty Board of Commerce, Admin and Law. All respondents were informed about the confidentiality of the information gathered from them as the questionnaire and interview did not require the

participants to identify themselves. The participants were assured that information provided will only be used for the purpose of this study. Ethical procedures were in line with those stated in the Ethical Clearance Certificate (see appendix A) and those used in the Department of Business Management.

## **1.8 Organization of Chapters**

The dissertation has six chapters structured in the following way:

Chapter One introduces the study, and covers the background of the study, problem statement, motivation of the study, the research problem, hypotheses, research objectives and research methodology.

Chapter Two is a review of a relevant literature linked to challenges facing women in management/leadership positions in both public and private sectors. It discusses both theoretical and empirical literature of the study. While the theoretical literature clarifies the concepts used under study, and critically analyses challenges facing women, the empirical literature on the other hand discusses empirical literature related to the objectives of this study done from the global level, regional, South African, and finally and narrowed to KwaZulu- Natal context.

Chapter Three analyses how the theoretical framework relates to the challenges faced by women in leadership. Breaking the objectives of this study into themes, three primary areas of leadership theoretical research were revealed.

Chapter Four presents and interprets data collected from a study that explored challenges faced by women in their leadership position between two sectors, the public and the private by using a sample size of 80 respondents.

Chapter Five provides conclusions and recommendations on the research conducted as well as recommended areas for further research. It provides a comparative and statistical analysis of the study findings from two case studies. It compares the differences and similarities of the study's findings in both case studies, and presents the results of testing the study's hypothesis in individual cases, and compositely across both cases.

### **1.9 Limitations of the Research**

This study is based on two organizations which may not be fully representative of the public and private sectors in Richards Bay. Furthermore, a study conducted in only one of the nine provinces of South Africa may tend to limit the applicability of its findings to South Africa.

### **1.10 Summary of the Chapter**

Chapter one has provided the background to the research problem, discussed the problem statement of the study, stating hypotheses, objectives, research questions, motivation of the study, significance of the study and the methodology used to generate knowledge for by this study. We shall now turn to chapter two which is a review of literature on the subject.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Much of the questions about women's leadership positions have often arisen in a number of studies. However, there is scant of information on the challenges faced by women leaders in leadership or management position compared in both the public and private sectors. This chapter attempts a review of literature of the study. The chapter provides both the theoretical debate in section 2.2 and empirical literature of the study in section 2.3. The last part provides the knowledge gap filled by this study.

#### **2.2 Theoretical literature**

When it comes to leadership, does gender matter? Is there a difference between women leaders and men who lead? If so, what are the unique qualities of female leadership that the most effective women leaders possess, and are they unique to women? In 2005, a year-long study conducted by Caliper, identified a number of characteristics that distinguish women leaders from men when it comes to qualities of leadership:

According to Caliper (2005), women leaders are more assertive and persuasive, have a stronger need to get things done and are more willing to take risks than male leaders....Women leaders were also found to be more empathetic and flexible, as well as stronger in interpersonal skills than their male counterparts. Since the focus of this study is grounded on the challenges facing women leaders in a comparative lens between both the public and private sectors, the reliance of the literature will rely on that line.

In her book *Why the Best Man for the Job is a Woman: The Unique Female Qualities of Leadership*, author Esther Wachs Book examines the careers of fourteen top female executives - among them Meg Whitman, President and CEO of eBay - to learn what makes them so successful. What she discovers echoes the Caliper study, including a willingness to reinvent the rules; an ability to sell their visions; the determination to turn challenges into opportunities; and a focus on 'high touch' in a high tech business world.

This evidence - that the leadership style of women is not simply unique but possibly at odds with what men practice - begs the question: Do these qualities have value in the marketplace? Is this type of leadership welcomed by society and by the public and private sector? These are among the questions that this study intended to investigate. Apart from them, the study assessed whether women leaders in the private sector prefer particular leadership styles that is different from those of public sector, and whether there are any differences and similarities in the leadership style of women leaders in both the public and private sectors in South Africa.

Traditionally, leadership has been associated with masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women. Even though the number of women leaders has improved especially in Africa over the last two decades after ratification of the Beijing conference in 1995, yet, women representation and participation in the public sphere is still small. Hojgaard (2002) argues that the cultural structure of leadership in itself initiates difference. It is only now being clear that women could gain admission to leadership positions. According to Ngcongco, (1993) in Grant (2005), it is believed that in African culture men lead and women follow.

It is unusual in rural villages in Africa to find the man literally walking ahead of women. Different motives may be postulated for this, but eventually it demonstrates the intensely held conception of leadership as masculine. De La Rey (2005) lists the qualities commonly linked with leadership as effective communication skills, task completion, responsibility, problem solving, originality, decision making, vision, self awareness, confidence, experience and power. Although it is likely to build up these qualities in any human being in spite of gender, in male dominated societies, as is often the case in African societies, male leadership and styles prevail, and are regarded as the more acceptable forms of leadership.

Grove & Montgomery (2000) defined leaders as people who offer vision and meaning for an institution and embody the ideas towards which the organization strives. From that point of view, leaders are identical and genderless. However, there is still doubt when women lead, and in many situations gender, more than age, experience or competence determines the role one is assigned.

### **2.2.1 Gender Equity in Leadership Positions**

Although globally a lot has been done to make sure that women feature at all levels of governance, they are still underrepresented in many government organizations, mostly in positions of authority and leadership (De La Rey, 2005). For example in Africa, statistics obtained by Sadie (2005) on the Southern African Development Community (SADC) parliamentary structures show that the targeted 30% representation of women in political and resolution making structures in member states was not met except in South Africa and Mozambique.

By 2004 the percentage of women in parliament was 15.4%, in Angola 15.9%, in Botswana 12%, in Lesotho 14.4%, in Malawi 17.14%, in Mauritius 25%, in Namibia 22.3%, in Tanzania 16%, and in Zimbabwe, while South Africa and Mozambique had 32.8% and 37.2% respectively. In some cases, the percentage in cabinet was higher, as in the case of Botswana 28.7%, Lesotho 41.6% and Malawi 20.7%, whereas in other countries this number went down. At present there is a large variety in meeting set targets, but at least something has been and is being done to correct the situation.

According to Trademark Southern Africa (2011) the status of women representation in parliament level shows that only four SADC members states have reach more than 30% representation of women in parliament, with South Africa being highest with 45% followed by Mozambique at 39.2%, Angola with 38.6% and the United Republic of Tanzania having 36%. Ministers urged member states to develop innovative measures to fast track equal representation of women in political decision-making positions.

Another difference in the SADC region is evident in party arrangement. While women represent the majority of voters, Sadie (2005) experienced that they are underrepresented in party organizations and on party lists to the extent that although gender equality is enshrined in the party constitution and manifestos, it is not included in party structures. In various occasions where women serve as party executives it is because they move in as ex officio members by virtue of their role as chairpersons of the women's leagues. In education and academic spheres the under representation is more disturbing especially if one looks at higher education. One would expect that things would change faster in these kinds of environment; citadel of learning and transformation.

Dei (2006) observed that universities are traditionally viewed as centers of free thought amend and human advancement. But literature on leadership status of women in higher education shows that women are less likely than men to be part of upper levels of administration. Leadership in higher education is still a man's world and universities are male-dominated institutions in terms of leadership.

Figures on women in leadership in the higher education sector in South Africa by Gumbi (2006) demonstrated that in 2003 the average number of women in senior management was roughly 24% across 17 institutions of higher learning. At that time there were only three women Vice-Chancellors while 82% of professors were men and only 18% were women. A 2005 study carried out in eight higher education institutions as part of a USAID funded United Negro College Fund Tertiary Education Linkages Project (TELP) found that gender representation of staff was almost equitable - 46% women versus 54% men, but that the majority of the women (69%) were employed in lower level administration, technical or service positions against 57% of the men falling into this category (UNCFSP – TELP, 2006).

Representation of women at Council level across the eight institutions was 20% women and 80% men, and overall, only 15% of senior management was women. Representation of women at middle management was slightly better at 27% (UNCFSP – TELP 2006). Men also dominated positions at professorial and senior lecturer positions. The gender imbalance is similar in other countries. According to Gumbi (2006) out of 4 000 professors in higher education in the UK in 2003, 13% were women and 87% men. Besides this statistics, a gender equity in higher education has never been reached.

Gumbi (2006) reported that women held 18.7% of full professorships and only 19.3% of presidencies (Vice-Chancellorships of colleges and universities). It is obvious that men dominate the governance and management levels of higher education institutions. More poignant is the likelihood that women's interests in the institutions may not be sufficiently taken care of, and that women have few or no role models and mentors, something that may have far reaching penalties in terms of developing future women leaders. In this light, it is surely vital to accept Cole's argument (2006) that women professors in higher education do not just appear out of nowhere. They have to be nurtured and developed right through the society.

### **2.2.3 Gender and Leadership in South Africa**

Since the end of apartheid several pieces of legislation have been ratified to tackle racial bias and other forms of inequity. Government has put significant importance on advancing gender equality right through the South African society (Marthur-Helm, 2004). While there appears to be positive movements in the numbers of women entering leadership positions, there is still an overrepresentation of men particularly white men in senior and top leadership positions.

Women in South Africa are more than represented in pink-collar jobs in contrast to professional and technical positions (Naidoo, 1997; Jacobson, 1999). The first countrywide survey of the status of corporate women in South Africa in 2004 showed that of the 364 companies listed on the Johannesburg stock Exchange and state owned enterprises in South Africa, only seven have women CEOs and 60% have no women faces on their boards.

According to the study, women make 41.3% of South Africa's workforce but only 14.7% of executive managers and just 7.1% of all directors (Business Women's Association, 2004). Statistics from the most recent employment equity reports indicate race and gender differences in the occupation of managerial positions 2002 – 2003. Blacks make 19% and whites 81% of all top positions. White men hold 71% of top management positions while white women hold 10% of those posts. Black women make 4% and black men 15% of all top management positions. In senior management positions, blacks make 22% and whites 78% of positions. White men hold a majority of the middle positions (62%) while black males occupy 17%. White women hold 16% of senior management positions while black women make at least 5%.

In total the statistics on the category of women in leadership show that black women continue to be the most poorly represented group in leadership and management positions, while all women in South Africa face the common glass ceiling experience. Clearly then, management of South Africa's private sector is not only male dominated, but also white dominated. (Booyesen, 1999).

Research also shows that women in South Africa face similar barriers to their advancement and upward mobility as their female counterparts in the rest of the world (Erwee, 1994, Erasmus, 1998, Marthur-Helm, 2002). Erasmus's study (1998) on South African career women found that in spite of being talented, educated and committed to their careers, misunderstanding and stereotyping potentially delayed women's upward mobility. Women were not seen as potential leaders, and were often told that their leadership performance differs from traditional male leaders.

#### **2.2.4 Perceptions on Gendered Differences in Leadership**

In South Africa, perceptions on gender differences in the abilities of men and women as leaders are also marked by race. Black and coloured women face stereotypes that are rooted in their historical employment as maids in the homes of white employers. In one of the few studies on the subject, Booysen (1999, 2001), observed subculture differences and similarities between South African men and women managers in retail banking. Booysen (2001) stated that male South African managers concentrated on performance, competition and winning, power, control and directive leadership.

Men experienced leadership as a number of social transactions. On the other hand, she stated that South African women managers highlighted cooperation, empowerment, involvement, intuition and empathy. She characterized the style of women in her sample of 216 retail managers as transformational and interactive. Booysen (2001) also included racial differences in the behaviour of the managers in her sample. She found the organizational culture of white managers differed greatly from that of blacks. The black managers in her sample were more Afro-centric in their approach to leadership.

The Afro-centric model is centred on the concept of ubuntu. Ubuntu is not a leadership style but a philosophy of African humanism which values collectivism and group-centeredness in contrast to individualism (Khoza, 1994; Booysen, 1999; Mbigi, 1997). Booysen (2001), using Hofstede's national culture model, gave higher scores for blacks on collectiveness, human orientation and gender equality compared to their white counterparts. She concluded that blacks are not as results-determined as whites. Although she measured leader attributes she did not report them.

Also, she observed differences in the cultural orientation of white and black women. Black women scored higher on humane orientation compared to white females. In general, black women emphasized concern for employees as well as collective mutual support and interdependence compared to whites' women's emphasis on independence and freedom, employees as workers and planning and future action. It should be noted that Booyesen's sample did not include Asians and coloreds.

In sum Booyesen's research suggests perceptions of leader behaviour should vary across race and gender. However in comparison to Booyesen's findings, Thomas & Bendixen (2000) note that no cultural differences existed amongst the managers in their study. For them, management efficiency was independent of both ethnicity and race. By means of Hofstede's model of national culture, they observed the influence of racial/ethnic diversity on managerial effectiveness in South Africa. Regardless of managers' identification with their ethnic group there was a common national culture at the management level. Aspects of that national culture including a high degree of uniqueness and a low tolerance for hierarchical differences in power are similar to those found in the Netherlands, England and the US.

Thomas & Bendixen (2000) point out the historical impact of Dutch, British and American cultures on South Africa as well as the prevalence of British and American systems of management in business education and practice. On the other hand, they argued that apparent disagreements can be reconciled by the special nature of African collectivism in which individuals act autonomously but stay socially united; a concept that has been referred to as communalism.

As a structure of collectivism, communalism can coexist with personal freedom or individualism. This is supported by cross-cultural leadership theory and research on gender and leadership in South Africa which indicates that there ought to be important differences in perceptions of ideal leadership behaviour across racial and gender groups (House, Wright & Aditya, 1997, Booysen, 2001).

### **2.2.5 The Situation of Women Leadership in KwaZulu-Natal Province**

Asha Rani Pillay in 2005 did a study on Women Principals in Kwazulu-Natal, *Reshaping the Landscape of Educational Leadership*. This study investigates the leadership perspective as enacted and experienced by women principals in secondary schools. The concept and approaches of leadership focused mainly on the male experience and interpretation of what constitutes leadership. Studies on leadership in the main have ignored the perspective of women and this then impact on the description of leadership in its entirety as a concept of 'one size fits all'. The study concludes that the features of the female principal's leadership approach are participatory and transformational. The importance of this finding is that it reflects that women as leaders are inclined to the transformational approach because it favours their feminine values of nurturing and caring.

Bryceson (1995:197) in Buthelezi (2001) based on the proposition on the Malawian experience, argued thus: "If development agencies are concerned with advancing women's development in the impoverished rural areas of Southern Malawi [applicable in rural areas of KwaZulu-Natal], they must take into consideration the socio-cultural factors that shape relations of production between women and men and between women themselves".

She went far to argue that far-reaching policies and large-scale programmes would be needed to provide rural women with skills, and resources they need to overcome the scourge of poverty. Furthermore, project identification; planning, monitoring and evaluation would have to take into account the differential impacts of programmes on men and women, as well as on different socio-economic and cultural groups. Roles to be played by women, in accessing resources such as land, housing, water and sanitation services, transport, health care, social security and social welfare, energy and electrification for meeting developmental needs, would have to be identified.

Gouws and Kotze in their studies of Women in Leadership Positions in South Africa in 2007 assert that one of the findings of a survey done by the South African Commission on Gender Equality indicates that over 30 per cent of the sample are of the opinion that women are too emotional to be able to handle high level leadership positions (Commission on Gender Equality, 2005). Gouws and Kotze (ibid) continue to argue that there is a stereotypical ideas about women's abilities to perform well in leadership positions to inform people's perceptions about women leaders.

A burgeoning body of literature focuses on women in business and relies on business models to tell us something about women's leadership styles. One of the contested arguments is whether women have different leadership styles such as a preference for less hierarchical structures, forming better interpersonal relations, and a more caring attitude towards fellow workers (Alvesson and Billing, 1997; Rosenor, 1990; Eagly and Johnson, 1990). Some empirical evidence indicates that this is the case; other evidence challenges the difference (Kushnell and Newton, 1986; Powell, 1990).

### **2.2.6 A Global Review of Gender Inequality in Leadership/Management**

Researchers are increasingly showing a curiosity in women in management matters worldwide, and are reporting on the demographic variations in top management positions by debating the status and circumstances of professional women. The biggest involvement all this has made is surely in creating awareness of women's academic and professional contributions. Nevertheless, women worldwide are still holding secondary positions, are still underused in the labour market, and are still a wasted resource.

In the United States (US) the Civil Rights Act of 1964 increased the proportion of women in non-traditional male dominated occupations, thus lifting the overall number of women managers. Yet women's advancement into top-level positions has been relatively slow since then (Nelson & Michie, 2004). Among the Fortune 1500 companies 95-96% of vice-president level jobs and 93% of all line officer jobs are still held by men (Catalyst, 2000). Within the Fortune 500 companies, only one in eight corporate officers are women and very few occupy positions of CEO or president (Catalyst, 2000), showing that while women's representation on corporate boards of directors is slowly increasing in the US, barriers to women's advancement still linger (Nelson & Burke, 2000).

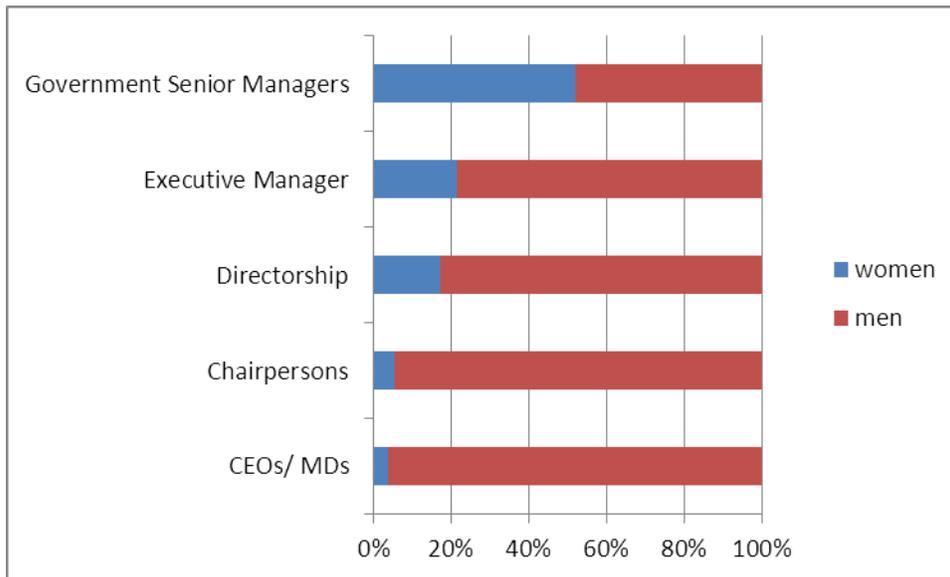
In the UK the growth of women's employment has been only in part-time jobs, predominantly in the service industry. According to Wilson (2004), women in the UK face inequality in the labour force and still lag behind men in income. Although they form 75% of employees in the personal and protective services and sales, women only hold 24% of all management positions, and only 9% of directorships.

Likewise in China, equality remains an elusive ideal and women still face significant challenges in climbing up the managerial hierarchy (Cooke Fang, 2004). Despite the fact that women find the right track to a management career in China, they still fail to be promoted as quickly or as frequently as men. This could be due to current laws and policies empathizing with women through a feudal traditional social values system which tries to defend women by preventing them from setting foot into certain domains of the men's world. These laws and policies may be well-intended, but they exclude women from significant areas of modern life (Cooke Fang, 2004).

According to Dormehl (2012) states that the report 2011 highlights that the most important determinant of a country's competitiveness is its human talent – the skills, education and productivity of its workforce. “Over time, a nation's competitiveness depends significantly on whether and how it utilises its human resource pool. Furthermore, innovation requires unique ideas, and the best ideas thrive in a diverse environment,” says WEF founder and executive chairman Klaus Schwab and the WEF's senior director Saadia Zahidi in the foreword of the 2011 edition.

“Countries and companies will thrive if women are educated and engaged as fundamental pillars of the economy, and diverse leadership is most likely to find innovative solutions to tackle the current economic challenges and to build equitable and sustainable growth.” There is growing global agreement with this belief, yet change remains slow. Women make up 52.0% of the population in South Africa yet only 43.9% of working South Africans are women. Even more telling is that they constitute only 21.4% of all Executive Managers and as low as 17.1% of all Directors in the country as shown in figure 1.1.

**Fig 1.1: Stastical Profile: Women Workforce Representation in %**

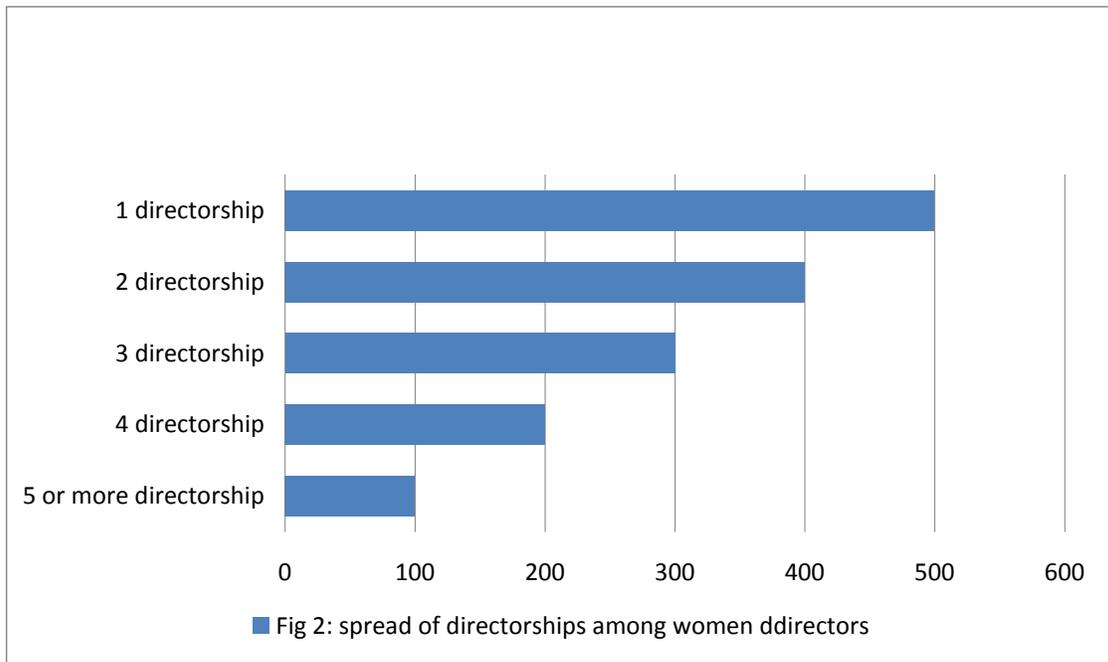


**Source: BWA**

In direct comparison of men versus women in the upper echelon of the workforce portrays a stark reality. Women are clearly in a minority amongst their male counterparts. Women are significantly under-represented in top leadership positions. The absolute numbers indicate 12 women CEOs and 18 women Chairpersons. The absolute number of director positions has increased since 2011 by 97 positions. It is positive to note this increase in women directorships. The number of women in executive management stands at 1 452 (a slight drop since the 2011's 1 461 women).

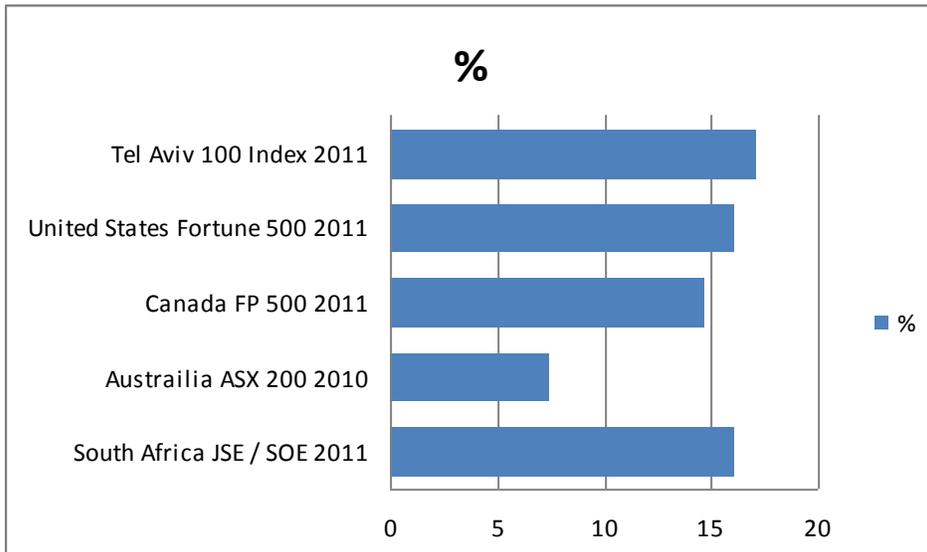
With the stark reality of how small the group of women in leadership positions (Fig 1.1 above), it is positive to focus within the women directorships and see how widespread the number of positions amongst the women is (see Fig 1. 2 below). The numbers appear to be on the increase, albeit it slowly and marginally.

**Figure 1.2: Spread of Directorships among Women Directors**



**Source: BWA**

**Figure 1. 3: South Africa International Directors held by Women**



**Source: BWA**

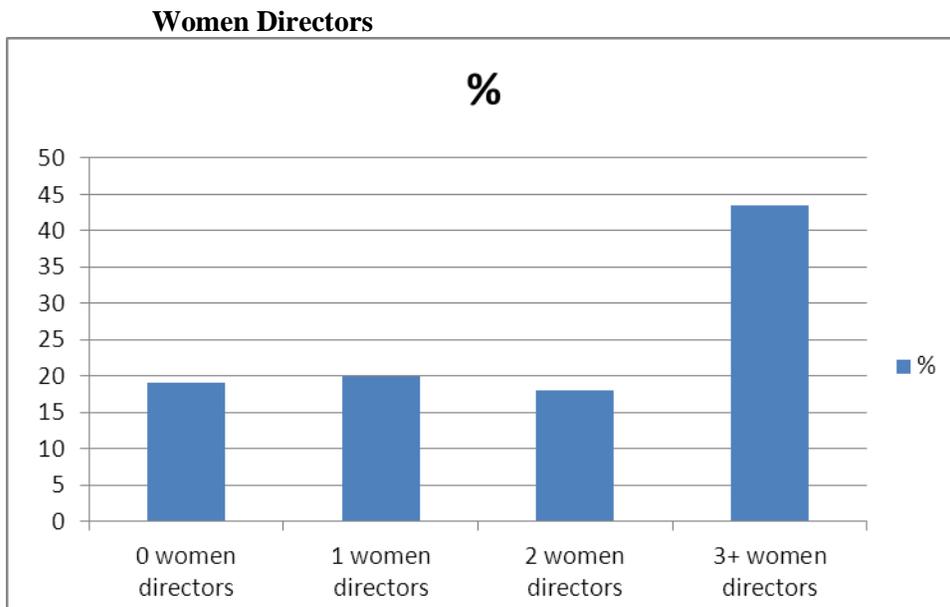
### **2.2.6.1 Directors Results**

For years South Africa has prided itself in measuring up to its international counterparts with regard to women's representation in the boardroom. The Census has consistently maintained that in measuring South Africa's progress towards gender equality in the boardroom, we hold ourselves accountable to our own goals of equal representation. As seen in Fig 3 above, shows that South Africa is leading Australia and Canada in terms of women directorships and is at comparable levels with Israel and the United States.

There is growing consensus that slow, incremental increases are not sufficient. There has been a significant increase in the representation across Europe as countries begin to legislate the required change. There is increasing recognition that a dramatic mind-set change is needed if women's representation is to increase to the required levels. It is positive to note the continued increase of companies with three or more women Directors (see Fig 4 below).

In 2010 there was a percentage increase of 18.4% from the 2009 Census. This year, although not so high, the percentage has increased to 43.5% from 41.6% in 2011. The number of companies with three or more women is progressing steadily toward the 50% mark, a very positive prospect indeed. The decrease in companies with zero women directors reflects the strides South African companies are making to ensure the inclusion of women on boards.

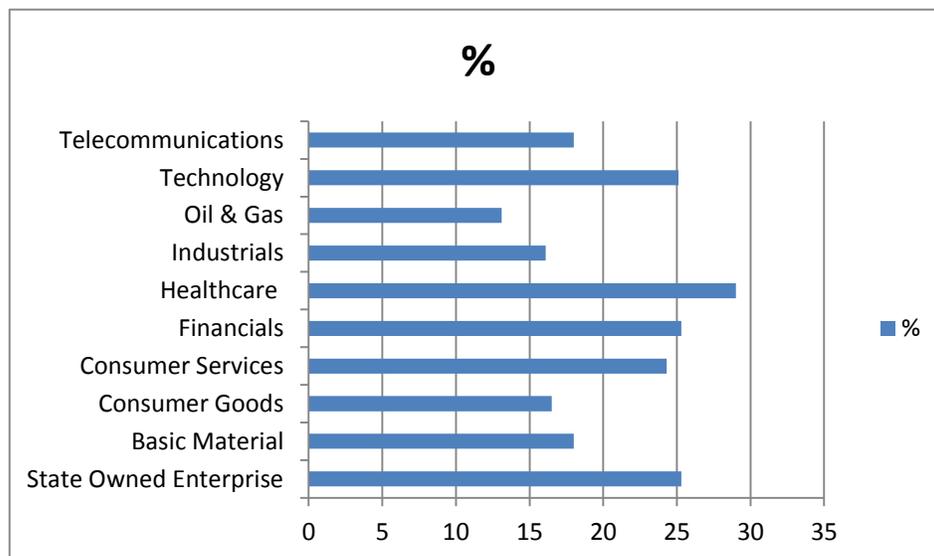
**Figure1. 4: Percentage of Companies with Zero, One or Multiple**



**Source: BWA**

**Figure1. 5: Percentage of Executive Managers that are Women: JSE –**

**Listed Companies and SOEs by Industry**



**Source: BWA**

### 2.2.6.2 Executive Manager Results

For the purpose of the Census, Executive Managers were defined in one of four ways. They are managers who:

- ❖ Have a significant leadership role in the organisation;
- ❖ Have control over day-to-day operation;
- ❖ Have decision-making powers; and, usually, but not necessarily, report directly to the board of directors.

As is the case in the 2011 Census report, South Africa continues to have one of the highest numbers of women Executive managers when compared to its international counterparts. Although Healthcare showed a significant increase of 16.6%, all percentages are still below 30%. Industries which have shown significant declines are Industrials and Customer Services.

Industrials show a dramatic drop to 15.8% - lower than the 2009 reporting period of 18.1%. Figure 1.5 above refers. “Given the complexity of the world today and the economic, demographic, environmental and political transformation we face, we must commit to a new mindset, one that discards old prejudices and inertia and instead commits to new ideas and new solutions.

Empowering and education girls and women and leveraging their talent and leadership fully in the global economy, politics and society are fundamental elements of the new models required to succeed in today’s challenging landscape,” says the WEF report. There is a growing international consensus that women’s representation at senior levels must be increases. Southern African Development Community (SADC) members have committed themselves to 50/50 representation in all senior decision-making positions in the public and private sectors by 2015. Achieving this

will require innovative policies, political commitment and urgent action from all South African stakeholders.’

### **2.2.7 Affirmative Action and Discrimination within the Organization**

Affirmative action was legislated as a means to correct the inequality of the past in business particularly by means of considering the employment of citizens based on gender, disability and race. Innes, Kentridge & Perold (1993) describe affirmative action as a set of procedures meant to proactively deal with the difficulties experienced by sections of the society in the history of the country. While it is amended in the Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998, the aim is to make sure that unfair discrimination in the workplace is abolished. Affirmative action procedures are executed to effect the employment and promotion of blacks, disabled people and women.

According to Kemp (1994) the need for affirmative action is underscored by the inability of white managers to manage diversity. Affirmative action not only gets rid off discriminatory practices from the structure, but also endeavors to rectify past imbalances and discrimination. However, on the flip side, affirmative action also has its flaws especially when there is no time lag to it. For example it can actually lead to new forms of discrimination in that some people may be exceptionally privileged at the cost of experience and skills. This also leads to promoting mediocrity.

Fischer (1995) emphasizes that affirmative action should empower all citizens, and that punitive action is counterproductive. Human in Fischer (1995), argues that preferential treatment, with potential as the main criterion when the proposed employee lacks the necessary skills and experience, is only appropriate at the recruitment and selection

interface due to the historically disadvantaged educational opportunities of Black South Africans.

This is supported by Cater (1995) who states that a point comes in the affirmative action procedure where individuals must assume accountability for their own ongoing progression and achievement. A number of the motives behind why organizations have employed affirmative action include *inter alia* survival. Organizations have used affirmative action because the procedure is being supervised by Government and they will if not be able to tender for projects undertaken by parastatals without good affirmative action scores.

According to Sunter (1997) affirmative action is often understood to mean special treatment which requires employers to fairly discriminate against often better or equally qualified whites in terms of the law. Yet there are several disadvantaged nations who require to be accommodated at a rapid rate the effectiveness of the organization remains the bottom line. Sheer numbers have to be taken into account and the ratio of business to population means that it is impossible to offer jobs for all. Part of the equity process of affirmative action is the exclusion of artificial obstructions. These barriers may begin with the recruitment and selection process, advertising for jobs, language barriers and the evaluation process.

Discrimination has surfaced not only as racial discrimination but in a sexual context as well. Discrimination against women has been an integral part of the corporate world and will take a long time to be eliminated. In the working environment women employees

come across two types of men, those who do not accept women's equality or perspective and those who believe they are being kind and caring when they give women fewer tasks.

More importantly these obviously sexist patterns of behavior result in men being preferred above women. As a result women are significantly underrepresented in management and are over determined in positions with fewer prospects for upward mobility and growth. Regardless of the new political dispensation, women in the working environment are still the sufferers of a patriarchal society and chauvinistic attitudes on the part of men workers (Sunter, 1997).

Government departments have prepared extraordinary plans for working towards gender equality by putting programmes in place to move forward the position of women. The Commission for Gender Equality has also been established for this principle and its duty is to make sure that the privileges of women will be treasured and executed in South Africa to examine and analyze the policies and practices of state and statutory bodies at all levels and to investigate all gender related issues. It will make sure that public and private sectors dedicate themselves to eliminating discrimination against women and actively encourage equality.

The perspective of women in South Africa has only begun to be recognized, and much work still needs to be done to attain gender equality in both society and the corporate world. Affirmative action has transformed the demography of the working environment significantly. The employment of previously disadvantaged communities has diversified the employees and this has placed strong emphasis on the management diversity, which may be a stress in itself. What is needed from women leaders is the ability and skills to

manage and handle the diversity surrounding them, and especially to change from within. This transformation is a change of heart, perception and values (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

### **2.2.8 Gender Differences in Leadership**

Theories and researchers have avoided discussions of gender-driven individuals' difference issues that add to the gender segregate. Several researchers were thought to be extremely uncomfortable with this part of their study (Beall, Eagly & Sternberg 2004). Academics have frequently contended that women and, men do not vary (Bartol & Martin, 1986). They should be equipped and developed for leadership roles in a similar way. However developing men and women leaders with similar techniques disregards some differences that are present between men and women based on life familiarity and gender socialization. It is believed that men and women will have had related opportunities and experiences.

It also assumes that men and women will be perceived in the same way for exhibiting similar behaviours, an idea that is not supported for a range of activities including networking (Forret & Dougherty, 2004), the expression of anger (Brescoll, 2007) and entrepreneurship (Govender & Bayat, 1993). Investigation is required to know how gender differences influence leadership appearance, selection and development in order to support women in becoming executive managers and breaking into top levels of management. Other researchers have started to examine gender differences with focus on the contextual models that make the differences between genders significant. The progression in this part of the investigation is important as it continues to improve our understanding of the differing experiences of men and women in the working

environment. It is these differences that are leading us towards an improved understanding of the behaviours that propagate support for men versus women leadership.

Eagly, Hohannesen-Schimit & Van Engen (2003) published a Meta-analysis wherein they observed the leadership styles of men and women. They found that women leaders were more likely to engage in transformational leadership behaviours, a type of leadership found to be more effective compared to other leadership styles. Still women leaders are evaluated less favourably than men particularly in situations that are male dominated and strongly hierarchical.

Findings that explain successful leadership and management strategies for men versus women are useful for our understanding of leadership development. Researchers and practices are gaining insights into how to amend the landscape of top-level management. It is not adequate to examine leadership effectiveness in its current form, and then to use existing models of leadership to build up juvenile women leaders (Sinclair, 1997).

## **2.3 Empirical Literature**

### **2.3.1 Gender Stereotypes**

Differences in self-presentation between men and women are due to both descriptive and prescriptive gender stereotype, and denote differences in how women and men actually are and denote norms about how men and women should behave or should be (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Rudman & Glick, 2001). Moreover, the descriptive and prescriptive stereotype for men and women overlap in that the behaviour that is prescribed for each gender is positively related to the attributes that are valued. Women are supposed to be

socially sensitive. Kindness, thoughtfulness, sensitivity and other stereotypically feminine behaviours that demonstrate a concern for others are referred to as communal. Men on the other hand are supposed to behave in self-assertive fashion. Behaviours such as competence and dominance are termed agentic behaviours and are stereotypically expected from men. Social role theory explains the emergence of these characteristics. According to social role theory, behavioural gender differences are caused by Socialisation where at a young age males are encouraged and rewarded for being outgoing, and achievement oriented. Conversely, females are taught to be emotionally oriented, and reserved in their interactions with others (Wade, 2001).

When either gender acts in a way inconsistent with these prescriptions they are met with disapproval and penalties. A study has verified that once women ratify agentic behaviours they are alleged to be expert (Rudman, 1998), but they are seen to be less socially skilled and less likable as compared to an identically presented. In the same way, collective men are analyzed as less skilled and hireable compared with agentic men. These things have been labeled backlash and called a catch 22. Backlash is classified as social and economic sanctions for counter stereotypical behavior.

They symbolize a double-edged weapon where it emerges as though women can be punished economically and professionally for acting in ways consistent with successful men. At the same time women are less likely to achieve something and be analysed as skilled if they perform in a firmly collective fashion. On the outside it appears to run counter to women's well-established propensity towards humility. Is there a possibility risk to likeability and significant predictor of selection and progression if women self –

promote? Fortunately it is not as terrible as it appears. Rudman & Glick (2001) found a separation of agentic personality that elicits backlash. Women who are socially dominant, competitive and hostile are disliked because these qualities conflict with attributes of feminine amiability. Applicants that are observed as socially deficient and dislikable suffer hiring discrimination. Self- promotion enhances the attribution of competence. Rudman & Glick (1999) argue that despite of sex, “nice” applicants are rated quite poorly and lose out to more agentic applicants for moreover a female or male type of job.

### **2.3.2 Challenges to Women in Leadership**

A range of issues arise in restraining women’s potential to aspire to positions of leadership. Sadie (2005) maintained that at the bottom of the restrictions that women face is the patriarchal system where decision-making powers are in the hands of males. In this context, traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes concerning the role and status of women in society are still common and many women who are part of this system are finding it difficult to diverge from this culture and tradition they be ostracized. Regardless of women’s education and access to the job market the woman’s role is considered to be the typical one of homemaker. The man on the other hand is the bread-winner, head of household, and has the right to public life.

Confining women’s identity to the domestic sphere is one of the barriers to women’s entry into politics, and politics by its nature catapults one into public life. Commonly cultural attitudes are antagonistic to women’s involvement in politics. Some women were capable of transcending cultural barriers and climbing to positions of leadership whether in politics or other spheres of public life, but more often than not it meant having to cope

with cultural expectations with their leadership roles. The South African government adopted a policy framework which outlines South Africa's vision for gender equality and how it intends to realize this ideal. The office on the status of women developed the policy framework, namely South Africa's National Policy Framework for women's Empowerment and Gender Equality (Kornegay, 2000). The Gender Policy Framework attempts to achieve the integration of gender consideration into the transformation process, which is currently occurring in South Africa. The following principles and guidelines are stipulated in the Gender Policy Framework:

- ❖ When the need arises, additional legislation is to be developed to attain women empowerment and gender equality.
- ❖ The Constitution of South Africa is to enshrine the equality of all people, through a non-sexism and non-racism approach.
- ❖ Women are not a homogenous group. This principle must guide policies and programmes to will result in the implementation of gender equality.
- ❖ Women's rights are to be seen as human rights.
- ❖ All customary, cultural and religious practices and procedures are to be aligned with the right to equality.
- ❖ Affirmative action programme with regards to women empowerment are to be developed and implemented.
- ❖ Policies and procedures that hinder women's access to basic needs, the economy and decision making are to be reviewed and change in terms of gender equality.
- ❖ Economic empowerment of women is to be promoted.

- ❖ Efficient machinery is to be put in place to effect and implement this policy on national and provincial levels, as well as in the private sector.

Current situation in South Africa, legally binding commitment to promote gender equality is very high on the agenda. South Africa was ranked 18<sup>th</sup> out of 115 countries in terms of narrowing the inequality gap between men and women. In terms of political empowerment South Africa was ranked number one in Africa, with 42% of its cabinet ministers and 33% of its members of parliament being women. In terms of the corporate environment the picture seems less impressive. In comparison with 79% men, only 46% women found to be employed in South Africa, it also appears that these women earned on average less than half of that of their male counterparts (Van der Walt, 2007).

The 2008 results of the annual BWA South African Women in Corporate Leadership Census, released in May 2008 proved an eye opener with the introduction of the public sector into the comparative analysis of women's upward mobility in the South African workplace. The percentage of women in government across all salary levels totals 54.76%, indicating a clear majority. Despite the encouraging figures a huge disparity still exists in terms of salary levels with male civil servants still earning far more than their female counterparts at senior management/leadership positions. On the corporate side it is evident that although there has been a steady increase of women in top executive positions, women are still lagging behind their male counterparts within corporate South Africa (Beeton, 2008).

Political activism entails that one travels widely, spend nights away from home, go into bars, and for women it means gathering men. All of these effects are not easily

acknowledged for women in various African societies. Women who contest for public office have to think about the risk of being labeled 'loose' or 'unfit' as mothers and wives and being socially stigmatized. Such thoughts make lots of women introvert away from politics and positions that locate them in the public eye. One more factor which has played a role in countering political support for women is the media (Sadie, 2005). In

Botswana and Mozambique the media over and over again fail to provide coverage to the campaigns of women aspirants or to interview them. Men have also been known to treat women with aggression throughout political crusades. According to Tripp (2003), in the 1996 presidential elections in Uganda there were a lot of instances of threats and pestering of women by men, even husbands, who had contradictory political views. Politically energetic women in that country were threatened with withdrawal of family support, some were thrown out of their homes, and others were murdered.

Emmett (2001) states that life passages of women are not notable or even acknowledged. This is clarifying of the situation attributed to women, starting right from the birth of the girl child in similarity to the boy child, and the chance of women succeeding in society. In various African cultures the customs and rites of passage pertaining to the boy child nurture them for leadership positions, whether at local or national levels of governance in business, politics or public running. Religion is likely to strengthen these cultural norms.

According to Emmett (2001) the majority religions have stereotypical functions for men and women where women are professed as less equal than men, often being kept apart in the way functions are assigned. In her account of women's experience of religion, Emmett examined the ceremonies executed for and by men in diverse religions such as

Hinduism, Islam and Christianity. Her judgment was that men are usually empowered by religion in various ways. Women do not benefit from such dispensation, being disempowered by religious structures and practices.

In other public arenas women's admission to leadership positions has been hindered by favouritism and stereotyping. Women are more or less victimized for being in search of a management position. This is basically due to society's stance toward appropriate male and female functions. In their argument on challenges women face in seeking leadership positions, Grove & Montgomery (2000) argue that compared to men, women receive little or no encouragement to search for such positions. There are also a few social networks, formal and informal, for women such as membership in clubs consequential in a lack of acknowledgment that leads to progress.

Leadership positions entail hard work and long hours. For women this stress is additional to their child care, home and family responsibilities, a phenomenon referred to as the dual shift in Sadie (2005). These considerations are also accurate of women in higher education. In addition to issues of family responsibility that do not make it easy for women to progress, cultural beliefs concerning the roles of men and women inhibit women's progression to top leadership as much it does in politics (Pandor, 2006) pointed out that women at senior level positions are not always helpful to other women who tend to want to sustain the status quo.

For many women the time demands of such positions clash with the demands of the family, and this itself is an obstacle. There are also other structural obstacles beyond culture and religion. Facts from the Danish sample of the Comparative Leadership Study

indicate that certain admission situations and conditions of gender positioning appear to encode admittance to top leadership positions, in business, and in political and public leadership.

Hojgaard (2002) argues that the social milieu of men and women leaders as an admittance stipulation played a particular task in political leadership. The sample of politicians demonstrated that both parents of women leaders had better education and more highly placed jobs than the parents of men politicians. A major finding was that in order for women to obtain top jobs in politics they have to come from a more fortunate social milieu than men. In addition there were differences in career paths between men and women leaders with men being recruited from a wider spectrum of jobs than women. Men also achieve top leadership jobs faster than women.

With regard to conditions of gender positioning, Hojgaard (2002) looked at marital status, presence of children and allocation of work at home. The male leaders were more likely to be married, while a higher proportion of female leaders were divorced or independently living together. Furthermore, a higher proportion of women had no children. The partners of women leaders were also more likely to be full-time workers, while among the partners of male leaders, especially business leaders there was a high proportion of part-time workers and full-time housewives.

Two thirds of male leaders did little or no housework, demonstrating that most male leaders unlike female leaders, are relieved of the weight of with family life, and can dedicate all their energy to their jobs. These findings were very clarifying of the social cost of leadership for women and gender positioning conditions showed in the Danish

study could be applied to African women. It is little wonder that many women are hesitant to take up positions of leadership because of the pressure involved, complementary work, family and domestic violence (Cole, 2006 and Tiggerman, 1999).

In the African perspective the work and family dichotomy is filled with many inconsistencies for women that incite pressure. African women have certain conventional roles to play. They are expected to tolerate and look after children as well as manage the home. At the same time today's African woman is likely to earn a living and contribute to the management of society (BBC News, 2005). In short, McLagan & Nel (1995) referred to current African women as walking a political/gender tightrope, but it is also a leadership and gender tightrope.

Tsitsi Dangarembga from Zimbabwe in her interview with BBC News (BBC News, 2005), said that one of the reasons there are few women in positions of power is a lack of unity among women themselves. She said that since women were vying for limited resources they have a tendency to see other women as a menace and are envious of one another. She further went on to say that women have the potential to bring about transformation, but they lack organization due to lack of time, given their multiple roles as bread winners, wives and mothers. African women also fear to raise their voices and speak out for fear of victimization, allegedly by fellow women, but also by men, given the cultural expectations of what a woman should or should not do.

Dangarembga also pointed out that women fear to excel because it makes them look intimidating. Women who wish to get married have to present themselves as good marriage material by being humble and submissive. One more cause for the complexity

African women have experience in obtaining national and international acknowledgment is their day-by-day struggle for endurance.

Tripp (2001) also found that regardless of the political progress made by women in the 1990s their efforts did not pay off in terms of women being allotted to public office. Women lack the essential financial support or resources often mobilized individually, and publicly and this is another strategic measure applied to include women from politics. In addition they are said to lack too much political familiarity, coolness, education and connections to run for office (Tripp, 2001; BBC News, 2005). The lack of time due to women's reproductive roles is also mentioned as a limitation to women's involvement in leadership (Shayo, 2005). These obstacles are not distinctive to African women. Analogous matters have been raised concerning educated Chinese women.

Qin (2000) in investigating the progress of female college students in China found that several factors combine to restrict their wish to become victorious career women. These comprise traditional discrimination, social pressures, women's kindness to people's misconception of successful women and the propensity of men to prefer family oriented wives. These women even fear being more talented than men and as a consequence shy away from demanding jobs. Women are torn between work and family as they do not want to be housewives, but at the same time are challenged to be super women. They both desire and panic about the opportunities and challenges of the external world.

Expert women in managerial positions face many challenges and those in institutions of higher learning are no exception. McMillan & Schumacher (2001) argue that the socialization of women in the work place arises within a system of power and inequality

and such systems tend to repeat a variety of forms of inequality. In South Africa traditional universities have had corporate cultures that override white male society.

When women join such institutions as leaders they soon comprehend that they are expected to conform or be assimilated to the established culture. After all how can one be admitted to an exclusive club and then contradict the club's core values? McMillan & Schumacher (2001) argue that black women particularly in management are more noticeable, experience more adversity and suffer isolation. Women have to work extra hard as they do not seem to be given the latitude to make mistakes. In many institutions women's achievement of leadership positions has been facilitated by the execution of employment equity policies and affirmative action.

Leadership for women is not a simple task and so, as observed by Morna & Nyakujarah (2010), moving up and staying at the top is not necessarily filled with joy. Other literature on women's leadership in higher education discloses that women are less likely than men to take part in upper levels of leadership. Acker (2000) advances the theory that there is some sort of achievement prevention by women that influences their leadership aptitude or curiosity in leadership positions. Advocacy in the higher education arena has tended to rely upon and react to government legislation on equity rather than being something that women in the sector actively struggle for.

Obviously lots of women do make sacrifices to achieve something whether professionally or individually. For instance, women are expected to take responsibility for bringing up their children, but less parental responsibility is expected of men. As observed by Polly (1998) if women don't care enough for their children they know their children risk neglect. If men don't

care enough they know their wives will. This observation is true for lots of working African women nowadays.

### **2.3.3 Inequality in Education, Employment and Advancement**

The socio-political environment in South Africa is changing rapidly. However, changes in its patterns of education, recruitment, employment, training and advancement are relatively slow (Erwee, 1994), and present day South African women are still facing socio-economic struggles. Affirmative action has only allowed women entry into jobs; it not determined their progress into senior positions. Perhaps suitable qualifications required for promotion into managerial positions such as an MBA might help, but most women lack these. Even qualified women such as university graduates and postgraduates still face difficulties in obtaining employment and subsequently advancing into senior positions in corporate jobs. An MBA has proved quite helpful in advancing women into lower and middle-level management, and has given women distinct advantages in South Africa.

Smith (2004) in an article points out that women in senior positions believe that the MBA has given them the ability to develop in areas where they can add value and develop the confidence to lead others. It further suggests that a good MBA teaches strong interpersonal skills and the ability to empower people which are significant requirements in the changing leadership paradigm. Adele Thomas Director of the University of the Witwatersrand Business School in Johannesburg (WITS Business School) said that for the many women still battling to penetrate the glass ceiling an MBA can help to raise their profile. Why then aren't more women in South Africa pursuing MBAs? A few

South African business schools report that the percentage of women MBA students has increased radically in the last five years, in some cases by as much as 10%.

However many maintain that their representation has remained fairly stable, hovering around the 25-30% mark. Schools that offer both full-time and part-time MBAs report a slightly percentage of women on the full time programme. Additionally the percentage of women on the full time teaching staff of university business schools in South Africa averages only 20% (Marthur -Helm, 2004), as many women have to demonstrate better performance than men counterparts.

Alternatively male students sometimes do not accept them, and create unnecessary challenges and conditions for them to leave their jobs. Consequently, the faculty and administrative staff of the business schools remain predominantly white and male. The prevailing firm belief that women do not show leadership potential and behave differently from traditional male leaders in ways that could be detrimental to themselves and to the organization (Marthur-Helm, 2004), could create obstacles to women's promotional chances.

#### **2.3.4 Government Policy Supporting and Promoting Women's Welfare**

Historically, South Africa had no incentive to promote the job prospects of its women, owing to structural disadvantages caused by male dominated attitudes and behaviours. The discriminatory legislation of the apartheid era had not only given white people racial privileges, but simultaneously permitted discrimination on the basis of gender (Munetsi,

1999) as well. Present government initiatives such as the National Women's Empowerment Policy, the signing of a number of the United Nations Conventions on Women, the Joint Standing Committee on the Improvement of the Quality of Life and Status of Women, aimed at promoting and empowering women.

The Commission on Gender Equality (Booyesen, 1999), the passing of a significant number of laws which touch upon central gender issues such as the writing of the tax tables in 1995, the Breast Feeding Code in 1997, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act in 1996 and the Sexual Harassment Code in the Labour Relations Act of 1996, along with reproductive health and nutrition, equality in education and employment, child care and related policies have successfully brought South Africa's women to the forefront of the work environment and have made them legal equals in the workplace. According to the Employment Equity Commission (2001), only when there is a critical mass of women in all their diversity in both appointed and elected decision-making positions will gender issues be addressed.

Hence, although there is no record of studies showing the correlation between women MPs and women-friendly legislation, there is evidence that women in parliament and government will enhance the promotion of a range of policies and legislation that stand to benefit women. The US and other legislatures with a higher proportion of women pass more laws benefiting children and dealing with women, children and family more generally.

Similarly Scandinavian countries have increased the representation of women in their legislatures, which has led to the introduction of women friendly social policies demonstrating that having women in parliament increases sensitivity to gender issues (Marthur-Helm, 2004). Budlender, Goldman, Samuels, Pigou & Valji (1999) suggest that women in parliament can influence the rules by ensuring that structures and processes are less hierarchical and more participatory and collaborative.

Govender (1998) asserts that with more women in politics the gun culture will be eliminated from political agendas, and certain ideas such as politics as a service to humanity and creating a qualitative difference will be reinstated. Rajab (1999) points out that women's representation in India's parliament made it increasingly sensitive to issues of gender whereas in African countries women MPs have been woefully inadequate in putting a range of women's issues on national agendas (Hassim, 1999). Although there are debates and beliefs that the presence of female decision-makers does influence the outcomes or the issues debated there are disputes that women's issues mainly affect women only, and women's perspectives, on issues differ from those of men (Lovenduski & Karam, 1999) leading to further debate that women have different perspectives on all issues rather than on clear gender issues.

Just as public sectors in many countries have employed women in top administrative positions mainly in women-dominated bureaucracies (Wilson, 2004) the South African Government and its public sector organizations put gender equity into practice by adopting a 30% quota in parliament with the aim of increasing it by 50% by 2005, and increasing women's representation in the government and the public sector, thereby

supporting the government policy of promoting and implementing a range of policies and legislation that stands to benefit women. Thus with more and more women entering politics and government organizations in South Africa owing to government and public sector jobs, it may be assumed that this will result in the increased economic and social well-being of women in the future.

The South African government has made strides in terms of addressing inequalities within the workplace. Nevertheless, the impact of the legislation is yet to be felt by many women. The Employment Equity Act (Act No. 55 of 1998) was implemented in 1999 and was to encourage more female participation in the workforce. According to Marthur-Helm (2002) evidence of greater equity in the workplace suggests a successful outcome. However women still hold fewer jobs and hardly any leadership positions in the corporate world. In addition even fewer women hold top positions in the private sector. This, however, has taken a turn in the public sector where more women are being appointed at very senior positions in government. With 83% of all top management positions in either public or corporate sectors and chief executive positions, three in every four of all senior management positions are filled by men.

### **2.3.5 Black Women in Management Facing Dual Challenges**

Another highlight of South Africa's women in management issues is black women in management. Gender in South Africa is becoming racially and culturally segmented as it takes particular apartheid-related characteristics, thus marginalizing all other forms of discrimination and creating inequality among black and white women, with black women still in the most disadvantaged positions. Thus apart from examining the disparity in

numbers of men and women managers to understand professional women's conditions within all racial groups, it is also necessary to investigate the effects of racism on the status of black women management to understand inequality in the numbers of white and black women in management and the respective power status among them. Studies have suggested that black women have faced and are currently facing a dual challenge in attaining top management positions in South Africa (Tiny & Devanna, 2006).

According to research the occurrence of this phenomenon has also been indicated in the US and thus it is not unique to the South African corporate environment. In the US black women are the largest group of minority women, and the career progress of black and white women in American corporations is dramatically different. The groups of minority women enter the workplace and specifically management positions with dramatically different histories, expectations and experiences as they do not have access to the same power and privilege as their more privileged counterparts, and thus they are likely to have different work experiences, identities and advancement paths. The managerial hierarchy in the USA still consists of white men at the top, then white women, followed by black women, then black men (Davidson & Burke, 2004).

Since apartheid South African organizations have essentially excluded women, particularly black women. Consequently they have been out of the country's economic mainstream, and lacked the collective clout that more established businesses have accumulated during that period. Moreover, black women in particular face greater hardships, owing to the extended family systems and their traditional lifestyles (Erwee, 1994) and lack of opportunities for access to education and training, unlike white women,

who have always had indirect access to economic, social and political power through their alliance with white men, who have not had to face racial discrimination and the patriarchy that is more prevalent in black culture than white culture. Even though both groups of women have experienced gender oppression and discrimination, white women had and still have more advantages than their counterparts.

Looking at the employment figures it is clear that black South African women are worse off, with an unemployment rate of 35% (Commission on Gender Equality, 2012). The Commission on Gender Equality (2001) indicated that fewer than one in four jobs in the private sector were held by women, and most of these jobs were held by white women. Currently in South Africa the representation of black and white women in management is skewed with very few black women employed as managers. According to the Commission on Gender Equality (2001), presently in South Africa reference of broad categories of persons historically disadvantaged by unfair discrimination does not do much about women, especially black women; as they are not mentioned as a preferred category.

Apparently with regard to race, preference is given to black men, with regard to gender, preference is given to white women; and black women fall through the cracks. Thus although the Employment Equity Act treats women as a homogeneous category, black and white women currently have extremely different levels of experience job and development opportunities. In previous studies on the status of black and white women managers (Naidoo, 1997) report over-presentation of white women with them occupying 78% of managerial, executive and administrative positions, and 58% of professional,

semi-professional, technical, sales and clerical positions, compared to black women occupying 83% of service sector, production and related occupations, and 38% of manual work jobs. Thus in the women management group, since black women are placed in a powerless position in obtaining management positions, white women out-number black women, which makes white women the second most over-represented group in management.

Catalyst (2004) reports that of seven women CEO's in South Africa only one is a black woman and the rest are white. With the added dimension of race, black women are dually challenged both as women and as black people, still facing barriers in not only getting corporate jobs but also advancing in corporate careers by attaining top positions. Present day South African women are thus still experiencing not only male dominance but also white dominance in management, as white women are benefiting from gender equity much more than black women who are still disadvantaged.

Management is the combined activities of planning, decision-making and directing others (Larwood & Wood, 2007). Acker (2000) asserts that managers have subordinates, have positions of authority vested in them by the company, and their subordinates work for them and largely do as they are told; they are paid to get things done often within tight constraints of time and money. Furthermore, statistics indicate that few women consider or expect management positions. Theoretical models relating to business and management practices have largely been androcentric that is, male-centred owing in part to males dominating key decision-making positions as well as research processes and the academy. These models have informed the way management is perceived, the roles it is

accorded and the policies that have been put into place by different governments to entrench management practices. However, as stated earlier, recent studies have started to examine the gender dynamics associated with the ways in which managers, as a functional process are viewed. 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 (Bird, 2000; Jacobs, 2002; Northcraft & Gutek, 2003). Additionally, as the U. S. Department of Labour (2001) glass ceiling report illustrates, in similar scenarios women are disproportionately promoted into higher positions. Women represent more than 40% of the world's labour force. 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.

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 in management, they are generally concentrated in lower or middle management positions. Larwood & Wood, 2007, Greenberger, 2006 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 (2003) 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 middle management positions (Dipboye, 2007 and US Department of Labour, 2001)

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 (2000), women managers, like many working women, generally deal with dual career dilemmas working in the public office as well as being responsibilities in the home, and on child-care concerns. Also, as Greenberger (2006) and Lee (2003) documented cases of discrimination and sexual harassment of women managers who have spearheaded organizational 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 encouraging the participation of women in management structures. Dipboye (2007) asserts that in South Africa the transformational goals inherent in affirmative action and equity legislation more generally have centralized 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. This is attributable in part to government structures being easier to monitor and implement gender equity imperatives.

Bell, Denton & Nkomo (2003) 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 and is confined to certain occupational categories. According to Catalyst (2012) states that the Chairperson of the Commission for Gender Equality (CGE) argued that women's representation in top management moved marginally from 13.7% in 2002, to 19.8% in 2012, and at senior management levels, from 21.6% in 2012, to 30.7% in 2013.

Of grave concern, is the lack of growth of women and African representation in the middle management and technical skills categories, which indicates that these figures are unlikely to change in the near future? Dr Loyiso made the point that unless concerted efforts are made to recruit, train and promote representatives from designated groups, transformation will not succeed. The CGE is disappointed at the manner in which transformation measures have been manipulated to advantage certain designated groups, in relation to the finding that white women's representation in all sectors more than doubles that of all women from other designated groups.

The CGE notes comments made by Department of Trade and Industry's Chief Director, Ms Namonde Mesatywa, also a Commissioner with the CEE, in relation to the implementation of BEE objectives, on employers' pursuit of numerical targets, encouraging fronting, as opposed to substantive transformation. In this regard, the CGE welcomes Minister Oliphant's stated assertion that no government tender should be issued to non-compliant companies (Catalyst, 2012).

CEE statistics contained in this Annual Report confirm findings of the CGE in its recent and on-going employment equity public hearings process, which seeks to interrogate and hold employers to account for the poor pace of gender transformation in the workplace. Overall, CGE findings indicate that gender and disability components of employment equity seem to be largely ignored, in contravention of the Employment Equity Act. Employers demonstrate a lack of commitment to gender transformation, with no coherent gender transformation policies, and little evidence of targets and strategies.

The CGE will shortly table in Parliament its employment equity hearings report and recommendations, and engage with the CEE and the Department of Labour in this regard. The CGE welcomes the proposed amendments to the Employment Equity Act to tighten accountability and compliance, with the hope that such measures will ensure that women and women with disabilities in particular, benefit from employment equity and transformation initiatives (Catalyst, 2012).

### **2.3.6 Mentoring**

There is a growing argument that in order for women to thrive in obtaining leadership positions in a workplace mentoring must occur.

- ❖ Mentoring can considerably increase income and promotion potential for individuals experiencing these relationships.
- ❖ Mentoring can convene the needs of both women and the work environment, and it can also help in attracting and maintaining women and minority professionals in the work environment.

- ❖ Mentoring of younger workers increases turnover, assists mentees in dealing with organizational issues, and hastens their absorption into the culture.
- ❖ The mentees (those women being mentored) benefit because someone cares enough to support them, recommend them and assist them construe inside information.

The advantages of mentoring are felt not only by mentees and their organization but by the mentors themselves. The familiarity the fulfilment of passing along hard earned wisdom, influencing the next generation of upper leadership and receiving gratitude from younger workers (Cullen & Luna, 1993, Hagevik, 1998, Whitaker & Lane, 1990). It is not uncommon for women to have men mentors, but the best mentors for women are other women because interacting and sharing experiences and knowledge are important. While male mentors eagerly encouraged women to become leaders, they did not excitedly support them when seeking a position at the secondary level.

The mentoring experience must help women to develop self-esteem, aggressive leadership personalities and non-traditional attitudes about women and employment. The nurturing of attitudes and uniqueness would allow for success in their organizations, whereas their male counterparts displayed qualities that made it easier to advance. The use of mentors to help present and future leaders is a powerful tool that may be used to bring about more effective labour practice (Cullen & Luna, 1993, Daresh & Playko, 1990; Whitaker & Lane, 1990).

- ❖ In the South African situation, the education sector especially at school levels 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, 2000).

### **2.3.7 Management and Gender**

Kincheloe and Steinberg (2007) assert that racial, gendered and class forms of oppression need to be understood in a structural context. There is sufficient evidence that demonstrates that women in leadership positions who display equal education and experience do not earn as much as men in comparable tasks. Singh (2005) and Snipes et al (2008) 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.

The ILO (2008) 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 (2008) also notes that in large companies and organisations where women have achieved high level managerial positions, are usually restricted to 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. The ILO (1998) also refers to these barriers as glass walls. Wirth (2010) 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 2008 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 (2007) 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 (2007) and Legge (2007) therefore suggest that it is conformity to sex and work roles, rather than 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. 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, 2008; Dipboye, 2008; 2007; 2002; Epstein, 2005; Fagenson, 2003; Gordon and Strober, 2005; Henning and Jardim, 2007; Jacobs, 2002; Larwood and Wood, 2007; Miller, 2005; Powell, 2008; 2003; Powell and Butterfield, 2004). 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, 2005).

- ❖ Glorified-secretary hypothesis: Jacobs (2002) 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 (2008) 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 (2000) who 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 (2000) study of bank branch managers is worth recounting here. The findings indicated that the growth of employment in public sector 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 (2007) derive strategies for advancement from the experience of successful female managers. Helgesen (2005) argues that these often result in altering the conditions surrounding the current management masculine bias and creating opportunities for women. As David and Woodward (2008) 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.

- ❖ 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.

## **2.4 Summary of the Chapter**

There has been a concerted effort to ensure female representation at all levels of governance as such representation is recognized as a fundamental human right in many countries, and adheres to the principle of fair democratic representation. So far the main strategies used to address the gender imbalances in the various structures of the public and private sectors are affirmative action, the quota system, where a certain number of positions are allocated to women, and through Presidential appointments. It is assumed that once the situation of gender equality has normalized the attainment of such positions will be through a competitive process. However, it appears that it will take time to get to that stage due to the various challenges that confront women in public places. As indicated by Nair (2004) it is the search and constant yearning for something that has not yet materialized that keeps one on the path of activism. For women and the leadership agenda the ultimate position would be one where affirmative action or positive discrimination, is no longer necessary.

Similarly women themselves have to create an alternative culture that will challenge the embedded traditions that dictate what women should not do or be, especially in the African setting. This will make people uncomfortable but as Hannah Rosenthal, in her speech at the Wisconsin Women in Higher Education Leadership Conference in 2005, as quoted by Santovec (2006) said: “We have to be a little more comfortable with making others a little more uncomfortable, so we can look back in 30 years and say, We did make a difference”.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

A theoretical framework is conceived by this study as the structure that theorizes the research problem, and guides knowledge making process. Traditionally leadership has carried the impression of masculinity, and the principle that men make better leaders than women is still common today. Even though the number of women leaders has improved they are habitually named as afterthought. Hojgaard (2002) states that in a societal gathering concerning gender and leadership, women are traditionally rejected and top leadership is observed as a male sphere. He also argues that the cultural structure of leadership in itself initiates difference and this is only now being distorted as women gain admission to leadership positions. In African culture it is believed that men lead and women follow (Ngcongo, 1993 in Grant, 2005). Nonetheless recent philosophy on leadership assumes that leadership can be taught and learned hence the many leadership training programmes (De La Rey, 2005).

#### **3.2 Theoretical Approach to the Study**

What is the best way of addressing challenges that women in leadership position face? This study is informed by Analytical Framework of Empowerment that also assesses the leadership qualities of women in a transformative way. Apart from this framework, three theoretical lenses conceptualize the concept women leadership. Although there are of course many overlaps in terms of sub groupings and practice, the three theories are used

to shed more light on some of the challenges women in leadership face. The three theories are:

- ❖ Empowerment theory
- ❖ Feminist theories, and
- ❖ Culturally based perspective

### **3.2.1 Empowerment Framework**

This framework is advocated by Greenberger (2006) and Lee (2003) 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 right. 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 (2005) 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 conceptualized in terms of increasing women's and men's abilities to analyze 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 households, community and national decision making are crucial aspects. Also there is a need to reshape social institutions and organizations 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 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 organizations by addressing women's practical and strategic needs.

In a study of Women Principals in Kwazulu-Natal, *Reshaping the Landscape of Educational Leadership*, Asha Rani Pillay in 2005 concluded that the features of the female principals leadership approach is participatory and transformational. The importance of this finding is that it reflects that women as leaders are inclined to the transformational approach because it favours their feminine values of nurturing and caring. In this view, it could be argued that the rationale of empowerment theory should be geared towards enhancing transformative approaches to women leadership.

Merchant (2002) strategic needs are those needs that are formulated from an analysis of women's subordination to men. They focus on strategic 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. The more women earn the more independent they become in terms of their survival and power in decision making.

### **3.2.2 Feminist Political 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 16<sup>th</sup> century (Merchant, 2002). Some political economists are now beginning to pay attention to the interrelation between macro economists are now beginning to pay attention to the interrelation between macro-economic policies and social frameworks (Elson, 2007).

Recently feminist political economists have begun to specifically look at the gender implications of these processes. Schoeph (2002) 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 organizations implies understanding power relations, struggles over access to positions in the workforce who controls the decision making processes as well as how labour is organized.

These aspects are highly gendered and reflect the social construction of gender and the assignment of specific roles responsibilities and expectations to women and to men (Smulders, 2008). Political economists who attempts 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, 2007). Within households, communities and organizations the production processes and control over the means of production are organized in a particular way.

This occurs even if and when evidence suggests that this works against productivity and efficiency (Schoeph, 2002). The feminist political economy approach is in part influenced by examinations of the structures or organisations that exists in society and perpetuate a male bias. This structure centered perspective as articulated by Schoeph (2002) 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 institutionalized 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 (2007) identifies the following key structural factors: discriminatory appointment and promotion practices, male resistance of women in leadership/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 argues us to look at national and international imperatives that shape the existing environment and future intervention options and priorities.

### **3.2.3 Culturally Biased Perspective**

Linked to 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 (2005) state that almost everyone including women is to blame for the pervasiveness of patriarchal values in most societies is still relevant today. In many cases both men and women have internalized 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 emphasized.

The key role concepts are masculinity, femininity and management. Masculinity and femininity are seen to imply different values and 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, 2003). Alternatively the women who make it to management/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 (2008) states that the culture centered perspective argues that gender based social roles, irrelevant to the workplace are carried into the workplace.

He 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. He states that institution 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/leadership positions especially at the senior levels.

Furthermore he concludes that gender relations are kept in place because the actors involved both dominant and subordinate, subscribe to social and organisational reality. Bhatnagar's (2005) study found that the majority of male executives felt that women are "temperamentally unfit for management." Although leaders/managers have become progressively more cautious about expressing such opinions, Collinson (2007) 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 leaders/managers, which control of most institutions toward the unconscious or conscious selective grooming for rank advancements of male subordinates with whom the leaders/managers are more likely to share close friendships.

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 enhances women's empowerment. As indicated earlier the gender relation refers to the relations of power between men and women.

### **3.3 Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter analysed the theoretical framework how it relates to the challenges faced by women in leadership. Empowerment theory was the main theory that informs this study. Given constraints facing women, women as leaders would have been empowered via the use of the transformational approach because it favours their feminine values of nurturing and caring. In this view, it could be argued that the rationale of empowerment theory should be geared towards enhancing transformative approaches to women leadership.

According to Eagly *et al.*, (2003) and Yoder (2001), transformational leadership may be especially advantageous for women because it encompasses some behaviours that are consistent with their demand for supportive, considerate behaviours. Leaders must guide the organization through turbulence by establishing trusting relationships, inspiring their followers and releasing their inherent creativity. Hooper & Potter (2007) argue that a review of the leadership literature reveals an evolving series of schools of thought from “great man” and “trait” theories to “transformational” leadership.

Whilst early theories tend to focus upon the characteristics and behaviours of successful leaders, latter theories begin to consider the role of followers and the contextual nature of leadership. Leaders do not have subordinates, at least not when they are leading. Many organizational leaders do have subordinates, but only because they are also managers. Telling people what to do does not inspire them to follow you.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents findings and discussion from the study on challenges faced by women in management of the public and private sectors in Richards Bay using Foskor and the Department of Labour in Mhlathuze Municipality as case of studies. The objectives of this study were four folds: first, to identify the challenges faced by women leaders/managers in both the public and private sectors in South Africa; second, to examine whether women leaders in the private sector face similar or different challenges from those of public sector; third, to analyze the differences and similarities in the leadership style of women leaders in both the public and private sectors in South Africa, and lastly, to determine how women can best enter and succeed at leadership/management positions in both the private and public sectors in Richards Bay.

The presentation and analysis of data is organized under six main sections: Section 4.2 provides socio-demographic characteristics of respondents; Section 4.3 presents challenges faced by women in leadership positions and Section 4.4 examines similarities and differences on challenges that women leaders faced in the sector basis. Whilst section 4.5 analyzes differences and similarities in the leadership style of women leaders on sector basis, section 4.6 discuss the entrance and success of women leaders in their leadership position. The last part section 4.7 provides the summary of the chapter.

## 4.2 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The study consisted of 80 respondents who explored challenges faced by women in management of both sectors. Table 4.1 illustrates the characteristics of the respondents.

**Table 4.1: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

		Frequency	Percentage
<b>Gender</b>	Male	38	47.5
	Female	42	52.5
	<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Age</b>	20-30	28	35.0
	31-40	36	45.0
	41-50	12	15
	Above 50 years	4	5
	<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Education level</b>	Matric	2	2.4
	Certificate	21	26.3
	Diploma	13	16.3
	Degree	26	32.5
	Post graduate	18	22.5
	<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Employment Experience</b>	Less than 5 years	24	30
	6-10 years	28	35
	11-15 years	16	20
	Above 16 years	12	15
	<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Survey Data, 2013.

The statistics in Table 4.1 show that the number of females interviewed was greater than the number of males. Of 80 respondents, 42 (52.5 percent) were female and 38 (47.5 percent) were male. Breaking a survey of a study at the departmental level on gender basis, the findings show that Foskor has more men (70.58 percent), than the Department of Labour (30.7 percent) while the Department of Labour has more women (69.23 percent) compared to (29.41 percent) revealed at Foskor.

At the departmental level, having a policy relating to career development among women employee could be taken as one among the factor which accounts for having more women in the Department of Labour compared to Foskor. This is because the Department of Labour has policies relating to women managers, while Foskor does not have similar policies. Besides this logic, these explanations cannot explain how this situation originated.

Most notably, the mean age of respondents participated in this study was 34 years of age and the median was 35. The age ranged between 21 to 58 years. The results in Table 4.1 also show that 36 (45 percent) of the respondents were at the age of 31 and 40. This is one of the very effective age group. Its high frequency in this study predicts an active strata for bringing societal change, in all aspects of life such as addressing challenges that face women leaders in their positions.

Apart from gender and age, this study investigated academic qualifications of respondents. The findings of Table 4.1 show that the sample was fairly educated; therefore, equipped to comprehend on issues related to women leadership in the respective sectors. Education plays an important role in understanding peoples' perceptions and attitudes towards women leadership styles, challenges that face women leaders and suggesting best practices to address them.

Breaking a survey on employment experience, it was revealed that of 80 respondents, 28 (35 percent) had an employment experience that ranged between six to ten years of work. This was followed by 24 (30 percent) of them who had less than five years of work experience. Other employment experiences were twenty percent who worked between eleven and fifteen years and fifteen percent who worked above sixteen years. This work experience profile may seem logical towards explaining peoples' experience on how women in those department lead, showing their attitudes and insights on women leadership styles, challenges that face women leaders and suggesting best practices to address them.

#### **4.3 Challenges Faced by Women in Management/Leadership Positions**

Objective number one of this study intended to identify the challenges faced by women leaders/managers in both the public and private sectors in South Africa. Understanding these challenges is a prerequisite to improving the quality of women leadership and for empowering women leaders in the departmental/organizational position.

When research participants' were asked to explain the challenges faced by women leaders/managers in the respective departments, the following main themes were identified, namely, *social and cultural stereotypes, psychological factor, the problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions and lack of networking*. Other mentioned challenges included glass ceiling or glass cliffs, the "Queen Bee" syndrome, negative perceptions on competencies of women leaders among women themselves and lack of confidence.

- **THEME 1: Social and Cultural Stereotypes**

The research respondents agreed that socio-cultural stereotypes are part of the society culture which constraint women leadership in the Department of Labour and Foskor and in Mhlathuze Municipality. One among the NGOs staffs in an interview session said:

*“Despite the Government of south Africa initiatives towards promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination; and implementing affirmative action measures, yet, there is a need to change a mindset among men to appreciate the potential of women in leadership.....”*

(A man aged about 43 years).

Another CBOs staffs commented that:

*...Mh!, “I think people expect and prefer women potentials in leadership. The only set back is that women lack agentic traits such as confidence, aggressiveness and self direction unlike men, because they are communal. Stereotypes about leaders generally resemble stereotypes of men rather than those of women. As a result, women are placed at a disadvantage in most leadership role*

(A woman aged about 33 years).

Participants reported that removing socio-cultural stereotypes involves a transformation in employees’ mindsets, management practices, processes and organizational culture. The challenge women face with gender stereotyping, is that the deep conditioning about

gender has affected their self-esteem and the perception of their own leadership capabilities (Oswald and Chapleau, 2010).

Cultural beliefs also manifest themselves in the working environment. Employees are part of society and they carry with them their cultural beliefs at their places of employment, for example belief that women are inferior to men and thus cannot be leaders/managers over them. Lessing (2004) points out that men have greater credibility as authority figures, whereas women tend to be recognised for stereotypical qualities such as sympathy, creativity, openness and patience, and thus are viewed as less suited for leadership.

▪ **THEME 2: Psychological Factors**

Respondents reported psychological factor as one among the challenges faced by women in the surveyed departments. One of the surveyed department staff during an interview session had this to say;

*...Ah! "I think women suffer from psychological factors as they cannot control their emotions due to short tempered. You know most of these educated young girls are arrogant; and because of this they are not taken seriously by subordinates; sometimes they can be absent without authorization; come late to work and leave early before knock off time...!"*

(A man aged about 54 years).

Another respondent during administering questionnaires argued against that statement when she said that;

*“It is not fair to generalize the mistake of one person to all, women can control their emotions, it is a function of age...look at our matured state, you will realize how confidence we are in every task that we do....”*

(A woman aged about 48 years).

▪ **THEME 3: Balancing Reproductive and Workplace Functions**

Balancing reproductive and workplace functions was also mentioned by respondents as one among challenges facing women in leadership. Helgesen (2005) supports the findings above saying that social issues are challenges that originate from home. Apart from being employees, women as part of the family play a central role of caring for the home. Erasmus (1998) indicates that the attitude of populace in our society revealed that women are essentially nurturers, and homemakers. In the field of employment, a glass ceiling exists for women that they have to prove their capability before they are permitted beyond a certain point.

It was however mentioned that despite that challenge of balancing reproductive and workplace functions, a significant number of women that entered the workforce has increased in numbers over the last two decades (Marthur-Helm, 2002). He however concurs with the view that more women than men are faced with the challenge of choosing between family and their career. The Employment Equity Act No. 55 of the Republic of South Africa (1998) states that even where women are well qualified and experienced, the predominance of men in leadership has resulted in a culture in which men behaviour patterns are perceived to be norms and women often find it difficult to be accepted as equals by their men colleagues.

Other emphasis seen in the result shows that women are respected as men as the mother of nation. Despite this fact, and the fact that employees are professionally trained, yet there is a continued perception among them which views women managers/leaders as unconfident as such need to prove themselves more as leaders/managers to men.

- **THEME 4: Networking**

The women respondents pointed out lack of networking in a boardroom to be one among the setback facing women. Although this study does not compare women leadership from men leadership, yet, it is important to understand that women leaders lack access to social network where informal decisions are taken. As such, it impacts on their formal organizational leadership.

#### **4.4 Women Leaders' Preferences on Particular Leadership Style**

Objective number two of this study intended to examine whether women in leadership in both sectors experience similar or different. On the basis of similarities, the study finds that: women in both sectors suffers from pressure at work and home; negative attitude of men towards them at workplace prevail in both sectors; in both sectors, women leaders lack confidence in their own abilities, and poor gender relations at work, and low self-esteem. Also, in both sectors, women's leadership qualities are recognized.

In terms of differences, the study finds that there are more women in leadership/management positions in the Department of Labour than in Foskor. One implication of this is that women in leadership in Foskor would have less support base to draw support of other female business leaders than their counterparts in the Department of Labour. This is a very significant difference because women in leadership positions need role models who can act as sounding boards, to network with and create normalcy for women in leadership. Given the higher numbers of women

in leadership in the public sector generally, this is less of a problem for those in the public sector compared to those in the private sector. Second, whilst the Department of Labour has training and mentorship programmes in place, Foskor does not have such in place for women in leadership positions. This dovetails into the fact that whilst the Department of Labour has policies relating to women leaders/managers, Foskor does not have similar policies. It would appear therefore that empowering women through mainstreaming them into the public space is skewed in favor of the public sector compared to the private sector.

#### **4.5 Differences and Similarities in the Women Leadership Styles in Sector Basis**

Objective number three of this study intended to examine whether women in the private sector have similar or different leadership style in relation to women from public sector. Understanding the leadership preference in a particular sector is a prerequisite towards understanding some challenges and strengths of women leadership in a particular sector.

Understanding the leadership preference or style of women leaders in a particular sector is a prerequisite towards understanding some challenges that emanate from these leadership styles, and necessitates women leaders empowerment with the right departmental leadership style.

When research participants' were asked to explain whether women in the private sector have particular or preferred leadership styles that is different from those of public sector, the following themes were identified, namely, *leadership style*, and *preferred women leadership styles*.

- **THEME 5: Leadership Style**

Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. What is the best style of leadership? There is no definitive answer to this question, but a number of approaches have been suggested.

Leaders vary their styles depending on the theory that informs their practices, their experience in the field, the issue that needs to be addressed and so forth. When research participants were asked on what type of leadership style do women use? Majority of the surveyed respondents, 76 percent of them argued that women as leaders are inclined to the transformational approach. This is because transformative leadership favours their feminine values of nurturing and caring. This however was neglected by one among the surveyed department staffs during an interview session who said;

*...Ah! "I think women prefer situational leadership. In situational leadership there is no "best" style of leadership. Women leadership varies depending on the task, job or function that needs to be accomplished ...!"*

(A man aged about 36 years).

Since this study revealed that majority of respondents, 76 percent view women leadership to incline to the transformational approach because it favours their feminine values of nurturing and caring.

According to Burns, transforming leadership is a process in which "leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation". It is not based on a "give and take" relationship, but on the leader's personality and ability to make a change through example, articulation of an energizing vision and challenging goals. Transforming leaders are idealized in the sense that they are a moral exemplar of working towards the benefit of the team, or community. Bass (1985) extended the work of Burns (1978) by explaining the psychological mechanisms that underlie transforming and transactional leadership. According to him, the extent to which a leader is transformational is measured first, in terms of his influence on the followers. Thus, Bass (ibid) focuses upon the connections formed between leaders and followers.

When research participants' were asked to explain whether women in the private sector had similar or different leadership style in relation to women from public sector, it was authenticated that women leaders from both sectors utilized the transformational approach to leadership. However, compliments of efficiency and effectiveness in their leadership style were more awarded to women in private sectors compared to women in public sector in terms of service delivery.

#### **4.8 Women Leaders Entrance and Success at Leadership or Management Positions**

Objective number four of this study intended to determine how women can best enter and succeed at leadership/management positions in both the private and public sectors in Richards Bay. When research participants' were asked to explain how women can best enter and succeed at leadership/management positions in both the private and public sectors, majority of respondents (78.2 percent) argued that their entrance depends on their individual knowledge, skills and experiences. Apart from both academic qualification, and work experiences, two themes were suggested to have increased their success in the departments. The identified themes were availability of *engendered policies* in the department and *women empowerment strategies* through *mentorship programme*.

- **THEME 6: Engendered Policies**

The findings of this study revealed that there were more women in leadership or management position in the Department of Labour than in Foskor; and this disparity, is related to fact that the Department of Labour has policies relating to women managers/leaders, while Foskor does not have similar policy. Equally important, whilst the Department of Labour has training and

mentorship programmes in place, Foskor does not have such programme for women in leadership positions.

The respondents from Department of Labour agreed that they are sent for training in their various areas of job specialization and that they are equally mentored revealing the following responses “that managers are empowered through training and development; bursary and leave allowances are provided during such training period; it broadens your areas of skills and knowledge and gives you time to master your area of profession”.

Cullen & Luna, 1993, Hagevik, 1998, Whitaker & Lane, 1990 support the assertion above that although there are challenges and obstacles as faced by women leaders due to their day to day basis while striving to get the best in mentoring. The mentoring experience would help women to develop self-esteem, aggressive leadership personalities and non-traditional attitudes about women and employment. The nurturing of attitude and uniqueness will also allow for accomplishment in job performance in the organisation, whereas their men counterparts will display qualities that will make it easier to advance.

The use of mentors would help to present future leaders as powerful tool that may be used to bring about effective labour practices. In order for women to thrive in obtaining leadership positions in a workplace, mentoring must be observed. The mentoring experience should be incorporated into the organizational policy as to make it a normal operation in the organizational job performance; as each employee will do best in job specification.

When the employees are trained and mentored there is self-esteem and confidence in executing their obligations. The views above as stated by respondents would help to devise mechanisms for assigning key roles to employees in order to achieve managerial goals. Eagly *et al.*, (2003) argue that government departments have prepared extraordinary plans for working towards gender equality by putting programmes in place to advance the position of women. The Commission for Gender Equality has also been established for this purpose.

#### **4.9 Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter presented the findings and discussion from the study on challenges facing women leaders in management of the public and private sectors in Richards Bay using Foskor and the Department of Labour in Mhlathuze Municipality as case of studies. Domestic constraints, psychological factors, socio-cultural factors, and attitudes of staff members were among the factors that challenged the leadership potentials of women leaders.

In the same token, the study revealed that majority of women leaders utilizes the transformational approach to leadership. The use of this approach was grounded by the fact that it favours women feminine values of nurturing and caring. Apart from utilizing the transformational approach to leadership, compliments of efficiency and effectiveness in their leadership style were more awarded to women in private sectors compared to women in public sector in terms of service delivery.

In addition, the study revealed that there were more women in leadership or management position in the Department of Labour than in Foskor; and this disparity, is related to fact that the Department of Labour has policies relating to women managers/leaders, while Foskor does not

have similar policy. Equally important, whilst the Department of Labour has training and mentorship programmes in place, Foskor does not have such programme for women in leadership positions

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides a summary of the study key findings, main conclusions; and recommendations on the study that investigated challenges faced by women leaders in leadership position in both the public and private sectors. It also proposes areas for further research.

#### **5.2 Summary of the Study**

A descriptive case study research method was undertaken in uMhlathuze municipality, KwaZulu-Natal province to investigate challenges faced by women leaders in leadership position of the public and private sectors in the Department of Labour and Foskor with the purpose of addressing policy intervention and strategies to improve women leaders' competence in the province.

A combination of both secondary and primary sources of data was collected for this study. The instruments used for collecting primary data were questionnaires and face-to-face interviews schedules. Secondary data was obtained from different sources including the library of the University of Zululand, Ministry of Labour as well as Civil Society Organizations and Non-Governmental organization focusing on women affairs. Overall a total of 80 respondents were included in the study. The following is the summary of the study key findings.

### **5.3 Summary of the Study Key Findings**

#### **5.3.1 Challenges Faced by Women in Management/Leadership Positions**

Apart from the fact that there are few women leaders in leadership positions in the private sector compared to the public sector, the study findings showed that women leaders/managers in the respective departments, are faced by a number of challenges such as *social and cultural stereotypes, psychological factor, the problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions and lack of networking.*

Other mentioned challenges included glass ceiling or glass cliffs, the “Queen Bee” syndrome, negative perceptions on competencies of women leaders among women themselves and lack of confidence. In an attempt to discuss the identified main themes, it was reported that stereotypes about leaders generally resemble stereotypes of men rather than those of women. As a result, women are placed at a disadvantage in most leadership role.

Apart from understanding challenges facing women in leadership or management position in the public and private sectors, this part went on to explore the similarities and differences in the challenges facing women in leadership or management position. On the basis of similarities, the study finds that: women in both sectors suffers from pressure at work and home; negative attitude of men towards them at workplace prevail in both sectors; in both sectors, women leaders lack confidence in their own abilities, and poor gender relations at work, and low self-esteem.

### **5.3.2 Women Leaders' Preferences on Particular Leadership Style**

Leadership style as one among the study themes was conceptualized as the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. In an attempt to examine whether women in the private sector had particular or preferred leadership styles that is different from those of public sector, the study findings showed that women leaders from both sectors utilized the transformational approach to leadership. The use of this approach was grounded by the fact that it favours women feminine values of nurturing and caring, since most of them revolve around the communal idea.

### **5.3.3 Differences and Similarities in the Women Leadership Styles in Sector Basis**

The study authenticated that there was no significant difference in the women leadership styles in both sector. Apart from using the transformational approach to leadership, women leaders also abided with the organizational policies which informed their decisions. However, compliments of efficiency and effectiveness in their leadership style were more awarded to women in private sectors compared to that of public sector in terms of service delivery.

### **5.3.4 Women Leaders' Entrance and Success at Management Positions**

The study revealed that there were more women in leadership or management position in the Department of Labour than in Foskor; and this disparity, is related to fact that the Department of Labour has policies relating to women managers/leaders, while Foskor does not have similar policy. Equally important, whilst the Department of Labour has training and mentorship programmes in place, Foskor does not have such programme for women in leadership positions. Participants for this study argued that use of mentors would help to present future leaders as powerful tool that may be used to bring about effective labour practices

## **5.4 Conclusions**

In the light of the study findings, it can be concluded that while women have the potential and ability to be leaders to perform at the top level of public life, the vicious cycle of challenges against their leadership trajectory often constrain their success. Apart from internal factors among themselves, external factors such as *social and cultural stereotypes, the problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions, and lack of networking* have contributed significantly on constraining their leadership success. Since women leaders from both private and public sectors utilized the transformational approach to leadership because it was grounded by the fact that it favours their feminine values of nurturing and caring, it is therefore imperative to enhance their empowerment via changing institutional and corporate structures, processes and procedures, as well as transforming the attitudes of men and women towards women in management and leadership positions. By doing so, a more enabling, women-friendly working environment will be created, and their potentials realized.

## **5.5 Recommendations**

Based on the study findings, the following are recommended for different groups:

### **5.5.1 Recommendations to Women Leaders**

First, since some of the women leaders are afraid of failure especially those who start their leadership trajectory path, there is a need to encourage them to work through the moments of self-doubts, by commending them to ignore that inner voice that may discourage taking tough decision, speaking up and getting outside their comfort zone.

Second, neither trying to act like a man guarantee success for a women leader nor allowing her “feminine” qualities to stand in the way of getting things done is recommended either. The study recommends women leaders to stay focused on departmental or organizational goal.

Third, since women leaders often lack the support of other female based workers or leaders, there is a need of establishing women based networks, and networking events as well as online forums to support and promote each other.

### **5.5.3 Recommendations to Institutional Leaders**

Fourth, removing socio-cultural stereotypes on women leaders involves not only a transformation in employees' mindsets but also management practices, processes and organizational culture. The body of trustees should develop institutional strategies to forge love, self-respect and trust with the departments or organizations.

### **5.5.4 Recommendations to the Government**

Fifth, despite the government initiatives that aimed at empowering women on various aspects including leadership posts, it has failed to address social cultural stereotypes of women leadership, as such compromising with access and success of women in leadership opportunities. The study therefore recommend for reviewing the existing women empowerment policy in order to reflect the true situation, and lastly the government should create a women leadership platform or network in order to let women share success and challenges they face in their leadership practices

## **5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies**

It would be pertinent to further explore the dynamics of women in leadership/management positions in the public and private sectors in South Africa on a wider scale than this study has done. The challenges they face and the issue of what values of leadership women bring in compared to men to justify calls for more inclusion of women in leadership positions also merits further study.

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## APPENDIX A

**UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ETHICS  
COMMITTEE**

(Reg No: UZREC 171110-30

Website: <http://www.uzulu.ac.za>

Private Bag



**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND**

X1001

KwaDlangezwa 3886

Tel: 035 902 6645

Fax: 035 902 6222

Email: [dviljoen@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:dviljoen@pan.uzulu.ac.za)

**ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

<b>Certificate Number</b>	<b>UZREC 171110 – 030 PGM 2012/5</b>						
<b>Project Title</b>	<b>A comparative study of the challenges faced by women in the public and private sector in KwaZulu Natal: The cases of Foskop and Department in Mhlathuze Municipality.</b>						
<b>Principal Researcher/Investigator</b>	T. I. Maseko						
<b>Supervisor and Co - Supervisor</b>	Prof. E. Contogiannis			Dr. Chris Isike			
<b>Department</b>	Business Management						
<b>Nature of Project</b>	Honours/4 <sup>th</sup> Year		Masters	x	Doctoral		Departmental

The University of Zululand’s Research Ethics Committee (UZREC) hereby gives ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project proposal and the documents listed on page 2 of this Certificate. Special conditions, if any, are also listed on page 2.

The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this Certificate, using the reference number indicated above, but may not conduct any data collection using research instruments that are yet to be approved.

Please note that the UZREC must be informed immediately of

Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the documents that were presented to the UZREC

Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UZREC in the prescribe format, where applicable, annually and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

The table below indicates which documents the UZREC considered in granting this Certificate and which documents, if any, still require ethical clearance. (Please note that this is not a closed list and should new instruments be developed, these may also require approval.)

Documents	Considered	To be submitted	Not required
Ethical clearance application form	X		
Project proposal	X		
Informed consent from participants	X		
Informed consent from parent/guardian			X
Permission for access to sites/information/participants		x	
Permission to use documents/copyright clearance			X
Data collection/survey instrument/questionnaire	X		
Data collection instrument in appropriate language			x
Other data collection instruments		Only if used	

Special conditions: Documents marked "To be submitted" must be presented for ethical clearance before any data collection can commence.

The UZREC retains the right to

Withdraw or amend this Certificate if

- Any unethical principles or practices are revealed or suspected
- Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
- Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
- The conditions contained in this Certificate have not been adhered to

Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project

The UZREC wishes the researcher well in conducting the research.



**Professor Rob Midgley**  
**Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Research and Innovation**  
**Chairperson: University Research Ethics Committee**  
 5 June 2012

## APPENDIX B

**Faculty of Commerce  
Administration & Law  
Research Committee (FCALRC)**

**The Manager  
Foskor**



## **University of Zululand**

Private Bag X1001, KwaDlangezwa, 3886

### **Committee Members**

Prof N Van den Bergh [nvande@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:nvande@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Prof E Contogiannis [econtogi@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:econtogi@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Prof A Banjo [abanjo@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:abanjo@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Ms V Mnthambo [vmnthambo@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:vmnthambo@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Mr A Williams [awilliam@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:awilliam@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Ms T Oosthuizen [toosthui@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:toosthui@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Mr C Van Heerden [cvanhe@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:cvanhe@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Dr I Kaseeram(chair) [ikaseera@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:ikaseera@pan.uzulu.ac.za)

22/8/12

**Dear Sir/Madam**

**Ms TI Maseko: A *bona fides* Research Masters Student**

I the undersigned, hereby confirm that Ms TI Maseko, student number 19981130 is *bona fides* research masters student in the Business Management discipline pursuing a M Com degree.

On 25 August 2011 the proposal titled: *A comparative analysis of the challenges faced by women in management in the public and private sectors in Richards Bay: the cases of Foskor and Department of Labour (Mhlathuze Municipality)*, was accepted by the Faculty Board and then it was subsequently ratified by the Higher Degrees Committee. On the 5 June the University of Zululand Research and Ethics Committee formally issued an ethical clearance certificate (see attachment), which indicates that the committee is satisfied that the researcher will take the necessary measures to abide by the ethical standard set by the government and followed by the university.

Her study requires her to interview all managers (both male and female) of the various divisions and departments of both the mentioned institutions. The interviews will be in the form of structured interviews where tape recorders will be used. The actual recordings will be accessed only by the researcher and the supervisor who have pledged in writing not to divulge any personal information that will be detrimental to any persons related to the mentioned companies. Any of the institution or interviewees may choose at any time to opt out of the interviews.

We will be most grateful if you could grant her the necessary permission to conduct her study.

Should you require further information do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Dr Irrshad Kaseeram  
Research Committee Chairperson:  
Faculty of Commerce, Admin and Law

## APPENDIX C

Faculty of Commerce  
Administration & Law  
Research Committee (FCALRC)

The Manager  
Department of Labour



## University of Zululand

Private Bag X1001, KwaDlangezwa, 3886

### Committee Members

Prof N Van den Bergh [nvande@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:nvande@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Prof E Contogiannis [econtogi@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:econtogi@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Prof A Banjo [abanjo@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:abanjo@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Ms V Mnthambo [vmnthambo@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:vmnthambo@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Mr A Williams [awilliam@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:awilliam@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Ms T Oosthuizen [toosthui@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:toosthui@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Mr C Van Heerden [cvanhe@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:cvanhe@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
Dr I Kaseeram(chair) [ikaseera@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:ikaseera@pan.uzulu.ac.za)

22/8/12

Dear Sir/Madam

**Ms TI Maseko: A bona fides Research Masters Student**

I the undersigned, hereby confirm that Ms TI Maseko, student number 19981130 is *bona fides* research masters student in the Business Management discipline pursuing a M Com degree.

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We will be most grateful if you could grant her the necessary permission to conduct her study.

Should you require further information do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Dr Irrshad Kaseeram  
Research Committee Chairperson:  
Faculty of Commerce, Admin and Law

## APPENDIX D

### UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND



A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE CHALLENGES FACED BY WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS IN KWAZULU NATAL: THE CASES OF FOSKOR AND DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR IN MHLATHUZE MUNICIPALITY.

**Supervisor**

Prof. Terry Contogiannis  
[econtogi@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:econtogi@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
035 902 6431

**Co-supervisor**

Dr. Chris Isike  
[cisike@pan.uzulu.ac.za](mailto:cisike@pan.uzulu.ac.za)  
035 902 6572

**Researcher**

Miss Thembelihle Innocentia Maseko  
[cyamthanda.sekos@gmail.com](mailto:cyamthanda.sekos@gmail.com)  
073 459 9076/ 035 902 6886

### INFORMED CONSENT

I am Thembelihle Innocentia Maseko, a Masters student at the University of Zululand. I am undertaking a study titled “A Comparative Analysis of Challenges Faced by Women in Management in the Public and Private Sectors in KwaZulu Natal”: A Case of Foskor and Department in uMhlathuze Municipality. The main aim of this study is to investigate the challenges faced by women leaders/managers in both public and private sectors in KZN with a focus on Foskor and Department of Labour respectively in uMhlathuze Municipality.

I require your participation in my study as respondents to my research questions. Please note that your participation in this study is voluntarily and that it will not cause any harm as whatever information you provide will remain strictly confidential between you and I. I pledge that I shall ensure anonymity where required and as agreed between us through the use of code names.

You are free to withdraw from this study at any time of your choice without any negative or undesirable consequences to you.

Researcher

.....  
Maseko T. I. (Miss)

Respondent

.....

## APPENDIX E

### QUESTIONNAIRE

#### STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

#### SECTION A

##### 1. Characteristics of Respondents

<b>1.1 Gender</b>	Female	Male				
<b>1.2 Marital status</b>	Single	Married	Divorced			
<b>1.3 Age</b>	25-30yrs	31-40yrs	41-50yrs	Over 50yrs		
<b>1.4 Race</b>	African	Indian	White	Colored		
<b>1.5 Employment Experience</b>	Less than 5yrs		6 -- 10 yrs	11 ---- 15 yrs	Above 16 yrs	
<b>1.6 Experience in management Position</b>			1----3 yrs	4---6 yrs	Above 7yrs	
<b>1.7 Highest Qualification</b>	Matric	Certificate	Diploma	Degree	Post Graduate Degree	Other, please specify

#### SECTION B

##### 2. Challenges Faced by Women in Management/Leadership Positions

Question One: What challenges are faced by women in leadership/management position?

##### 3. Policies and Programmes aimed at Eliminating Gender Discrimination

Question Two: Are there policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

Question Three: Do the organisation use gender terminology when advertising vacancies?

##### 4. Leadership Styles

Question Four: How women can best enter and succeed in leadership/management positions?

Question Five: How women manage conflict in a working environment?

##### 5. Leadership Training and Mentorship Programmes

Question Six: Are there any training programmes in your organisation?

Question Seven: Are women mentored in your organisation?