

**AN INVESTIGATION OF THE BARRIERS THAT IMPEDE THE CAREER
ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT**

by

Parvathy Reddy

**Submitted in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of**

Masters of Economicae



in the

**UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE**

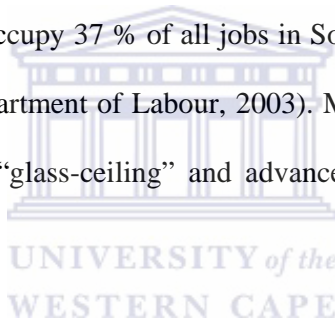
**Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences
Department of Industrial Psychology
of the
University of the Western Cape**

May 2006

Supervisor: Dr L. Bosman

ABSTRACT

Women have been working for generations and form a vital component of the economically active labour force. Yet, their labour was rarely acknowledged or taken seriously in the workplace (Jano, 2000). In recent years the number of women entering the labour force has increased significantly throughout the world (Govender, 1997), reflecting the changing status of women in society (Chi-Ching, 1995). A large number of women are presently seeking management positions as a result of their participation in the labour force, greater access to educational programmes and involvement in affirmative action programmes (Wentling, 1992). Notwithstanding an increase in the number of women attaining management positions, the actual growth has only been in traditionally female roles or in junior level positions. Statistics indicate that women occupy 37 % of all jobs in South Africa, yet only 13,7 % hold top management positions (Department of Labour, 2003). Moreover, not many women have managed to move beyond the “glass-ceiling” and advance into management or executive positions (Foster, 1994).



Documented research gives the impression that many of the women denied access to top management positions are capable and meet the criteria for promotions as men, yet they continue to remain in junior and middle management positions.

The aim of this study is to investigate the career barriers women experience in the workplace and what obstacles they perceive to exist that inhibits their advancement within organisational structures. More specifically, this study aims to investigate the barriers that impede the career advancement of women in relation to age, race, marital status and job levels.

The population (n = 125) consists of professional female accountants in management positions from assistant manager to director/partner levels. All hundred and twenty five women in management were solicited to participate in the study. The sample of 75 (n = 75) include women from offices throughout the Western Cape.

Statistical analyses involve both descriptive and inferential statistics and include Analysis of Variance. The data was also subjected to a Scheffe's Test to determine the extent of the differences in opinions and perceptions. A demographic questionnaire was designed by the researcher to obtain relevant biographical data. The Career Barriers Inventory – Revised (CBI-R) was used to establish the barriers had impacted on women's career progression in the organisation.

The barriers which most women perceive and experience in the organisation are identified as racial discrimination, followed by sex discrimination and job market constraints. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in experiences of sex discrimination based on age for selected career barriers. With regard to marital status “job market constraints and lack of confidence as barriers appear strongly. With respect to race, “sex discrimination” and “racial discrimination” appear strongly. In relation to post levels, “job market constraints” and “dissatisfaction with career” show statistically significant differences.

Key words:

Career barriers; career-development; internal-barriers; external-barriers; role conflict; glass-ceiling; age-barriers; gender discrimination; gender-stereotypes; race-discrimination

DECLARATION

The researcher hereby declares that this whole thesis, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is her own work.



.....

Parvathy Reddy

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

“Have the dream to fly
the determination and perseverance to stay airborne,
be guided whilst navigating your course,
through the turbulent winds of life”
(Naidoo, 1993).

Firstly, I want to thank GOD for giving me the strength, courage and determination to persevere with this endeavour which presented many challenges.

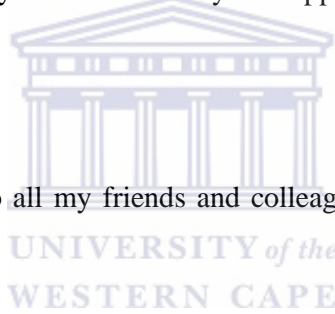
I dedicate this project to my husband, Michael for his understanding, support and unconditional love. His patience, sensitivity and tolerance throughout this period warrants him co-authorship of this dissertation. His invaluable assistance, discerning ear and computer skills was and will always be greatly appreciated. My heartfelt thanks goes to my three beautiful daughters, Kumarshree, Yugandrie and Verushka for their love, support and understanding during this past year, who I'm sure prayed very hard for the completion of this project so that they could have their mother back. Girls, you were the veritable wind beneath my wings.

I also want to thank two other very special people, my sister Kay and brother-in-law, Gavin for their support and love from afar. Your prayers, motivation and encouragement to finish the race was always a source of comfort. Moreover, I dedicate this dissertation to my late mom who always impressed upon her children the value of education despite our own difficult circumstances.

I would also like to thank the many people who had a direct and indirect role in my completing this project. Firstly, I thank Dr. L. Bosman for his guidance, and support in taking me through the rigorous processes involved in preparation for submission of this dissertation. Your hands-on approach and eagerness to be fully involved every step of the way was always appreciated. Furthermore, I want to express my sincere appreciation to Mr Karl Heslop for providing statistical support, Prof Anthony Naidoo for his telephonic assistance and Ms Zona Koen for her invaluable assistance during the very many long hours of “searching” at the library.

My heartfelt gratitude also goes to Lean Erasmus who so willing took care of the many chores at home while I was busy. Lean without your support this goal would have been so much more difficult to achieve.

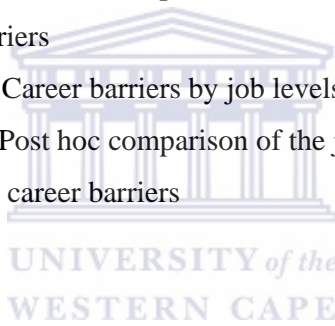
My sincere appreciation goes to all my friends and colleagues who continued to encourage me throughout this past year.



Lastly, I thank the management and staff at the auditing firm where the research was conducted. Without their permission and participation this study would not have been possible.

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Employees by occupational level from for 2000 to 2003
Table 3.1	Characteristics of the 13 CBI-R scales
Table 4.1	Descriptive statistics for the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised
Table 4.2	ANOVA: Career barriers by age
Table 4.3	Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the age of respondents in relation to career barriers
Table 4.4	ANOVA: Career barriers by race
Table 4.5	Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the race of respondents in relation to career barriers
Table 4.6	ANOVA: Career barriers by marital status
Table 4.7	Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the race of respondents in relation to career barriers
Table 4.8	ANOVA: Career barriers by job levels
Table 4.9	Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the job levels of respondents in relation to career barriers



LIST OF FIGURES

- 2.7.1 Women's career ladder: some broken steps
- 2.11 Levinsons adult life cycle



LIST OF GRAPHS

- 4.1 Age of respondents
- 4.2 Race of respondents
- 4.3 Marital status of respondents
- 4.4 Job levels of respondents



ACRONYMS

CEO	Chief Executive Officer
EEA	Employment Equity Act
SDA	Skills Development Act
EER	Employment Equity Report
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America



TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	Page
Declaration	i
Acknowledgements	iii
List of tables	iv
List of figures	vi
List of graphs	vii
Acronyms	viii
	ix

CHAPTER ONE

1.	Introduction	1
1.1	Summary of literature reviewed	1
1.2	Theoretical perspective on career barriers	7
1.3	Rationale for the study	10
1.4	Research problem/hypothesis	10
1.5	Purpose of the study	11
1.6	Significance of the study	11
1.7	Scope of the study	12
1.8	Conclusion	12

CHAPTER TWO

2.1	Introduction	14
2.2	Definition of terms	15
2.2.1	Career development	15
2.2.2	Career barriers	16
2.2.3	The glass ceiling	17
2.3	The South African legislative context	17
2.4	The traditional role of women	20
2.5	Gender socialisation	21
2.6	Career barriers	22
2.6.1	Internal career barriers	22
2.6.1.1	Perceptions regarding skills and career goals	23
2.6.1.2	Work-family issues	24
	i. Excessive work commitments and limited time	25
	ii. Concerns over home and childcare	26
	iii. Role-conflict and role-overload	28
	iv. Limited support from others	29
	v. Primacy of the husbands' career	29
2.6.2	External barriers	31
2.6.2.1	Discriminatory attitudes and sex-role stereotypes	31
	i. Women are not suited for management positions	32
	ii. Job level barriers	33
	iii. Women managers are not career committed due to family obligations	36

	iv.	Prevalence of sex-role stereotypes	37
	v.	Age-related barriers	39
2.6.2.2		Discrimination in the workplace	41
	i.	Biased treatment on the job	41
	ii.	Limited access to training and development opportunities	43
	iii.	Fewer promotion opportunities for women	44
	iv.	Sexual harassment	45
	v.	Race barriers	46
2.6.2.3		Social isolation	49
	i.	Lack of mentors & role models	49
	ii.	Limited access to informal networks	51
2.7		The glass-ceiling: stuck at middle management	53
2.8		An overview of research findings on career barriers	56
2.9		Theories of career development	58
2.10		Super's theory on career development	59
2.11		Levinson's theory	61
2.11.1		Levinson's approach to life development	61
	i.	The early adult transition: moving from pre to early adulthood	61
	ii.	The first adult life structure: entering the adult world	62
	iii.	The age thirty transition: changing the first life structure	62
	iv.	The second adult life structure: settling down	62
	v.	The mid-life transition: moving from early to middle adulthood	63
	vi.	Entering middle adulthood: building a new life structure	63
	vii.	Subsequent periods in middle adulthood	64
	viii.	Age 60 to 65 Transition: late adult transition	64
2.12		Conclusion	66

CHAPTER THREE

3.1		Introduction	67
3.2		Definition of terminology	68
3.2.1		Reliability	68
3.2.2		Validity	68
3.2.3		Sample	69
3.3		Research design	69
3.4		The population	70
3.5		Measuring instruments	71
3.5.1		Demographic questionnaire	72
3.5.2		The Career Barrier Inventory – Revised (CBI-R) questionnaire	72
	i.	Psychometric properties of the CBI	73
	ii.	Psychometric properties of the CBI-R	73
	iii.	Description of CBI – R scales	74
3.6		Procedure for data gathering	78
3.6.1		Sampling	78
3.6.2		Data gathering	78
3.6.3		Data analysis	79
3.7		Conclusion	80

CHAPTER FOUR

4.1	Introduction	81
4.2	Descriptive statistics	82
4.2.1	Biographical characteristics	83
4.2.2	Descriptive statistics for the CBI-R questionnaire	87
4.3	Inferential statistics	88
4.4	Conclusion	98

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1	Introduction	99
5.2	Discussion of findings	100
5.2.1	Hypothesis 1	100
5.2.2	Hypothesis 2	103
5.2.3	Hypothesis 3	106
5.2.4	Hypothesis 4	108
5.3	Implications for theory, research and practice	111
5.3.1	Implications for theory	111
5.3.2	Implications for research	112
5.3.3	Implications for practice	113
5.4	Limitations	114
5.5	Conclusion	115
6.	References	118

APPENDIX 1:	Letters to participants
APPENDIX 2:	Questionnaire designed by researcher
APPENDIX 3:	Careers Barriers Inventory – Revised Questionnaire



CHAPTER ONE

“Freedom cannot be achieved unless women have been emancipated from all forms of oppression” (Mandela cited in Crwys-Williams, 2004).

1. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the barriers that impede the career advancement of women in management at an auditing firm in the Western Cape. A proliferation of documented research (Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987; Govender, 1997; May, 1999) gives the impression that many of the women denied access to top-management positions are capable and meet the criteria for promotion as men, yet they continue to remain in junior and middle management positions. Research seems to suggest that glass-ceilings, rather than a lack of qualifications and expertise limit women’s advancement into upper levels of management (Lemons, 2003). The literature reviewed will provide a conceptual framework for this empirical study.

1.1. Summary of literature reviewed

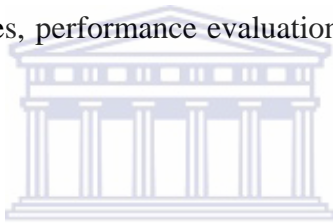
For decades the family was characterised by the wife and mother-role for women and the breadwinner and protector role for men (Sundal-Hansen, 1985). In essence, women were restricted to traditional family roles while men were defined by their work (Chi-Ching, 1995). According to Puckrin (1990), the homemaking mother-role and the breadwinner father-role are no longer family stereotypes. In fact, the “traditional role” for women that

is, staying at home to raise their families, has been replaced by a “career-and-family” role for women (Schwartz, 1989).

In recent years the number of women entering the labour force has increased significantly throughout the world (Govender, 1997). This reflects the changing status of women in society (Chi-Ching, 1995). Foster (1994) however notes that although there has been an increase in the number of women attaining management positions, significant growth has only occurred in traditionally female roles or in junior management positions. Not many women have managed to move beyond the “glass-ceiling” and advance into senior management or executive positions (Davidson, 1991). In fact, it has been noted that “glass-walls” - also referred to as functional segregation precludes women from attaining line and general management experience. The knock-on effect is a lack of experience that has placed women at a distinct disadvantage when applying for leadership positions (Mattis, 2004).

Borman and Guido-DiBrito (1986) note that the career development of women is viewed to be different to that of men. This is mainly due to differences in attitudes, behaviours, role-expectations and the way in which women were socialized. Research on career development has concentrated mainly on issues confronting men, assuming that similar issues confront women (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). However, due to the fact that many women are now aspiring to senior management positions, researchers have recently begun to examine some of the career related barriers women encounter as they move into traditionally male dominated professions (Russell, 1994).

Over the years, researchers have found that women were perceived to be unsuited for managerial positions (Luzzo & Hutcheson, 1996). According to Chi-Ching (1995) various reasons have been forwarded to try and explain why women make up such a small percent of management positions. One view is that women are not in organisations long enough to enter into senior management ranks (Russell, 1994). For example women may not have the required 25 years of work experience to move into senior management, or approximately 35 years experience for CEO (chief executive officer) positions. Another view is that white males historically represent the ideal manager in appearance, values, and behaviour (Gathers, 2003). This has resulted in subtle discrimination against women in employment practices, performance evaluations, and promotion criteria in the workplace (Gathers, 2003).



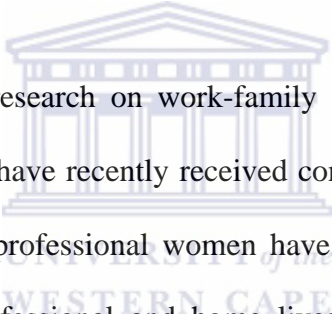
According to Gilbert, Hallett and Eldridge (1994), women have been victims of discrimination for decades, if not centuries. Despite progressive laws (South African and international) that prohibit sexual discrimination, women are still concentrated in low-income, low-status positions; have not advanced as rapidly as men; and earn less than men in comparable positions. Sex discrimination according to Chi-Ching (2001) may be formal and incorporated into structures, systems and policies of an organisation or may be informal and practiced by individual supervisors, managers, or bosses. In a pilot study in which sex and other variables were influenced, researchers found pro-male assessment biases and prejudice against female staff in the workplace (Chi-Ching, 2001).

Society places low value on occupations traditionally chosen by women (Astin, 1984). This has resulted in gender discrimination being woven into the fabric of organisations which will take a long time to eradicate (May, 1999). Women believe that they must work twice as hard as men and achieve significantly more to be considered for promotions in male-dominated areas of work (Naidoo & May, 2005). This view is supported by a study of managers in Texas. The study revealed that women were promoted but did not receive adequate training for the positions they were expected to fill (Rosen & Jerdee, 1976).

According to Cooper and Lewis (1995) women continue to be under-represented in male dominated jobs. Consequently, breaking down stereotypes and gaining entry into traditionally male dominated jobs is not only an overwhelming task, but a huge challenge for women. Sex-role stereotyping is one of the most prevalent external barriers, as men still assume that women are less competent and less suitable for leadership positions (van Vianen & Fischer, 2002). This is particularly problematic in organisations that are predominantly male. In such situations women are appointed in roles that encourage dependence and provide few opportunities for upward mobility (Smith & Hutchinson, 1995).

Women may also experience a range of economic and psychological barriers that keep them in low-level and dead end jobs (Gibelman, 2003). Biased treatment toward women in organisations varies from lower salaries to limited access to training and development opportunities, to fewer promotion opportunities, and even sexual harassment (Russell,

1994). This often results in women not being adequately prepared to move into higher levels of management (Oakley, 2000; Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001). Women may also experience difficulty in progressing in their careers due to internal barriers (Russell, 1994). According to her they may lack self-confidence, and believe they are not suited for the work or lack the necessary skills required to be successful. According to a study conducted by Ackah and Heaton (2003) 26 % of women cited “lack of confidence” as the greatest single barrier to advancement. Other studies offer underestimation of competence or efficacy as an explanation for women’s self-limiting behaviour when faced with career advancement opportunities (Dickerson & Taylor, 2000).

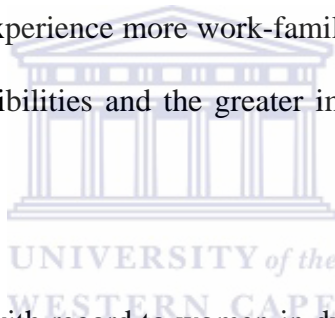


Chi-Ching (1995) states that research on work-family interfaces (Burlew & Johnson, 1992; May, 1999; Jano, 2000) have recently received considerable attention. It has been noted that a large number of professional women have become disillusioned with the multiple demands of their professional and home lives. Role overload is a common occurrence among working women because they add their work roles to existing family roles without decreasing their involvement in family obligations (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). Research on stress and burnout suggests that working women experience difficulty in coping with their multiple roles (Chi-Ching, 1995).

The need to maintain reasonable living standards has made income-generating work less of a choice and more of a necessity for most women (Daily, 1993). In the resultant dual-career relationships women are expected to manage their home and work lives simultaneously. This role conflict experienced by women in dual-career households has

been researched extensively over the last two decades (Naidoo & Jano, 2003). They note that notwithstanding the changes in traditional family roles and the division of domestic work, the primary responsibility for managing the home remains with women in dual-career relationships (Naidoo & Jano, 2003).

According to Gutek and Larwood (1987) husbands and/or children impede a women's work progress. Although men may be taking on additional responsibilities for both childcare and household chores, working women continue to bear the primary responsibility for care giving at home (Moya, Exposito & Ruiz, 2000). Cinamon and Rich (2002) also note that women experience more work-family conflict than men due to their greater share of home responsibilities and the greater importance they attach to family roles.



Contrary to research findings with regard to women in dual-career relationships, Perrone and Worthington, Jr. (2001) find that high combined incomes contribute greatly to lifestyle fulfillment and satisfaction. Moreover, greater wealth brings prestige, and allows for a better life style that would have otherwise not been possible (Perrone & Worthington, Jr., 2001).

1.2 Theoretical perspective of career barriers

According to Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) barriers are concepts that explain the disparity between women's abilities and their achievements. Discussions on barriers focused on internal and external barriers (Swanson & Tokar, 1991).

External barriers are defined as thwarting conditions (e.g. discrimination and wages) and internal barriers as internal conflicts (e.g. motivation and self-concept) that may impede the career advancement of individuals (Crites, 1969 in Swanson and Tokar, 1991).

Various researchers (see O'Leary, 1974; Farmer, 1976; Harmon, 1977) adopted Crites' (1969) position on internal and external barriers that preclude women from advancing into management positions. O'Leary (1974) hypothesized four external and six internal barriers; Farmer (1976) hypothesized three internal and three environment barriers; and Harmon (1977) suggested psychological and sociological barriers (cited in Swanson and Tokar, 1991).

Some researchers suggest classification systems to analyse women's decisions to work. According to Nieva and Gutek (1981) these systems are more complicated than the internal/external explanations on barriers. Sobol's (1963) theory on work commitment focuses on the long-term work plans that married women with children have to deal with. According to him three sets of conditions impact on a woman's decision to work, namely enabling conditions, facilitating conditions, and precipitating conditions.

- Enabling conditions refer to family issues that either encourage women to work or discourage women from working. These factors may include the number and age of children and future family planning.
- Facilitating conditions refer to the employability of women, taking into account education and work experience.
- Precipitating conditions refer to financial and attitudinal factors. The financial factor is family income and the attitudes in question are the ones taken towards work and the need for accomplishment through work.

Nieva and Gutek (1981) propose a similar set of factors which influence women's decisions to work namely personal characteristics, attitudinal factors, and situational factors:

- Personal characteristics refer to personality variables as well as demographic variables of race and age, and educational background;
- Attitudinal factors comprise attitudes towards work as well as attitudes towards working women who are mothers; and
- Situational factors consist of husband variables, children variables, mobility and previous work experience. Husband variables refer to the attitudes husbands have towards wives who work, their employment status, occupational levels, and income. Children variables consist of the numbers and ages of children and childcare facilities. A woman's mobility in relation to relocation for either her or her husband's work is influenced by husband and children variables (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Gottfredson (1981) provides a framework for analysing career related barriers which are based on Sobol's (1963) and Nieva and Gutek's (1981) classification systems. He proposes that individuals encounter barriers in the process of working towards achieving occupational aspirations. This may result in them compromising their goals. According to Swanson and Tokar (1991) gender self-concept is the most central and protected aspect of the self-concept and the last aspect to be compromised. Gottfredson (1981) emphasizes the significance of recognizing barriers in three domains namely the self-concept and environment; the social and economic environment; and the interaction between the self-concept and environment (cited in Swanson & Tokar, 1991).

Since the construct of barriers has been exclusively discussed only in the context of women's career development; it has received little attention in most general theories of career development (Swanson & Tokar, 1991). However, according to Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996), the lack of clarity in previous theoretical approaches warrants further discussions on perceptions of career-related barriers for various reasons. Firstly, the integration of theory will allow insight into conditions that either contributes to or mitigates against the development of perceptions of barriers, throughout the career-development process. Secondly, an appropriate theoretical framework would direct future investigations related to career barriers.

1.3 Rationale for the study

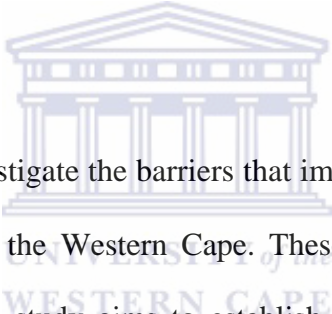
During the past decade the number of women entering the labour force has accelerated throughout the world. In this regard South Africa is no exception. Although the rights of women are proudly enshrined in the South African Constitution and legislation is clear, precise, and unambiguous, the disparity between men and women in the workplace continue to exist. Based on the Constitution (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa No. 108, 1996) and the legal framework, the Employment Equity Act (Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998) and the Skills Development Act (Skill Development Act, No 97 of 1998) were developed to narrow the gap in relation to race and gender inequality in the workplace. Notwithstanding South Africa's progressive constitution and legislation, the rights of women are subverted in many organisations. This is verified by the statistics produced by the Department of Labour in the 2002 to 2003 Employment Equity Report (Department of Labour, 2003). According to this report female representation between 2000 and 2002 has increased by only 1.3 % in top management positions and by 0.6 % in senior management positions (Department of Labour, 2003). Although organisations are expected to have strategies in place to improve gender equity, statistics indicate that gender imbalances continue to exist in South African organisations.

1.4 Research problem/hypothesis

After reviewing the literature reviewed, the following hypotheses have been investigated:

- Significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different age groups regarding factors that impede their career advancement.
- Significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different race groups regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.
- Significant differences exist in the perceptions of single, divorced/widowed and married women regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.
- Significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different job levels regarding factors that impede their career advancement.

1.5 Purpose of the study



The aim of this study is to investigate the barriers that impede the career advancement of women at an auditing firm in the Western Cape. These include internal and external barriers. More specifically, the study aims to establish whether significant differences exist between women in different age groups, job levels, race groups and single, divorce/widowed and married groups in the firm, regarding their views in relation to their own career advancement.

1.6 Significance of the study

This study will contribute to an understanding of the barriers women experience at the firm, and the impact these barriers has had on their career progression. The outcomes of this research will enable all women who have experienced career barriers at various

stages of their careers, the firm, and similar institutions, to understand the issues around internal and external barriers. In addition the study will provide a basis for the firm to embark on strategies to reduce and eliminate barriers that do exist.

It must however be stressed that the barriers identified in this study are barriers experienced by women in management in the Western Cape only. Additional research on a national level would be required before findings could be generalized.

1.7 Scope of the study

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the related literature, definition of terminology and theoretical perspectives on career barriers. Chapter 3 provides an overview of the sample population, measuring instruments and the research design. Chapter 4 provides the statistical results of the study whilst Chapter 5 provides a detailed discussion of the results, possible strategy, and recommendations on how career barriers could be overcome at the firm.

1.8 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to establish whether barriers thwart the career progress of women managers at an auditing firm. The literature reviewed covered the traditional role of women, gender socialisation, and women's entrance into the labour force, provided some reasons for women's frustrations in the workplace and theory on career barriers.

Chapter two provides an in-depth study of the internal and external barriers women experience in the workplace, as well Supers (1957) and Levinsons (1987) theory on career development.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

“The qualities valued in men are not acceptable in women, whilst the qualities women value are not an acceptable style of work. Women are therefore left in a barren zone where they can be neither men nor women (Coyle, 1988)”.

2.1 Introduction

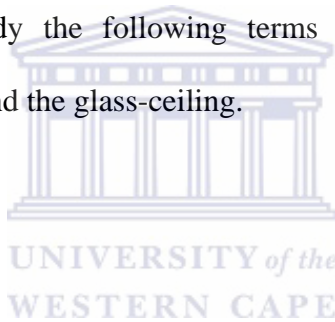
This chapter will begin by defining terminology applicable to the study and will establish factors that have affected and continue to impact on the career advancement of women in the workplace. In particular it will focus on the internal and external barriers to career advancement that women either experience or perceive. In addition, this chapter will refer to relevant South African legislation (the Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998) and analyse data produced by the Department of Labour. The stated purpose of the Employment Equity Act (Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998) is to achieve equality in the workplace. However, the Employment Equity Report (Department of Labour, 2003) will illustrate the slow pace of employment equity and representation of women in senior and top management positions in 2000, 2002 and 2003 respectively.

According to Sundal-Hansen (1985), the family is determined by the wife and mother role for women and the breadwinner and protector role for men in many cultures throughout the world. Given that individuals engage in work activities in order to satisfy the basic need for survival, the following questions can be asked: how are we to view the

changing career choices and work behaviour of women? How does the changing family structure modify expectations and take precedence over early socialisation, leading women to seek new ways to satisfy their needs (Astin, 1984). According to her, women are perhaps working directly towards meeting their own survival needs (Astin, 1984), and have a desire to fulfill their aspirations, as well as their self-actualisation needs (Te Groen-Hoberg, 1989).

2.2 Definition of terms

For the purpose of this study the following terms will be used, namely career-development; career-barriers and the glass-ceiling.



2.2.1 Career development

London and Stumpf (1982, p.4) define career development as "the activities individuals participate in to improve themselves relative to their current or planned work roles". Similarly, Sears (1982, p. 139) refers to career development as "the total constellation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic, and chance factors that combine to influence the career of any given individual over the life span". Super (cited in Swanson, 1992) proposes four stages of career development namely: exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline which are not determined by age but by an individual's circumstances and perceptions. He adds that individuals go through life by developing interests, skills, and values; exploring the world of work; developing

commitment to work; adapting to changes; and thereafter moving towards selective participation and retirement (cited in Swanson, 1992).

2.2.2 Career-barriers

A number of theorists (Swanson, and Tokar, 1991; Gottfredson, 1981; Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987) note that perceived barriers in organisations are sometimes obstacles to optimal career advancement of women in organisations. A barrier is generally defined as that which prevents or controls advance, access or progress (Oxford Dictionary, 2000). Swanson and Woitke (1997, p.446) define career barriers as “events or conditions either within the person or in his or her environment that make career progression difficult”. It is suggested that as individuals realize and identify occupational barriers, they may deal with this perceived reality by compromising their vocational goals (Luzzo & Hutcheson, 1996).

A number of theorists (O’Leary, 1974; Farmer, 1976 and Harmon 1977) recognise that barriers are either internal or external (cited in Swanson & Tokar, 1991). Crites (1969) defines career barriers as external frustrations (e.g. discrimination, wages) or internal conflicts (e.g. motivation, self-concept) that may hinder the career progress of an individual (cited in Swanson & Tokar, 1991). For the purposes of this study Swanson and Woitke’s (1997) definition will be used.

2.2.3 The glass ceiling

Schwartz, F.N. (1989) defines the glass ceiling as an invisible barrier of stereotypes and subtle discrimination constructed by corporate leaders to prevent women from breaking through to top managerial ranks. In addition the glass-ceiling could also refer to systems and procedures, large organisations or traditional work patterns and arrangements that adversely affect women's career advancement (May, 1999).

2.3 The South African legislative context

Msimang (2001) states that in order to understand the representation and position of women in South Africa, it is important to remember that prior to 1994, black South Africans, women, and the disabled were unprotected by law. The legal codes of South Africa classified people as African, Coloured, Indian and White, and those who were not White lived in a country that persecuted them for the colour of their skin. They were denied job and educational opportunities on the basis of race. This is one of the reasons why such a small number of women presently hold senior positions in organisations (Msimang, 2001).

The South African Constitution provides for the equal treatment and protection of all citizens, and a basis for non-discrimination (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). The purpose is to outlaw unfair discrimination in the South African employment context. Nevertheless, discrimination is practiced and considered fair when it is aimed at

remedying and correcting the imbalances of the past. The South African Employment Equity Act (Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998) similarly aims to achieve equality in the workplace by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment through the elimination of discrimination, and by implementing affirmative action measures which redress past disadvantages and racial imbalances experienced by designated groups. The Act also aims to promote the advancement of women and disabled persons. Notwithstanding all these progressive laws (the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998; the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No. 75 of 1997; and the Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998) gender inequality persists and female representation in top and senior management positions remains insignificant (see Table 1).

Table 1: Employees by occupational level from the Employment Equity Report for 2000 to 2003

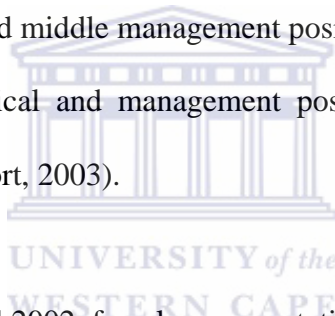
Occupational Levels	2000		2002		2003	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Top management	87.6 %	12.4 %	86.2 %	13.7%	86.3 %	13.7 %
Senior management	79.1 %	21 %	78.5 %	21.6%	78.5 %	21.6 %
Professional and middle management	57 %	43.2 %	69 %	30.9 %	59 %	30.9 %
Skilled technical and management	-	-	-	-	56.3 %	43.7 %

(Department of Labour, 2003)

According to the Employment Equity Report (Department of Labour, 2003) the representation of women in the higher ranks of the workforce profile was relatively high when compared to their thirty 37 % representation in the total workforce (Department of Labour, 2003). However, in actual terms the improvement in equitable representation of women in all job categories was insignificant (Table 1).

In 2003 women only accounted for:

- 13,7 % of top management positions;
- 21.6 % of senior management positions;
- 30.9 % of professional and middle management positions; and
- 43.7 % of skilled technical and management positions (Department of Labour, Employment Equity Report, 2003).



In comparing data for 2000 and 2002, female representation in top management positions increased by only 1.3 %. In senior management positions, representation increased by 0.6 %. More importantly, female representation in professionally qualified positions decreased by 12.3 % (Department of Labour, 2003).

According to the last annual report produced by the Commission for Employment Equity (CEE), the vast majority of South African companies do not comply with the Employment Equity Act. It found that even though Black, Coloured, and Indian people constituted the majority of the total workforce, their representation in key positions is

remarkably low. More importantly, there was a drop in the representation of females at professional and management levels (Asvat, 2005).

The next two sections will focus on the traditional role of women and gender socialisation and illustrate the impact it has had on women's development.

2.4 The traditional role of women

Research indicates that each society has its own sex-role ideology that dictates a basic family structure (Chetwynd & Harnett, 1978). Although societies around the world have different conceptions of sex-roles, Western societies share similarities (Powel, 1993). Sundal-Hansen (1985) states that the patriarchal social system in which male authority has always prevailed is still the public norm of most Western civilizations. As already stated the family is structured in such a way that the woman's dominant role is that of wife and mother and the man's that of breadwinner and protector (Sundal-Hansen, 1985). In other words, male roles are work oriented and female roles family oriented (Moya, et al., 2000).

Crittenden (cited in Naidoo and May 2005) notes that women have been working for generations. Their work activities have however been marginalised and never considered significant enough to be regarded as a career. Govender (1997) states that women worked mostly in organisations as support staff. However, in recent years there has been a paradigm shift, in that careers have begun to play a meaningful, albeit limited role in the

lives of women. Despite this shift, deeply ingrained attitudes toward women in the workplace remain unchanged. Rosen and Jerdee (1981) contend that male managers find it difficult to shed their negative attitudes towards women. However, May (1999) is of the view that since work plays a pivotal role in individual development, women are entering the workforce in larger numbers in search of self-realisation.

2.5 Gender socialisation

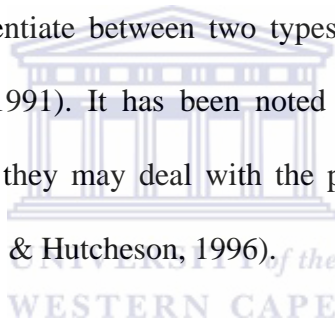
Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) point out that society has traditionally ascribed different life roles, personality characteristics, and acceptable forms of behaviour to males and females. Giddens (1989) invokes the many studies which show how gender differences and gender discrimination develop from an early age in infants as a result. Early childhood sex-role socialisation prepares young girls for the roles of wives and mothers and encourages them to develop personality characteristics and behavioural competencies to facilitate the performance of these roles (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). For example, a large number of toys, books, and television programmes for young children emphasise the differences between male and female attributes (Giddens, 1989). In short, women behave in a particular way because they are raised to believe that society expects them to behave that way (Llewellyn-Jones, 1990).

Generally, approved masculine and feminine images are defined and endorsed by social norms. These norms are a powerful force in the socialisation of children (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). The psychological mechanisms by which children learn sex-role

stereotypes and develop sex-typed characteristics include rewards and punishment, modeling behaviour, and acceptance of rules. In this regard children learn and develop stereotypes from observations, education and influential people in their lives (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987).

2.6 Career barriers

Career barriers are defined as “events or conditions either within the person or in his or her environment that make career progression difficult” (Swanson & Woitke, 1997). Discussions on barriers differentiate between two types, namely, internal and external barriers (Swanson & Tokar, 1991). It has been noted that as individuals realise and identify occupational barriers, they may deal with the perceived reality by comprising their occupational goals (Luzzo & Hutcheson, 1996).



2.6.1 Internal career barriers

Crites (cited in Swanson and Tokar, 1991) describes internal barriers as internal conflicts (e.g. motivation, self-concept) that impede an individual’s career progress. Women may experience difficulty in progressing in their careers due to internal barriers they perceive.

The following internal barriers will be discussed:

- Perceptions regarding skills and career goals
- Work/family issues:

- Excessive work commitments and limited time
- Concerns over home and childcare
- Role-conflict and role overload
- Limited support from others
- Primacy of the husbands career

2.6.1.1 Perceptions regarding skills and career goals

Poor career planning and development result in women lacking the required experience when competing for management positions (Morrison, 1992). The loss of development opportunities over a period of time then prevents women from qualifying for senior or high level positions. Perceived internal barriers also play a role in many women not moving up the proverbial corporate ladder (Ackah & Heaton, 2003). In this regard Russell (1994) notes that women may believe they do not possess the necessary skills or that they are not suited to do the work, and therefore lack the self confidence required to be successful in management positions.

Women are often unclear about their career goals and do not manage it in the same way as their male colleagues (Russell, 1994). In this respect they have a tendency to “suppress their ambitions and expect their superiors to acknowledge their achievements and direct their career progress” (Russell, 1994, p.289). In a study conducted by Ackah and Heaton (2003) men cited “drive and ambition” as the most important factors that contribute to their successes in the workplace. These factors were however not rated as the most

important for women. Not surprisingly, “lack of confidence” was identified as the greatest single barrier women experienced.

Adams (2001) suggests that the under-representation of women in senior management positions is not due to the lack of qualified women, rather organisations’ have an inability to remove structural barriers that impede the career advancement of women. Ward (1998) believes that corporate power remains with men because those in power are mostly men. It is assumed that they will promote individuals who portray characteristics similar to their own. Ward (1998) adds there is still a perception that women are incapable of functioning in a tough and competitive business world because they are distracted from their careers by motherhood. Mathipa and Tsoka (2001) however believe that the disadvantages women are subjected to have little to do with the lack of requirements for managerial positions. It is often related to the assumption that women lack the necessary skills and expertise.

2.6.1.2 Work-family issues

Women who combine demanding careers with raising families experience a multiplicity of problems and conflicts (Russell, 1994). They may encounter practical problems daily (e.g. limited time) or professional problems, coupled with the primacy of their husbands careers. To fully understand how work-family issues impede the career advancement of women the following aspects will be discussed: excessive work commitments; concerns

women have over home and childcare; role-conflict and role overload; limited support from others; and primacy of their husbands' careers.

(i) Excessive work commitments and limited time

Morrison (1992) expresses the view that women continually strive to balance their home and work lives, with the home still being largely the woman's concern and responsibility. This is supported by Russell (1994) who states that due to time commitments, long working hours, and extensive travel, women in management positions are unable to devote sufficient time to their personal lives. In a study conducted by Swanson and Tokar (1991) on college students, it was found that the shortage of time for family and children was a great struggle women had to grapple with in relation to career advancement. In a similar study on business women, Biernat and Wortman (1991) found that women were responsible for more home and child care chores than men. These women were generally satisfied with the division of labour, however, were self-critical about their home performance due to time constraints.

Lack of support results in conflict with career demands which leads to women delaying their advancement into management or executive positions (Jano, 2000). A recent study on female managers in South Africa found that whilst 93 % of their husbands/partners supported their careers, only 27 % of the women had structured arrangements regarding the division of daily household tasks and 10 % of the respondents received no assistance

at all from their husbands/partners. These statistics indicate that women in most cases still assume primary responsibility for child and home care (Naidoo & Jano, 2003).

Bennett and Reardon (1985) point out that a mother's absence during a child's early years could impact negatively on the child's emotional and psychological well-being. Extended working hours are therefore linked to work/family conflict (Glass, 1997). Inadvertently, excessive amounts of time spent at work results in decreased amounts of time spent with children (Nock & Kingston, 1988) and an increase in the time children spend in childcare (Glass, 1997). Women end up devoting little time to their personal lives and may experience high levels of stress (Campbell, 1986). This in turn can result in depression, anxiety, high blood pressure, and fatigue for women. Family responsibilities are therefore viewed as situational barriers to the advancement of women (May, 1999). As a result of this, Naidoo and May (2005) contend that many women will reassess their personal lives when planning for a lifelong career.

(ii) Concerns over home and childcare

The fact that many women still bear primary responsibility for the home and childcare has led to many women experiencing a "second shift" syndrome (Hochschild, 1989). The "second shift" syndrome refers to women holding two jobs. The first job being paid employment and the second being family responsibilities. According to Barnett and Rivers, working mothers spend approximately 80 hours at work, on childcare and on household chores, while working fathers spend on average 50 hours per week on the

same activities (cited in Russell, 1994). According to White, Cox and Cooper (1992) this is one of the reasons why few women occupy fulltime jobs during their child rearing years. Women experience guilt for placing their careers before their children, for not finding sufficient time for household chores, and not being able to take time off to care for sick children (Russell, 1994). Puckrin (1990) also points out that women also experience guilt for leaving their children in the care of strangers, which contradicts societal norms.

In a study conducted by Burks and Stone (1993) it was found that women perceive their family obligations as an impediment to their career progress. Research conducted by Engstrom and Ferri, (2000) support this finding. In this study it was found that female television anchors experience difficulty in managing their roles at home and at work and found it impossible to devote time for their personal lives while trying to advance in their careers.

According to Markinor (cited in Puckrin, 1990) black South African women experience added pressures in the home compared to their white counterparts. Generally men in black homes are regarded as heads of households, and they expect the woman to attend to all their needs irrespective of whether the woman works or not.

(iii) Role-conflict and role overload

O’Leary (1977) explains role overload “as the inability to satisfy all role expectations in the time available, despite recognising the legitimacy of all demands” (cited in Naidoo & Jano, 2002, p.4). Work-role strain is a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible, or participation in one role is more difficult due to participation in another role (Perrone & Worthington, Jr., 2001).

Priortkowski (1979) found that successful women who worked extremely hard in developing their careers do not have the psychological or physical energy left to invest in their personal lives. In a study conducted with television news anchors it was found that more than half of the respondents experienced conflict between their roles as wife/mothers and that of professional newscasters (Engstrom & Ferri, 1998). To manage the conflict between their work and family roles, women compartmentalised their lives (working late to avoid taking work home). Russell (1994) points out that role conflict leads to anxiety, fatigue, stress, and emotional depletion. She adds that role overload is prevalent in most women, especially women in management. In their study, Frone, Barnes and Farrell (1994) found a link in working mothers, between lack of family time and compulsive drinking and smoking, a result of adding work roles to family roles without decreasing their involvement in the latter.

(iv) Limited support from others

Women often perceive that their significant others disapprove of their working because of an assumption that family responsibilities are negated (Russell, 1994). Chi-Ching (2001) stresses that barriers impacting on women's career advancement originate from two sources, namely, family related and work related constraints. The degree to which family concerns become a constraining factor are related to a woman's involvement in parental, marital, and home roles on the one hand, and the amount of support she receives from her spouse and other relatives on the other (Chi-Ching, 2001). May (1999) confirms that the attitudes of a woman's partner and the degree to which the latter encourages and supports or prevents career mobility, impacts on the integration of work and family roles.

According to Russell (1994) women receive less support for non-traditional careers from their partners and relatives. Notwithstanding the progress women have made in work, stereotypes and outdated assumptions continue to make it difficult to enter non-traditional fields (science, engineering and technology) (Uyen, 2005). Hence, the most persistent challenge is linked to the beliefs and attitudes about what constitutes a woman's work.

(v) Primacy of the husbands' career

According to Lopate (1971) women will only pursue careers with dedication if they believe that their husbands' self-esteem would not be threatened. They are of the view that their husbands must be able to deal with their successes as well. In a study of dual-

career couples, 66 % of the men and 75 % of the women indicated that they believed in equality in their marriages. However, they indicated that the wife's' career would be sacrificed for the husbands if the need arose (Foster, Wallston & Berger in Russell, 1994). This attitude has serious repercussions for women, insofar as they will probably turn down promotional opportunities or decline relocation if the impact on their husbands' careers might be negative (Foster et al., in Russell, 1994). In a study by Engstrom and Ferri (2000) female news anchors report that relocating in order to progress in their careers would create difficulty for their partners. This supports previous research which indicates that women will defer career progress for the sake of their partners' (Sonnert & Holton, 1996; Uhlenberg & Cooney, 1990).

According to Poloma and Garland (1971) research during the 1970s indicated that if a wife's salary was greater than her husbands, the husbands' role in the family was perceived to be threatened. This resulted in women reducing their work to ensure that their income did not exceed that of their husbands. Similarly, Biernat and Wortman (1991) found that in the 1980s, the higher the wife's earnings in relation to her husbands, the worse she felt about herself as a spouse. This supports Rosenfield's (1989) view that added income from wives' employment could impact on the relative power of husbands and wives in marriages.

2.6.2 External barriers

Russell (1994, p.271) describes external barriers as “discriminatory attitudes, sex-role stereotypes and discriminatory practices in the workplace that hinders the career advancement of women”. According to Crites, (1969) external barriers may also be referred to as thwarting conditions that impede the career progression of individuals (cited in Swanson & Tokar, 1991)

The following external barriers will be discussed:

- Discriminatory attitudes and sex-role stereotypes: (job level barriers, women are not suited for management positions; women managers are not career committed due to family obligations; prevalence of sex-role stereotypes and age related barriers).
- Discrimination in the workplace: (biased treatment on the job; limited access to training and development opportunities; fewer promotion opportunities for women, sexual harassment and race barriers).
- Social isolation: (lack of mentors and role models and limited access to informal networks).

2.6.2.1 Discriminatory attitudes and sex-role stereotypes

Women experience difficulty in advancing into top management or executive positions mainly because of other people’s perceptions of their abilities (Russell, 1994).

(i) Women are not suited for management positions

The model of a successful manager is a masculine one, with the individual possessing characteristics, attitudes, behaviours and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than to women (Russell, 1994). Maier (1999) outlines masculine characteristics as independence, autonomy, competition, task-orientation, and the establishment of status and authority. Femininity on the other hand is linked to balance in life activities, participation, and collaboration in organisations. Women are regarded as highly emotional, less competent and unable to act under pressure (Russell, 1994). As a result women are perceived to be unsuited for management positions.

While there is little evidence to suggest that women are inherently less suited to managerial careers than men, corporate practices such as closed senior promotion systems, allocation of challenging tasks to males, assigning females to support and specialist roles rather than in operations and management positions, place women at a distinct disadvantage when they apply for promotion (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003).

Statistics in Great Britain indicate that 70 % of women are placed in administrative and secretarial, personal service, sales, and customer service occupations while men occupy management and senior official positions (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2002a). However, since the mid 1990s there has been an increase in the number of women occupying management positions, with a very small number attaining the most senior positions (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2002b). In South Africa women represent

41 % of the workforce, yet they hold 14.7 % of executive management positions, 7.1 % directorships and only 1.9 % are CEOs (Naidoo & May, 2005).

(ii) Job level barriers

Over the last two decades considerable research has been done on women in management (Davidson & Burke, 1994; Marshall, 1995). Focus has also been on career barriers women experience when contesting for jobs and promotions against men (Ng & Fosh, 2004). In these studies the glass ceiling is a major career barrier women experience in the work place.

Junior women managers perceive their inability to work long hours and carry heavier work loads as a barrier to career progression (Liff & Ward, 2001). Senior women managers also report long hours, heavy work loads, and isolation as career barriers (Liff & Ward, 2001). Another barrier cited by senior managers is the formation of the “men’s club”. This is an informal network that allows men to bond and share information. It is noted that business decisions are often made in these environments which exclude women (Ng & Fosh, 2004).

Despite the strides South Africa has taken to ensure that women advance in their workplaces, Catalyst (2004) reports that women are still underrepresented in corporate boardrooms. According to Fortune (cited in Mathur-Helm, 2004) in a study of 1500

companies, men occupy 95 to 97 % of vice-presidential positions and women occupy one in eight corporate officer positions.

Liff and Ward (2001) reported that research in a United Kingdom high street bank aimed to explore issues related to women's under-representation in senior management positions. In this study of the thirty six women interviewed, nine were in senior management, and twenty seven were in junior or middle management positions, while of the sixteen men interviewed five held senior positions.

Perceptions and reality of senior positions: Extended working hours, greater levels of commitment and isolation in senior positions were cited as possible reasons why junior employees (mostly females) will not aspire to senior positions. Although senior managers report high levels of job satisfaction, men report insufficient time with their families and women report experiencing extreme fatigue in maintaining two roles (Liff & Ward, 2001).

Family versus careers: Long hours at the office and heavier work loads are concerns for both junior and senior female managers. Managers who do not have children feel that motherhood could end their careers. The small number of women in senior positions is an indication that the organisation is probably not willing to engage in discussions around reduced hours, flexible working patterns and other considerations. Women also feel that these discussions would be fruitless and viewed as a lack of commitment to their careers. They felt they would be excluded as serious contenders for promotions if they pursued

the above concerns. Male managers criticised women for leaving work promptly at official closure for the day and regarded women as being their “own worse enemies” The communiqué is clear: that unless women are prepared to exhibit male behaviour they cannot expect to advance in their organisations (Liff & Ward, 2001).

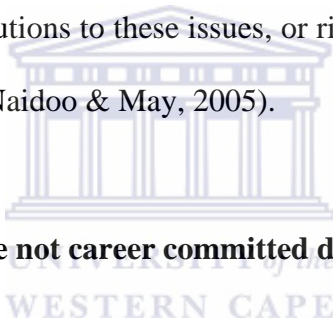
Promotional prospects for women: Women express doubts regarding future career advancement because many of them want to play a key role in raising their children. One respondent reports that her application for promotion was rejected on the grounds that management was unsure of her commitment, given that she had just started a family. Women at junior and senior levels, as already stated, are excluded from informal networks that played a role in influencing promotions (Liff & Ward, 2001).

The findings of this study suggest that senior management is a “male preserve”, unless women are prepared to subscribe to the dominant male culture. Women’s reluctance to advance into senior management is an indication of the barriers they perceive, and of what the organisation has led them to believe regarding senior positions and the processes they need to engage with prior to getting the job.

The findings of the above study (Liff and Ward, 2001) are consistent with the findings of a study done in Hong Kong by Ng & Fosh (2004). In this study high level male managers report that they would like to strike a balance between their work and family lives, while high level female managers report that if they wanted to advance in their careers they had to sacrifice family time. Low level female managers report that they consciously

downgraded their career goals in favour of spending more time with their families, and also express support and empathy for women who sacrifice family time for the sake of their careers. The findings also indicate that high level male managers are more tolerant to women's progress if they are secure in their own jobs.

From Liff and Ward's (2001) study and Ng and Fosh's (2004) study it is clear that women continue to struggle with advancing in their careers and balancing family commitments. This has led to women downgrading their career aspirations in favour of their families. Existing and emerging 21st century organisations have to take cognisance of women's issues and find solutions to these issues, or risk losing valuable contributions from women (Ng Fosh, 2004; Naidoo & May, 2005).



(iii) Women managers are not career committed due to family obligations

Women are viewed as failures in the workplace if they limit their working hours in order to spend quality time with their children and family, and more especially if they refuse to be workaholics (Gallos 1989, cited in Russell, 1994). According to Arnold and Shinew (1997) women encounter barriers because society operates in a "male-work model" and does not take women's experiences into account. For example, Arnold and Shinew (1997) found that women felt punished for taking maternity leave or opting for flexible working hours.

In a study conducted with women who left the corporate sector to start their own businesses, 52 % indicated they wanted more flexibility (Mattis, 2004). Gerber (2000) is of the view that organisational inflexibility could have a negative effect on productivity.

According to another study conducted by Stoner and Hartman (1990) with women managers the following barriers were identified: (a) organisational advancement was delayed due to women taking maternity leave, and (b) career momentum was lost when women moved out of the mainstream temporarily. According to the above study organisations viewed career adjustment negatively with regard to organisational commitment and this had an irreversible negative impact on the career advancement of women (Stoner & Hartman, 1990). This study classified women with children as mothers first and managers second. The finding is not necessarily accurate as career-orientated women expend enormous time and energy arranging and re-arranging family commitments to minimize interference with their work (Stoner & Hartman, 1990).

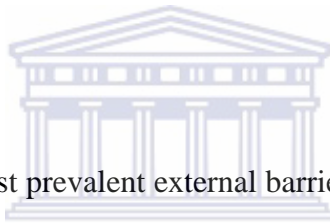
(iv) Prevalence of sex-role stereotypes

“Sex-typing in occupations occurs when one sex dominates an occupation in numbers and there is the expectation that this numerical dominance should be maintained” (Montagna, 1977, p.126).

According to Sundal-Hansen (1990) the sex-role system which is a network of attitudes, feelings, and behaviours that result from the pervasiveness of sex-role stereotyping, is

central to issues of gender and career development. Chetwynd and Hartnett (1978) identify three important factors in the above system:

- the male stereotype is one of dominance, aggressiveness, independence, and problem solving; while the female stereotype is one of dependence, subjectivity, passivity and subordination;
- the division of labour into men's work and women's work is conducted on the basis of sex; and
- investing in males because the characteristics of men have more importance and value compared to those associated with women. This assists males in moving into higher status positions.



Sex-role stereotyping is the most prevalent external barrier since men are still of the view that women are less competent or less suitable for leadership positions than themselves (Adams, 2001). As noted before, notwithstanding South Africa's progressive laws, gender-based stereotypes still persist in the work place (Naidoo & May, 2005). According to May (1999) instability and unreliability are the most damaging stereotypes attached to women. This makes employers reluctant to promote, train, or develop female staff because they expect women to terminate their employment contracts when they get married or decide to have children.

The implication of sex-role stereotyping is a loss of potential development for both men and women employees and could result in high staff turnover in many organisations (Govender, 1997).

(v) **Age related barriers**

Duncan and Loretto (2004) note that women in all age groups are more likely to experience age discrimination in the workplace than men. According to these authors, cases of age related barriers are highest among younger and older age groups. Women are often subjected to ageist attitudes with respect to their appearance and sexuality. Arber and Ginn (1991) state that older women are often referred to in demeaning ways (“old hag”, “wrinkles”, etc). This is mainly due to the values that are placed on women’s good looks, accessibility and worthiness to men (Arber & Ginn, 1991).

Research conducted by Duncan and Loretto (2004) at a major financial institution in the U.K. reveals that women experience discrimination at various stages of their careers. In this study women of 30 years and younger reported sex discrimination in relation to unequal pay and benefits. Moreover, on the basis of age (being too young) women were assigned less challenging work, overlooked for promotions, and treated less favourably than their male counterparts. In the 30 to 39 year age group women also reported negative treatment. At age 36 women were perceived as being “too old” to apply for promotions, while others felt that they were disadvantaged after periods of maternity leave and part-time work. Women over forty reported unequal access to training and promotional opportunities.

The above study (Duncan and Loretto, 2004) supports research conducted by Itzin and Phillipson (1994), where women reported similar age barriers in relation to career

advancement. In this study women were perceived to age earlier than men. The assumption was that women reached the peak in their careers at approximately age 35, ten years before their male counterparts. In addition, due to breaks in the continuity of their service women missed promotional opportunities. Older women (40 years and older) felt that they were excluded from career development opportunities, although there were no formal age criteria in place for selection of training employees.

According to Wood (1994), women are assessed according to their physical appearance. In the case of journalists, to gain credibility and increase ratings, women have to cope with societal expectations of having to look attractive and youthful all the time (Engstrom & Ferri, 2000). Women, according to this study have subsequently internalized these barriers and try to overcome the negative impact of age stereotyping by striving to maintain a youthful appearance (Duncan & Loretto, 2004).

Chae (2002) states that re-entry women have recently become an important focus in the career development debate. According to research most reentry women are middle-aged (in the 35 to 45 year age group) and return to work for various reasons. Re-entry women are subjected to a number of prejudices in organisations (Barlett & Oldham, 1978). In the opinion of Jacobs (1994, p. 31) “people who take time off risk being treated virtually as beginners, no matter how broad their experience”. Since reentry women are often older than their colleagues they may resist receiving instructions from younger inexperienced individuals. This often makes the transition back to work difficult, resulting in women experiencing low self-esteem, feelings of despair and depression (Chae, 2002). These

findings are consistent with Levinsons (1978) theory that middle-life transition marks a series of life changes.

2.6.2.2 Discrimination in the work place

According to Govender (1997) sex discrimination is one of the major barriers to the career advancement of women in organisations. Women are not exposed to challenging projects/assignments, managerial training programmes, and promotional opportunities. In addition there are disparities in salary structures and benefits between men and women.

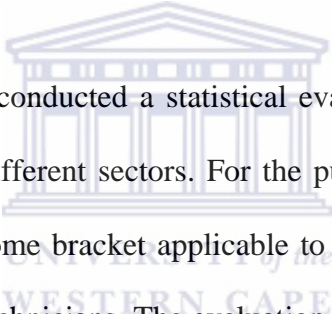
(i) Biased treatment on the job

Despite the Employment Equity Act (Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998) prohibiting occupational discrimination, women continue to be marginalised with no significant improvements to their career development in South Africa (Erasmus & Sadler, 1999).

According to Wentling (1992) sex discrimination is perceived as a major obstacle that impeded the career progression of women. She adds that women advance more slowly, are not taken seriously, and are often treated with little respect. Subtle forms of discrimination remain extensive and have consequences for the career advancement of women. These may include biasness in relation to recruitment, selection for promotion

and performance evaluations (Chi-Ching, 1992). Russell (1994) confirms a preference for employing male applicants over females especially in demanding management positions.

Trentham (1998) states that woman's salaries on average range between 72 to 88 % of men's salaries, even after variables such as education, age, position level, and job tenure have been taken into account. Although there are sometimes explanations for the differences in salary structure, the huge inequality was problematic (Trentham, 1998). According to Moya, et al., (2000) women's jobs are lower-paid than that of their male counterparts even when comparable effort and training are required.



Statistics South Africa (2003) conducted a statistical evaluation of the salary variances between men and women in different sectors. For the purposes of this study, reference will be made to a specific income bracket applicable to three different sectors, namely, legislators, professionals and technicians. The evaluation revealed the following statistics for the income bracket R51 201 to R102 400. 81.56 % of men earned salaries in the legislators category compared to 18.46 % women. 77.47 % men earned salaries in the professional category, compared to 22.53 % women. Similarly, in the category of technicians men earned 76.02 % compared to 32.98 % women. Wentling (1992) notes that salary surveys consistently highlights the disparity in salaries for men and women doing the same jobs.

Solomon (in Oakley, 2000) found that at vice-president level female executives earned

46 % less than men in Canada, and 42 % less than their male counterparts in the United States. Recently, women joined a protest strike for equal wages in Iceland. They complained that the average female wage was 64.1 % of their male counterparts, even though a large number of women occupied permanent positions (Women give Iceland the cold shoulder, 2005). In most cases women managers do not receive the same salaries or perks as male managers in different structures in organisations (Gallese cited in Oakley 2000). Biased treatment will have severe consequences for women and organisations if the injustices are not remedied (Russell, 1994).

(ii) Limited access to training and development opportunities

According to Sundal-Hansen (1985) the United States of America (U.S.A) has been a leader in developing educational programmes for women and offering adult education and training in non-traditional fields. Despite this women are still under-represented and invisible in skilled trades and jobs in the U.S.A. (Sundal-Hansen 1985).

Similarly, the Skills Development Act (Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998) and Skills Development Levy Act (Skills Development Levies Act, No 9 of 1999) were developed in South Africa. The purpose of the S.D.A. inter alia is to: (a) provide a framework to implement national, sector, and workplace strategies to improve the skills of the South African workforce and (b) provide learnerships which would lead to recognised occupational qualifications (Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998).

Although the Employment Equity Act (Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998) was developed to eradicate occupational discrimination and the S.D.A. (Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998) developed to improve the skills levels of the workforce, not much has changed to enhance the career prospects of women in South Africa (Erasmus & Sadler, 1999). Legislation by itself cannot change the power structures and hierarchy within organisations that continue to place women in low-level positions (Naidoo & May, 2005). They are of the view that a fundamental change in attitudes towards women in the workplace is crucial.

(iii) Fewer promotion opportunities for women

Despite the growth in the number of women aspiring to management positions, significant growth has only been observed in predominantly female positions (Foster, 1994). According to Davidson (1991) women are employed in junior positions relatively easily, and only a few manage to advance to management and senior management positions.

In a study of female managers in their 30s in Singapore, it was found that the lack of inter-organisational mobility, limited scope defined by their career paths, and the allocation of traditionally feminine tasks, limited the promotional opportunities for women (Chi-Ching, 2001). This study confirms the role external barriers play in upward mobility for women. Contrary to the findings of the Singapore study, a similar study conducted with women at an educational institution in South Africa reveals that 73 % of

the respondents indicated that their careers were not impeded because they were women, and 82 % indicated that they were satisfied with their career aspirations (May, 1999).

(iv) Sexual harassment

Sexual harassment in the work environment is a form of unfair discrimination and is prohibited on the grounds of sex and/or gender and sexual orientation (Labour Relations Act, No 66 of 1995).

Sexual harassment involves unwanted physical, verbal, or non-verbal behaviour that make the workplace an unsafe and unpleasant environment for the victim (Rubenstein, 1991). Sexual harassment has been identified as one of the most pervasive and serious problems female employees experience in the workplace (Fitzgerald & Betz, 1983; Gutek, 1985). It devalues women's abilities and slows down their progress (Gilbert, Hallett & Eldridge, 1994).

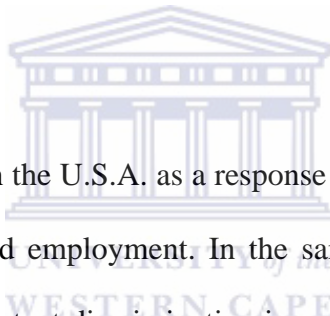
According to Nieva and Gutek (1981), sexual harassment impacts on women in both the short and long term. In the short term women may lose confidence and resign. In the long term career progression is affected and gender inequality is maintained in organisations.

Although South African law (Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No. 75 of 1997) is supportive of women who are sexually harassed, securing actual proof of the harassment is difficult and complicated (Gilbert, et al., 1994). One of the main reasons is the fact that

women have less power in organisations and the harasser is usually a person in management who has more power than the woman (Prekel, 1980).

(v) Race barriers

Despite South Africa recently having celebrated ten years of democracy (Mathur-Helm, 2004), little has changed for black South African women (Erwee, 1994). Racism is still prevalent in South African organisations with black women being scarcely represented in many sectors of the economy, and certainly not in higher paying occupations (Mathur-Helm, 2004).



Affirmative action originated in the U.S.A. as a response to deep-rooted patterns of racial discrimination in education and employment. In the same way, employment equity in Canada was a response to persistent discrimination in employment practices experienced by women and racial minorities (Agocs & Burr, 1996). Similarly in South Africa, since 1994 the South African constitution, affirmative action and employment equity policies were developed to protect the rights of all women, more specifically, to improve the status of women in organisations (Mathur-Helm, 2004). However, affirmative action and employment equity policies do not ensure change in organisational policies and practices. It merely enforced recruiting women and black people in larger numbers. It remains to be seen whether legislation and policy will have any significant impact on the lives of South African women.

Even though all women have been subjected to gender oppression in the workplace, white women have not had to cope with racism and the same brand of patriarchy which is prevalent in black culture (Erwee, 1994). Black women in South Africa have to deal with race and gender issues in their struggle to attain senior positions (Booyesen, 1999).

The importance of gender research should not be underestimated, however, it is insufficient to address the needs of all women. It gives an inaccurate picture of black women's struggles in the workplace in relation to race, gender and class issues (Giscombe & Mattis, 2002). According to a study by Hite (2006) on how black and white women managers perceive racism in the workplace, 69 % of the black participants indicated that whites are insensitive to racism in society, and 42 % of white participants agreed to this. With regard to institutional racism only 26 % of white participants acknowledged institutional racism, 56 % indicated that racism was not evident, and 72 % of black respondents indicated that institutional racism exists. Similarly, with regard to perceptions of affirmative action, 94 % of black participants and 56 % of white participants showed support for affirmative action policies, while 20 % of white participants showed no support for the latter.

These findings depict what is known as "aversive racism". Dovidio (2001, p.834) explains aversive racism as "a subtle unintentional form of bias often found in white individuals who possess strong egalitarian values and who believe that they are non-prejudiced". However, while these individuals claim they value equality, they discriminate unintentionally where their deeds can be justified (Dovidio, 2001).

Hitt and Barr (1989) researched age, race and gender for new job applicants (i.e. women and minority groups) and what their starting salaries should be. This study found that women are rated lower than men and attained less favourable ratings for employment. Lower starting salaries were recommended for women and minority groups in comparison to their male counterparts.

Barrum, Liden and DiTomaso's (1995) study is consistent with the above findings. They also researched the impact of race, gender and age on salary for non-managerial employees. Their findings reveal that women and minority groups receive lower salaries than white men.

Women experience various forms of discrimination in their careers (Bradley, Healy & Mukherjee, 2004). Racial discrimination could take place in key stages in the workplace (recruitment and selection, reward systems, equal treatment, training and development, working times and promotions) so that procedures and practices maintain and justify existing barriers, while equal opportunity processes are ignored (Bradley, et. al., 2004). Racism is a serious barrier to women of colour and prevents them from progressing to top levels of management.

Hurley and Giannantonio (1999) also examined the constructs of race, age and gender on managerial career attainment of women, African-Americans, Asian-Americans and Hispanics. Their findings reveal that individuals with higher levels of education and higher performance assessments achieve greater career attainment. This is consistent with

the findings of Hitt and Barr (1989) and Barrum et al., (1995). The results of the study by Hurley and Giannantonio (1999) reveal that the three interactions between race, gender and age were significantly related to career attainment.

It is clear from most of the documented research that race and gender discrimination are persistent realities in the workplace (Agocs & Burr, 1996). Although black and white women share similarities and may be subjected to gender discrimination, organisations would be making a mistake if they assume that gender bias is the only obstacle facing all women at work. This would be tantamount to denying the impact of racism on workplace opportunities (Hite, 2006).



2.6.2.3 Social isolation

Women may experience social isolation for various reasons, namely, exclusion from informal group activities and functions, few female role models to share experiences with, and male managers who experience discomfort when working with female employees (Russell, 1994).

(i) Lack of mentors and role models

Astin and Leland (1991, p.47) refer to mentors and role models as “individuals who give permission to aspire, act and transcend prescribed gender roles”. Mentoring is considered to be a critical aspect for the professional development and advancement of men and

women in organisations (Hunsaker & Hunsaker, 1991). In most organisations, men hold senior management positions and this disadvantages female managers because they lack the opportunity to socialize with and develop mentoring relationships which might help groom them for senior or top management positions. (Chi-Ching, 1992). Ackah and Heaton (2003) found that senior women felt secluded and alienated in male dominated organisations.

Kahn (1984) contends that a lack of role models in organisations is known to have a strong influence on women's achievement, motivation, affiliate behaviour, and anxiety levels. Chi-Ching (2001) affirms the above position by stating that female managers are at a disadvantage as a result of their limited access to organisational power and mentors. According to Stickel and Bonett (1991) the opportunity to learn from the success of others is limited due to the lack of female role models in male dominated careers. The value of mentors and role models is highlighted by female directors (Vinnicombe & Singh 2003). According to Betz and Fitzgerald (1987, p.70) "literature regarding the selection of occupational role models indicate that males almost always report other males as significant role models and persons of influence, while females are likely to report both male and female role models".

According to Russell (1994) mentoring is needed in two stages of women's career development. In the early phase mentoring teaches women the inner workings of an organisation and shows them how to build their image and become team players. In later

stages mentoring provides endorsements for women who want to apply for promotions into senior management.

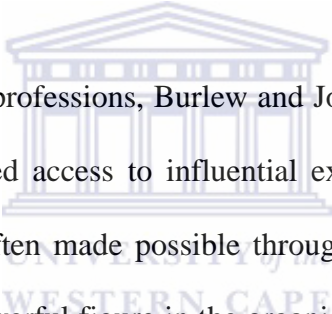
A study of women managers with mentors revealed the following: mentors provided challenging job opportunities, they provided feedback on performance, they shared their experience and expertise, they acknowledged the potential of their protégés and encouraged career development. A large percentage of the participants reported that their mentors influenced their career development positively (Wentling, 1992).

Finally, it is important for women in executive positions to ensure that other women are fairly mentored and promoted. However, it is equally important that women do not fall into the trap of establishing a “pink-collar ghetto” around themselves (Coetzer, 2005). This implies that women in executive positions should be careful not to surround themselves by women only as this could lead to further isolation.

(ii) Limited access to informal networks

Networking entails association and communication between individuals at vertical and lateral levels in an organisation (Russell, 1994). It takes place through conferences, workshops, mutual friends, and after-hour gatherings, and is often regarded as an “old boy’s network”.

Successful managers use networking to exchange information, trade technical expertise, and garner support (Kaplan, 1984). According to (Oakley, 2000) the “old boys’ network” works within and stretches across organisations. However, in most cases it excludes less powerful men and women from membership (Oakley, 2000). Women express frustration at being excluded from informal networks in organisations (Russell, 1994). Estimates indicate that more than 50 % of most management positions are obtained through personal contacts (Lemons, 2003). This view is affirmed by women in the foodservice industry who list exclusion from informal networks of communication as one of the main barriers they experience (Doss, 2000).

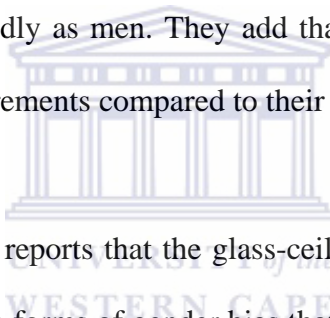


With regard to non-traditional professions, Burlew and Johnson (1992) note that African American women report limited access to influential executives as a barrier to career success. Access to power is often made possible through a relationship with a mentor who is an older and a more powerful figure in the organisation. Previous research (Coles & Ballard, 1974; Kanter, 1977) notes that it is highly unlikely for women to receive this type of support in non-traditional careers.

According to Lemons (2003) networking also refers to the development and use of contacts to further one’s career. However, due to the positive relationship that exists between the members of organisational power and promotions, a lack of networking may lead to the glass-ceiling for women (Lemons, 2003).

2.7 The glass ceiling: stuck at middle management

According to Castro and Furchtgott-Roth (1997) the Wall Street journal introduced the American public to the term “glass-ceiling” when its “corporate women” column identified the abstruse phenomenon. The term had been used to describe an invisible and impenetrable barrier between women and the executive suite, leaving women at the peak of their careers at a significantly lower level than their male colleagues who advanced rapidly beyond them. According to Naidoo and May (2005) the glass ceiling has become a fashionable explanation for why so few women attain leadership positions and do not achieve career mobility as rapidly as men. They add that women tend to be faced with more rigorous promotion requirements compared to their male colleagues.

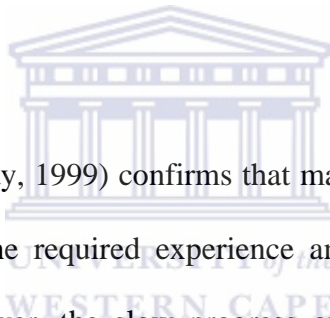


Auster (cited in Oakley, 2000) reports that the glass-ceiling is not a “ceiling or wall” in one spot, but many in pervasive forms of gender bias that occurs in both overt and covert ways. This implies that women experience career barriers on many levels in organisations in subtle and often not so subtle ways, namely inadequate career opportunities, lack of line-experience, the “old-boy” network at the top, and tokenism (Oakley, 2000).

Castro and Furchtgott-Roth (1997) contends that the vast majority of women are still not able to “peep” through the glass-ceiling but are excluded by “glass-walls” because they are trapped in positions that do not lead to the executive suite or provide visibility to decision-makers. According to a survey conducted with 201 CEOs in the U.S.A. in 1992, only 2 % embraced the possibility that their companies might have female CEOs within

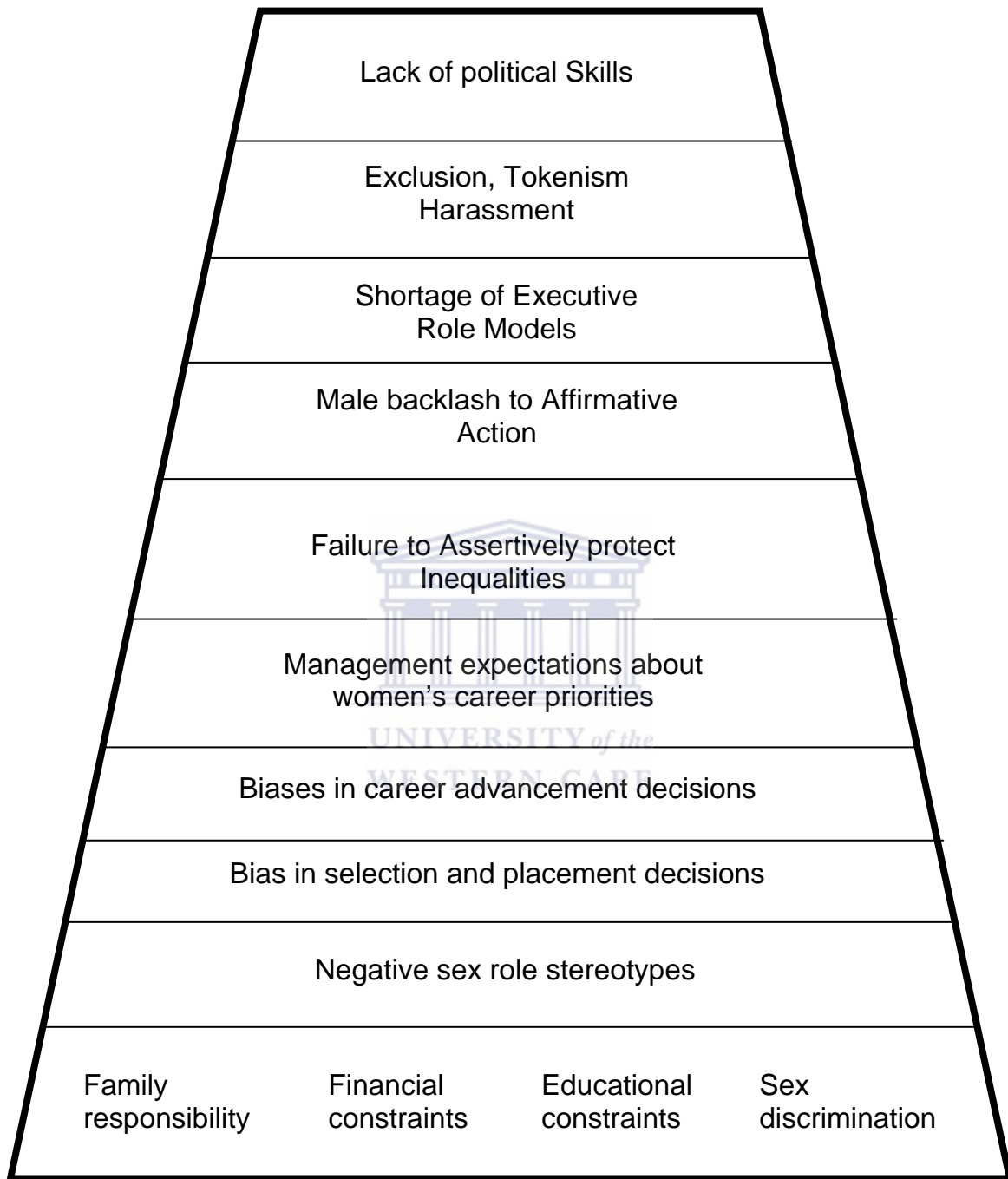
the next decade (Oakley, 2000). This is an indication that despite the progress women have made, ascending to CEO positions remains a huge challenge (Oakley, 2000).

Multinational firms had begun promoting women into senior management positions as global competition put pressure on them to maximize their human resources for organisational effectiveness (Oakley, 2000). A study conducted in 1995 found that despite some positive steps being taken the glass ceiling was still intact (Castro & Furchtgott-Roth, 1997). Women of all races were not well represented in the upper echelons of the companies reviewed, compared with their overall numbers in the workforce.



Research (Govender, 1997; May, 1999) confirms that many women denied access to top management positions have the required experience and qualifications, and meet the criteria for promotions. However, the slow progress of women into top management positions highlights females' under-representation as an important ethical issue (Oakley, 2000). Despite some progress being made in remedying these difficulties, the problems have simply become "more subtle and more difficult to detect" (Russell, 1994, p.317).

2.7.1 Women's career ladder: some broken steps



B. Rosen (1982) cited in Russell (1994).

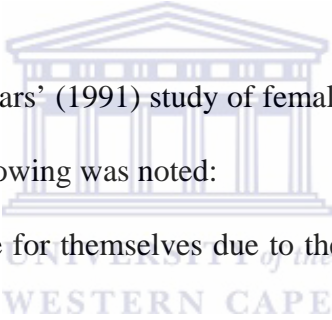
Figure 2.7.1 illustrates some of the barriers women encounter in the workplace, especially as they move up the organisational hierarchy.

2.8 An overview of research findings on career barriers

In recent years, the number of women entering the labour force has increased significantly throughout the world and South Africa is no exception (Govender, 1997). However, in most cases women still assume the primary responsibility for the home (Jano, 2000).

Notwithstanding the increase in the number of women in management positions, patterns of participation remain unchanged. The few women who have broken the glass ceiling have incurred alienation, loneliness, victimization and isolation (Naidoo & May, 2005).

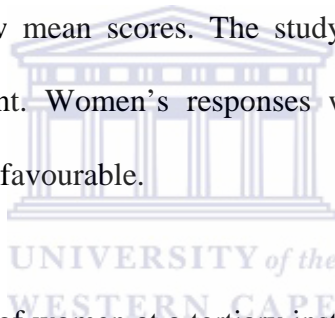
According to Swanson and Tokars' (1991) study of female college students regarding the barriers they perceived, the following was noted:

- 
- Women have limited time for themselves due to the time consumed by family and children;
 - Pressure from multiple role obligations, and discrimination due to pregnancy were perceived as the greatest obstacles to career advancement; and
 - Lack of spousal support was viewed as another potential barrier.

In a study by Chi-Ching (2001) family-related and work-related barriers were used as predictor variables in relation to the career success of women graduates. Work/organisational barriers were found to be important predictors of women's career success. Women cited lack of training and upward mobility opportunities. They also felt trapped in their jobs due to limited inter-organisational movement. After years of

experiencing lack of opportunity, participants concluded that they were being discriminated against because they were women. Overall, the study confirmed the significance of external barriers and provided an understanding of how work/organisational barriers interact to impede women's career advancement.

A study conducted by Govender (1997) found that the lack of mentors, the lack of role models, role conflict, male attitudes toward working women, the lack of day care facilities, the lack of part-time employment opportunities, insufficient maternity benefits, and late re-entry into the labour market were inherent career advancement obstacles. This was reflected by the low mean scores. The study also found that women were subjected to sexual harassment. Women's responses with regard to men's attitudes indicated that the latter were unfavourable.



A recent study by May (1999) of women at a tertiary institution in South Africa revealed that 73 % of the women felt their careers had not been impeded because they are female, and 82, 9 % reported that their current jobs satisfied their career aspirations. However, 51, 2 % of the respondents experienced conflict between their work and home/family roles. In this study, multiple-role conflict was directly related to conflict between children and career demands. Although the women indicated career satisfaction they also experienced role conflict.

2.9 Theories of career development

Both men and women travel through life's journey experiencing a series of life and career changes. Needless to say, life and career development is an ongoing process from birth to death that involves cycles of transition and stability (Govender, 1997). Hence, career development in a broad and general sense can be referred to as the "total constellation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic, and chance factors that combine to shape the career of any given individual over the lifespan" (Sears, 1982, p.139).

Although the three development theorists (Super, Levinson and Gottfredson) have received considerable attention (cited in Swanson, 1992), the present study will focus only on Super's and Levinson's theories.

Super, Levinson and Gottfredson's theories focus on development over one's lifespan. The theories share a common assumption that one's self-concept becomes more clearly defined with age, and that career choice is a process of matching one's self-concept with images of the occupation world (Swanson, 1992). Super (1990) argues that career development is an ongoing process of assessing and integrating knowledge of one's self, internal variables (such as values, interest and abilities), and external variables (such as employment practices, job market, and economic conditions). Levinson (1978) proposes a series of age-related life stages, which are comprised of unique activities and adjustments. Gottfredson (1981) offers a theory of occupation circumscription and

compromise. According to him, as individuals' perceptions of themselves and the world of work develop, the range of occupational alternatives is successively circumscribed (Swanson, 1992).

2.10 Super's theory of career development

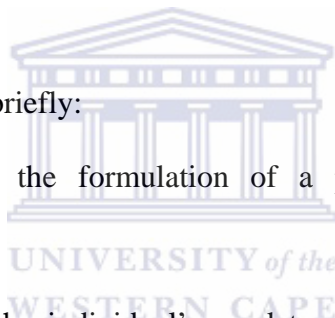
Super's theory receives constant attention, has stimulated much research, and has influenced the field of vocational psychology (Herr & Cramer, cited in Naidoo, 1993). His research shows sequential life stages and developmental tasks applicable to career development spanning from birth to death (Amundson, Harris-Bowlsbey & Niles, 2005). His construct of a Life-Career Rainbow which spans activities from all interacting life roles, forms part of his definition of career (Amundson et al., 2005). Super elaborates on Buechler's five psychological life stages, listed below, which form the basis for his theory (cited in Naidoo, 1993):

These stages are:

1. Growth (birth to age 14 or 15), characterised by the development of capacity, attitudes, interests, and needs associated with self-concepts;
2. Exploration (ages 15 to 24), characterised by a tentative phase in which choices are narrowed but not finalised;
3. Establishment (ages 24 to 44), characterised by trial and stabilisation through work experiences;

4. Maintenance (ages 45 to 64), characterised by a continual adjustment process to consolidate work position and situation; and
5. Decline (ages 65+), characterised by pre-retirement considerations, work output and eventual retirement.

The theory emphasises that the skill of making effective career choices depends on the acquisition of specific knowledge (of the self, the world of work, and specific occupations) and completing appropriate tasks (crystallization of opinions) (Amundson et al., 2005).



The above tasks are described briefly:

1. Crystallisation refers to the formulation of a preferred career plan and its implementation.
2. Specification alludes to the individual's need to specify the career plan through specific resources and explicit awareness of compelling variables for the preferred choice.
3. Implementation is accomplished by completion of training and entry into the career;
4. Stabilisation is attained when the individual is firmly established in a career and develops a sense of security in the career.
5. Consolidation is achieved when advancement and seniority in a career is attained (Super, Starishesky, Matlin & Jordaan (1963) cited in Naidoo 1993).

2.11 Levinson's Theory

Although Levinson's (1978) study focused on male adult development, he asserts that women experience similar developmental cycles as men, but in partially different ways (Jano, 2000). The thrust of Levinson's model and life stages pertains to the timing of relationships and family events (White, Cox & Cooper 1992).

2.11.1 Levinson's approach to life development

Levinson (1978) identified eight periods of the adult life cycle namely (i) the early adult transition (ii) the first adult life structure (iii) the age 30 transition (iv) the second adult life structure (v) the mid-life transition (vi) entering middle adulthood (vii) middle adulthood transition and (viii) late adult transition. These phases are discussed below.

(i) The early adult transition: moving from pre to early adulthood

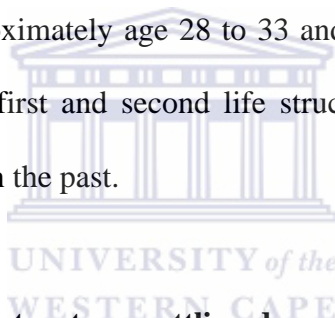
The early adult transition begins at age 17 and ends at approximately age 22. Two major tasks take place during this phase, namely (a) individuals move out of the pre-adult world and question their place in it, and (b) take precursory steps into the adult world and explore its possibilities. Lerner and Hultsch (1983) add that this phase characterises the completion of high school, separation from the family and entry into a tertiary institution.

(ii) The first adult life structure: entering the adult world

This stage extends from approximately age 22 to age 28. During this phase the individual tests occupations, relationships and values. The stage has two antithetical tasks, namely (1) to explore the possibility of adult living, and (2) to create a stable life structure, i.e. to become more responsible.

(iii) The age thirty transition: changing the first life structure

This phase extends from approximately age 28 to 33 and allows individuals to work on weaknesses/limitations in the first and second life structures. This phase characterises change and builds directly upon the past.



(iv) The second adult life structure: settling down

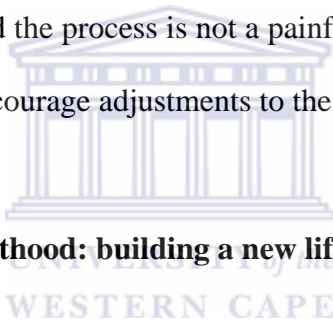
This phase ranges from ages 33 to 40. During this period the individual invests in work, family, friendships, leisure, and tries to realise his aspirations as a youth. The period is characterised by two major tasks namely (a) to establish a niche in society by developing in a chosen field and becoming a valued member of society and (b) to advance and progress by working towards a time frame.

“At the start of this period, a man is on the bottom rung of his ladder and is entering a world in which he is a junior member. His aims are to advance in the enterprise, to climb

the ladder and become a senior member in the world. His sense of well-being during this period depends strongly on his own and others' evaluation of his progress toward these goals" (Levinson, 1978, p.60).

(v) The mid-life transition: moving from early to middle adulthood

The mid-life transition extends from approximately age 45 and spans from early to middle adulthood. During this phase individuals introspect. Some individuals do little questioning and are untroubled by the value and direction of their lives. Others realize that their lives are changing and the process is not a painful one. The neglected aspects of the self seek expression and encourage adjustments to the existing structure.



(vi) Entering middle adulthood: building a new life structure

The mid-life transition ends by age 45 and the building of a new life structure begins (age 45 to 50). This period marks a series of changes rather than one dramatic event.

“Some men have suffered irreparable defeats in childhood or early adulthood, and have been unable to work on the tasks of their mid-life transition. They face a middle adulthood of constriction and decline” (Levinson, 1978, p.62).

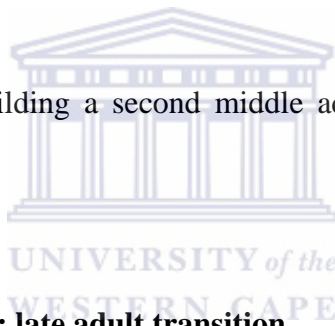
(vii) Subsequent periods in middle adulthood

Age 50: mid-life transition

This phase lasts from age 50. Individuals adjust life structures they created during the mid-life transition. It is not conceivable to get through middle adulthood without an extremity in either the mid-life transition or the age fifty transition.

Age 55 to 60 transition

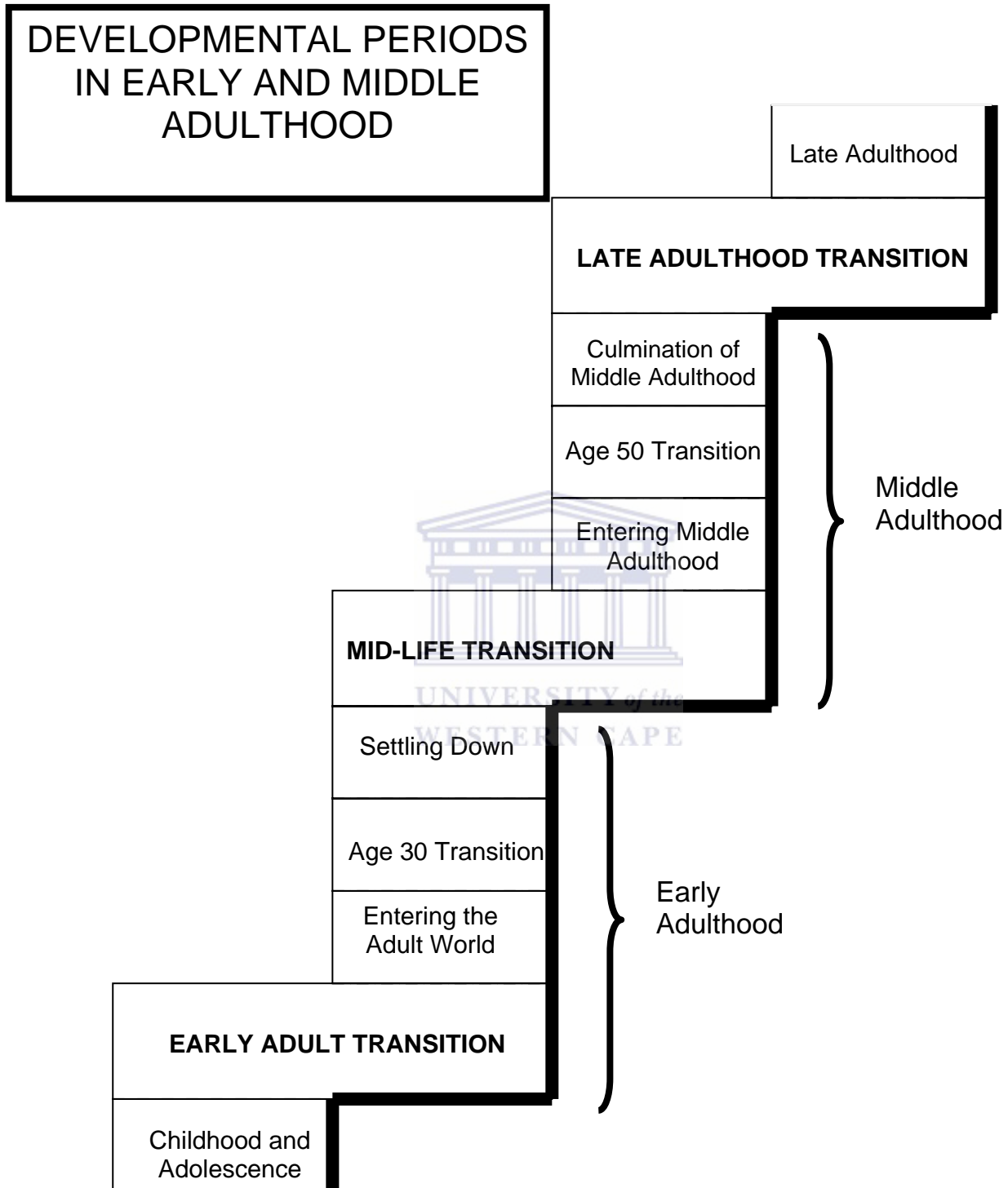
This phase is dedicated to building a second middle adult structure. It is a period of rejuvenation and fulfillment.



(viii) Age 60 to 65 transition: late adult transition

This phase is the late adult transition and creates the foundation for late adulthood. It is a period of significant development and presents a major turning point in the life cycle. According to Levinson's theory each new period makes an essential contribution to the life cycle and presents opportunities to develop and create a life more suitable to the self (Levinson, 1978).

2.11 Levinson's adult life cycle



(Levinson, 1978, p.57)

2.12 Conclusion

This chapter has focused on both the internal and external barriers that impede the career advancement of women. Women have not only entered the work force in large numbers they are also aspiring to management positions. It is also evident that there is a paradigm shift in the attitudes and thinking of dual earner couples that have become the norm in most societies. While legislation in South Africa is meant to protect the rights of women, data produced from the Employment Equity Report (Department of Labour, 2003) indicate that these rights have been subverted in practice.

With regard to Career Development Theory, both Super and Levinson agree that individuals go through a series of stages throughout their lifespan. The career ladder symbolises the many challenges that women have to overcome in order to reach the pinnacle of their careers.

The next chapter will discuss the research design, research methodology and statistical procedures used to analyse the data.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

“The present economy has created labour markets that call for the participation of women on a larger scale” (Clancy & Tata, 2005).

3.1 Introduction

In the process of conducting research, information is acquired from the sample population using various techniques. These techniques will be discussed briefly in this chapter.

The main aim of this study is to investigate the barriers that impede the career advancement of women in the workplace. More specifically, it investigates the barriers in relation to the age of respondents, race of respondents, marital status of respondents and job levels of respondents.

Participants completed two sets of questionnaires, namely a demographic questionnaire and the CBI-R questionnaire.

Research was conducted at an auditing firm. Although the firm has offices throughout the country, research was conducted in the Western Cape only. Respondents were informed that their participation was voluntary and that their responses would be held in the

strictest confidence. They were also informed that the data collected would be used only for the purposes of this study.

3.2 Definition of terminology

For the purposes of this chapter the following terms will be defined: reliability, validity and sample population.

3.2.1 Reliability

Reliability generally refers to consistency or stability taking into account that measurements can be repeated and confirmed by further competent measures (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1996). In addition, reliability refers to the consistency of test scores and explicitly recognises that any particular measurement is not perfect (Graham & Lilly, 1984, p.28).

3.2.2 Validity

Validity refers to whether measurements measure what they intend to measure (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1996). In addition, validity is the extent to which differences found with a measuring instrument reflect true differences among the respondents being tested (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

3.2.3 Sample

“Sampling is the process used to select cases for inclusion in a research study” (Blanche & Durrheim, p.276, 1999). However, the basic idea of sampling is to select some elements in a population that will allow one to make inferences about an entire population (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

3.3. Research design

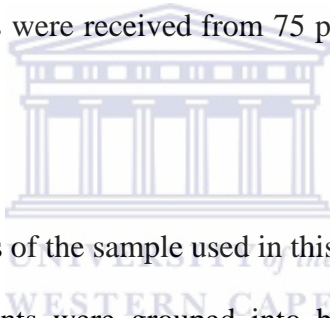
Kerlinger and Lee (2000) state that the research design of any study has two basic principles, namely, (i) to provide answers to research questions and (ii) to control variance. Furthermore, it enables the researcher to answer specific research questions validly, objectively and accurately. According to these authors the research design is deliberately planned and executed to generate empirical evidence based on the research problem.

Information on the following demographic variables was obtained:

- age of respondents
- race of respondents
- marital status of respondents
- job levels of respondents

3.4 The population

In the present study the sample was drawn from permanent female employees in management, ranging from assistant manager to assistant director/partner levels in the organisation. The participating firm employs 820 employees in the Western Cape. Statistics from the Human Resources Department (2005) show that the firm employs 436 (53.2 %) women and 384 (46.8 %) men in the Western Cape. Of the 436 (53.2 %) women, 125 (15.2 %) occupied management positions. Questionnaires were handed out to 125 permanent professional women (n = 125) who are in management positions in the firm. Completed questionnaires were received from 75 participants (n = 75), making it a 60 % response rate.



The biographical characteristics of the sample used in this study are reflected below:

With regard to race, participants were grouped into black and white women. White women comprised 65 % (n = 49) and black women comprised 35 % (n = 26). Black women included African, Coloured, and Indian women.

With regard to age, participants were grouped into 3 categories, namely (i) 35 years and younger (ii) 36 to 40 year's old (iii) 40 years and older. The sample comprised of 32 % (n = 24) in the 35 years and younger age group; 28 % (n = 21) in the 36 – 40 year age group, and 40 % (n = 30) in the 40 year and older age group.

With regard to marital status, participants were grouped into 3 categories, namely, single, divorced/widowed, and married. The sample comprised of 41 % single women (n = 31); 24 % divorced/widowed women (n = 18), and 35 % married women (n = 26).

With regard to job levels/positions, participants were grouped into 3 categories, namely manager level, senior manager level, and assistant director to partner levels. The sample comprised of 65 % managers (n = 49), 21 % senior managers (n = 16) and assistant director to partner levels 13 % (n = 10).

3.5 Measuring instruments

For the purpose of this study questionnaires were considered to be the most appropriate medium to gather the required information. Weiers (1998) notes specific advantages to using questionnaires for research purposes. The analysing of information from structured questionnaires is relatively straightforward and questionnaires generally carry a low cost. More specifically, questionnaires allow participants sufficient time to formulate accurate responses. However, the use of questionnaires can also place the researcher at a disadvantage, that is, through a poor response rate and incomplete questions.

In the present study two measuring instruments were used to gather information, namely a demographic questionnaire and a career barriers questionnaire. The demographic questionnaire was developed by the researcher to obtain biographical information relevant to the sample and study.

3.5.1 Demographic questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire was designed to elicit the following information from participants: age; racial grouping; marital status and job levels.

3.5.2 The Career Barrier Inventory – Revised (CBI-R) Questionnaire

The Career Barriers Inventory - Revised (CBI-R) was one of the instruments used for the purposes of this study. Evidence from empirical studies show that the construct of barriers is important in explaining the career choice process (Swanson & Tokar, 1991). Various types of perceived barriers can be a limiting factor in the choice of a career (Swanson & Tokar, 1996 cited in May, 1999). However, the use of the word “perceived” to refer to such barriers implies that the career-related barrier that the individual believes to exist is not necessarily grounded in reality or based on factual information (Albert & Luzzo, 1999). Nonetheless, the construct of perceived barriers is viewed as a vital explanatory variable with regard to career choice (Swanson & Tokar, 1996 cited in May, 1999).

The CBI-R is a revised version of the Careers Barriers Inventory. The original version of the CBI had many weaknesses which resulted in the Career Barrier Inventory –Short (CBI-S) being developed (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996). The CBI-R is the most recent version of the CBI. In the revised edition the content scales were strengthened and shortened (Swanson, et al., 1996).

(i) Psychometric properties of the CBI

Swanson and Tokar (1991) piloted the CBI on 558 college students (313 females and 245 males). After item and factor analysis it was reduced from 112 to 102 items consisting of 18 factorially derived barrier scales.

“The psychometric adequacy of the 18 CBI scales was evaluated through reliability analyses of each scale, scale intercorrelations and item-scale intercorrelations” (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996, p. 222). The results revealed internal consistency with an alpha estimate of .81 and .32 median intercorrelations.

However, despite the fact that the CBI was recognised as a useful instrument it had several weaknesses and had to be revised. The instrument was shortened, item content scales were revised, items were rewritten for purposes of clarity and items that overlapped were deleted. These changes resulted in the CBI-S being developed (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996).

(ii) Psychometric properties of the CBI-R

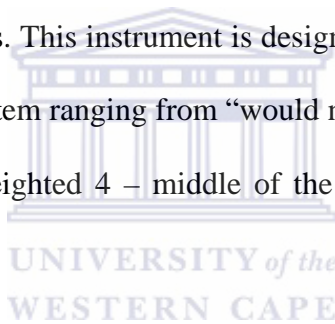
According to Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996), characteristics of the CBI-R are:

- The means, standard deviation, and alpha coefficients of the CBI-R were elicited from a sample of 100 college students;
- Internal consistency coefficients ranged from .64 to .86 with a median of .77;

- Some of the coefficients were lower than corresponding coefficients in previous samples (e.g. Conflict between Children and Career Demands had alpha coefficients of .75 compared to a range of .81 to .86 in the previous sample);
- Inter-correlations were generally high, ranging from .27 to .80 with a median of .60;
- Significant racial differences emanated on 8 of the 13 CBI-R scales (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996).

(iii) Description of CBI-R scales

The CBI-R consists of 70 items. This instrument is designed as a Likert-type scale with 7 response alternatives for each item ranging from “would not hinder at all” (weighted 1) to “would hinder somewhat” (weighted 4 – middle of the range) and “would completely hinder” (weighted 7).



“A Likert scale consists of a set of items to which the subject responds with agreement or disagreement” (Judd, Smith & Kidder, 1991, p.163). The Likert Scale has a few advantages, namely it produces precise and reliable information, it can be used to measure multi-dimensional domains, and participants feel at ease when responding to the individual items (Judd, et a., 1991).

The scales are:

1. The Lack of Confidence scale consists of four items. These items assess confidence and self-esteem (e.g. Unsure of how to “sell myself” to an employer). This scale was revised significantly during the revision of the CBI.
2. The Sex Discrimination scale consists of seven items. This scale assesses discrimination regarding family planning and marital status). The original version comprised of 14 items. Items that were retained reflected discrimination rather than tokenism or under-representation of one sex.
3. The Racial Discrimination scale consists of 6 items. This scale assesses racial discrimination broadly. The most significant change was to delete items related to age discrimination and concentrate on racial discrimination.
4. The Multiple-Role Conflict scale consists of eight items. Role-conflict in general is assessed.
5. The Conflict between Children and Career Demands scale consists of seven items. Balancing work responsibilities with raising of children responsibilities are assessed.
6. The Disapproval by Significant Others scale consists of three items. This scale assesses sources of disapproval regarding career choices.
7. The Decision-Making Difficulties scale consists of eight items. This scale assesses difficulty with choosing a career direction and being unsure of career alternatives/career goals.
8. The Dissatisfaction with Career scale consists of five items. This scale associates disappointment and boredom.

9. The Discouraged from Choosing Nontraditional Careers scale consists of five items. Support for non-traditional fields (being discouraged from pursuing fields which are non-traditional for the sex e.g. engineering for women) is assessed.
10. The Disability/Health Concerns scale consists of three items. This scale assessed items which limit career choice due to disability or health reasons.
11. The Job Market Constraints scale consists of four items. This scale assesses items related to the job market. (e.g. difficulty in finding a job due to a tight job market or not wanting to relocate for a job or career).
12. The Difficulties with Networking/Socialisation scale. This scale consists of five items. It was included in the most recent version of the instrument. The scale was developed by using two items that was assigned to other scales.

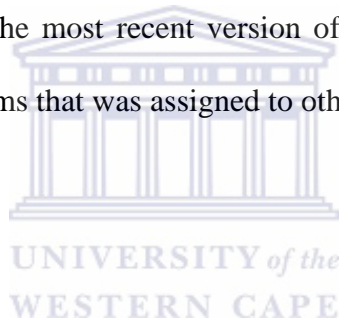


Table: 3.1: Characteristics of the 13 CBI-R Scales

Scale	No. of Items	alpha	M	SD	Correlation between versions
Sex Discrimination	7	.86	4.33	1.29	.96
Lack of Confidence	4	.77	4.02	1.34	.93
Multiple-Role Conflict	8	.78	4.20	1.02	.95
Conflict between Children and Career Demands	7	.75	3.67	1.03	.97
Racial Discrimination	6	.84	4.41	1.35	.84
Inadequate Preparation	5	.85	4.36	1.33	.72
Disapproval by Significant Others	3	.64	3.04	1.31	1.00
Decision-making Difficulties	8	.83	4.25	1.15	.83
Dissatisfaction with Career	5	.79	4.49	1.22	.91
Discouraged from Choosing non-traditional careers	5	.75	3.03	1.16	.88
Disability/Health Concerns	3	.76	4.23	1.51	.95
Job Market Constraints	4	.68	4.38	1.18	New scale
Difficulties with Networking/Socialisation	5	.64	4.37	1.06	New scale

(Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996)

3.6 Procedure for data gathering

3.6.1. Sampling

Permission to conduct the research was initially obtained from the regional chairperson of the Western Cape. In subsequent meetings a senior female partner was introduced to the study, and briefed on its aims and objectives. To stimulate interest a detailed letter was sent electronically by the senior partner and then the researcher to all participants who were identified for the study.

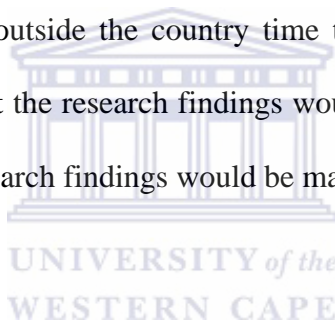
The researcher obtained a list of all participants, their contact details, and e-mail addresses from the Human Resources Department. Subsequently questionnaires were distributed to all participants. Participants were informed of the purpose and objectives of the study, and that the results would be used only for the purposes of this study. They were also reassured that ethical consideration with regard to confidentiality and anonymity would be strictly adhered to. The study had the full support of management at the firm.

3.6.2. Data gathering

A composite questionnaire (demographic and CBI-R questionnaires) with a detailed covering letter was packaged and sent out through the firm's internal mailing system. Questionnaires were couriered to offices outside of the internal mailing system.

Questionnaires were self-administered and participants were requested to return the questionnaires within two weeks in the pre-addressed envelope that was provided. As an alternative participants were informed that they could leave the completed questionnaires at reception in their offices and arrangements would be made for the questionnaires to be collected by the researcher. Questionnaires that came via the firms internal mailing system was placed in a sealed box which the researcher collected personally.

At the end of the second week a 50 % response rate was achieved. However, the researcher decided to extend the due date with the hope of achieving a 60 % response rate, and to give participants outside the country time to respond. This was achieved. Participants were informed that the research findings would be presented to the firm and a written summation of the research findings would be made available on request.



3.6.3 Data Analysis

Questionnaires were precoded in order to simplify the processing of raw data. The study used a quantitative methodological approach as apposed to a qualitative approach. To analyse the data the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS – version 13) was used. Various statistical procedures were used to analyse the data, namely descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and the Scheffe's post hoc multiple comparison.

According to Tredoux and Durrheim (2002, p.254), the “ANOVA is used to test for differences between means of more than two groups, and can be used in designs with more than one independent variable.” The purpose of the ANOVA is to compare the means of two or more groups in order to decide whether the observed difference between them represents a chance occurrence or a systematic effect (Pretorius, 1995). In the present study the ANOVA was used to test career barriers in relation to age, race, marital status and job levels of participants.

Post Hoc Comparisons

Post Hoc comparisons are methods for detecting exactly how groups differ from each other. If the F test is significant it indicates that at least one out of all possible comparisons between pairs of means are significant. The Scheffe t-test is one of the most widely used Post Hoc Tests (Pretorius, 1995).

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the research design and methodology used in the study. It also described the population from which the sample was drawn; outlined procedures followed to gather and collate the data; discussed the measuring instruments used in the study; and briefly described the statistical methods used to analyse the data. The next chapter will provide a detailed analysis of the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

“From a global perspective, women’s issues must be addressed as organisations expand their businesses across borders” (Clancy & Tata, 2005).

4.1 Introduction

In this section the results of the empirical analysis are reported and presented. The presentation proceeds with an analysis of the descriptive statistics on the variables under consideration. To facilitate ease in conducting the empirical analyses, the results of the descriptive analyses are presented first, followed by the inferential statistical analysis.

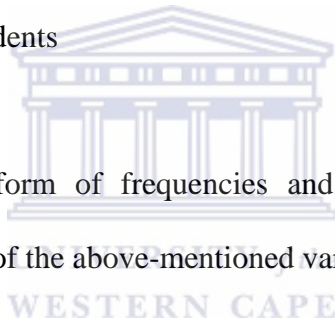
The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data in this research is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 13. The descriptive statistics utilised are based on frequency tables and graphic illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables in this study. This is followed by a presentation of the inferential statistics based on examination of each hypothesis formulated for the research. The upper level of statistical significance for null hypothesis testing was set at 5 %. All statistical test results were computed at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented (Sekaran, 2003).

4.2 Descriptive statistics

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated as obtained by the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that receive attention are:

- age of the respondents
- race of the respondents
- marital status of the respondents
- job levels of the respondents

Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages are subsequently graphically presented for each of the above-mentioned variables.



4.2.1 Biographical characteristics

The subjects' responses with regard to their ages are presented in Figure 4.1.

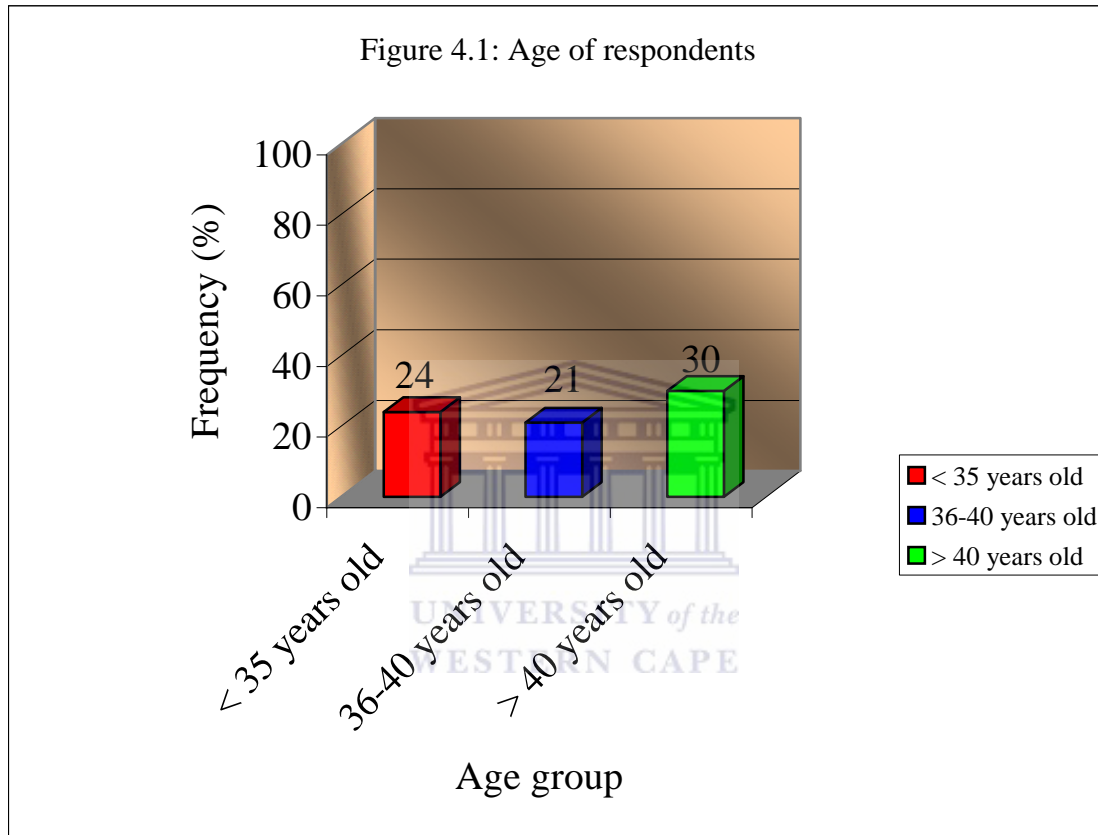


Figure 4.1 shows that the majority of respondents in the sample (40 %, n=30), are older than 40 years. This category is followed by the age group younger than 35 years old into which 32 % (n=24) of the respondents' fall, whilst 28 % (n=21) are between the ages of 36 and 40 years.

Figure 4.2 provides a graphic representation of the distribution of the sample based on race.

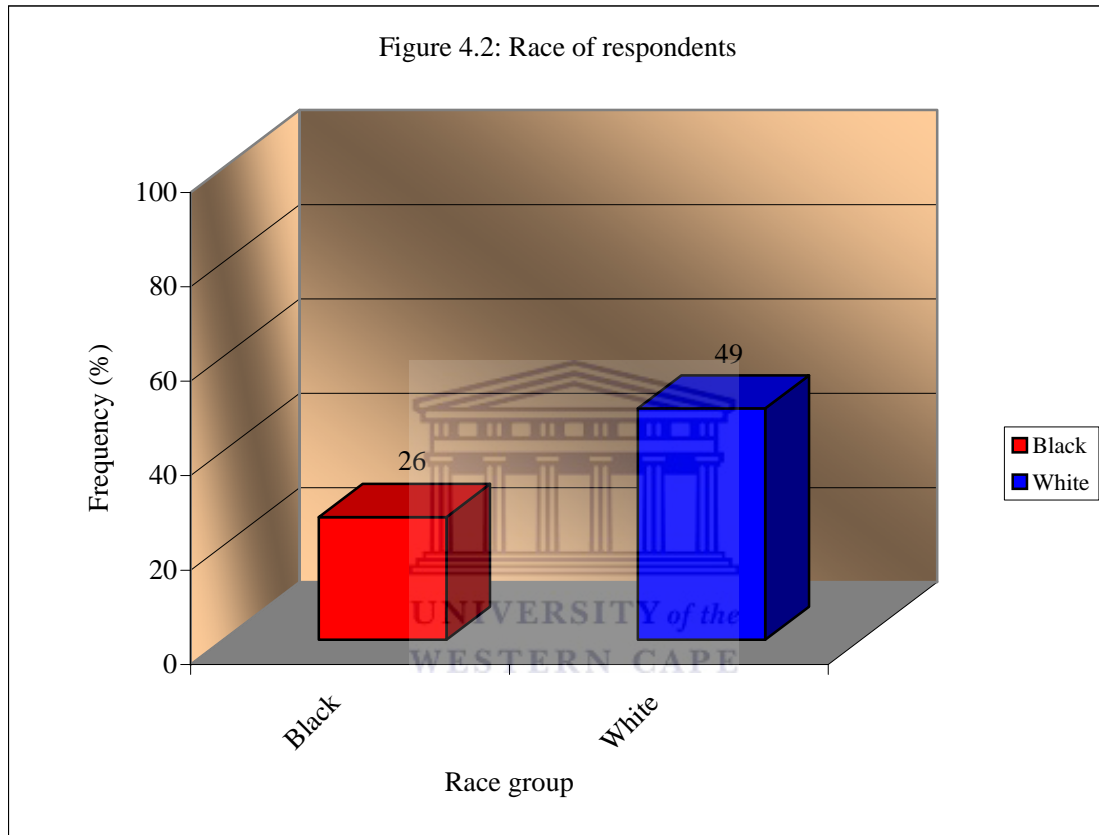
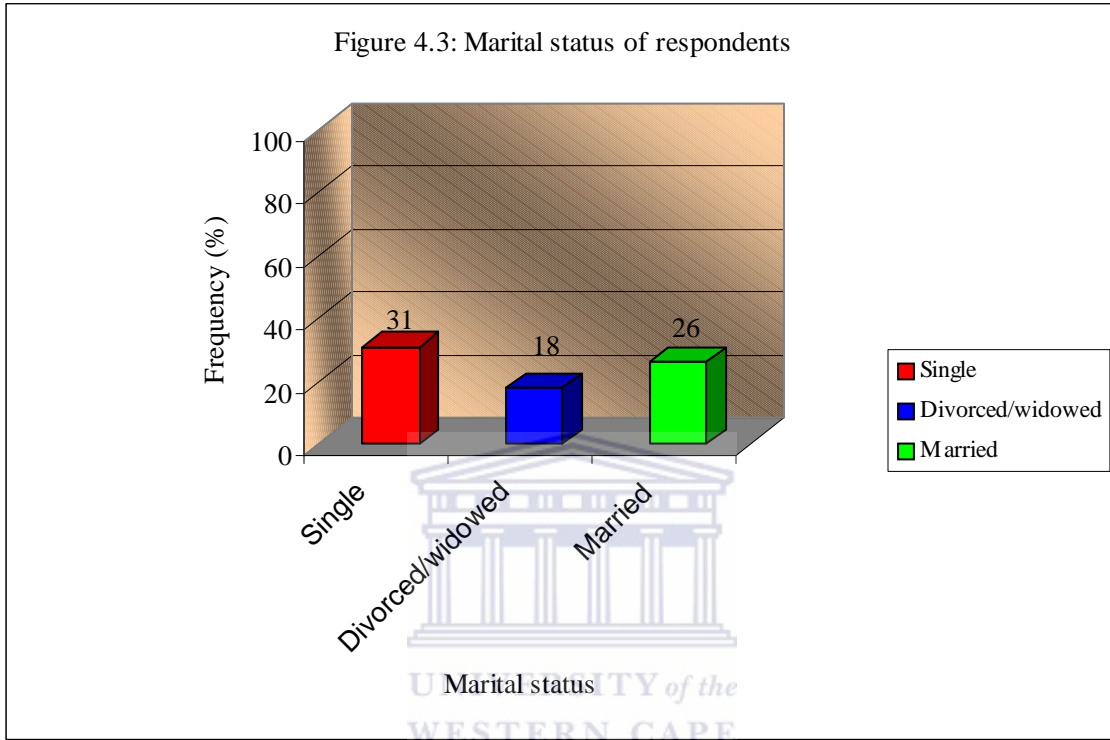


Figure 4.2 reflects the racial composition of the respondents at the organisation where the research was conducted. From the frequency distribution in the graph it can be seen that whites (n = 49) or 65 % represent the largest number of respondents, while Blacks (Africans, Coloured and Indians) comprise 35 % of the sample (n = 26).

Figure 4.3 provides a graphic representation of the marital status of the sample.



As can be seen in Figure 4.3, the majority of the sample ($n = 31$) or 41 % were single, while 24 % ($n = 18$) were divorced/widowed, and 35 % ($n = 26$) were married.

Figure 4.4 provides a graphic representation of the distribution of the sample with regard to job levels of respondents.

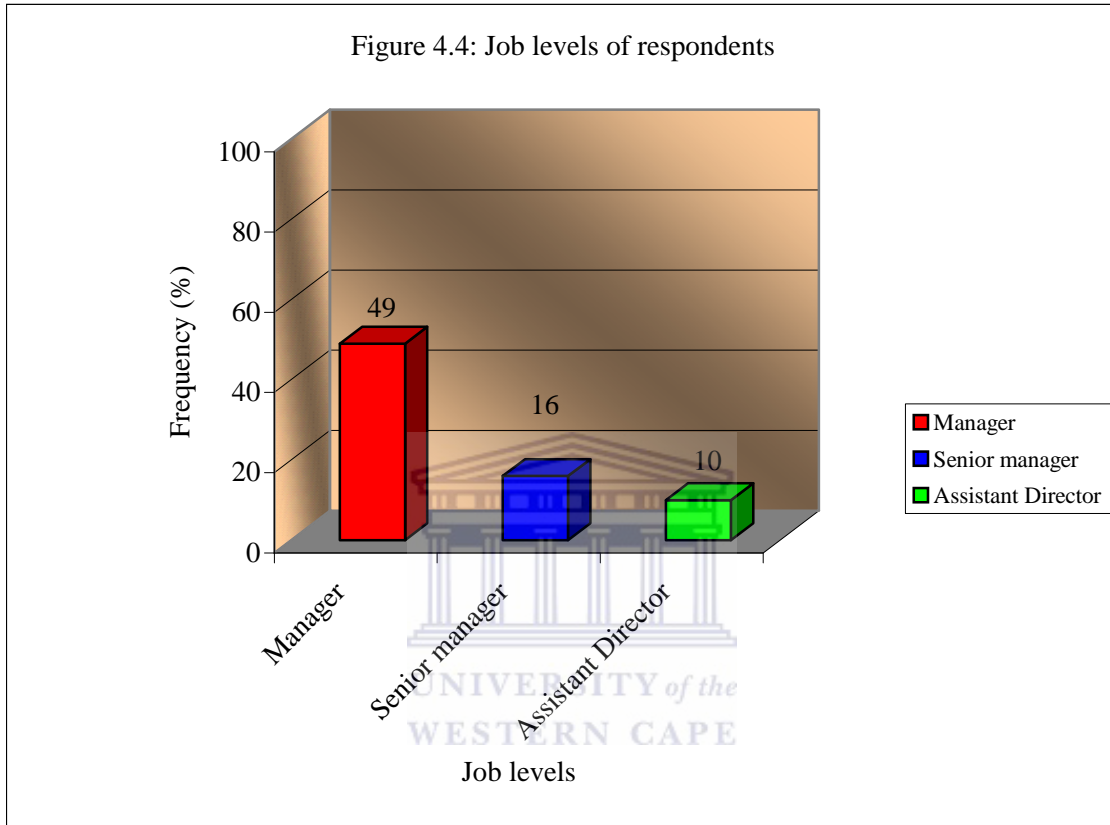


Figure 4.4 indicates that the majority of respondents (n=49) or 65 % of the sample occupied managerial positions, while senior managers comprised 21 % (n=16) of the sample. Assistant directors constituted the remaining 13 % of the sample (n = 10).

4.2.2. Descriptive Statistics for the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised Questionnaire

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations for the respondents were computed for the career barriers inventory questionnaire and are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics for the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised

Career Barrier	Mean	SD
Sex Discrimination	4.70	1.34
Lack of Confidence	4.45	1.54
Multiple-Role conflict	4.52	1.14
Conflict between children and career demands	4.20	1.10
Racial discrimination	4.96	1.32
Inadequate preparation	4.86	1.24
Disapproval by significant others	3.48	2.74
Decision-making difficulties	4.24	1.20
Dissatisfaction with career	4.84	1.12
Discouraged from choosing non-traditional careers	3.60	1.06
Disability/Health concerns	3.46	1.20
Job market constraints	4.64	.94
Difficulties with networking/socialisation	3.88	1.02

In terms of Table 4.1, the career barriers which most women perceived and experienced in the organisation were identified as racial discrimination (Mean = 4.96, sd = 1.32), followed by inadequate preparation (Mean = 4.86, sd = 1.24), and dissatisfaction with career (Mean = 4.84, sd = 1.12). In addition, respondents rated sex discrimination (Mean = 4.70, sd = 1.34), and job market constraints (Mean = 4.64, sd = 0.94) as career barriers.

Respondents rated a lack of confidence (Mean = 4.45, sd = 1.54), conflict between children and career demands (Mean = 4.20, sd = 1.10), multiple role conflict (Mean = 4.52, sd 1.14), and decision-making difficulties (Mean = 4.24, sd = 1.20), as additional career barriers, although these were not rated as highly.

The career barriers which were not as highly rated by respondents included disapproval by significant others (Mean = 3.48, sd = 2.74), discouraged from choosing traditional career (3.60, sd = 1.06), difficulties with networking/socialisation (Mean = 3.88, sd = 1.02), and disability/health concerns (Mean = 3.46, sd = 1.20).

4.3. Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics in the form of one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were computed to determine the differences in career barriers based on the biographical characteristics of respondents. A series of one-way ANOVAs were carried out to determine whether the career barriers experienced by the respondents differed in terms of their biographical variables (age, race, marital status and job levels). Scheffe's post hoc

multiple comparison technique was used to determine which groups differed significantly from the others.

Table 4.2: ANOVA: Career barriers by age

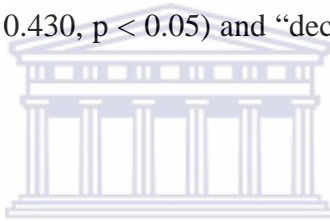
Career barrier	F	P
Sex discrimination	-1.076	0.001**
Lack of confidence	-0.752	0.324
Multiple-role conflict	0.477	0.056
Conflict between children and career demands	-0.132	1.10
Racial discrimination	2.120	0.000**
Inadequate preparation	0.430	0.024*
Disapproval by significant others	-0.675	0.669
Decision-making difficulties	2.046	0.046*
Dissatisfaction with career	-0.771	0.002**
Discouraged from choosing non-traditional careers	0.436	0.442
Disability/health concerns	0.324	0.224
Job market constraints	-0.132	0.296
Difficulties with networking/socialisation	1.234	0.897

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.2 depicts the ANOVA with respect to career barriers based on respondents' ages. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in experiences of sex discrimination based on age for selected career barriers. With an F value of -1.076 , there were significant differences in sex discrimination based on age ($p < 0.01$). Similarly, there were significant differences in the experience of racial discrimination as a career barrier based on the age of respondents ($F = 2.120$, $p < 0.01$), as well as in the career barrier "dissatisfaction with career" ($F = -0.771$, $p < 0.01$).

There were significant differences in the experience of the career barriers "inadequate preparation" based on age ($F = 0.430$, $p < 0.05$) and "decision-making difficulties" based on age ($F = 2.046$, $p < 0.05$).



There were no statistically significant differences in experiences based on age for the remaining career barriers. This implies that the null hypothesis can only be partially accepted.

Table 4.3: Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the age of respondents in relation to career barriers

	Mean	Std error	P
< 35 years	3.72	8.46	0.000**
36 – 40 years	4.18	4.25	
> 40 years	4.46	6.94	

** $p < 0.01$

The results in Table 4.3 indicate that there are statistically significant differences in experiences of career barriers based on age ($p < 0.01$), with younger respondents not perceiving career barriers in the same manner as those in the other age categories. The mean values indicate that respondents younger than 35 years old (Mean = 3.72), did not perceive career barriers as did their older counterparts, with those between the ages of 36-40 (Mean = 4.18) perceiving barriers lower than those older than 40 years (Mean = 4.46).

Table 4.4: ANOVA: Career barriers by race

Career barrier	F	P
Sex discrimination	1.197	0.001**
Lack of confidence	-1.835	0.657
Multiple-role conflict	-0.447	0.073
Conflict between children and career demands	0.676	0.623
Racial discrimination	3.676	0.001**
Inadequate preparation	0.430	0.132
Disapproval by significant others	-0.675	0.837
Decision-making difficulties	1.046	0.030*
Dissatisfaction with career	-2.771	0.000**
Discouraged from choosing non-traditional careers	0.436	0.218
Disability/health concerns	0.324	0.676
Job market constraints	-1.032	0.047*
Difficulties with networking/socialisation	0.234	0.632

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.4 depicts the ANOVA with respect to career barriers based on the race of respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in experiences of sex discrimination based on race for selected career barriers ($F = 1.197$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, there were significant differences in the experience of racial

discrimination as a career barrier based on the race of respondents ($F = 3.676, p < 0.01$), as well as in the career barrier “dissatisfaction with career” ($F = -2.771, p < 0.01$).

There were significant differences in the experience of job market constraints based on race ($F = -1.032, p < 0.05$), and decision making difficulties based on race ($F = 1.046, p < 0.05$). There were no statistically significant differences in experiences based on race for the remaining career barriers. This implies that the null hypothesis can only be partially accepted.

Table 4.5: Scheffe’s Post hoc comparison of the race of respondents in relation to career barriers

	Mean	Std error	P
Black	4.96	6.36	0.000**
White	4.20	4.23	

** $p < 0.01$

In terms of Table 4.5, Scheffe’s post hoc multiple comparisons revealed that there is a statistically significant difference in career barriers based on race ($p < 0.01$). Black (African, Coloured, and Indian) respondents’ experiences of career barriers (Mean = 4.96) were significantly higher relative to their White counterparts (Mean = 4.20).

Table 4.6: ANOVA: Career barriers by marital status

Career barrier	F	P
Sex discrimination	0.343	0.654
Lack of confidence	-1.243	0.043*
Multiple-role conflict	-1.232	0.038*
Conflict between children and career demands	1.354	0.025*
Racial discrimination	0.240	0.402
Inadequate preparation	0.236	0.122
Disapproval by significant others	1.037	0.047*
Decision-making difficulties	1.136	0.039*
Dissatisfaction with career	-1.932	0.020*
Discouraged from choosing non-traditional careers	0.294	0.764
Disability/health concerns	0.681	0.912
Job market constraints	-1.032	0.008**
Difficulties with networking/socialisation	0.356	0.076

* $p < 0.05$


** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.6 depicts the ANOVA with respect to career barriers based on the marital status of respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in experiences of job market constraints based on marital status ($F = -1.032$, $p < 0.01$).

There were significant differences in the experience of lack of confidence ($F = -1.243, p < 0.05$), multiple role conflict ($-1.232, p < 0.05$), conflict between children and career demands ($F = 1.354, p < 0.05$), decision making difficulties ($F = 1.136, p < 0.05$), dissatisfaction with career ($F = -1.932, p < 0.05$), and disapproval by significant others ($F = 1.037, p < 0.05$).

There were no statistically significant differences in experiences based on marital status for the remaining career barriers. This implies that the null hypothesis can only be partially accepted.

Table 4.7: Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the marital status of respondents in relation to career barriers



	Mean	Std error	P
Married	4.03	1.51	0.000**
Divorced/widowed	2.63	1.13	
Single	2.85	1.11	

** $p < 0.01$

In terms of Table 4.7, Scheffe's post hoc multiple comparison reveal that there is a statistically significant difference in career barriers based on marital status ($p < 0.01$). Married respondents' experiences of career barriers (Mean = 4.03) were significantly

higher relative to those of single respondents (Mean = 2.85), and those of respondents who are divorced or widowed (Mean = 2.63).

Table 4.8: ANOVA: Career barriers by job levels

Career barrier	F	P
Sex discrimination	0.543	0.654
Lack of confidence	0.347	0.132
Multiple-role conflict	0.283	0.212
Conflict between children and career demands	0.356	0.146
Racial discrimination	1.505	0.585
Inadequate preparation	0.312	0.234
Disapproval by significant others	0.408	0.130
Decision-making difficulties	2.237	0.056
Dissatisfaction with career	3.193	0.000**
Discouraged from choosing non-traditional careers	0.697	0.135
Disability/health concerns	0.732	0.107
Job market constraints	1.976	0.008**
Difficulties with networking/socialisation	0.217	0.311

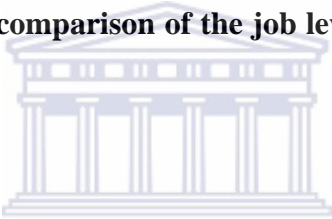
* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.8 depicts the ANOVA with respect to career barriers based on the job levels of respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in experiences of job market constraints based on job levels occupied ($F = 1.976, p < 0.01$). There are also statistically significant differences in dissatisfaction with career based on job levels occupied ($F = 3.193, p < 0.01$).

There were no statistically significant differences in experiences based on job levels occupied. This implies that the null hypothesis can only be partially accepted.

Table 4.8: Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the job levels of respondents in relation to career barriers



	Mean	Std error	P
Manager	3.53	0.50	0.04*
Senior Manager	2.87	0.73	
Assistant Director	2.66	0.62	

* $p < 0.05$

In terms of Table 4.8, Scheffe's post hoc multiple comparison reveals that there is a statistically significant difference in career barriers based on job levels occupied by respondents ($p < 0.05$). Those occupying managerial positions perceive the most career

barriers (Mean = 3.53), followed by senior managers (Mean = 2.87), then assistant directors (Mean = marital status ($p < 0.01$)).

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the most salient findings obtained based on empirical analysis of the data. Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings and contextualises the research findings based on previous research on career barriers identified in the literature as playing a pivotal role in women's career development.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

“The key to developing the economy of the continent is through the development of women” (Molefi, 2005).

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the results obtained for each hypothesis in detail. It will also table limitations, as well as suggestions for theory, research and future practice.

According to Bradbury (2005), as mentioned before, prior to 1970 very few women held positions of public office or positions of authority. However, this situation has changed significantly. Presently a large number of women between the ages of 25 and 64 are economically active in the labour force. Moreover, an increasingly larger number of women are aspiring to management positions (Davidson, 1991; Foster, 1994). It is imperative that career barriers are investigated and addressed, as organisations expand their businesses across borders and engage with a diversified work force (Clancy & Tata, 2005).

In light of the above, the purpose of this study was to investigate the barriers that impede the career advancement of women in management positions.

The following hypotheses were investigated:

- Significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different age groups regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.
- Significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different race groups regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.
- Significant differences exist in the perceptions of single, divorced/widowed and married women regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.
- Significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different job levels regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.

5.2 Discussion of findings

5.2.1 Hypothesis 1: Significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different age groups regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.

Findings according to the ANOVA indicate that there are statistically significant differences in the perceptions of respondents in different age groups regarding the factors that impede their career advancement. Of the thirteen career barrier scales there were significant differences in five of the scales. These five scales are “sex discrimination” as a career barrier, “racial discrimination” as a career barrier, “dissatisfaction with career” as a career barrier, “inadequate preparation” as a career barrier and “decision making difficulties” as a career barrier.

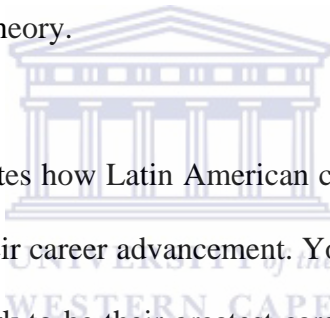
Similarly, results of the Scheffe's test show that there are statistically significant differences in experiences of career barriers based on age. Respondents younger than 35 years perceived fewer barriers than the 36 to 40 year olds. Furthermore, the 40 year and older age group perceived more barriers than the 36 to 40 year group. Based on the results the null hypothesis was partially accepted.

A study by Govender (1997) tested for differences between age and career advancement obstacles. Her study found younger employees scored low on male attitudes toward working women and were dissatisfied with maternity benefits and opportunities regarding re-entry into the workplace. The results of her study clearly indicate that significant differences exist with regard to male attitudes, employment policies, re-entry into the workplace and perceptions of discrimination in the different age groups.

A study by Itzin and Phillipson (1994) examined the influence of age and gender on the position of women in the workplace. Although there were no formal age criteria in selection for training, older women felt excluded from career development opportunities. Their study also found that women were regarded as "passed the optimum point" for career progression ten years before their male counterparts. According to Itzin and Phillipson's (1994) study, woman perceived barriers that were determined by age and gender.

A study by Duncan and Loretto (2004) at a major financial institution found that women had many negative experiences in relation to career barriers. Women in the age group, 30

years and younger, reported sex discrimination resulting in unequal pay and benefits. On the basis of age women (in Duncan and Loretto, 2004) felt that they were given less challenging work, overlooked for promotions and treated less favourably than men. Women in the 30 to 39 year age group also reported negative treatment. They were either “too young” or “too old” to apply for promotions. Women in the 40 and over age group reported unequal access to training and promotional opportunities (Duncan & Loretto, 2004). Yet, according to Supers (1957) theory individuals in the 24 to 44 year age group should be in the establishment phase, which is characterised by stabilization through work experiences. The results of the study by Duncan and Loretto (2004) are not congruent with Supers (1957) theory.



Caivano’s (2005) study illustrates how Latin American corporate women experience age discrimination in relation to their career advancement. Younger women in Latin America find combining family and work to be their greatest career obstacle, while older women find accessing networks difficult, which impedes their career advancement (Caivano, 2005). Duncan and Loretto’s (2004) study reveals that women are regarded as being too old in the 30 to 39 year age group. Women should be, according to Levinson (1978) established in their chosen fields at this stage. Research on re-entry women who are usually middle-aged (35 to 45 years) reveal that they are subjected to sex-discrimination on re-entering the workforce (Chae, 2002). These women would therefore not progress according to Levinson’s theory.

According to Levinsons (1978) approach to life development, the midlife transition (45 to 50) is a period of change and adjustments. Participants (40 years and older age group) in the present study experienced the most barriers at this stage of their lives. This could support the change and adjustments spelt out in Levinsons Theory (1978). However, Supers (1957) maintenance stage (age 45 to 64) characterises consolidation of work. This is not congruent with women's experiences in this age group.

It is clear from the results of the present study that participants in all age groups perceive career barriers. However, the 40 year and older age group perceive more barriers than the other age groups because women in this category are mostly married with children. Studies by Govender (1997), Itzin and Phillipson (1994), and Duncan and Loretto (2004) support the findings of the present study. The hypothesis confirms that significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different age groups regarding factors that impede their career advancement.

5.2.2 Hypothesis 2: Significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different race groups regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.

Respondents were grouped into 2 categories, namely whites (n = 49 or 65 %) and blacks (n = 26 or 35 %). Blacks included African, Coloured and Indian women.

The results of this study indicate that there are statistically significant differences between different race groups regarding the factors that impede the career advancement of women. Of the thirteen career barrier scales, there were significant differences in five of the thirteen scales. These five scales are “racial discrimination” as a career barrier, “sex discrimination” as a career barrier, “dissatisfaction with career” as a career barrier, “job market constraints” as a career barrier and “decision making difficulties” as a career barrier. The null hypothesis was therefore partially accepted. The Scheffe’s test also revealed statistically significant differences in career barriers based on race. Black (i.e. African, Coloured and Indian) respondents experiences of career barriers are significantly higher compared to their white counterparts.

In a study by Govender (1997), black employees at a construction company showed positive convictions toward career advancement. Their Indian and White counterparts on the contrary appeared less positive on all dimensions of the career advancement obstacle scale (Govender, 1997).

Hite (2006) conducted a study in the USA on black and white women managers’ perceptions of racism in the workplace. 69 % of black participants indicated that white people were oblivious to racism in society, and 42 % of the white participants agreed to this statement. Regarding institutional racism 72 % of black participants and 26 % of white participants agreed that institutional racism existed. However, 56 % of white participants indicated that institutional racism was not evident. The findings of Hite’s (2006) study indicate that racism is still prevalent in the workplace.

The results of another study (Stead, Els and Fouad, 2004) involving black and white students in South Africa indicated that race was a potential barrier to them achieving their career goals. In this study affirmative action was perceived to be a hindrance which prevents competent people from acquiring jobs (Stead, Els & Fouad, 2004). In South Africa affirmative action was introduced to correct the racial and gender imbalances in the workplace. However, in some instances affirmative action may be viewed as categorising people into racial groups for preferential treatment (Stead, Els & Fouad, 2004).

Black women in the present study accounted for 35 % of the sample and reported statistically significant differences for race. According to Supers (1957) theory, it can be inferred that participants in the present study should have been either in the establishment (24 to 44 year age group) or maintenance (45 to 64 year age group) phase of their career development. It can be further inferred that the respondents in the present study may not have reached these stages due to the career barriers (racial discrimination, sex discrimination, dissatisfaction with career, job market constraints and decision making difficulties) they experience in the workplace. Research by Govender (1997), Stead, Els and Fouad (2004) and Hite (2006) support the present study, in that racial discrimination is a career barrier that impedes the advancement of black women in the workplace. The hypothesis confirms that significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different race groups regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.

5.2.3 Hypothesis 3: Significant differences exist in the perceptions of single, divorced/widowed and married women regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.

The results of the present study indicate that there are statistically significant differences in marital status regarding the factors that impede the career advancement of women. Of the thirteen career barrier scales there are significant differences in seven of the thirteen scales. These seven scales are “job market constraints” as a career barrier, “lack of confidence” as a career barrier, “multiple role conflict” as a career barrier, “conflict between children and career demands” as a career barrier, “decision making difficulties” as a career barrier, “dissatisfaction with career” as a career barrier, and “disapproval by significant others” as a career barrier. Based on the findings significant differences appeared in seven of the thirteen career barrier scales. On this basis the null hypothesis was partially accepted. The Scheffe’s test also revealed that there are statistically significant differences in career barriers based on marital status.

The present study found the career barrier “multiple role conflict” was relatively high. The study of Engstrom and Ferri (1998) supports the present study in that women experienced conflict between their roles as wives and mothers and being professional news reporters. Respondents in Engstrom and Ferri’s (1998) study report role conflict as one of the biggest career advancement obstacles women perceive.

A study (Wentling, 1992) of women executives also revealed that the pressure of managing family demands with their careers was exhausting. Respondents in Wentling's (1992) study indicate that they often found themselves in the difficult position of either having to work or fulfill family obligations.

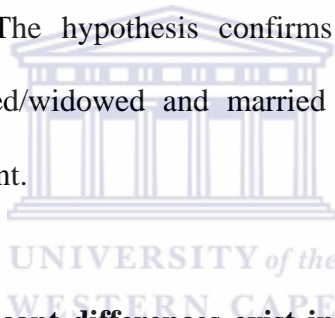
In the present study, married respondents experiences of career barriers are significantly higher than single and divorced/widowed respondents. Contrary findings in literature (Govender 1997; Barnett and Rivers, 1996) have been found with regard to this hypothesis. Surprisingly, single employees experienced more negative responses toward their career advancement than married and divorced employees (Govender, 1997).

According to Burlew and Johnson (1992), women in non-traditional occupations report less happy marriages because of their careers, than did women in traditional occupations. The effect of their careers on their marriages was related to the combined strains of home and work. Similarly, Clancy and Tata (2005) report that organisational culture in Japan demands total commitment to work with little concern for family commitments. In this regard, balancing work and family would be extremely difficult for working women in Japan.

A study by Barnett and Rivers (1996) revealed the contrary, namely, that working women are in excellent health and are not suffering from stress or heart problems. With regard to child development there are no differences between children of working mothers and

those of stay-at-home mothers. In addition, fatherhood had become central in homes, with fathers spending more time with their families (Barnett & Rivers, 1996).

In the present study 35 % (n = 26) of the sample are married women. In findings of studies already cited (Govender, 1997; Wentling, 1992; Burlew & Johnson, 1992) married women experienced significantly more role conflict and struggled with balancing their work and family lives. It can therefore be inferred that married women and to a lesser extent divorced/widowed (24 %, n= 18) women in the present study may not have progressed in their careers according to the establishment and maintenance stages specified by Super (1957). The hypothesis confirms that differences exist in the perceptions of single, divorced/widowed and married women regarding factors that impede their career advancement.



5.2.4 Hypothesis 4: Significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different job levels regarding the factors that impede their career advancement.

The results of the present study indicate that 65 % (n = 49) of the sample occupied management positions, while 21 % (n = 16) occupied senior management positions and 13 % (n = 10) occupied assistant director/partner level positions. Of the thirteen career barrier scales there are significant differences in two of the 13 scales. These two scales are “job market constraints” as a career barrier, and “dissatisfaction with career” as a career barrier. Based on the findings, significant differences appeared in two of the

thirteen career barrier scales. On this basis the null hypothesis was partially accepted. The Scheffe's Test also revealed that there were significant differences in career barriers based on job levels occupied by the respondents. Respondents occupying managerial positions perceived the most career barriers, followed by senior managers and then assistant directors.

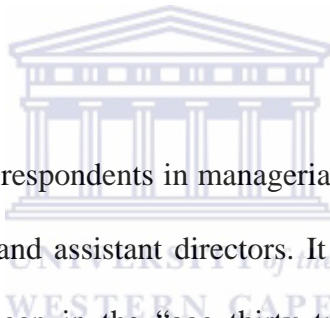
According to a study by Govender (1997) there were significant differences between employees in junior and middle management levels with regard to career advancement obstacles perceived in the workplace. In her study, role conflict was more prevalent among middle management employees. Role conflict was ascribed to the increased work pressure and stress experienced by middle management employees.

According to another study by Liff and Ward (2001) in the UK, junior and senior women managers reported long working hours, heavy work loads and isolation from the "men's club" as major career barriers. These findings indicate that women in junior positions are not prepared to sacrifice their families for the sake of career progression. The findings further suggests that to be successful in top management, women had to subscribe to the dominant male culture (Liff & Ward, 2001).

According to Caivano (2005) companies in Latin America offered benefits to support women in management with regard to their career progression. However, these women refrained from using the benefits because they feared it will disadvantage them at a later stage when they applied for promotions (Caivano, 2005).

Wentling (1992) also found that women experienced difficulty in understanding the organisations political climate because they did not have access to information. They also reported difficulty in identifying the informal power figures within their organisations. They perceive that the lack of these experiences played a role in impeding their career advancement in the workplace.

Studies (Wentling, 1992; Liff and Ward, 2001) indicate that women across all job levels experienced career barriers to varying degrees. There are also similarities in the barriers experienced by junior managers and senior managers (Liff & Ward, 2001; Ng & Fosh, 2004).



However, in the present study, respondents in managerial positions perceive more career barriers than senior managers and assistant directors. It can be assumed that the junior women managers may have been in the “age thirty transition” phase. In most cases women in this phase may have just married and may also have young children. It can therefore be inferred that women entering management would have added responsibilities. The researcher is therefore of the opinion that women in managerial positions were struggling to balance their added work loads to their home and family roles. The hypothesis confirms that significant differences exist in the perceptions of women in different job levels regarding factors that impede their career advancement.

5.3 Implications for theory, research and practice

5.3.1 Implications for theory

Previous discussions on barriers were limited to studies that described the career development of women (Farmer, 1979; Harmon, 1977), and counseling researchers have only identified factors that are unique to the career psychology of women (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). Barriers women encounter when making career choices is one such factor to consider (Swanson & Tokar, 1991). In this regard, studies have indicated that external and internal barriers (O'Leary, 1974), environmental barriers (Farmer, 1976) and psychological and sociological barriers (Harmon, 1977) impede the career advancement of women in the workplace. Albert and Luzzo (1999, p. 432) state that “even if individuals possess high levels of career self-efficacy, high outcome expectations and interests that are congruent with these expectations, they may still avoid selecting a particular career if they perceive insurmountable barriers to career entry or career goal attainment.”

The present study supports the contention that women experience significant barriers to their career advancement. The results of the study indicate that women experienced many of the career barriers that were tested. Given the lack of clarity in research already documented, an appropriate theoretical framework on career-related barriers would be beneficial for future studies (Naidoo & May, 2005). To date samples have consisted of mostly college students in the United States of America. This challenges the generalisability of career barriers as a construct that is measured by the CBI-R (Naidoo &

May, 2005). In this regard new scales are required to measure women's career experiences in both the traditional and non-traditional areas of work (Naidoo & May, 2005).

5.3.2 Implications for research

Previous research concentrated mainly on college students (Swanson, 1991, 1992). The present study focused on career barriers women experience in the workplace. These barriers were examined in relation to age, race, marital status and job levels. Further research should be undertaken by doing a comparative study of career barriers experienced by single women to that of married women.

South Africa has a diverse work population. Historically disadvantaged women (African, Indian and Coloured) have increased their participation in the labour force significantly (Erwee, 1994). These women have not only experienced the double jeopardy of age and gender, but race as well. Needless to say, the career barriers experienced by black women may differ to that of their white counterparts and deserves further investigation.

Research on women in non-traditional fields indicate that these women experience significantly more obstacles to career advancement than women in traditional fields. In this regard a comparative study of perceived career barriers of women in both the traditional and non-traditional fields would be useful.

5.3.3 Implications for practice

The results of this study are pivotal to understanding the career development of women in relation to the career barriers they perceive in the workplace.

During the early years in their career, women may experience stress due to family and work obligations. In this case, career counsellors and organisations could assist women by addressing work-family conflicts directly. A number of interventions can be used to assist women to find a proper balance between their various roles. Career counsellors should help women develop skills that will enable them to set realistic goals, manage their time more effectively and develop coping mechanisms. In addition, women who are aspiring to management positions must establish what their vocational preferences are and then plan their career paths accordingly. In this regard career counselors and human resource personnel can assist by using a range of interventions. These interventions could include structured exercises for career planning, group counseling and one-on-one counseling to explore career options fully (Russell, 1994). In addition, organisations should prepare women to anticipate difficulties they may encounter in non-traditional areas of work. Counsellors could assist women in forming support groups where unique issues to them can be discussed.

Counsellors and organisations must acknowledge that the organisational culture and fit is different for men and women in top management. Women in management positions must be assisted to develop the skills and strategies needed to break the glass-ceiling.

5.4 Limitations

The present study concentrated on professional women in an auditing firm with a small population (N=125). A sample of 75 (60 %) completed and returned questionnaires. The fifty women (40 %) who did not return their questionnaires may have skewed the final result.

This study may be limited in its generalisability, because the sample ranged from assistant manager to director/partner levels only. Article clerks, junior accountants, support staff and male employees were excluded from the study. Furthermore, the study was only conducted in the Western Cape.

A replication of the study throughout the firm (in all provinces) and a comparative study with another national auditing firm would contribute towards the generalisability of the study. Moreover, the study used a quantitative methodology. A qualitative approach in the research design would have aided in gaining a better understanding of the reasons why respondents perceived certain career barriers to exist in the workplace.

Notwithstanding the limitations, the results supports previous research in relation to barriers women experienced, and prompts further research on both internal and external barriers.

5.5 Conclusion

By the dawn of the twenty first century women have not only entered the work force in larger numbers but have also made progress in attaining senior and top management positions (Bradbury, 2005). Despite this progress gender inequality still remains a reality in many organisations.

It is clear from the findings of this study and the literature surveyed that there is an asymmetrical power relation in the workplace, sharply skewed against women. Women are discriminated against on the basis of their gender, age, race, marital status and job levels amongst many others. This pattern of discrimination has been the norm for the past several centuries. Deep seated societal values and roles have been embedded in workplace attitudes, especially towards women. However, such restrictive attitudes cannot continue in a dynamic and continuously transforming country like South Africa. With the greater demands placed on intellectual capital and skills, the modern global workforce is dependent on women to show its progress. The old asymmetrical relationships can no longer continue. Glaring discriminatory attitudes and practices towards women should be critically scrutinised, exposed and addressed. Nationally, the Constitution of the country has responded to the cancer of discrimination and has addressed the problematic issues through enlightened laws and regulations. The corridors of commerce need to respond to every facet of discrimination in the interest of developing a stronger work force, an equitable society and a globally competitive workforce.

Behaviour as revealed by women's perceptions is indicative of the socio-economic and political factors on the micro and macro levels. While the study was small, and the sample not representative enough for conclusive generalisations, it does reflect the ubiquitous asymmetrical power imbalances. Since the women in the study are qualified, highly skilled, and articulate, they found themselves in situations that challenge the traditional hierarchical status. They also directly experienced deep seated attitudes and prejudices. Because of their skills and qualifications they should be positioned in the same arena as their male colleagues for upward mobility.

Traditional attitudes and accepted discriminatory practices are embedded in the old dominant groups – organisations, institutions and patriarchal societies. While changes have been taking place in the broader spectrum of society it is not happening soon enough for women. Women in the workplace find themselves in a difficult situation and in difficult circumstances. They feel threatened and discriminated against, to such an extent that they are afraid to take advantage of special opportunities offered to them since they see this as possibly counting against them in the long run (Caivano, 2005). Changes in status can only take place in consonance with changes in male attitudes. However, the implementation of affirmative action has had a ripple effect on all workers from every sector of society and has brought its own tensions among women.

Naidoo and May (2005) are of the view that major attempts must be made to understand family issues, and the many obstacles that impact on the career advancement of women.

If the South African constitution is to be taken seriously then the career goals and contributions of women must be central to this debate (Naidoo & May, 2005).



6. References

Ackah, C., & Heaton, N. (2003). Human resource management careers: Different paths for men and women? Career Development International, 8(3), 134-142.

Adams, K. (2001). Women in senior police management. Australia: Australian Centre for Policing Research. Retrieved November 20, 2005, from http://www.acpr.gov.au/ACPR138_2.pdf.

Agocs, C., & Burr, C. (1996). Employment Equity, Affirmative Action and Managing Diversity: Assessing the differences. International Journal of Manpower, 17(4/5), 30-45.

Albert, K.A., & Luzzo, D.A. (1999). The role of perceived barriers in career development: a social cognitive perspective. Journal of Counseling and Development, 77(4), 431-436.

Amundson, N.E., Harris-Bowlsbey, J., & Niles, G.S. (2005). Essential elements of Career Counseling: Processes & Techniques. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Arber, S., & Ginn, J. (1991). Gender and later life: A sociological analysis of resources and constraints. London: Sage.

Arnold, M.L., & Shiness, K.J. (1997). Preventing the career advancement of professional women. Parks and Recreation. Retrieved November 6, 2004, from http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m1145/is_n9_v32/ai_19855022.

Astin, H. (1984). The meaning of work in women's lives: A sociopsychological model of career choice and work behavior. Counseling Psychology, 12(1), 117-126.

Astin, H.S., & Leland, C. (1991). Women of influence, women of vision. A cross-generational study of leaders and social change. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Asvat, F. (2005). Employment equity revisited. Political agenda or economic imperative? People Dynamics, 23(2), 29-30.

Barnett, R.C., & Rivers, C. (1996). She works he works. How two income families are happy, healthy & thriving. USA: Harper Collins Publishers.

Barnum, P., Liden, R.C., & DiTomaso, N. (1995). Double jeopardy for women and minorities: Pay differences with age. Academy of Management Journal. 38, 836-901.

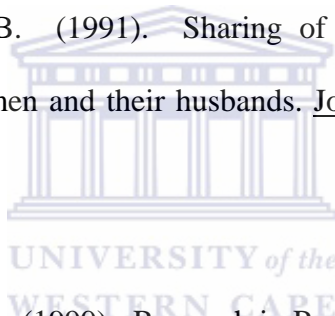
Bartlett, W., & Oldham, D. (1978). Career adjustment counseling of young-old women. Vocational Guidance Quarterly. 27, 156-164.

Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No. 75 of 1997. Pretoria: South African Government Printers.

Bennett, B., & Reardon, R. (1985). Dual-career couples and the psychological adjustment of offspring: A review. The School Counselor, 289-294.

Betz, N.E., & Fitzgerald, L.F. (1987). The Career Psychology of Women. New York: Academic Press.

Biernat, M., & Wortman, C.B. (1991). Sharing of home responsibilities between professionally employed women and their husbands. Journal of Personality and Social Responsibility, 60, 844-860.



Blanche, M.T., & Durrheim, K. (1999). Research in Practice – Applied Methods for the Social Sciences. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Booyesen, L. (1999). A Review of Challenges facing Black and White Women Managers in South Africa. South African Business Review. 13(2), 15 – 26.

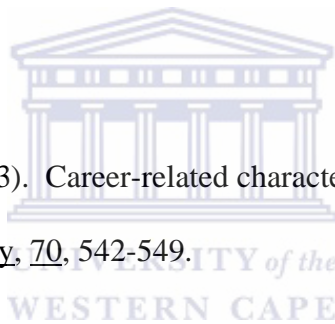
Borman, C.A., & Guido-DiBrito, F. (1986). The career development of women: Helping Cinderella loose her complex. Journal of Career Development, 12(3), 250-261.

Bradbury, K. (2005). Women's rise: A work in progress. Regional Review, 14(3), 58-68.

Bradley, H., Healy, G., & Mukherjee, N. (2004). Union influence on career development – bringing in gender and ethnicity. Career Development International, 9(1), 74-88.

Burlew, A.K., & Johnson, J.L. (1992). Role conflict and career advancement among African American women in nontraditional professions. Career Development Quarterly, 40(4), 3021-3032.

Burks, K.K., & Stone, V. (1993). Career-related characteristics of male and female news directors. Journalism Quarterly, 70, 542-549.



Caivano, J. (2005). Breaking through. Latin Finance, 167, 47-48.

Campbell, B.M. (1986). Successful Women, Angry Men. New York: Random House Incorporated.

Castro, I.L., Furchtgott-Roth, D. (1997). Should women be worrying about the glass-ceiling in the workplace – Opposing view. Insight on the News. Retrieved November 6, 2005 from http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m1571/is_n5_v13/ai_19092303.

Catalyst. (2004). South African Women in Corporate Leadership. Census 2004. Catalyst: New York.

Chae, M.H. (2002). Counseling reentry women: An overview. Journal of Employment Counseling, 39(4), 146-152.

Chetwynd.J., & Harnett, D. (Eds). (1978). The Sex Role System. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Chi-Ching, E.Y. (1992). Perceptions of External Barriers and the Career Success of Female Managers in Singapore. Journal of Social Psychology, 132(5), 661-674.

Chi-Ching, Y. (1995). The Effects of career salience and life-cycle variables on perceptions of work-family interfaces. Human Relations, 48(3), 265-285.

Chi-Ching, E.Y. (2001). Perceptions of External Barriers and the Career Success of Female Managers in Singapore. Journal of Social Psychology, 135(5), 661-674.

Cinamon, R.G., & Rich, Y. (2002). Gender differences in the importance of work and family roles: Implications for work-family conflict. Sex Roles: A Journal of Research. 1-16. Retrieved November 10, 2005, from http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2994/is_2002_Dec/ai_981250309.

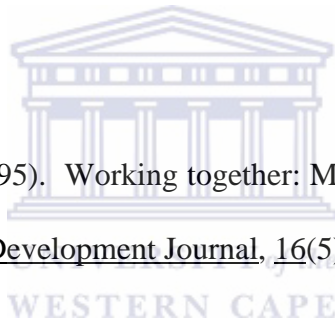
Clancy, M., & Tata, J. (2005). A global perspective on balancing work and family. International Journal of Management, 22(2), 234-241.

Coetzer, A. (2005). Headhunting as a career. People Dynamics, 23(2), 19.

Coles, I., & Ballard, A. (1974). As six of them see it: Black women executives discuss their lives and career. Black Enterprise, 5(1), 20-41.

Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act No. 108 of 1996. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Cooper, C.L., & Lewis, S. (1995). Working together: Men and women in organisations. Leadership & Organisations Development Journal, 16(5), 29-31.



Cooper, D.R., & Schindler, P.S. (2003). Business Research Methods. (8th ed.). New York: Mc Graw Hill.

Coyle, A., & Skinner, J. (1988). Women and work. Positive action for change. London: Macmillan Education Limited.

Crwys-Williams, J. (2004). In the words of Nelson Mandela. South Africa: Penguin Books (Pty) Ltd.

Daily, C.M. (1993). The evolution of the American women – quality in the workplace. Women in Business Editorial, 1-10. Retrieved November 6, 2005 from http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m1038/is_n2_v36/ai_13815055.

Davidson, M. (1991). Women Managers in Britain – Issues for the 1990's. Women in Management Review, 6, 5-10.

Davidson, M.J., & Burke, R.J. (1994). Women in Management: Current research issues. London: Paul Chapman.

Department of Labour. (2003). Commission for Employment Equity Annual Report 2002 – 2003. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Dickerson, A., & Taylor, M.A. (2000). Self-limiting behavior in women, self-esteem and self-efficacy as predictors. Graphical and Organisation Management, 25(2), 191-201.

Doss, L. (2000). Women's food service forum study reveals main career barriers. Nation's Restaurant News, 34(47), 14-74.

Dovidio, J. (2001). On the nature of contemporary prejudice: The third wave. Journal of Social Issues, 57(4), 829 – 849.

Duncan, C., & Loretto, W. (2004). Never the right age? Gender and age-based discrimination in employment. Gender, Work and Organisation, 11(1), 95-115.

Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998. Pretoria: South African Government Printers.

Engstrom, E., & Ferri, A.J. (1998). From Barriers to Challenges: Career Perceptions of Women Television News Anchors. J & M.C. Quarterly, 75(4), 789 – 802.

Engstrom, E. & Ferri, A.J. (2000). Looking through a gendered lens: Local U.S. Television News Anchors' perceived Career Barriers. Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media, 44(4), 614-634.

Equal Opportunities Commission. (2002a). Facts about women and men in Great Britain 2002, EOC, Manchester.

Equal Opportunities Commission. (2002b). Facts about women and men in Great Britain 2002, EOC, Manchester.

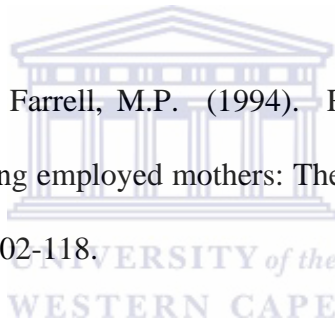
Erasmus, B.J., & Sadler, E. (1999). Issues affecting women in the South African workplace: a comparative analysis of survey findings. South African Journal of Labour Relations, 23, 4-25.

Erwee, R. (1994). South African Women: Changing Career Patterns. In Adler, N.J. and D.N. Izraeli. (Eds) Competitive frontiers, Blackwell. Oxford. 325 – 342.

Fitzgerald, L.F., & Betz, N.E. (1983). Issues in the vocational psychology of women. In W.B. Walsh & S.H. Osipow (Eds), Handbook of Vocational Psychology, Vol. 1, 83 - 159. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Foster, F. (1994). Managerial Sex Role Stereotyping among academic staff within UK business schools. Women in Management Review, 9(3), 17-22.

Frone, M.R., Barnes, G.M. & Farrell, M.P. (1994). Relationships of work – family conflict to substance use among employed mothers: The role of negative affect. Journal of Marriage and Family, 56. 102-118.



Gathers, D. (2003). Diversity Management: an imperative for healthcare organisations. Hospital Topics, 81(3), 14-21.

Gerber, H.M. (2000). Career Development of South African Professional women who take career breaks. Journal of Industrial Psychology, 26(2), 7-13.

Gibelman, M. (2003). So how far have we come? Pestilent and persistent gender. Social Work, 48(1), 22-32.

Giddens, A. (1989). Sociology. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Gilbert, L.A., & Hallett, M., & Eldridge, N.S. (1994). In W.B. Walsh & S.H. Osipow (Ed), Career Counseling for Women (pp.135-164). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Giscombe, K., & Mattis, M. (2002). Leveling the playing field for women of colour in corporate management: Is the business case enough? Journal of Business Ethics, 37, 103-119.

Glass, J.L. (1997). The family responsive workplace. Annual Review of Sociology, 23(1), 289-313.



Gottfredson, L.S. (1981). Circumscription and comprise: A developmental theory of occupational aspirations. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 28, 545-579.

Govender, K. (1997). Career advancement obstacles encountered by women in the workplace. Unpublished masters' thesis. University of Durban Westville. South Africa.

Graham, J.R., & Lilly, R.S. (1984). Psychological Testing. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Guterk, B.A. (1985). Sex and the Workplace. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gutek, B.A., & Larwood, L. (1987). Women's Career Development. Beverley Hills: Sage Publications.

Hite, L.M. (2006). Perceptions of Racism and Illusions of Equity. Women in Management Review, 21(3), 211-223.

Hitt, M.A., & Barr, S.H. (1989). Managerial selection decision models: Examination of configural cue processing. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 53-61.

Hochschild, A. (1989). The Second Shift: Working Parents and the Revolution at home. New York, Viking Penguin Incorporated.

Hunsaker, J.S., & Hunsaker, P. (1991). Strategies and skills for managerial women. Cincinnati, Ohio: South Western publishers.

Hurley, A.E., & Giannantonio, C.M. (1999). Career attainment for women and minorities: The interactive effects of age, gender and race. Women in Management Review, 14(1), 4-13.

Itzin, C., & Phillipson, C. (1994). Age barriers at work: Maximising the potential of mature and older people. Equal Opportunities International, 13(6/7), 64-72.

Jacobs, D. (1994, October 9). Back from the mommy track. New York Times, p. 31.

Jano, R. (2000). Role and Career Saliency of Dual-Career Professional Women.
Unpublished thesis, University of the Western Cape. South Africa.

Judd, C.M., Smith, E.R., & Kidder, L.H. (1991). Research Methods in Social Relations.
(6th ed.). Florida: Holt, Rinehart & Winston Incorporated.

Kahn, S.E. (1984). Astin's model of career development: The working lives of women
and men. The Counseling Psychologist, 12(4), 145-146.

Kanter, R.M. (1977). Men and women of the corporation. New York: Basic Books.

Kaplan, R. (1984). Trade routes: The managers' network of relationships.
Organisational Dynamics, 12(4), 37-52.

Kerlinger, F.N., & Lee, D.C. (2000). Foundations of Behavioral Research. Holt,
Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated.

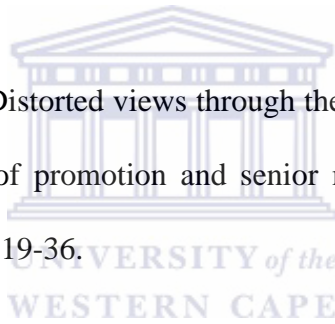
Labour Relations Act, No. 66 of 1995. Pretoria: South African Government Printers.

Lemons, M.A. (2003). Contextual and Cognitive Determinants of Procedural Justice Perceptions in Promotion Barriers for Women. Sex Roles: A Journal of Research. 1-25
Retrieved November 10, 2005, from
http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2994/is_5-6_49/ai_107203502.

Lerner, R.M., & Hultsch, D.F. (1983). Human Development – A lifespan perspective.
New York: McGraw-Hill, Incorporated.

Levinson, D.J. (1978). The seasons of a man's life. New York: Ballantine Books.

Liff, S., & Ward, K. (2001). Distorted views through the glass-ceiling: The construction of women's understandings of promotion and senior management positions. Gender, Work and Organisation, 8(1), 19-36.



Llewellyn-Jones, D. (1990). Every Woman. London: Faber & Faber Ltd.

London, M. & Stumpf, S.A. (1982). Managing Careers. USA: Addison – Wesley Publishing Company Incorporated.

Lopate, C. (1971). Marriage and medicine. In A. Theodore (Ed.). The Professional Women. New York: Schenkman Publishing.

Luzzo, D.A., & Hutcheson, K.G. (1996). Causal attributions and sex differences associated with perceptions of occupational barriers. Journal of Counseling & Development, 75(2), 1-11.

Maier, M. (1999). On the gendered substructure of organization: Dimensions and dilemmas of corporate masculinity. In G.N. Powell (ed.). Handbook of Gender and Work. (pp 69 – 94). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Marshall, J. (1995). Women managers moving on: Exploring career and life choices. London: Routledge.

Mathipa, E.R., & Tsoka, E.M. (2001). Possible barriers to the advancement of women to leadership positions in the education profession. South African Journal of Education. 21(4), 324-331.

Mattis, M.C. (2004). Women entrepreneurs: Out from under the glass ceiling. Women in Management Review, 19(3),154.

Mathur-Helm, B. (2004). Equal opportunity and affirmative action for South African women: A benefit or barrier? Women in Management Review, 20(1), 56 – 71.

May, C.E. (1999). An enquiry into the factors impeding the career advancement of women academics at Peninsular Technikon. Unpublished masters thesis, University of the Western Cape. South Africa.

Molefi, N. (2005). Women, key to unlocking Africa's economic development. People Dynamics, 23(2), 1.

Montagna, P.D. (1977). Occupations and Society – Towards a Sociology of the Labour Market. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Morrison, A.M. (1992). The New Leaders. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Moya, M., & Exposito, F., & Ruiz, J. (2000). Close relationships, gender and career salience. Sex roles: A Journal of Research. 1-18. Retrieved November 10, 2005, from http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2994/is_2000_May/ai_65306522.

Msimang, S. (2001). Affirmative action in the new South Africa: the politics of representation, law and equity. Retrieved October 25, 2005, from <http://www.isiwomen.org>.

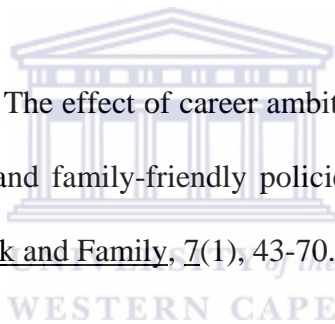
Naidoo, A.V. (1993). Factors affecting the career maturity of African American University students: A causal model. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana.

Naidoo, A.V. & Jano, R. (2002). Role salience of dual-career women managers. Journal of Industrial Psychology, 28(3), 69-74.

Naidoo, A.V. & Jano, R. (2003). Role conflict of South African women in dual-career families. Psychological Reports, 93, 683-686.

Naidoo, A.V. & May, C.E. (2005). The career development of women. In G.B. Stead & M.B. Watson (eds), Career psychology in the South African context. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.

Ng, C.W., & Fosh, P. (2004). The effect of career ambition and satisfaction on attitudes towards equal opportunities and family-friendly policies for women. A case study in Hong Kong. Community Work and Family, 7(1), 43-70.



Nieva, V.F., & Gutek, B.A. (1981). Women and Work – A psychological perspective. New York: Praeger Publishers.

Nock, S.L., & Kingston, P.W. (1988). Time with children: The impact of couples' work- time commitments. Social Forces, 67, 59-85.

Oakley, J.G. (2000). Gender-based barriers to senior management positions: Understanding the scarcity of female CEOs. Journal of Business Ethics, 27(4), 321-334.

Oxford Dictionary. (2000). Oxford University Press: New York.

Perrone, K.M., & Worthington (Jr.), E.L. (2001). Factors influencing ratings of marital quality by individuals within dual-career marriages: a conceptual model. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 48(1), 3-9.

Piorkowski, C. (1979). Work and the Family System. New York: Free Press.

Poloma, M., & Garland, T.N. (1971). The myth of the egalitarian family: familial roles and the professionally employed wife. In A. Theodore (Ed.), The Professional Women (pp 741 – 761). Cambridge, MA: Schenkman.

Powel, N.G. (1993). Women and Men in Management. (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Prekel, T. (1980). Why a special look at women? Journal of Business Management, 11(2), 62-68.

Pretorius, T.B. (1995). Inferential statistics: Hypothesis testing and decision-making. Cape Town: Percept Publishers.

Puckrin, C. (1990). Stress and the dual career female executive: Individual and corporate mechanisms. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria.

Rosen, B. & Jerdee, T.H. (1976). Becoming Aware. Chicago: Science Research Associates.

Rosen, B. & Jerdee, T.H. (1981). When the executive is a woman. Harvard Business Review. USA: Harvard College.

Rosenfield, S. (1989). The effects of women's employment: Personal control and sex differences in mental health. Journal of Health and Social Behaviour, 30, 77-91.

Rosnow, R.L., & Rosenthal, R. (1996). Beginning Behavioral Research – A Conceptual Primer. (2nd ed.). London: Prentice-Hall International.

Rubenstein, M. (1991). Devising a sexual harassment policy. Personnel Management, 23(2), 34-37.

Russell, J.E.A. (1994). In W.B. Walsh & Osipow, S.H. (Eds), Career Counseling for Women (pp 263-326). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Schwartz, F.N. (1989). Management, women and the new facts of life. Harvard Business Review, 67(1), 65-76.

Sears, S. (1982). A definition of career guidance terms – A national vocational guidance association perspective. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 31, 137-143.

Sekaran, U. (2003). Research Methods for Business. A Skill Building Approach. (3rd ed.). New York: Wiley.

Skills Development Act, No. 97 of 1998. Pretoria: South African Government Printers.

Skills Development Levies Act, No. 9 of 1998. Pretoria: South African Government Printers.

Smith, C.R., & Hutchinson, J. (1995). Gender: A Strategic Management Issue. Sydney: Business and Professional Publishing.

Sobol, M.G. (1963). Commitment to work. In F.I. Nye & L.W. Hoffman (Eds), The Employed Mother in America. (pp 40-63). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Sonnert, G., & Holton, G. (1996). Career patterns of women and men in the sciences. American Scientist, 84, 63-71.

Statistics South Africa. (2003). Pretoria: Government Printers.

Stead, G.B., Els, C. & Fouad, N.A. (2004). Perceived Career Barriers among South African high school learners. South African Journal of Psychology, 34(2), 206-221.

Stickel, S.A. & Bonett, R.M. (1991). Gender differences in Career Self-Efficacy: Combining a Career with Home and Family. Journal of College Student Development, 32, 297-301.

Stoner, C.R., & Hartman, R.I. (1990). Family responsibilities and career progress: The good, the bad and the ugly. Business Horizons, 33(2), 7-14.

Sundal-Hansen, L.S. (1985). Work-family linkages: Neglected factors in career guidance across cultures. The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 33, 202-212.

Sundal-Hansen, L.S. (1990). Interrelationships of gender and career. In Gysbers N.C. & Associates, Designing Careers (216-247). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Super, D.E. (1990). A Life-span, life-space approach to career development. In D. Brown, L. Brooks & Associates (eds). Careers Choice and Development. (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

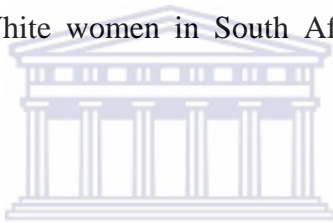
Swanson, J.L. (1992). Vocational Behavior, 1989 – 1991: Life-span career development and reciprocal interaction of work and nonwork. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 41(2), 101-161.

Swanson, J.L., & Tokar, D.M. (1991). College student's perceptions of barriers to career development. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 38, 92-106.

Swanson, J.L., Danniels, K.K., & Tokar, D.M. (1996). Assessing perceptions of career-related barriers: The career barriers inventory. Journal of Career Assessment, 4(2), 219-244.

Swanson, J.L., & Woitke, M.B. (1997). Theory into practice in career assessment for women: Assessment and interventions regarding perceived barriers. Journal of Career Assessment, 5, 443-462.

Te Groen-Hoberg, S.M. (1989). Demand for Equality in Education and the influence on the role of expectancy of White women in South Africa. South African Journal of Education, 9(3), 551-558.



Tredoux, C., & Durrheim, K. (2002). Numbers, hypotheses & conclusions – A course in Statistics for the Social Sciences. UCT Press.

Trentham, S. (1998). Gender discrimination and the workplace: an examination of rational bias theory. Sex roles: A Journal of Research. 1 – 10. Retrieved November 18, 2005, from http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2994/is_n1-2_v38/ai_20816289.

Uhlenberg, P., & Cooney, T.M. (1990). All the right stuff: A comparison of female and male managers' career progression. Journal of Applied Psychology, 72(3), 251-260.

Uyen, V. (2005). Mindset still a barrier. Canadian H.R. Reporter, 18(3), 11.

Van-Vianen, A.E.M., & Fischer, A.H. (2002). Illuminating the Glass-Ceiling: The role of organisational culture preferences. Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 75(3), 315-338.

Vinnicombe, S., & Singh, V. (2003). Locks and Keys to the Boardroom. Women in Management Review, 18(5/6), 325-337.

Ward, C. (1998). The Glass Ceiling Phenomenon. Women at work, 38-39.

Weiers, R.M. (1998). Marketing Research. (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Wentling, R.M. (1992). Women in Middle Management: Their Career Development and Aspirations. Business Horizon, 47-54.

White, B., Cox, C. & Cooper, C. (1992). Women's career development: A study of high flyers. Great Britain: T.J. Press.

Women give Iceland the cold shoulder, Sunday Times, October 30, 2005, p10.

Wood, J. (1994). Gendered Lives: Communication, Gender and Culture. Belmont: Wadsworth.

APPENDIX 1



University of the Western Cape

Faculty of Economic and Management Science

P/Bag X17, Bellville 7535, South Africa Tel.: +27 21 9593184 Fax: +27 21 9592578



1 September 2005

Dear Participant

Re: Research for Masters Programme

I am currently enrolled for the Masters Programme at the University of the Western Cape, and I am busy with my thesis. The aim of the study is to determine factors that impede career advancement of women at [REDACTED] in the Western Cape.

The objective of the study is to determine:

- The barriers that impact on the career advancement of women at the firm.

The study is aimed at women in management, that is, from assistant manager to partner levels. While permission has been granted for doing the research at [REDACTED] I am dependent on your input to complete the study successfully.

Please be assured that all information will be treated as STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL and will only be used for the purposes of this study. You are not required to write your name or any other personnel information on the questionnaire. All data will be kept completely anonymous and will be directed to me.

This is an introductory letter and the questionnaires will follow shortly. Should you have any queries or questions and would like to contact me; I can be reached at any one of the following numbers:

Work [REDACTED]

Home [REDACTED]

Cell [REDACTED]

My email address is pam.reddy@meqaserve.net

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you for your co-operation.

Sincerely

Pam Reddy



University of the Western Cape

Faculty of Economic and Management Science

P/Bag X17, Bellville 7535, South Africa Tel.: +27 21 9593184 Fax: +27 21 9592578



1 September 2005

Dear Participant

Re: Research for Masters Programme

You would have already received an introductory letter from **Ms Stemmet** and myself explaining the purpose of this research. The data gathered from these questionnaires will be used to analyse the hypotheses, draw conclusions and present recommendations to the firm.

The study is aimed at women in management, that is, from manager to assistant director/partner levels. While permission has been granted and the study has the support of **_____** and **_____**, I am dependent on your input to complete the study successfully.

The questionnaire has 2 sections, viz Section A- A demographic questionnaire; Section B- The Career Barriers Inventory. The questionnaire has 6 pages and you are required to please complete all questions. I will not be able to use your data if all questions are not answered.

Instructions:

Please take note of the following:

- 1 CHOOSE ONLY ONE OPTION FOR ALL QUESTIONS.
- 2 The Demographic Questionnaire is fairly straightforward and requires you to place a cross (X) in the appropriate block.
- 3 The Career Barriers Inventory has a 7 point scale. For example 1 & 2 implies your progress would not be hindered at all; and 6 & 7 implies your career progress is completely hindered.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Would not hinder at all

Would hinder somewhat

Would hinder completely

Should you have any queries or questions and would like to contact me; I can be reached at any one of the following numbers: Work – (021) 6853033; Home (021) 5322276; Cell 0824985131
My email address is pam.reddy@megaserve.net or pam@tcoe.org.za

Please be assured that all information will be treated as STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL and will only be used for the purposes of this study. You are not required to write your name or any other personnel information on the questionnaire. All data will be kept completely anonymous and will be directed to me.

Please put the completed questionnaires in the envelope provided and leave it at reception. I will arrange for it to be collected and couriered to me in Cape Town. I would really be grateful if you would be so kind and complete it before the end of the week, ie 16th September 2005.

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you for your co-operation.

Sincerely



SECTION A DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS

To protect your confidentiality please **DO NOT** indicate your name or any other identifying details on this questionnaire.

Please make an x in the appropriate block(s)

1 Age group

35 yrs and Younger	36 yrs – 40 yrs	40 yrs and Older
1	2	3

001

--	--	--

2 Racial group

African	Coloured	Indian	White
1	2	3	4

002

--	--	--

3 Current marital status

Single (never married)	Divorced	Widowed	Married
1	2	3	4

003

--	--	--

4 If divorced/separated, do you have custody of your children?

Yes	No
1	2

004

--	--	--

5 My husband/partner shares in the household chores.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

005

--	--	--

6 Highest qualification attained.

Matric	B.Com Degree	B.Com Honours	M.Com	PH.D
1	2	3	4	5

006

--	--	--

7 Level of position.

Manager	Senior Manager	Assistant Director / Partner
1	2	3

007

--	--	--

8 Length of service at the firm.

0 – 1 year	2 – 5 years	6-10 years	11 – 15 years	16 – 20 years	20 + years
1	2	3	4	5	6

008

--	--	--