UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

CAREER PROGRESSION OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF UNIVERSITIES OF TECHNOLOGY IN KWAZULU-NATAL

By

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Declaration

I, Mamotse Ketura Onica Zungu declare that

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Abstract

Women account for 51% of the South African labour force but their representation at more senior management levels is insignificant (Stats SA). Women experience barriers in their career progression, such as family-related, societal and organisational barriers. The main aim of this study was to determine the career progression of women in Higher Education. Purposive judgement sampling was used to select the participants for this study. The questionnaire was administered using QuestionPro. A total of 111 responses out of 360 questionnaires resulted in a 31% response rate. Due to the low response rate obtained, the results could not be generalised to the institutions of Higher Education, specifically Universities of Technology. Salient findings from the study were that the majority of the respondents in this study were African, aged between 36-45 years of age, were married, had up to two dependents, were lecturers with a master's degree and had more than 10 years and above of working experience. The respondents felt that they had not progressed in their careers and the main reason given for this was that they had not applied for promotion. The findings also revealed that the majority of respondents did not experience barriers in their careers, but the organisational barriers identified by 43% of the respondents were lack of internal networking opportunities, no support from line managers and ethnicity. In addition, the majority of respondents felt that there were no invisible barriers (glass-ceiling) preventing them from progressing in Higher Education. The invisible barriers experienced by 24% of the respondents were slower promotion rate, lack of career development opportunities and significant gaps in earnings. For women to progress in their careers, Higher Education Institutions (HEI) could promote being an equal opportunity employer by providing training and development, mentorship, networking, gender empowerment, flexible working arrangements and work-life balance.

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List of acronyms and abbreviations

BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
BERR	Business, Enterprise and Regulatory Reform
BWASA	Business Women's Association of South Africa
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CEOs	Chief executive officers
CHE	Council on Higher Education
CSO	Central Statistics Office
DEST	Department of Education, Science and Training
DUT	Durban University of Technology
EC	European Commission
EEA	Employment Equity Act
EO	Equal Opportunity
EOWA	Equal Opportunities for Women in the Workplace Agency
EU	European Union
FTSE	Financial Times Stock Exchange
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPF	Gender Policy Framework
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
HEMIS	Higher Education Management Information System
HERS-SA	Higher Education Resource Services South Africa
HESA	Higher Education South Africa
IBR	International Business Report
ILO	International Labour Organisation
JSE	Johannesburg Securities Exchange

KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
MUT	Mangosuthu University of Technology
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
UK	United Kingdom
WEF	World Economic Forum

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND STUDY OVERVIEW

1.1.   INTRODUCTION

Women make up 52% of the total population in South Africa of which only 41% constitutes the working population (Chiloane-Tsoka, 2010). Of this working population, 14.7% comprise senior and executive managers and 7.1% comprise directors in the country (BWASA, 2012). In a study conducted by De la Rey (2012), she found that at institutions of higher education women tend to be underrepresented in high-ranking positions. The new dispensation in South Africa brought about employment equity, a national policy framework for women emancipation, gender equality and affirmative action policies in organisations (Chiloane-Tsoka, 2010). However, the advancement of women remains a challenge facing management in South Africa. This study attempted to provide insights into factors affecting the progression of women at Universities of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal. This chapter provides a brief explanation of the study by motivating the reasons for the research. The limitations of the study are also mentioned. A layout of all chapters is provided to indicate how this study will unfold.

1.2.   MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

According to Mathur-Helm (2005), women's empowerment and the barriers they face in their workplace have been drawing the attention of most organisational researchers as changes in senior management are being reported and the status of professional women debated. Women in South Africa have only started making inroads into senior and executive management in the democratic South Africa since 1994. However, the changes made have been insignificant to date (BWASA, 2012).

It is against this backdrop that it is essential to study the perceptions of female academics to establish the barriers that hinder their vertical movement in their careers. Through this study management will understand these barriers and how to counter them. This could also be used for organisations' strategic decision-making processes to enable the facilitation of upward mobility of women.

For women aspiring to be in leadership positions or those already in leadership positions, this research will provide useful information on the types of barriers that exist in organisations. This will ensure that these women influence the growth of internal working environments to support the advancement of fellow women. The information from this study will equip aspiring women with vital knowledge on how to overcome organisational barriers which can be a hindrance in their upward mobility.

The research will also assist policy makers to introduce legislation and to ensure better implementation of policies geared towards increasing the participation of women in organisations.

This study will add to the already existing body of knowledge of barriers faced by women in their career progression and is specific to Higher Education. Potential areas for further research are included in Chapter 5 and such research could further contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the barriers to the vertical progression issues.

1.3. FOCUS OF THE STUDY

The focus of the study has been to identify the barriers that women face in the workplace and to determine if and why they are underrepresented in senior management in Higher Education Institutions in KwaZulu-Natal. The respondents' responses will be compared to the findings in literature of other researchers in order to determine similarities and differences. The KwaZulu-Natal area was chosen for the researcher's convenience mainly due to time constraints.

1.4. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Women's participation in management has been steadily increasing in all industry sectors (Powell, 2012). Women have been in the labour market for more than 20 years but their representation in senior management is still inconsequential (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). Women account for 51% of the labour force but their representation at more senior management levels is insignificant (Stats SA). According to Business Women's Association, (BWASA, 2012), women are underrepresented in top leadership positions accounting for 3.6% of chief executive officers (CEOs), 5.5% of chairpersons of organisations, 17.1% of directorship and

21.4% of executive management. The study has focused on Universities of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal, to create an understanding of the barriers faced by women and their career progression to senior management.

1.5. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The aim of the study was to determine the factors affecting the progression of female academics at Universities of Technology.

The following were the research objectives for this study:

- To establish barriers that women face in achieving higher positions at Universities of Technology.

- To determine if personal traits influence vertical progression.

- To make recommendations for the facilitation of upward mobility of women at Universities of Technology.

1.6. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Challenges that were experienced in the course of doing the research are listed here, but discussed in Chapter 5.

- The 31% response rate that was achieved for this study was low notwithstanding the constant reminders to respondents to respond.

- The inability to generalise the findings of the career progression of women in Universities of Technology was due to the use of non-probability sampling.

1.7. THE STUDY STRUCTURE

Each chapter has an introduction, a body with several subsections providing in-depth details on the content, and a summary that links the chapter to the next chapter. In summary, the study is structured as follows:

Chapter 1 has presented the introduction, purpose and motivation of the study. It has also provided the aim and objectives, including the limitations encountered in conducting this study.

Chapter 2 presents a review of the relevant literature in order to provide insight into the barriers prohibiting women from progressing in their careers. The chapter gives some background on the career progression of women, followed by barriers that women experience in the upward mobility in their careers, including family, society and organisational barriers.

Chapter 3 deals with the research methodology that was used for this study. The aim and objectives, data collection strategies and research design and methods are discussed.

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

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the findings of the study. It details the findings according to the objectives in order to determine whether these were met or not. It also concludes the study with a summary of the main findings, recommendations and potential areas of any future research.

1.8. SUMMARY

The underrepresentation of women at senior and executive management is attributed to barriers experienced by women in the workplace. Based on this premise, the motivation behind the study and the problem statement have been detailed in this chapter. In addition, the focus of the study was guided by the research aim, objectives and limitations which have been stated in this chapter. Chapter 2 details the literature review that was conducted on the career progression of women.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.   INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the relevant literature that was reviewed in order to gain insight into the barriers prohibiting women from progressing in their careers in Higher Education. The chapter provides some background on career progression of women, followed by barriers that women experience in the upward mobility in their careers, including family, society and organisational barriers.

2.2.   CAREER PROGRESSION OF WOMEN

A career is frequently constructed as a path that has to be made or carved by the self (De la Rey, 2012). For women this is normally not a linear path with continuous service but is marked with interruptions and exits such as a relationship crisis, gender roles in marriage, children and family responsibilities (De la Rey, 2012).

According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), progress on the upward mobility of women in the workplace has been made in many countries. A study by Wirth (2001) in 41 countries found that women typically hold between 20 and 30% of legislative, senior official and management positions. These findings excluded African countries. An update of Wirth's study, conducted in 2004 by the same ILO classifications, recorded an increase of only 1 to 5%. Catalyst 2006 reported that at Fortune 500 companies in the USA, women held only 14.7% of directorships. According to Equal Opportunities for Women in the Workplace Agency (2004), women, at the time of the survey, held only 8.6% of board positions in Australia's top 200 companies. South Africa does not fare any better, with women constituting 10.7% of all board directors in 17 state-owned enterprises and the JSE Securities Exchange (BWASA, 2012).

Career progression of women at junior managerial levels differs from senior managerial levels as indicated by an increase of 10% at that level of management (Priola & Brannan, 2009). Powell (2000) attributed this increase to the number of women graduates which probably led to an increase in junior managers in all disciplines in the USA, Europe and many other countries. This is seen as an

increased commitment to professional and managerial careers by women (Priola & Brannan, 2009). Lyness (2002) and Powell (1999) reported a noticeable increase in women holding both junior and middle management positions; however, there was not a significant number of women represented at senior and executive management levels (Eagly, Johannesen-Schimdt & Van Engen, 2003).

Even though there are interventions through government legislation, legal sanctions and greater participation in education, only a small proportion of women advance to senior and executive levels (Wood, 2008). This "phenomenon" was noted and reported by researchers such as Davidson and Burke (2004), Equal Opportunities for Women in the Workplace Agency (EOWA, 2006) and Davidson and Burke (2004) over a decade ago. The EOWA reported that women filled 44% of all managerial and professional positions; however, only 12% of executive management roles, 8.7% of board directors, 3% of CEOs and 2% of chair positions (EOWA, 2006). Worldwide, similar trends have been reported (Wirth, 2001; Davidson & Burke, 2004). Previous research has considered the possibility that career obstacles by way of organisational structures, gender differences and gender stereotypes have been experienced by women throughout their management careers, thereby accounting for their low representation of women in senior management (Wood, 2008).

Career progression for women is more pertinent to career disruptions, unplanned career paths, change in career and part-time work and therefore cannot be categorised into a one-size fits all scenario (Thomas, 2004). Social positioning also has a bearing on women's career development according to race, gender, sexual orientation and class (Johnson-Bailey & Tisdell, 1998). According to Thomas (2004), women's career development is seen as a social issue with "patriarchal segregation, discrimination and workforce diversity", and not just simply as a women's issue. Figure 2.1 shows that the percentage of senior women in management over a ten year period has hardly moved, with a final figure of a movement of 2%.
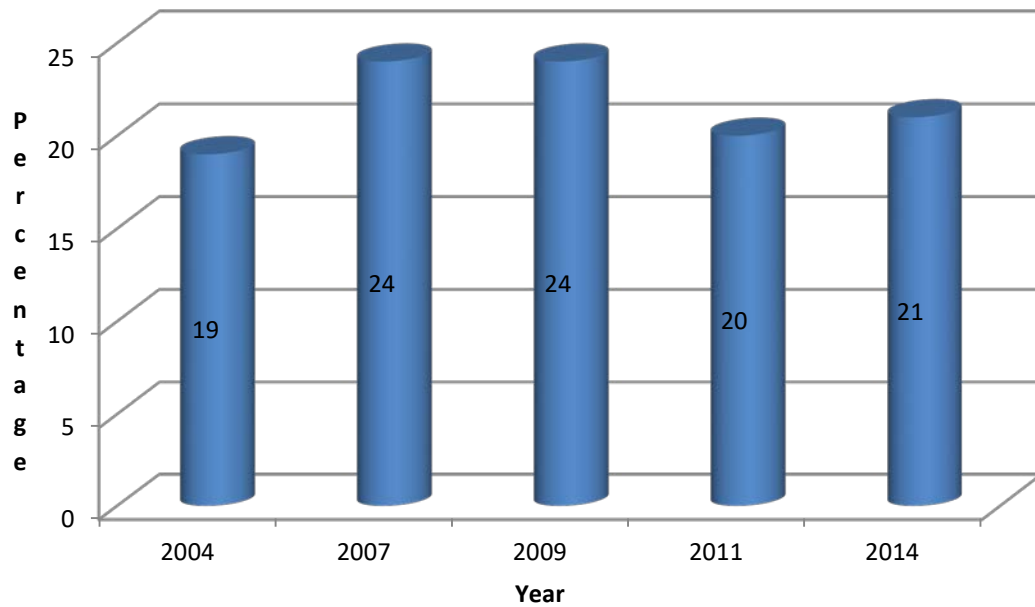
Figure 2.1: Women in senior management globally – 2004 to 2014

Source: Adapted from Grant Thornton IBR, 2012.

Figure 2.1 shows that women represent 21% of senior management roles worldwide and little has changed in percentages over a ten year period. There has only been an overall increase of 2% from 2004 to 2014. The IBR survey includes both listed and privately held companies and shows that the involvement of women in senior management globally is very low. The Grant Thornton IBR (2012) reported that organisations with a higher proportion of women on their boards outperform rivals in terms of returns on investment capital (66% higher), returns on equity (53%) and sales (42%). Another study found that stronger market growth is more likely to occur where there are higher proportions of women on senior management teams (McKinsey, 2007).

Figure 2.2 is a comparison of the representation of the number of female executive managers and directors in five countries, including South Africa.
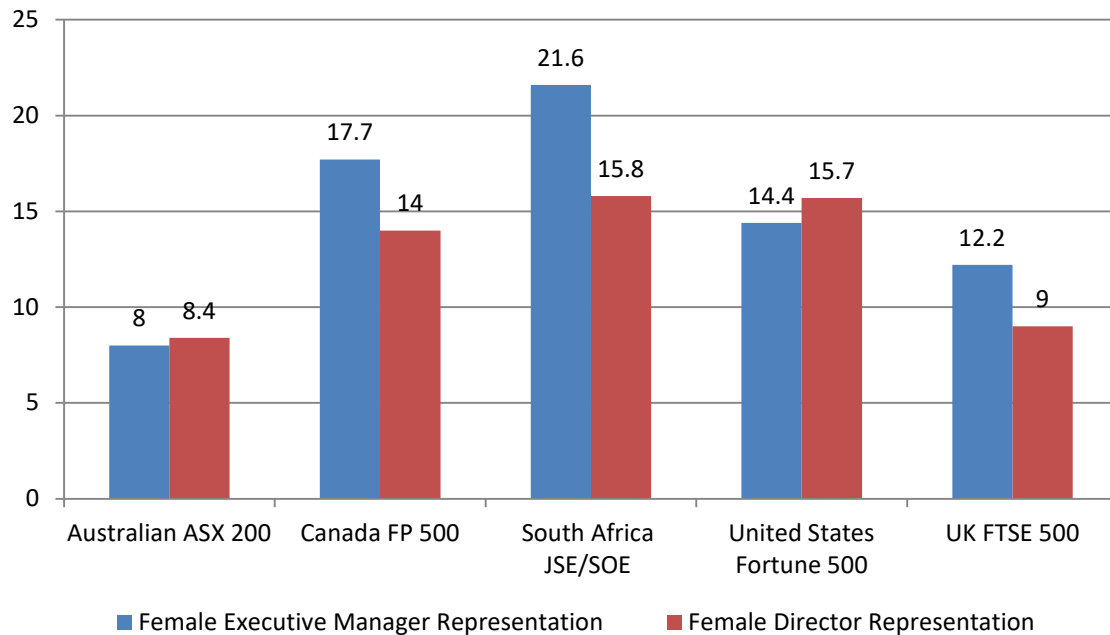
Figure 2.2: Comparison of South Africa with international counterparts
Source: Adapted from Catalyst, 2004.

Figure 2.2 shows that South Africa is faring quite well compared to its international counterparts in terms of the number of female executive managers and directors in the different stock exchanges across the world. The numbers appear to be on the increase, despite being slow and marginal. The Grant Thornton IBR survey (2012) reports that South Africa has seen the proportion of women on boards of the JSE listed companies more than double since 2004, but representation is still less than one in six of all members.

2.3.   BARRIERS TO CAREER PROGRESSION

Schein (2001) reported that barriers to women in management exist worldwide. Although women represent more than 40% of the world labour force, their share of management positions remains unacceptably low (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). According to Schein (2007, p.135), "barriers to women in management exist globally and the higher the organisational level, the more glaring the gender gap".

Barriers are defined by Ismail and Ibrahim (2008, p.51) as a "factor, event or a phenomenon that prevents or controls access to individuals from making progress, tangible or intangible, actual or perceived by the recipient". Women in managerial

positions in a number of different industries are faced with barriers that prevent them from progressing vertically in their careers (Tlaiss & Kausser, 2010). A number of studies have identified structural and cultural barriers within organisations that have led to the underrepresentation of women in senior management (Fagenson, 1994; Powell & Graves, 2003). Research has attributed these organisational barriers to limiting cultural and societal practices (Yukongdi, 2006), discriminatory gender-specific factors (Powell, Butterfield & Parents, 2002), and other organisational discrimination such as glass ceiling, tokenism, lack of training and development opportunities (Cordano, Scherer & Owen, 2002).

2.3.1. Family-related barriers

Conflict is caused when women cannot give all their attention to their primary responsibilities of family and domestic life (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). According to a comparative study of work structures between Americans and Europeans conducted by Williams and Cooper (2004), women do 65 to 85% of childcare work and more than 70% of elderly care work. This leads to women not giving full time and commitment to their professional work and life (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008).

Rosser (2004), Maskell-Prets and Hopkins (1997), and Miller (2004) conducted a study on women engineers and scientists and found that the most significant barrier in women career advancement is the pressure of balancing career and family. It was found that the long working hours in the engineering profession prohibited women from reaching senior positions. Maskell-Prets and Hopkins (1997) noted that women face career mobility barriers when they consider starting a family. The pressures of work with little time for family become a burden, especially for women with small children (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). The two key findings in studies done by Ismail and Ibrahim (2008) were that "women's involvement in the family reduces their commitment and changes the needs to be made to the family structures to promote women's careers". These findings support the gender role theory where women agree that they shouldn't shirk family responsibilities by chasing their careers (Konrad & Linhehan, 1999; and Connell, 2002).

According to Kiamba (2008), in African societies it is believed that men lead and women follow. This illustrates that it is unnatural for women to hold senior and top management positions due to their place in society. The patriarchal system where

the decision-making powers are in the hands of males is perceived as the main reason for family-related barriers, which women face in their career progression, especially in the African context (Kiamba, 2008).

The socialisation of the girl child in many societies is also to blame for the perceived inabilities of women (Kiamba, 2008). Growe and Montgomery (2000) reported that women receive little or no encouragement to seek senior management positions, and they are only connected to a few social networks (formal or informal), if any. Senior management require hard and long work hours which is an added burden for women as they are also responsible for childcare, home and family, sometimes referred to as a "double shift" by Ismail & Ibrahim. (2008).

2.3.2. Societal-related barriers

Society has traditionally always maintained that a woman's place is in the home (Jacob, 1999). One of the key issues still facing women is the way society and how they view themselves, as the primary care giver in the home (Cross, 2010). Women retain a lopsided responsibility for both childcare and domestic work (Gunter & Stambach, 2005). According to Kiamba (2008), in many African countries the traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes about the role and status of women in society are still prevalent, preventing women from aspiring to management positions lest they be ostracized. The traditional role of women is in the home as a homemaker and this identity is what confines women to the domestic sphere (Kiamba, 2008). However, through the years and the changing roles, they started participating in the public domain and progressed through managerial ranks (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). Women progression through life and their sequential career pattern would typically involve working after completing their education, marriage, raising children and they may or may not re-enter the labour market (Stroh & Reilly, 1999).

A working mother is perceived as being less committed to work and prioritising her children and family (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). Ridgeway (2001) added that these biases create barriers to women's career progression. This is sometimes referred to as the societal judgement towards women which renders women as being professionally incompetent (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). This social role theory judge fulltime employed mothers as violating the norms of a caretaker role (Feugen, Biernat, Haines & Deaux, 2004). Societal barriers are quite difficult to identify due

to the fact that societal norms and conditioning permeates what society sees as the corresponding sex roles and their functions (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008).

A study done at a Malaysian multinational Oil Company asked three questions that stated "society is still biased against women," "there isn't much hope for talented women," "women get lonely as they become successful," and the findings were that the women tended to agree with the questions (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008).

2.3.3. Organisational barriers

Organisational culture is defined by Harvey and Brown (1996) "as a system of shared meanings, values, belief, practices, and group norms of the members to produce behavioural norms with regard to the working conditions of an organisation". Organisational culture is either cited as a key facilitator or barrier to work-life policies as cultural norms often override formal policy intentions (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008).

The underrepresentation of women at senior levels has been documented in several studies which have identified a number of structural and cultural barriers within organisations (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010; and Powell & Graves, 2003). These organisational barriers have been attributed to constraining societal and cultural practices (Yukongdi, cited in Yukongdi & Benson, 2006; Wright & Crockett-Tellei, 1994; and Wilson, 2003).

2.3.3.1. Gender-stereotypes and inequities

According to Tlaiss and Kauser (2010), gender inequalities in the workplace are the root causes of discrimination against women and limit their upward mobility. Gender stereotyping of the managerial role typically occurs when the features are believed to be of one sex (Schein, 2006). The World Economic Forum (WEF) reported that "no country in the world has yet reached equality nor eliminated the gender gap between women and men..." (Greig, Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2007). These views were endorsed by the ILO (2004) which reported that barriers are created by biased attitudes towards managerial women and this has been singled out as the most important factor in the current status of women in management worldwide. This low representation of women in senior management can be attributed to career obstacles experienced by women throughout their career (Wood, 2008).

Gender stereotyping of the managerial role occurs when the characteristics believed to be necessary to fulfil the role are ascribed to one sex (Schein, 2006). Attributes typically ascribed to women are nurturance, affiliation and relationship orientations and are not historically associated with management roles (Schein, 2006). When a management role is seen as being appropriate for a male this gender stereotypical attitude impedes entry of women into management (Wood, 2008), resulting in a phenomenon termed by Schein (1973, 1975) "think manager-think male". Studies show that in traditionally feminine professions such as nursing and education, women still do not occupy key decision-making positions that are in proportion to their numbers (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008).

Gender stereotyping impedes the "placement, promotion and training decisions" of women into more senior and executive levels and this hinders the advancement of women's careers at all levels (Wood, 2008). It also impacts on the evaluation of the performance of women in management roles (Wood, 2008). Eagly and Karua (2002) reported that women were negatively assessed due to being female and not possessing the right management attributes. Lyness and Heilmann (2006) reported a lack of fit between the requirements of line management roles and the stereotypical attributes ascribed to women, with women in these roles receiving lower performance ratings than their female colleagues in staff jobs, or their male counterparts in either line or staff jobs. This suggests that management roles are more strongly associated with male characteristics (Wood, 2008).

Gender stereotyping is very resistant to change and spans a period of three decades (Wood, 2008). Evidence shows that negative stereotyping by others is a powerful barrier to the career progression of women in management (Lyness & Heilmann, 2006). These attitudes continue to limit the upward mobility of women, particularly women who have the responsibility of children and other family members (Wood, 2008). All the above views can have an impact on the career progression of women in management roles from recruiting and selection practices, training opportunities, and allocation of roles, through to decisions related to promotion opportunities (Wood, 2008).

2.3.3.2. Work-life balance and motherhood

According to Wheatley (2012), work-life balance refers "to the ability of individuals, regardless of age or gender, to combine work and household responsibilities successfully". Abendroth and Den Dulk (2011) defined work-life balance as "the harmonious interface between different life domains". The question to be asked is whether these goals are contradictory or complementary (Koubova & Buchko, 2013). Guest (2002) argued that work-life balance means an acceptable, stable relationship and not an equal weighting of the two terms. Furthermore, balance is dynamic and ever changing through employee needs or employer demands and the desired outputs might differ from person to person.

Whilst the ideals of work-life balance concepts have been acknowledged, researchers (Fleetwood, 2007; Shorthose, 2004) have questioned the concept in practice. The United Kingdom adopted a range of work-life policies in the last decade, which included *Working Time Regulations, Work-Life Balance Campaign and Flexible Working Regulations* to encourage women to aspire to and be part of senior management (Wheatley, 2012). According to Woodlands, Simmonds, Thornby, Fitzgerald and McGee (2003), BERR (2009), Tietze and Musson (2005) and McDowell, Perrons, Fagan, Ray and Ward (2005), Table 2.1 below outlines the benefits of work-life balance for both the employers and employees.

Table 2.1: Work-life balance benefits for employers and employees

Employers	Employees
☐ Greater productivity	☐ Increased flexibility over work-time
☐ Improved recruitment and retention	☐ Possible reduction in stress levels
☐ Reduced accommodation costs (through hot-desking)	☐ Improved employee satisfaction with work
☐ Lower absenteeism	
☐ Improved customer services	
☐ Improved employee satisfaction	

Table 2.1 shows that the greatest benefits are to the employers and not so much to the employees, but this could be seen as a win-win situation. The desired outputs were not achieved by the above-mentioned policies as the balance of work and life is very complex and the interface of household-workplace is blurred (Bulger, Matthews & Hoffmann, 2007). The aim of work-life balance is to improve working conditions by changing work practices (Atkinson & Hall, 2009). However, Shorthose (2004) argued that work-life balance fails to address core issues surrounding work. Other researchers (Graves, Ohlott & Ruderman, 2007; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008; Netemeyer, Maxham III, Pullig, 2005) argued that these theories support a negative relationship between family life and career progression. Gattrell (2005) observed that part-time working afforded women a greater work-life balance.

According to McIntosh, McQuaid, Munro and Dabir-Alai (2012), motherhood directly affects the kind of roles women can take, prefer or are offered. They also observed that combining motherhood and career can lead to women's relative poor performance. Waldfogel (2007) termed this "penalties of motherhood" in relation to their career progression. She argued that the penalty may last for a woman's entire career, even after her childcare responsibilities have stopped due to the negative

effects of career breaks forming a "negative shadow" on their future careers. Fouarage, Manzoni, Muffels and Luijkx (2011) supported this theory as they found a negative relationship between children and women's labour. A study conducted in Germany, the Netherlands and Great Britain found that after having children, women are no longer interested in pursuing their career path through to senior management but are rather happy to just go along with the flow as far as their careers are concerned.

There is a growing trend among a relatively large proportion of women in management roles who remain childless and partnerless in order to continue their upward mobility (Wajcmann, 1999; Wood & Newton, 2006). Hakim (2006) argued that women, after having dependent children, do not have a strong personal commitment to paid work or a career. She claimed that women are adaptive to work so that they can "fit paid work to their domestic role, rather than vice versa" (Hakim, 2000). She also maintained that many women take a personal choice of rejecting additional hours at work and greater responsibilities of certain employment to concentrate on their families. Houle, Chiocchio, Favreau and Villeneuve (2009) rejected much of what Hakim claimed but recognised the impact of motherhood on women's career progression. They argued that the concept related to the family promoted the model of wife as a mother and nurturer as this socialised them into gender roles. McIntosh, McQuaid, Munro and Dabir-Alai (2012) stated that there is a strong association between motherhood, dependent children and women's career outcomes within the gender literature.

2.3.3.3. Tokenism

The Employment Equity legislation has led to organisations hiring individuals without the required skills, qualifications, network or experience (April, Dreyer & Blass, 2007). The said individuals are labelled "tokens" and set up to fail, due to lack of support and networks within the organisation (April *et al.*, 2007). Tokenism creates a stigma that clings to all previously disadvantaged people, especially women (Maddock, 1999). This stigmatisation leads to a lose-lose situation for both the organisation and the 'token' as it is largely believed that the 'token' was given the job for being a woman or for the colour of their skin and for the organisation to score

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better regarding Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) (April *et al.*, 2007) at their organisation.

Women are considered as tokens or having a token status as they represent a small percentage of senior management in a male-dominated work environment (Kanter, 1977; Oakley, 2000). Davidson and Cooper (1992); Powell and Graves (2003); Ng and Chakrabarty (2006), agreed that tokenism has a negative psychological effect for women in the workplace. This means, the increasing number of women in the workplace is not translating into more women in management positions (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010).

A study conducted in Lebanon to examine female managers' perceptions of their organisations in relation to their career progression, found that the majority of the participants did not feel isolated or undervalued and did not support the token status (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010).

2.3.3.4. The glass ceiling effect

The term glass ceiling was coined by Hymowitz and Schellhardt (1986) who described it as "a barrier so subtle and transparent yet so strong that it prevents women and the minorities from moving up in the management hierarchy" (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990). Glass ceiling has been broadly defined in literature as "an artificial barrier based on attitudinal organisational bias that prevents qualified individuals from advancing upward in their organisation into management-level positions" (Martin, 1991). The Glass Ceiling Commission was established in 1991 to study the artificial barriers to the career progression and minorities in America and to make recommendations on how to overcome these barriers (Sharon, 2013). A growing body of literature identified the roots of the glass ceiling as a unique form of discrimination within armed forces (Baldwin, 1996) and the Higher Education (Chliwnick, 1997; David & Woodward, 1998). The discrimination often included, but was not limited to job positions (rank, title, and authority), significant gaps in earnings, slower promotion rates and lower levels of responsibility (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia & Vanneman, 2001; Ginther & Hayes, 1999; Ards, Brintwell & Woodward, 1997; Athey, Avery & Zemsy, 2000). What is peculiar is the fact that decades later the glass ceiling still exists as a major barrier for women to advance to senior management levels. Jackson and O'Callaghan (2007) in their review of the

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glass ceiling concluded that it is a vague and misunderstood term used to describe multiple ideas. They argued that the term does not distinguish particular discrimination or inequalities. However, generally in literature the glass ceiling is defined as the set of impediments and/or barriers to career progression of women (or other minorities) encountered in the workplace (Baxter & Wright, 2000; Cotter *et al.*, 2001; Maume, 2004; Morrison & Van Glinow, 1990).

Cotter *et al.* (2001) suggested that the glass ceiling occurs under three circumstances, namely women (or minorities) face barriers in their career progression in spite of having similar credentials to their male counterparts, women are denied a place on the job ladder due to a lack of promotional prospects, and organisations lack of placing women in influential positions to have a real impact on the organisation.

In the UK, Board Watch, which tracks the appointment of women in senior management, reported that FTSE 100 had 6.5% women executives in 2012 which was an increase from the 5.5% in June 2011; but in November 2011 only four of these were chief executives and the number was going to decline to two in the near future (Hurn, 2013). However, there were still 17 FTSE companies with no women at board level during the same reporting period (Hurn, 2013). This proves that the glass ceiling still exists in top executive management positions.

2.4.   WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Husu (2001) observed that "women's under-representation in positions of power and prestige in academia appears to be a universal phenomenon". This was also supported by Hearn (2004, p. 61) who asserted that: "universities remain incredibly hierarchical gendered institutions". Even though universities are seen as being based on merit and universal principles, they are not an exception to the trend and reproduce the same horizontal and vertical segregation as other social, political and economic organisations in society (Bagilhole & White, 2011).

There is a global gender gap in senior higher education management and executive levels (Morley, 2013). Research and Innovation (2009), which are a dataset from the European Commission on women in higher education, reported that in the 27 European Union countries, 13% of institutions in the higher education sector and

9% of universities awarding PhD degrees were headed by women (Morley, 2013). Denmark, Cyprus, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Hungary have no women vice chancellors; in contrast, Sweden, Iceland, Norway, Finland and Israel have the highest share of women vice chancellors; and Romania, Austria, Slovakia, Italy, the Netherlands, the Czech Republic, Belgium, and Germany have the lowest proportion of women vice chancellors (maximum of 7%) (Research & Innovation, 2009). This underrepresentation of women reflects continued inequalities and missed opportunities for women to contribute to the future development of universities (Morley, 2013). In the 54 commonwealth countries, only 30% of all universities are led by women (Morley 2005; Singh, 2008). Table 2.2 is a representation of the senior management in Higher Education, including vice-chancellors, deputy vice-chancellors (academic and administration), deans, executive directors and full professors in different countries around the world in percentages.

Table 2.2: Percentage of women in senior academic management in eight countries and the EU

Country	Rector/Vice Chancellor	Deputy Vice Chancellor	Pro-Rectors PVCs	Deans	Executive Directors	Full Professors
EU-27	9	-	-	-	-	19
Australia	18	36	40	38	32	21
Ireland	0	14	18	25	-	10
New Zealand	0	17	17	17	35	15
Portugal	7	27	16	23	60	22
South Africa	22	30	-	28	-	21
Sweden	41	35	55	30	48	18
Turkey	10	7	4	13	-	28
UK	8	6	21	20	-	18

Source: Adapted from Bagilhole and White (2011).

Table 2.2 shows that women are underrepresented as full professors, while senior management in Australia and Sweden have a larger share of women, although still a minority. Turkey has the highest percentage of women university professors – almost 30%, but a considerably lower percentage of women vice chancellors, only 10%. In contrast, Sweden has a high proportion of women vice-chancellors/rectors at 43% and a lower proportion of female professors at 18%. In most countries the statistics are no more than 15 to 20% of the women professors and their share is steadily growing in numbers. In the European Union (EU) across 27 member states, the rectors/vice chancellors comprise 9%; in Romania, Austria, Slovakia, Italy, the Netherlands, Czech Republic, Belgium and Germany the total comprises 7% and in Denmark, Cyprus, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Hungary there are none (Bagilhole & White, 2011).

The underrepresentation of women in Higher Education begins at the senior lecturer level and becomes more distinct at the professorial level (Bagilhole & White, 2011). It was noted by Deem (2003), Fitzgerald and Wilkinson (2010), Morley (2003), and Noble and Moore (2004) that even though there is a growing number of women in senior management this is confined to what is termed the "ivory basements" (Eveline, 2004) or the "velvet ghettos" of communication, finance and human resources. Career progression for women in higher education has been described by Barrett and Barrett (2010) as a "stubborn, complex, equality issue" with underlying reasons that are complicated and proving to be rather intractable so far.

2.4.1. Global perspective

The European Union (EU) has been instrumental in equal opportunity (EO) across and beyond Europe by playing an important role in legislative frameworks for EO (Bagilhole & White, 2011). The EU has been a catalyst for EO legislation among member states and the gender equality policy has been considered one of the EU's major success stories (Bagilhole, 2009). The EU issued five important directives, namely Equal Pay 1973, Equal Treatment Directives 1978, Directive on equal treatment of men and women in matters of social security 1979, Directive on equal treatment of men and women in occupational social security schemes 1986, and Directive on equal treatment of men and women in self-employment in 1986. The year 2007 was designated by the EU as the European Year of Equal Opportunities

for All and in the process they identified four specific goals of the year, namely rights, representation, recognition and respect (Bagilhole, 2009). All the above-mentioned policies helped to advance the women agenda in the respective countries.

In the United Kingdom, Higher Education Institutions (HEI) the Equality Challenge Unit 2009, Statistics for 2007/08, revealed that women's representation is improving but is doing so slowly, with women making up 42% of all academics but only 18.7% are head of a school or at professorial level.

The Global Gender Gap Index in Table 2.2, compiled by the World Economic Forum (WEF), provides a useful picture of where the countries in the study are ranked on key employment, educational, health and political empowerment indicators.

Table 2.3: Global Gender Gap Index 2009

Country	Global Gender Gap Index Ranking	Economic Participation and Opportunity (f/m ratio)	Educational Attainment (f/m ratio)	Health & Survival (f/m ratio)	Political Empowerment (f/m ratio)
Sweden	4	.78	.99	.97	.49
New Zealand	5	.78	1	.97	.39
South Africa	6	.66	.99	.96	.44
Ireland	8	.69	1	.97	.37
UK	15	.70	1	.97	.28
Australia	20	.74	1	.97	.19
Portugal	46	.68	.98	.97	.16
Turkey	129	.40	.89	.97	.06

Source: Adapted from WEF, 2009.

Interestingly, four out of eight countries in this research – Sweden, New Zealand, South Africa and Ireland – are in the top eight countries in the Global Gender Gap Index. The economic participation and opportunity has significant variances, with the female/male ratio highest in Sweden and New Zealand, followed by Australia

and the UK, and the lowest in Turkey. There is much less variation across the countries in relation to educational attainment, which is equal for females and males in New Zealand, Ireland, the United Kingdom and Australia and only just below one in Sweden, South Africa and Portugal. The political empowerment ratio varies and is low in all eight countries. A report by KPMG (2010) suggested that it is likely that employment outcomes for women are influenced by a combination of regulatory frameworks, economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival and political empowerment.

In 2008, in Australia, women in Higher Education represented 42% of all academic staff and 21% of professors (Bagilhole & White, 2011). One of the main objectives of the universities in Australia (the peak lobbying organisations) – *Strategy for Women: 2011 to 2014*, was to increase the proportion of women in senior leadership including deans, directors and senior managers (Bagilhole & White, 2011). The *Campus Review* in Australia reported that in 2004 11 out of 39 vice-chancellors were women and this number declined to a mere seven vice-chancellors in 2010. Another study conducted in Australia and Turkey found that women representation in Turkey was significantly higher than in Australia (28% full professor and 32% associate professor, compared to 19% and 25% respectively) (Ozkanli & White, 2009). This was attributed to the transparency of the Turkish Council of Higher Education's regulations regarding recruitment, selection and promotion guidelines. Another reason was that males were disinterested in academic careers and women were interested (Ozgilgin & Healy, 2004), whereas in Australia academic careers were highly contested by both men and women (Ozkanli & White, 2009). The women representation statistics for Turkey and Australia both made up 40% of the workforce. Of this percentage, Turkey comprised 34% of assistant professors, 39% instructors and 59% language instructors; with Australia having half of all academics in lecturing positions and only a third in senior lecturer positions (DEST, 2006). This shows that Turkey has a high representation of women in the professoriate and underrepresentation in senior management whilst in Australia it is the reverse.

In New Zealand, women make up less than 40% of academic positions, and the more senior the positions, the less likely they are to be filled by a woman (Bagilhole & White, 2011). Women comprise 15% of professors, 23% of associate professors,

39% of senior lecturers, and senior management is consistently low at 17% for deputy vice-chancellors, pro vice-chancellors and deans and currently no vice-chancellors.

17%	• Deputy vice-chancellors, pro vice-chancellors and deans
15%	• Professors
23%	• Associate professors
39%	• Senior lecturers
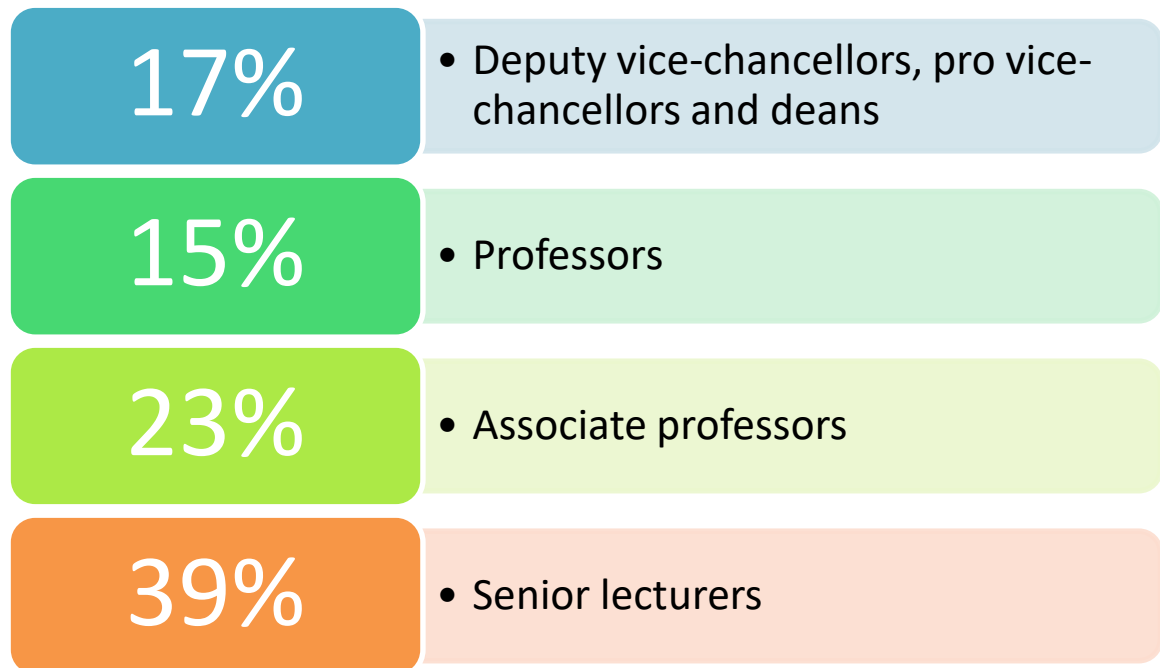
Figure 2.3: Percentage of women in academic positions in New Zealand

2.4.2. South African perspective

Due to imbalances inherited from the apartheid era, South Africa underwent significant transformation to redress social, economic and legislative inequalities (Shackleton, Riordan & Simonis, 2007). Institutions of Higher Education were equally transforming into democracy (Bagilhole & White, 2011). The country put in place legislation to redress the imbalances of the past by Acts that impact directly on gender equity, such as the South African Constitution, Act 108/1996 and the Bill of Rights which refers to gender equity in Section 9. Furthermore, the Employment Equity Act, 55/1988, is intended, inter alia, to promote the right of equality as it applies to the workplace; the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 75/1997, which makes provision for the four consecutive months unpaid maternity leave to be taken four weeks prior to and at least six weeks after the birth of the baby. In 1996, the South African government authorised the international Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) by passing the

Gender Policy Framework (GPF). The GFP's main aim was to integrate all the gender policies with the purpose of establishing a clear vision and structure (Mathur-Helm, 2005). The Commission on Gender Equality (1999) points out that gender equality within the workplace is underpinned by job segregation and perceived roles associated with gender groups even though women are in the majority in the country and the workplace but occupy only a few senior and top management positions (Jain, 2002; Commission on Gender Equality, 1999).

More specifically to Higher Education, the Education White Paper 3 addressed the challenges facing Higher Education in South Africa. The White Paper envisioned a "transformed, democratic, non-racist and non-sexist" system of higher education. Despite all this legislation, good intentions and policy guidelines, women are not equally represented, nor do they participate fully at senior management levels in universities (Bagilhole & White, 2011). Notwithstanding 20 years of democracy and equity, gender equity remains a significant challenge (Bagilhole & White, 2011). The implementation and efficiencies of all these policies and strategies are still debatable (Mathur-Helm, 2005).

Based on the above legislative context, the Higher Education landscape is not yet transformed and equitable. In 2008, the then Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, MP established a *Ministerial Committee on Progress Towards Transformation and Social Cohesion and the Elimination of Discrimination in Public Higher Education Institutions* to investigate and make recommendations to combat discrimination in public universities (RSA, 2008). The most notable recommendations on gender equity were those that stated that vice-chancellors be held directly accountable for achieving employment equity targets and the transformation framework should form the basis of their performance contract (DHE, 2006). Since then the Department of Education has been restructured into a new ministry and a Minister of Higher Education was appointed in 2009. The Council on Higher Education (CHE), which is a statutory body responsible for advising the Minister of Higher Education and Training, for assuring and promoting quality within the sector and for supporting the development of Higher Education, issued a number of the recommendations from the report in future institutional audits.

The 23 universities in South Africa are not unlike any other institutions of Higher Education across the world as achieving equity in terms of staff profile is a long and slow process. There is evidence of a steady, but very slow increase especially amongst senior or executive management (SACHE, 2009). Racial and gender imbalances are more pronounced within academic appointments (instructional and research staff) (Shackleton, 2009). According to CHE statistics, the landscape changed in 2006 when public higher education employed more women, up to 51%. The counting differences are between the different types of universities, namely Universities of Technology employed 46% women while comprehensive universities and universities employed 52% women. In these institutions of higher education, women held the majority of the specialised support professional and non-professional administration posts, and the areas with the most inequality are trade and service positions and senior management (Shackleton, 2009). Women academic staff are still in the minority, at 43%, with this figure further broken down into 45% at comprehensive institutions, and 42% at Universities of Technology. These figures have remained stable since 2004. In more senior academic positions the underrepresentation of women is more prevalent with only 24% being professors and associate professors and 40% senior lecturers. The above figures have not moved much since 2001 when women represented 25% of professors and 38% senior lectures which indicate a decrease and an increase respectively.

Figure 2.4 shows that women have made inroads into higher education management with the numbers still low, but at least they are growing.
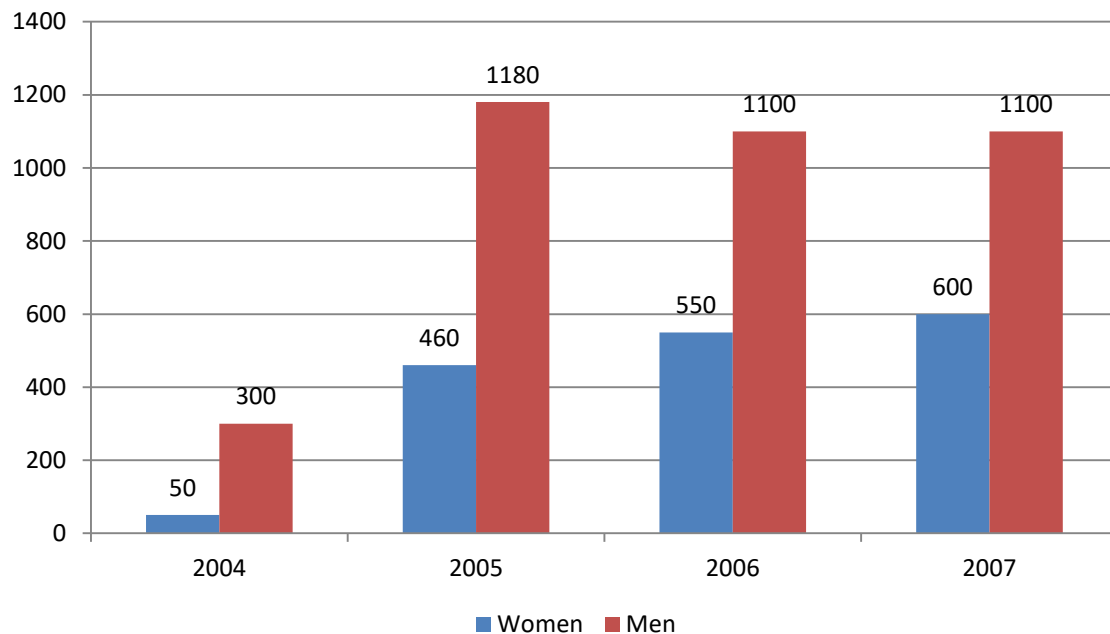
Figure 2.4: Growing numbers of women in senior management positions
Source: Adapted from Higher Education Management Information System
(HEMIS), 2011.

Figure 2.4 shows that in 2004, 18% of senior management positions were held by
women and by 2007 the numbers had increased to 36%. The SA Council of Higher
Education (SACHE, 2009) reported that the above figures as per the different types
of universities made up 40% of senior management at universities as opposed to
24% of senior management at Universities of Technology and 31% at
comprehensive universities. Despite all the progress that has been made thus far,
the most senior position at a university is the vice-chancellor and at the 23
universities in South Africa, only four have women vice-chancellors, namely
University of Pretoria, the Vaal University of Technology, University of Zululand and
Tshwane University of Technology.

A conference held at the University of Cape Town in March 2008, themed
Institutional Cultures and Higher Education Leadership: Where are the Women,
focused on the poor representation of women in senior positions in higher education.
At the conference, it was decided that it is imperative to have a declaration calling
for a significant improvement in the representation of women in senior academic,
administration and executive leadership positions in all the higher education

institutions. The conference called on the Department of Higher Education, the CHE and Higher Education South Africa (HESA) to actively promote the importance of equity in senior and executive management levels and to set targets and monitor progress towards the gender equity.

2.4.3. Factors that hinder women from progressing to senior management

A study done in Malaysia and Australia cited commitment to family or personal responsibilities as the key factor holding women back from advancing to top management (Wood, 2008). An IBR survey (2012) concurred with the above study in that bearing and raising children was cited as the major explanation for the skewed statistics suggesting the imbalances in women representation in senior management. Another study done in Australia, which supported the above, in which over a third of male respondents believed that women were less committed to their careers because they had babies and had to leave their employment while their children were still young (Still, 1997).

Gender stereotyping has impacted negatively on women's career advancement (Wood, 2008). Schein (2001) argued that the processes of 'placement, promotion and training' were factors that affected the career progression of women. This impacted on women's performance evaluation and thereby hindered their upward mobility in their career paths. De la Rey (2012) argued that choice was put forward as a factor for women not advancing in their careers. She argued that women were not putting themselves forward for top management positions and were opting out. Davidson and Burke (2004), Van Vianen (2002) and Liff and Ward (2001) supported the notion that women chose to rather decline senior management positions than sacrifice their family responsibilities.

Fagenson (1994) and Sun and Bonous-Hammath (2000) undertook research in the United States that proved that mentors were perhaps the most important factor in women's career success. A limited number of women in leadership positions, specifically vice-chancellors, deans and registrars, due to a lack of mentors, was noted in academia (Mazibuko, 2006). Powell (2000) determined that mentors contributed significantly to their protégé's career success and satisfaction through sponsorship, counselling, coaching and role modelling (Kram, 1985). Inadequacies in networking, mentoring, flexible working hours and family-friendly initiatives were

indirectly strengthening the existence of the glass ceiling in organisations (Man, Skerlavay & Dimovski, 2009). Institutional discrimination was cited as another factor affecting women's career progression (Kloot, 2004). This was supported by Bailyn (2003) who found that at Massachusetts Institute of Technology women were remunerated less and received less laboratory space than their male counterparts. Women being less ambitious and willing to forgo career success for happiness in a balanced life were other reasons cited by Kloot (2004). Evidence of the above is contradictory in that Morley, Bellamy, Jackson and O'Neill (2002) suggested that women opted for a more balanced life that negatively affected their career progression, but Marongiu and Ekehammer (1998) suggested that women wanted to be promoted to higher levels than previously reported, and Barker and Monks (1998) found no evidence of differences in career aspirations of males and females in their study.

2.5. SUMMARY

Career progression of women is a challenge worldwide. Women in senior and executive positions in higher education both in South Africa and globally is growing but at a very steady pace. The Employment Equity and Affirmative Action policies adopted in South Africa have done little to deal with the inequalities that are still prevalent in the workplace. The ongoing low number of women in senior management as CHE statistics reports warrants a critical analysis. The barriers faced by women will only be dealt with properly when senior and executive management have a good understanding of the experiences of women whilst in the workplace.

Research and findings in the career progression of women in general and specifically of women in Higher Education are theorised from a western context and dominated by research from North America and Western Europe. Chapter 3 provides details of the research methods that were adopted for this study.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1.   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to detail the research process and methods used to carry out this research. The chapter includes a presentation of the study objectives, research design, the sample frame, research instrument used to collect data and the method used to analyse data.

3.2.   AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to determine the factors affecting the progression of female academics (women) at Universities of Technology.

The following were the research objectives for this study:

- To establish barriers that women face in achieving higher positions at Universities of Technology.

- To determine if personal traits influence vertical progression.

- To make recommendations for the facilitation of upward mobility of women at Universities of Technology.

Based on the research problem, aim and objectives, the method of how the study was conducted can now be discussed. The sampling method and sample size are discussed, followed by the data collection strategies.

3.3.   PARTICIPANTS AND LOCATION OF STUDY

Participants and location of this study were selected from the population of female academics within Durban University of Technology and Mangosuthu University of Technology. The researcher was of the opinion that female academics would be in the best position to provide data required for the study. There are 358 female academics employed by the two mentioned Universities of Technology. Using the table designed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970 cited by Sekaran & Bougie, 2013), the sample size for the given population size was 196 respondents.

3.4. SAMPLING TECHNIQUE AND SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), "sampling is the process of selecting items form the population so that the sample characteristics can be generalized to the population". A sample, as opposed to population, is convenient in that it is cost effective, time saving and if adequately selected, the results of the research can be reliable and consistent (Lind, Marchal & Wathen, 2008).

3.4.1. Sampling

Probability and non-probability sampling are two main categories of sampling techniques. In probability sampling all the elements in the population have a known chance of being selected whilst non-probability sampling is conducted without knowing whether those included in the sample are representative of the overall population (Denscombe, 2003).

The probability sampling technique includes simple random, systematic and stratified and cluster or multi-stage sampling. The non-probability sampling technique includes convenience, purposive or judgement, quota sampling. All the above-mentioned sampling techniques have advantages and disadvantages and their applicability in research depends on the type of research being carried out. The key factor is to ensure that the sample is representative of the population from which it is drawn.

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), a purposive sampling technique is sampling that is obtained from specific types of people either because they are the only ones who have the required data, or they can conform to criteria as set out by the researcher. In purposive sampling, the researcher purposely selects subjects who, in their opinion, are relevant to their purpose (Sarantakos, 2005). There are two types of purposive sampling, namely judgement and quota. Judgement sampling involves people or subjects in the best position to provide the information required. This study used purposive judgement sampling, as the study sought to find out factors affecting career progression of women in Higher Education. The only people who have first-hand information on this are female academics at Institutions of Higher Education.

Table 3.1: Criteria of probability and non-probability samples

Probability sampling	Non-probability sampling
Employs probability theory	Does not employ probability theory
Is relatively large	Is small, often covering a few typical cases
Size is statistically determined	Size is determined statistically
Size is fixed	Size is flexible, but can also be fixed
Sample is chosen before the research	Sample is chosen before and during research
Controls researcher bias	Does not control researcher bias
Involves complex procedures	Involves simple procedures
Has fixed parameters	Has flexible parameters
Involves high costs	Involves relatively low costs
Planning is time consuming	Planning is not time consuming
Is designed to be representative	Representativeness is limited
Planning is laborious	Planning is relatively easy
Treats respondents as units	Treats respondents as people
Facilitates inductive generalisations	Facilitates analytical generalisations
Is employed in quantitative research	Is mostly for qualitative research

Source: Adapted from Sarantakos (2005).

Table 3.1 lists the criteria for selecting probability and non-probability sampling and the states the differences between the two.

3.4.2. Sample description

The sample comprised of female academics at Universities of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal, Durban University of Technology (DUT) and Mangosuthu University of Technology (MUT). To be part of the study, respondents had to conform to the following:

- Respondents had to be females.

- Respondents had to be a lecturer, senior lecturer, associate professor and/or professor.

- Respondents had to be employed at DUT or MUT.

To select the appropriate target population was key to ensuring that the researcher achieved the study objectives and the answers that the research question posed.

3.4.3. Sample size

The rule of thumb for sample size is that the sample size must be "as large as necessary, and as small as possible". Sample size is determined using statistical and non-statistical methods, but as far as possible it must be representative of the general population. However, for this study which used non-probability sampling, the generalisability of the results to the whole population is not possible.

For this study, a total of 111 responses were received from 360 questionnaires that were circulated. The non-response number was attributed to respondents who either viewed the questionnaire but did not participate or started the survey but did not complete it, resulting in a response rate of 31%.

The acceptable response rate for a questionnaire is 30%, according to Denscombe (2003) and Sekaran and Bougie (2013). This study's response rate was 31% which is 1% more than the acceptable or anticipated response rate.

Table 3.2: Sample size by University of Technology

University of Technology	Sample (n)	Response rate
Durban University of Technology	74	25%
Mangosuthu University of Technology	37	55%
TOTAL	**111**	

Table 3.2 shows that the majority of respondents were from the Durban University of Technology.

3.5. DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES

The choice of data collection method depends on the following: facilities available, the degree of accuracy required, the expertise of the researcher, the timespan of the study and other costs and resources required for data gathering (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Data can be obtained from primary and secondary sources. Primary data refers to data obtained first hand from respondents (for example, focus groups, interviews, questionnaires, interviews). Secondary data is data that already exists

(for example, company records or archives). Of these methods, the questionnaire is categorised as a quantitative method, whilst interviews, focus groups, and observations are qualitative methods of data collection.

The aim of qualitative studies is to provide a better understanding of the research problem and is exploratory in nature (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Interviews and focus groups are components of qualitative studies. The advantage of using interviews is the flexibility of adapting and changing the questions as the researcher proceeds with the interviews (Denscombe, 2003).

The aim of a quantitative study is to attempt to develop hypotheses (null/alternate) that are subjected to empirical scrutiny involving data collection and analysis, and that are deductive in nature (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The advantage of using questionnaires is that obtaining the data is more effective in terms of time, energy and cost (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

This study used questionnaires as a quantitative data tool to collect information from respondents. Table 3.3 below outlines the advantages and disadvantages of using questionnaires as a method of collecting data.

Table 3.3: Advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire

Advantages	Disadvantages
Economical	Pre-coded questions can be frustrating for respondents and thus deter them from answering.
Easier to arrange	Pre-coded questions can be biased to the researcher, rather than be the view of the respondent.
Supply standardised answers	Researcher does not have the opportunity to check the truthfulness of the answers.
Pre-coded answers	Poor response rate.
Wide coverage	Incomplete or poorly completed answers.
Cheap	Limit the space nature of answers.
Eliminate effect of personal interaction with researcher	Cannot check the truth of the answers.

Source: Adapted from The Good Research Guide for small-scale social research projects.

3.6. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), research design is a blueprint for the researcher who intends to conduct the study to answer the research question. The main function of a research design is to enable the researcher to anticipate what the appropriate research decisions should be so as to maximise the validity of the eventual results (Mouton, 1996).

3.6.1. Description and purpose

A questionnaire is a set of pre-written questions to which the respondent provides answers from a preselected list of alternatives (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

Personally administered questionnaires have an advantage of having the most completed response in a short period of time and any clarifications can be dealt with on the spot (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Mail and electronic questionnaires have an advantage of covering a wide geographical area and can be completed at the respondents' convenience. However, the main disadvantage of mail and electronic questionnaires is their low return rate. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), a 30% response rate is considered acceptable. To increase the respondents' rate for questionnaires, the researcher must notify them in advance, with an introductory covering letter and send follow-up emails as reminders.

For this study, the electronic questionnaire was used using QuestionPro. QuestionPro is software available for question design, response data entry, data analysis, and web and email surveys.

3.6.1.1. Construction of the instrument

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), operationalisation of concepts is the translation of abstract concepts into tangible and measurable elements. The operationalisation stage is the construction stage of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire for this research study was designed to analyse the perceptions of female academics with regards to their career progression using both closed and open-ended questions. The questionnaire design included some of the following key aspects:

- The range and scope of questions to be included
- Question types (closed or open ended)
- Content of individual questions
- Question structure
- Question wording
- Question order (Crowther & Lancaster, 2009).

Questionnaires broadly focus on three main areas, namely factual information, behavioural patterns and opinions, which are explored through closed or open questions. Closed questions require the respondent to choose from a set of alternatives given by the researcher (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). To the respondent, the questions are easy and quick to answer. To the researcher, they are easy to summarise and analyse and researcher bias is omitted (Gillham, 2000). Open-ended questions allow the respondents to answer the question in any way that they choose (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). For this study, all the questions were closed questions and respondents were required to choose one or all that applied from several alternatives.

The questionnaire was divided into two sections:

- Section A included the demographic data such as age, marital status, and educational level, where respondents were expected to input their personal information. This section comprised of eight questions.

- Section B included closed questions where respondents were asked choices among a set of alternatives given by the researcher.

The advantages and disadvantages of closed questions are similar to the open, unstructured approach (Denscombe, 2003). The main advantage of closed questions is the structure that is imposed on the answers of the respondents which allows the analysis of the data to be easily quantified and compared.

- Objective 1 had a total of seven questions that attempted to find the barriers experienced by female academics in career progression.

- Objective 2 attempted to find the personal traits that influenced the career progression of women, with three questions.

- Objective 3 had three questions that sought to find what could help counter the challenges that women face in the upward mobility in their careers.

Participation in the questionnaire was voluntary with no assurances of monetary gain. The only assurance given was the confidentiality of information that was guaranteed in the consent letter that was attached to the questionnaire. The questionnaire and consent letter are attached in Appendix 1 and Appendix 2, respectively.

3.6.2. Pretesting and validation

Pretesting is performed to ensure that the questions are understood by the respondents and that there are no problems with the wording or measurement (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Pretesting of the questionnaire was performed through a pilot study. A focus group of 10 people was selected for the pretesting. The pilot study was posted on the QuestionPro website. The following adjustments were made to the questionnaire based on the pilot respondents' recommendations:

- The introductory letter was amended to help increase the number of respondents.

- An error in question 9 was corrected, where the logic was not working out as envisioned.

3.6.3. Administration of the questionnaire

Prior to the administration of the questionnaires, gatekeepers' letter had to be obtained from Durban University of Technology and Mangosuthu University of Technology where the research was to be conducted. An ethical clearance had to be obtained from the University of KwaZulu-Natal Ethical Clearance Committee. The letter included information pertaining to the purpose of the study and stated that participation was voluntary and that participants' confidentiality would be maintained at all times.

To help respondents understand what the study was all about, the study title and purpose of the study were explained on the consent page of the questionnaire. Once the respondents had agreed to participate on their own accord by clicking on the "I

agree" icon, the survey could start. If the respondents did not want to take part they could simply exit the survey.

For this study, the questionnaire was administered electronically through email using QuestionPro. QuestionPro is a versatile, adaptable and customisable online survey tool. Respondents were able to complete the questionnaire and the results were available to the researcher in real time. This software tool also includes a data analysis tool that made it easier for the researcher to interpret, infer and make correlations to data in an effort to answer the research question. A tracking device can be activated to track who had and who had not responded, enabling the researcher to send reminders to solicit responses. The ability to validate the questions made it possible for respondents to answers all the questions without skipping any. QuestionPro also allows only one reply from each respondents' address thus avoiding duplication; this is done through tracking of the computer IP address. The main disadvantage was the fact that respondents were able to exit the questionnaire with ease which resulted in a low response rate.

3.7. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The process of analysing the quantitative data may be at a number of levels depending on how the data was collected, the type of data, the amount of data and the sampling method used (Crowther & Lancaster, 2009). The following two steps in data analysis ensure that data is analysed properly:

- Descriptive statistics is at most limited to the analysis of frequencies, average ranges, the mean and standard deviations, which provide descriptive information about a set of data.

- Inferential statistics comprise statistics that help to establish relationships among variables and draw conclusions (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

After the data had been collected, it was cleaned to eliminate the outliers which were considered invalid data sets skewing the results of the research (Lind *et al.*, 2008). The cleaned data was then analysed using QuestionPro, as detailed in Chapter 4.

3.8. SUMMARY

The chapter has detailed the research design process from the aim and objectives through to analysis of the data. Non-probability sampling, purposive judgement was chosen. With the study being quantitative in nature, the questionnaire was utilised to collect data. Pretesting and validation of the test instrument needed to ensure that the results obtained were reliable, consistent and stable. Before data analysis and presentation, the data was cleaned.

The next chapter presents the data in the form of descriptive and inferential statistics to help give clarity and meaning to the data from which the researcher will discuss and make relevant recommendations.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the detailed findings of the study according to the three research questions that had to be answered, as outlined in Chapter 1. The data collected was analysed and presented in the form of descriptive (frequencies, tables, graphs, pie charts) and inferential statistics (cross tabulations and chi-square tests) that were described in Chapter 3.

A total of 148 participants viewed the questionnaire and 111 participants completed the questionnaire. This represents a completion rate of 75%. All responses from participants who had started the questionnaire but not completed it, were excluded from the analysis.

4.2. PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

The demographics of the sample (age, marital status, number of dependents, race, highest level of education, institution of higher education, work experience, and level in institution), as represented in Table 4.1, helped in the understanding of the characteristics of the sample and how they are related to the study.

It is evident from Table 4.1 that the majority of the respondents were aged between 36–45 years (39%), married (57%) and with no dependents (28%). The racial frequency shows that African formed the majority of the respondents (46%), followed by Indians (29%) and Whites (21%). The minority were Coloureds at 4%. This is in line with the 2011 KwaZulu-Natal Census statistics (Statistics South Africa, 2013). The University of Technologies in KwaZulu-Natal are DUT and MUT. The majority of respondents were from DUT (67%) whilst 33% were from MUT. Respondents with the highest level of education, namely a master's degree, made up 61% of the sample population and those with the lowest, a Diploma, comprised 1%. This is in line with the compliance of the universities' minimum qualification criteria for lecturers. Most respondents had work experience of 15 years and over (33%), and their level at their institution was lecturer (74%).

Table 4.1: Demographic and employment profile of respondents

	CHARACTERISTICS	PERCENTAGE
AGE	25 and below	2%
	26–35	17%
	36–45	**39%**
	46–55	30%
	56 and over	12%
MARITAL STATUS	Single	29%
	Married	**57%**
	Widowed	3%
	Divorce	11%
DEPENDENTS	**0**	**28%**
	1	23%
	2	26%
	3	11%
	4	4%
	5 and over	8%
RACE	**African**	**46%**
	Coloured	4%
	Indian	29%
	White	21%
HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION	Diploma	1%
	Bachelors	8%
	Honours	15%
	Masters	**61%**
	Doctorate	13%
	Others	2%
WHICH INSTITUTION ARE YOU EMPLOYED AT?	DUT	67%
	MUT	33%
WORK EXPERIENCE IN YEARS	Below 5 years	22%
	5–9 years	28%
	10–14 years	17%
	15 and over	**33%**
LEVEL IN INSTITUTION	**Lecturer**	**74%**
	Senior lecturer	16%
	Associate professor	2%
	Professor	0%
	Other	8%

4.3. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CAREER PROGRESSION OF WOMEN

Descriptive statistics has been used to gauge the frequency of the respondents' perceptions to the career progression of women. The results are presented according to the 3 objectives of this research study as shown below.

4.3.1. Objective 1: To investigate barriers faced by women in achieving higher positions at Universities of Technology

Figure 4.1: Career progression

Respondents were asked if they had progressed in their careers. According to Figure 4.1, the majority of respondents, 55%, had not progressed in their career whilst 45% had progressed. This is in line with career progression of women worldwide. According to Grant Thornton IBR (2012), a survey done globally, women represented 21% of senior management roles worldwide, with only a 2% overall increase over a 10 year period (2004–2014). This shows that the progression of women is happening but at a slow and unacceptable rate.

In South Africa, only four out of the 23 public universities (17%) have women vice-chancellors (De la Rey, 2012), 21% comprise deputy vice-chancellors and executive

directors, and five out 23 universities have women registrars (21%) (HERS-SA, 2007).

By comparison, 14% of the UK vice-chancellors were women and in Sweden 43% were women (HERS-SA, 2007).
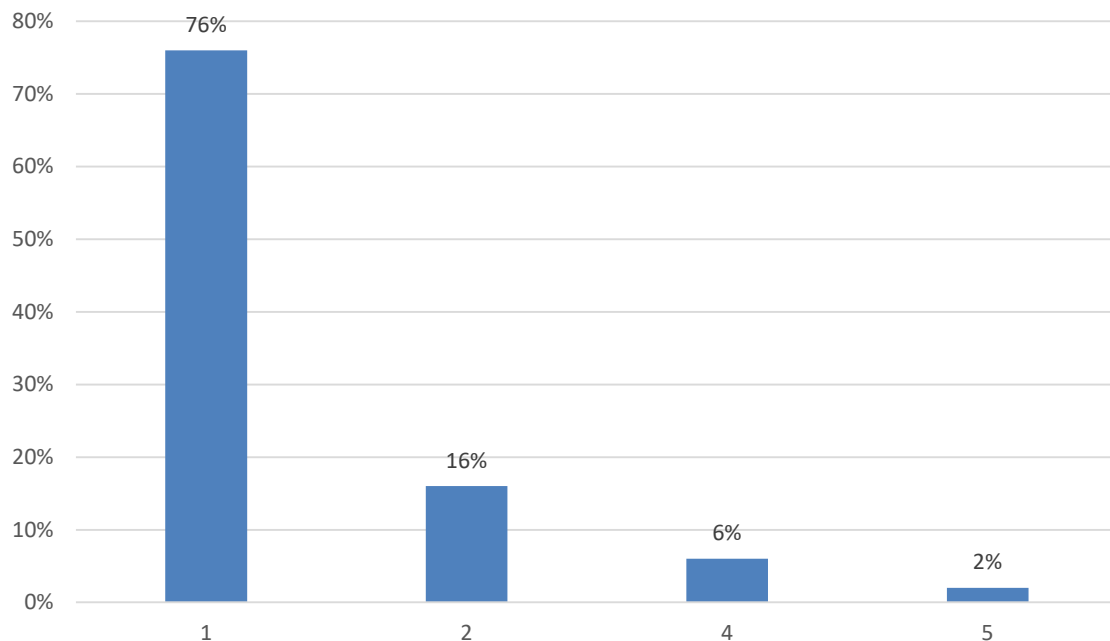
Figure 4.2: Number of promotions

Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of respondents (76%) were promoted once, whilst 16% were promoted twice. The minority of respondents (8%) were promoted more than three times. No one was promoted three times according to the respondents.

The lack of promotion into leadership positions for women, despite having the necessary qualifications like their male counterparts, was mentioned by the former President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki. The results show that the rate of promotion has not changed much for women in South Africa.
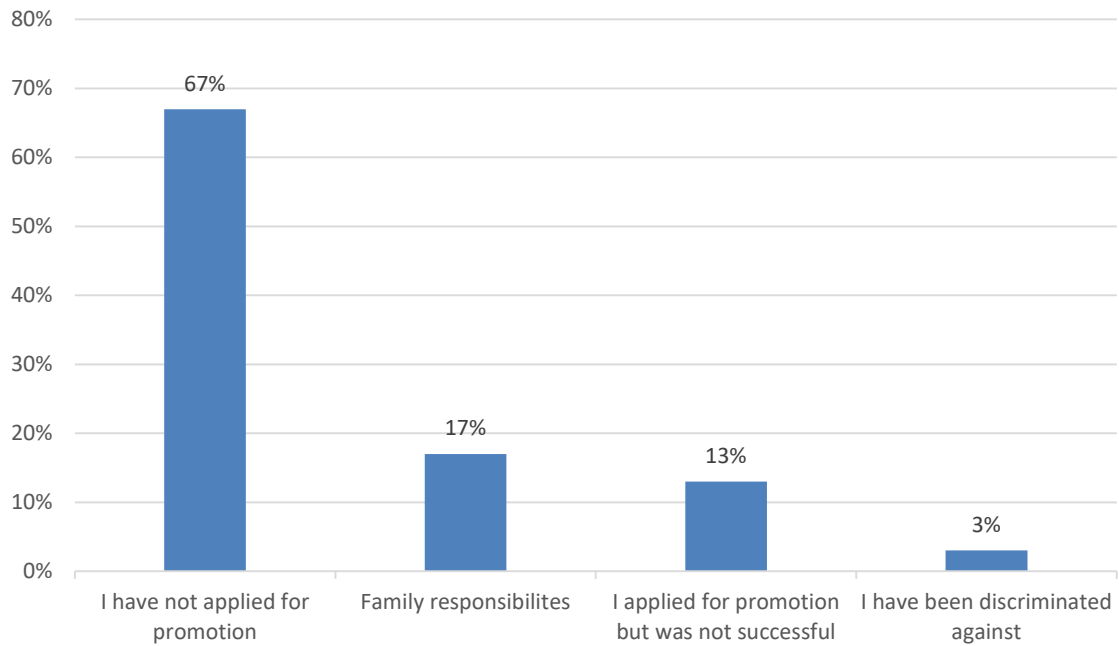
Figure 4.3: Reasons for non-progression

The main reason given by the majority of respondents for not progressing in their careers is that they did not apply for a promotion (67%). The other reasons for non-progression were family responsibilities (17%), having applied but not being successful (13%), and having been discriminated against (3%).

De la Rey (2012) argued that choice was identified as a factor for women not advancing in their careers, as they chose not to put themselves forward for senior management positions. Figure 4.3 concurs with that study by De la Rey (2012) and shows that the majority of women did not apply for a promotion by choice.

Have you experienced barriers to your career progression?

Figure 4.4: Barriers

Figure 4.4 shows that the majority of respondents (57%) had not experienced barriers in their career progression, whilst 43% had experienced barriers in their career progression.

Schein (2001) reported that barriers to women in management exists worldwide, but Figure 4.4 shows that this was not the case with the majority of respondents in this research study.
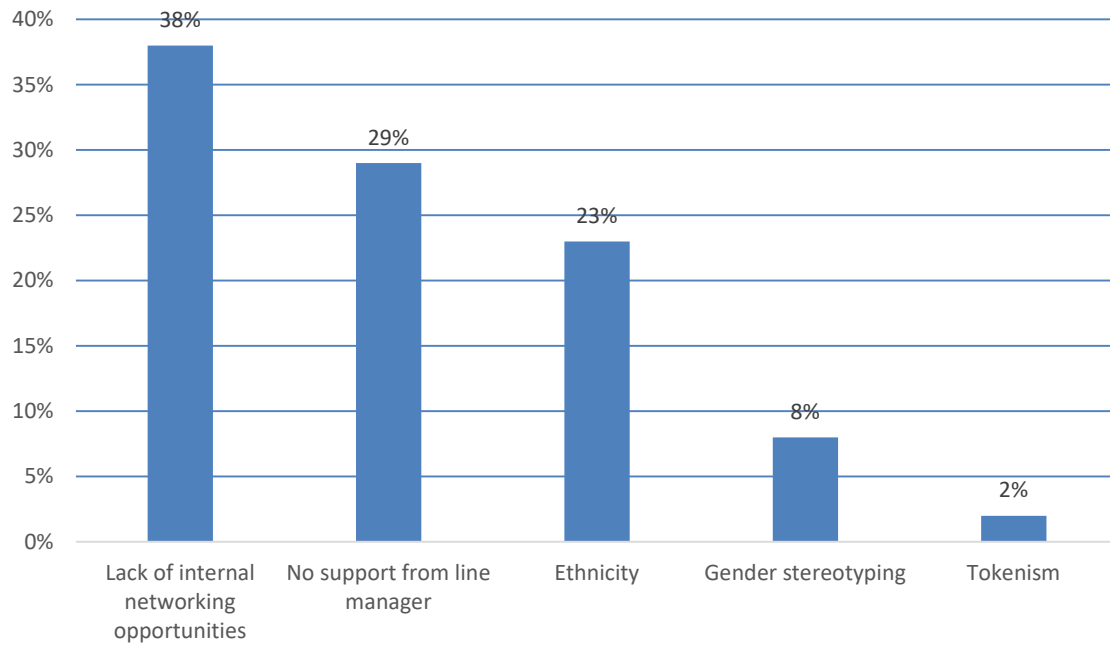
Figure 4.5: Organisational barriers

Figure 4.5 shows that the organisational barriers experienced by respondents are lack of internal networking opportunities (38%), no support from line manager (29%), ethnicity (23%), gender stereotyping (8%) and tokenism (3%).

The majority of respondents were in line with research by Pesonen, Teinari and Vanhala (2009) who concluded that women were promoted into positions that managed people instead of positions that managed competitiveness and business orientation, thereby keeping the women away from important networking opportunities.

Is there an invisible barrier that prevents the progress of women at your institution?
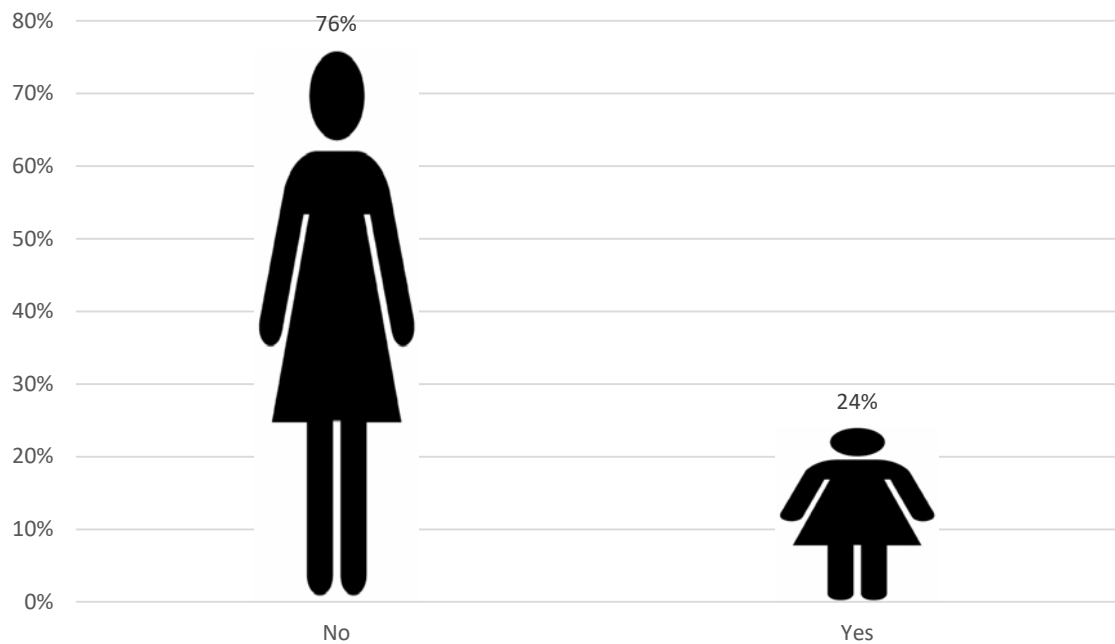
Figure 4.6: Glass ceiling

Figure 4.6 shows that 76% of the respondents stated that there is no invisible barrier that prevents the progression of women in Higher Education, whilst 24% disagreed. Cotter *et al.* (2001) and Hurn (2013) stated that the glass ceiling exists, especially in top management positions. Figure 4.6 shows that it was not the case with the majority of respondents in this research study.
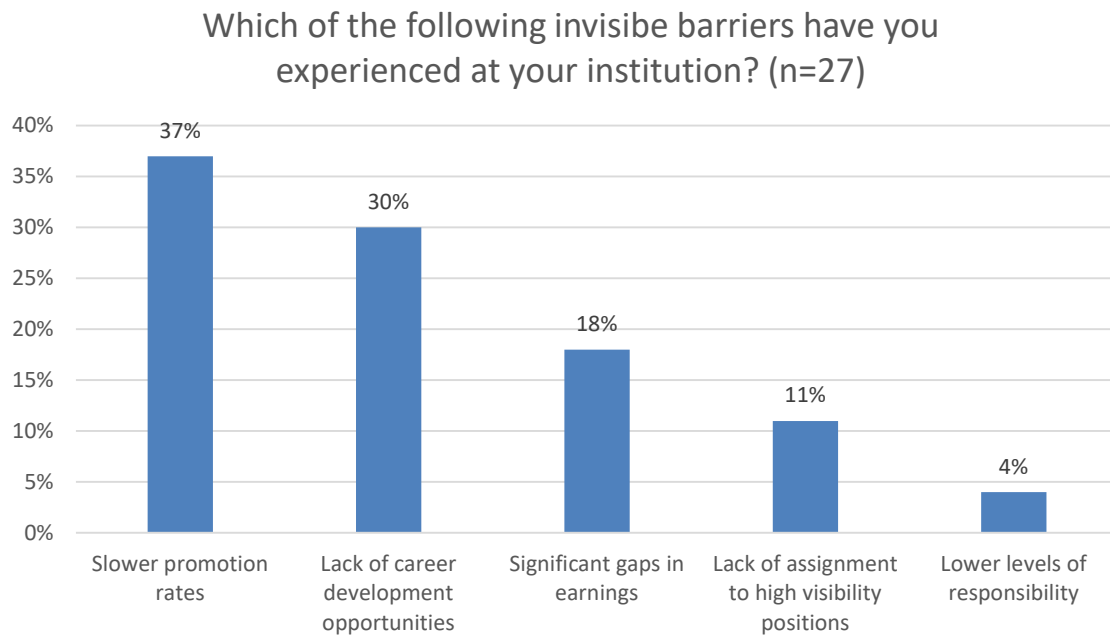
Figure 4.7: Different types of invisible barriers

Although 76% of respondents agreed that there are no invisible barriers to progression of women (Figure 4.6), Figure 4.7 illustrates the barriers that do exist. The results show that the invisible barriers experienced were slower promotion rates (37%), lack of career development opportunities (30%), significant gaps in earnings (18%), lack of assignment to high visibility positions (11%), and lower levels of responsibility (4%).

Even though only 18% of respondents indicated the significant gap in earnings, research done by Nkeli (2007) found that in South Africa for every R1.00 earned by men, women earn R0.75c, indicating that women earn 18% less than their male counterparts.

4.3.2. Objective 2: To determine if personal traits influence vertical progression

Respondents were asked a series of questions to ascertain if certain traits influence career progression.
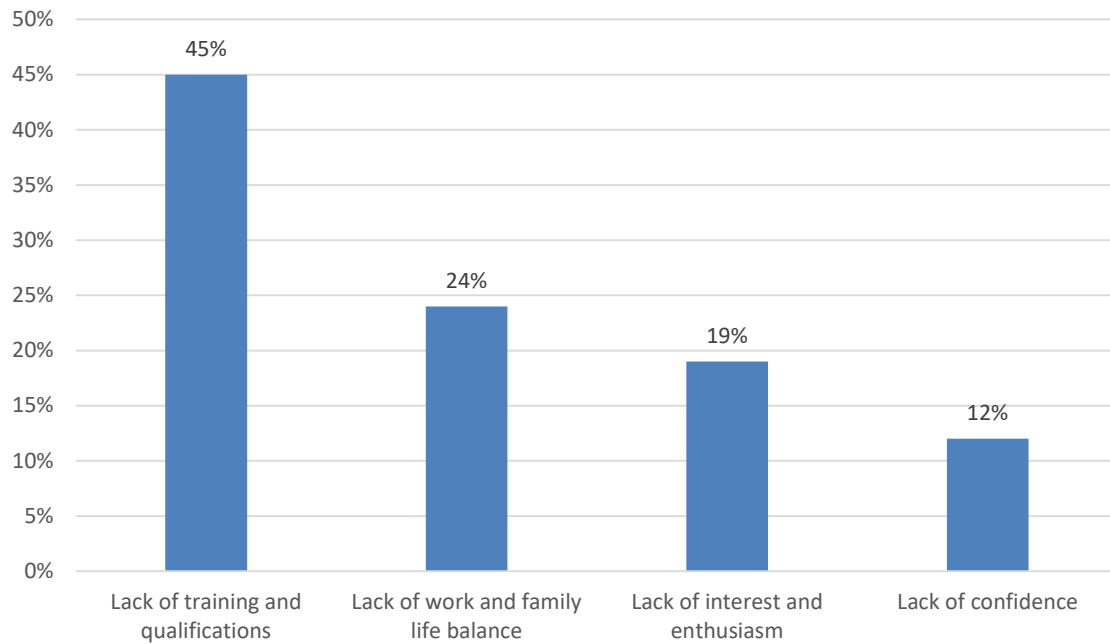
Figure 4.8: Factors preventing women from applying for a promotion

The majority of respondents (45%) agreed that lack of training and qualifications are the main personal factors that prevented them from applying for a promotion at their institution. This was followed by lack of work and family life balance (24%), lack of interest and enthusiasm (19%), and lack of confidence (12%).

South African Universities have adopted a policy that at a minimum number of lectures must have a master's degree, and for those without, plans are in place for them to attain the qualifications with timelines to attain the qualifications. The results above show that this is in line with this adoption by all Universities.

The results are similar to the views of Thompson (2006), BWA (2007) and Van der Boon (2003) that suggest a host of stumbling blocks to the advancement of women to positions of executive management, including education, the glass ceiling and work-life balance.
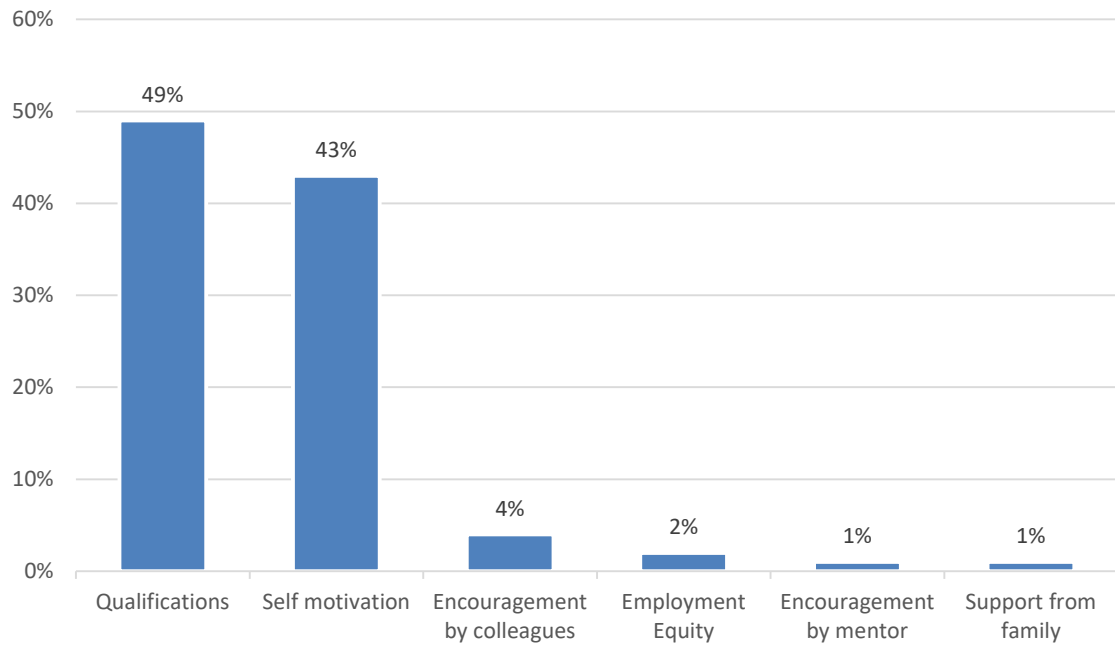
Figure 4.9: What factors helped you get to your present positions?

Figure 4.9 shows that factors that helped respondents get to their present positions were as follows: qualifications (49%), self-motivation (43%), encouragement by colleagues (4%), employment equity (2%), encouragement by mentor (1%), and support from family (1%).

These findings are consistent with the research conducted at the University of Costa Rica by Twombly (1998) that found that senior academic women displayed strong personalities to climb the career ladder, such as being self-motivated, hardworking and independent.
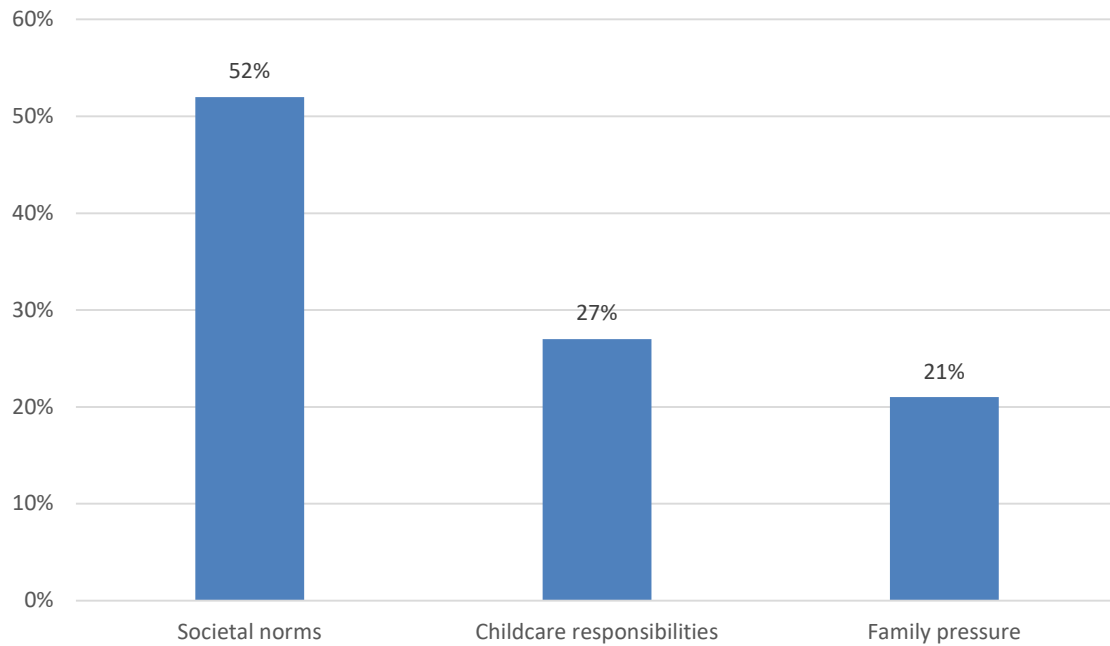
Figure 4.10: Personal barriers experienced

Figure 4.10 shows that personal barriers experienced by respondents are societal norms (52%), childcare responsibilities (27%), and family pressure (21%).

This is in line with a study done by Ismail and Ibrahim (2008) where women stated that societal norms were a barrier to their progressing in their careers. Rosser (2004) and Maskell-Prets and Hopkins (1997) also cited pressures of balancing career and family as a barrier to career progression of women.

The results revealed in Figure 4.9 concur with the views of the study done by Accenture in the US and UK where executive women felt that the greatest entrenched barrier to entry that they face is from the society at large, as a result of the perception that women are not cut out for executive management (Adkins, 2006). This is also highlighted in a study by Rosser (2004), Maskell-Prets and Hopkins (1997) and Miller (2004) that states that the most significant barrier faced by women in the workplace is balancing career and family.

4.3.3. Objective 3: To make recommendations for the facilitation of upward mobility of women at Universities of Technology
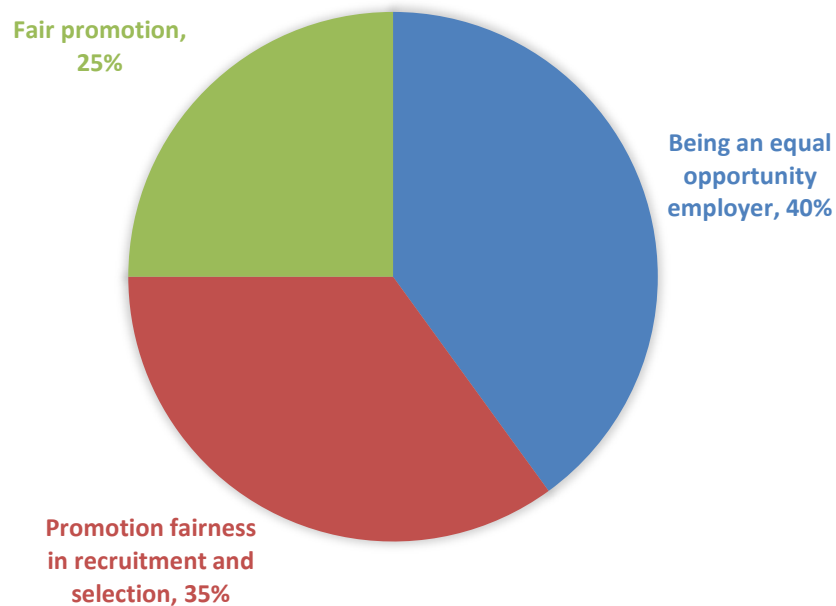
Figure 4.11: Factors that the Universities of Technology use to promote progression of women

The majority of respondents (40%) indicated that being an equal opportunity employer was supported by their university to advance career progression of women. This was followed closely by promotion of fairness in recruitment and selection (35%) whilst fair promotions was at 25%.
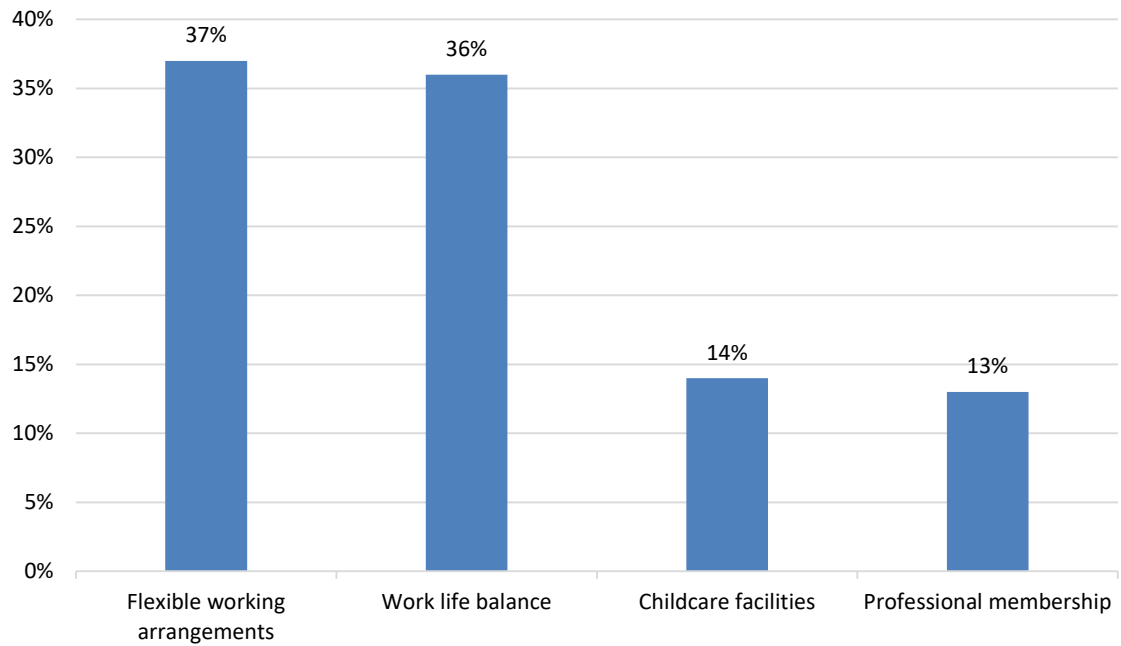
Figure 4.12: Factors that will make it easier for women to progress in their careers

Figure 4.12 shows that flexible working arrangements (37%) and work-life balance (36%) were seen by the majority of respondents as the two factors that will make it easier for women to progress in their careers. This was followed by childcare facilities (14%), and professional membership (13%).
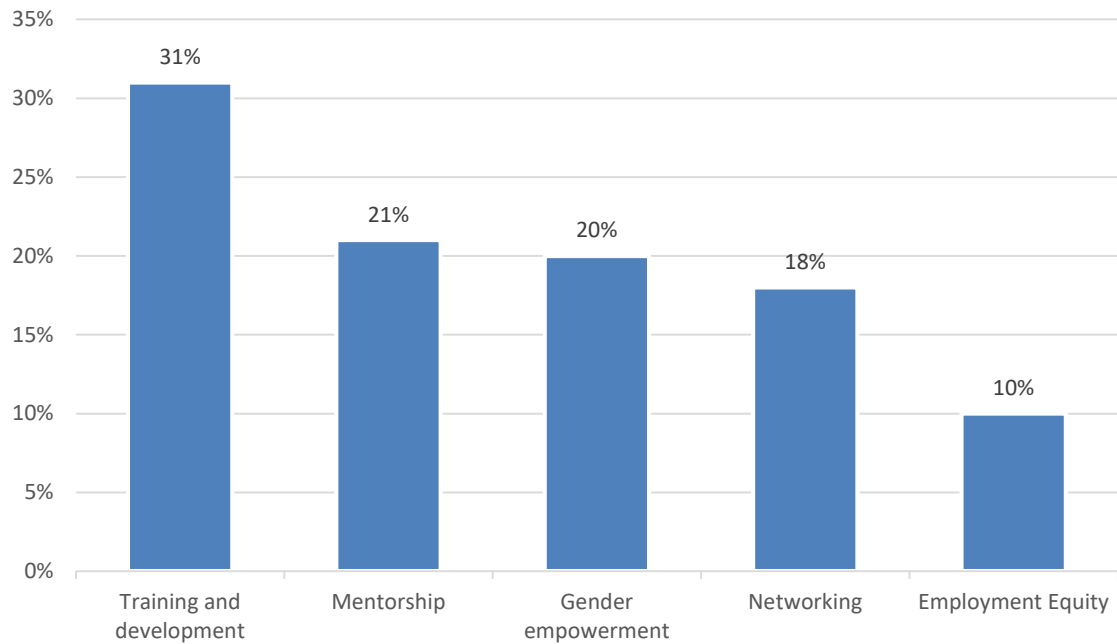
Figure 4.13: Countering challenges faced by women

Figure 4.13 shows that to help counter the challenges that respondents face, in order of priority, are training and development (31%), mentorship (21%), gender empowerment (20%), employment equity (18%), and networking (10%).

Section 4.4 provides detailed discussions of the above recommendations for objective 3.

4.4. INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Inferential statistics has been used to analyse the significance of data and results using the chi-square and p-value.

4.4.1. Cross tabulations

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

4.4.1.1. Objective 1: To establish barriers that women face in achieving higher positions at Universities of Technology

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

4.4.1.1.1 Cross tabulation: Organisational barriers and career progression

Table 4.2: Organisational barriers and career progression

Which of the organisational barriers have you experienced?		Have you progressed in your institution?		
		Yes	**No**	**Total**
	Lack of internal networking opportunities	14%	23%	37%
	No support from line manager	17%	13%	30%
	Ethnicity	4%	19%	23%
	Gender stereotyping	8%	0%	8%
	Tokenism	0%	2%	2%
	Total	**43%**	**57%**	**100%**
n= 48, X^2= 10.036, p = 0.04				

Results from Table 4.2 show that the majority of respondents (57%) conceded that they did not progress in their careers due to the following organisational barriers: lack of internal networking opportunities (23%) and ethnicity (19%).

Organisational barriers were found to be significant and related to career progression at the p=0.04 level. This result indicates that the respondents who experienced organisational barriers did not progress in their careers.

4.4.1.1.2 Cross tabulation: Invisible barrier and non-progression

Table 4.3: Invisible barrier and non-progression

Is there an invisible barrier that prevents the progress of women at your institution?		**Why have you not progressed in your career?**				
		I have not applied for promotion	Family responsibilities	I applied for promotion but was not successful	I have been discriminated against	**Total**
	No	57%	13%	5%	2%	**77%**
	Yes	10%	3%	8%	2%	**23%**
	Total	**67%**	**16%**	**13%**	**4%**	**100%**
n= 61, X^2**= 9.557**, **p= 0.05**						

Table 4.3 shows that the majority of respondents (77%) agreed that there is no invisible barrier that prevents the progress of women and the main reason they stated for not progressing in their careers was that they had not applied for a promotion.

The invisible barriers were found to be positively related to non-progression in career and significant at the p = 0.00 level. This indicates that there are no invisible barriers to career progression and reasons for non-progression vary from having not applied for a promotion to family responsibilities.

4.4.1.1.3 Cross-tabulations: Barriers for non-progression and reasons for not progressing

Table 4.4: Barriers for non-progression and reasons for not progressing

Have you experienced barriers to your career progression at your institution?		Why have you not progressed in your career?				
		I have not applied for promotion	Family responsibilities	I applied for promotion but was not successful	I have been discriminated against	**Total**
	Yes	18%	10%	13%	3%	**44%**
	No	49%	7%	0%	0%	**56%**
	Total	**67%**	**17%**	**13%**	**3%**	**100%**
n= 61, X^2= 18.647, p= 0.00						

Table 4.4 shows that the majority of respondents (56%) did not experience barriers to their career progression and the main reason they gave for not progressing was that they had not applied for promotion (49%). However, 44% who experienced barriers in their careers agreed that they did not apply for promotion (18%) followed closely by having applied and not being successful (13%), and family responsibilities (10%), as reasons for non-progression.

The barriers to non-progression were found to be positively related to reasons for not progressing and significant at the p = 0.00 level. This indicates that career progression was found to be significant and related to reasons for non-progression at the p = 0.0 level.

4.4.1.1.4 Cross tabulation: Work experience and glass ceiling

Table 4.5: Work experience and glass ceiling

Work experience in years		Is there an invisible barrier that prevents the progress of women at your institution?		
		Yes	No	Total
	Below 5 years	1%	21%	22%
	5–9 years	8%	20%	28%
	10–14 years	3%	13%	16%
	15 years and over	12%	22%	34%
	Total	**24%**	**76%**	**100%**
	n= 111, *X²*= 8.131, p = 0.04			

Table 4.5 shows that the majority of respondents (76%) agreed that there is no invisible barrier that prevents women from progressing in their careers. This level of consensus increased as their work experience in years increased. The majority of respondents (22%) have work experience of 15 years and above, below five years (21%) and between five and nine years (20%) and agreed that they have not experienced an invisible barrier preventing their career progression.

Work experience was found to be positively related to the glass ceiling and significant at the p =0.04 level. This indicates that the longer the time spent working the more likely there are no invisible barriers experienced by the respondents.

4.4.1.1.5 Cross tabulation: Non-progression and glass ceiling

Table 4.6: Non-progression and glass ceiling

Why have you not progressed in your career?		Is there an invisible barrier that prevents the progress of women at your institution?		
		Yes	No	Total
	I have not applied for promotion	10%	57%	**67%**
	I am not up to the challenge	0%	0%	**0%**
	Family responsibilities	3%	13%	**16%**
	I applied for promotion but was not successful	8%	5%	**13%**
	I have been discriminated against	2%	2%	**4%**
	Total	**23%**	**77%**	**100%**
n= 61, X^2= 9.557, p = 0.05				

Table 4.6 shows that the majority of respondents (67%) did not progress in their career because they not apply for promotion and they also indicated that there is no invisible barrier preventing the progress of women (77%).

Non-progression was found to be significant and related to glass ceiling at the p = 0.05 level. This indicates that the majority of respondents did not experience an invisible barrier in their careers but have not progressed in their careers.

4.4.1.1.6 Cross tabulation: Dependents and glass ceiling

Table 4.7: Non-progression and glass ceiling

Dependents		Which of the following invisible barriers have you experienced at your institution?					
		Significant gaps in earnings	Slower promotion rates	Lower levels of responsibility	Lack of assignment to high visibility positions	Lack of adequate career development opportunities	Total
	0	11%	15%	0%	0%	0%	**26%**
	1	0%	7%	0%	4%	15%	**26%**
	2	0%	7%	0%	7%	4%	**18%**
	3	3%	3%	0%	0%	8%	**14%**
	4	0%	4%	4%	0%	0%	**8%**
	5 and over	4%	0%	0%	0%	4%	**8%**
	Total	**18%**	**36%**	**4%**	**11%**	**31%**	**100%**
	n= 27, X^2= 31.330, p= 0.05						

The results show that of the respondents, women with no dependent or one dependent were the majority (26%), and of these women, 15% experienced slower promotion rates as the invisible barrier, with 11% indicating significant gaps in earnings, 15% indicating lack of adequate career development opportunities, 7% stating slower promotion rates, and 4% indicating lack of assignment to high visibility positions as the invisible barrier experienced at their institution.

The number of dependents were found to be positively related to glass ceiling at the $p = 0.05$ level. This indicates that the lower the number of dependents, the more invisible barriers were experienced.

4.4.1.1.7 Cross tabulation: Marital status and glass ceiling

Table 4.8: Marital status and glass ceiling

Why have you not progressed in your career?		What do you think helped you get to your present position?						
		Self-motivation	Support from family	Encouragement by colleagues	Encouragement by mentor	Employment Equity	Qualifications	**Total**
	I have not applied for promotion	29%	0%	3%	0%	0%	34%	**66%**
	Family responsibilities	13%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3%	**16%**
	I applied for promotion but was not successful	7%	0%	0%	0%	0%	7%	**14%**
	I have been discriminated against	0%	0%	2%	0%	2%	0%	**4%**
	Total	**49%**	**0%**	**5%**	**0%**	**2%**	**44%**	**100%**
	n= 61, X^2= 44.522, p= 0.00							

Table 4.8 shows that the majority of respondents were married (62%) and experienced slower promotion rates (29%) and lack of adequate career development opportunities (22%). However, single respondents (26%) experienced significant gaps in earnings (11%) and lack of assignment to high visibility positions (7%). Divorced respondents experienced slower rates of promotion and lower levels of responsibility whilst widowed respondents experienced lack of adequate career development opportunities.

Marital status was found to be significant and related to glass ceiling at the p = 0.03 level. This indicates that the different marital statuses experienced different invisible barriers at their different stages of their lives.

4.4.1.2. Objective 2: To determine if personality traits influence vertical progression

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

4.4.1.2.1 Cross tabulation: Non-progression and current position

Table 4.9: Non-progression and current position

Why have you not progressed in your career?		What do you think helped you get to your present position?						
		Self-motivation	Support from family	Encourageme nt by colleagues	Encourageme nt by mentor	Employment Equity	Qualifications	**Total**
	I have not applied for promotion	29%	0%	3%	0%	0%	34%	**66%**
	Family responsibilities	13%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3%	**16%**
	I applied for promotion but was not successful	7%	0%	0%	0%	0%	7%	**14%**
	I have been discriminated against	0%	0%	2%	0%	2%	0%	**4%**
	Total	**49%**	**0%**	**5%**	**0%**	**2%**	**44%**	**100%**
		n= 61, X^2= 44.522, p= 0.00						

60

Table 4.9 shows that the majority of respondents (66%) agreed that they did not progress in their careers because they did not apply for a promotion, and they achieved their current position due to self-motivation (49%) and qualification (44%).

Non-progression was found to be significant and related to current position at the p = 0.00 level. This indicates that the main reason why respondents have not progressed in their careers is due to them not having applied for promotion and the main reasons why they are in their current positions are due to self-motivation (49%) and qualifications (44%).

4.4.1.2.2 Cross tabulation: Race and current position

Table 4.10: Race and current position

Race		What do you think helped you get to your present position?						Total
		Self-motivation	Support from family	Encouragement by colleagues	Encouragement by mentor	Employment Equity	Qualifications	
	African	17%	0%	0%	0%	2%	27%	**46%**
	Indian	14%	0%	1%	0%	0%	13%	**28%**
	White	10%	0%	3%	1%	0%	7%	**21%**
	Coloured	2%	1%	0%	0%	0%	2%	**5%**
	Total	**43%**	**1%**	**4%**	**1%**	**2%**	**49%**	**100%**
		n= 111, X^2= 38.025, p= 0.00						

Table 4.10 shows that all races chose qualifications (49%) and self-motivation (43) as the factors that got them to their current positions. Forty-six per cent of Africans indicated that qualifications (27%) and self-motivation (17%) helped them get to their present positions; whilst 28% of Indians felt that self-motivation (14%) and qualifications (13%) helped them get to their present positions; and 21% of Whites felt that self-motivation (10%) and qualifications (7%) helped them get to their present positions.

Race was found to be positively related to current position and significant at the p = 0.00 level. This indicates that all the race groups felt that qualifications and self-motivation were the main reasons that they were at their current positions.

4.4.1.2.3 Cross tabulation: Highest level of education and current position

Table 4.11: Highest level of education and current position

Highest level of education		What do you think helped you get to your present position?						
		Self-motivation	Support from family	Encouragement by colleagues	Encouragement by mentor	Employment Equity	Qualifications	Total
	Diploma	0%	0%	0%	0%	1%	0%	**1%**
	Bachelors	3%	0%	1%	1%	0%	3%	**8%**
	Honours	12%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3%	**15%**
	Masters	25%	1%	3%	0%	1%	31%	**61%**
	Doctorate	3%	0%	0%	0%	0%	10%	**13%**
	Other	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1%	**2%**
	Total	**44%**	**1%**	**4%**	**1%**	**2%**	**48%**	**100%**
		n= 111, X^2= 80.940, p= 0.00						

Table 4.11 shows that the majority of respondents (61%) have a master's degree as their highest level of education and that they got to their current positions due to qualifications (48%) and self-motivation (44%).

Highest level of education was found to be significant and related to current position at the p=0.00 level. This indicates that as the level of education increased so did the personal factors supporting their upward mobility in their careers.

4.4.1.2.4 Cross tabulation: Glass ceiling and barriers

Table 4.12: Glass ceiling and barriers

		Have you experienced barriers to your career progression at your institution?		
		Yes	No	Total
Is there an invisible barrier that prevents the progress of women at your institution?	Yes	21%	3%	24%
	No	23%	53%	76%
	Total	44%	56%	100%
n= 111, X^2= 25.572, p = 0.00				

Table 4.12 shows that the majority of respondents (76%) agreed that there is no invisible barrier that prevents them from progressing in their careers and the majority (56%) also stated that they had not experienced any barriers in their career progression.

The glass ceiling was found to be significant and related to barriers experienced in career progression at the p=0.00. This indicates that the respondents who did not experience the glass ceiling at their institutions also did not experience barriers to their career progression.

4.5. SUMMARY

In this chapter the data that was collected from respondents was analysed and key findings identified. The findings were related to the objectives of the study, as stated in Chapter 1. The data analysis indicates that the majority of respondents are married, African lecturers between the ages of 36 to 45, with no dependents and work experience of between 15 years and over, and with a master's degree as their highest qualification. Some of the salient findings are that women have not progressed in their careers in Higher Education. The main reason given for non-progression was that the respondents had not applied for promotion. The findings also revealed that the majority of respondents had not experienced barriers in their career progression and that there are no invisible barriers preventing them from progressing in Higher Education. The next chapter discusses the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1.   INTRODUCTION

This chapter highlights the salient findings of the research and the limitations of the study. Recommendations are made for future studies related to the career progression of women. The research question and objectives were outlined in Chapter 1 and the findings of each objective are discussed in detail below.

5.2.   DEMOGRAPHICS OF STUDY

The majority of the respondents (86%) were under the age of 55 years. Most respondents (69%) were between the ages of 36 and 44, while 12% were aged 55 years and over.

For females, family responsibilities and hence work-life balance is critical in career progression. The majority of respondents were married (57%) and had no dependents, 1 or 2 dependents.

The largest population group in KwaZulu-Natal was Black African (87%), followed by Indian (7%), White (4%) and Coloured (1%) (Census, 2011). In terms of race, the sample was composed of 46% African, 29% Indian, 21% White and 1% Coloured.

Qualifications are seen as a ladder to success. The majority of respondents' highest level of education was a master's degree (61%) and 13% had a doctorate degree. No respondents had only a matric qualification and only 1% had a diploma.

The majority of respondents (33%) had work experience of 15 years and over.

5.3.   CAREER PROGRESSION

Three objectives are discussed below in an attempt to provide answers to the broad aim of this study: determining the factors affecting the progression of female academics at Universities of Technology.

5.3.1. Objective 1: To establish barriers that women face in achieving higher education positions at Universities of Technology

More than half of the respondents (55%) agreed that they had not progressed in their careers. On the other hand, 45% of respondents disagreed. This observation shows a clear division of opinion between respondents in agreement and disagreement. In Australia in 1993, Hede and Ralston prefigured that in order to achieve, 50% of women in senior management will take 30 years. In the UK, EOWA (2006) estimated that it would take a further 40 years before female directors equal the number of male directors in FTSE 100 companies. Burke (2006) predicted that it would take 400 years before women achieve senior management in similar proportion to their male counterparts.

The majority of respondents (67%) agreed that the reason why they had not progressed in their careers was that they did not apply for a promotion. According to Blair-Loy (2001) and De la Rey (2012), many women make subtle choices between career and family by "opting out" or deferring marriage and parenting. Cross tabulations of barriers to non-progression and reasons for not progressing were significant and indicated that the reason for not progressing was due to the respondents not applying for a promotion (p=0.00). Global studies support this notion (Crampton & Mishra, 1999; Van Vianen, 2002; Davidson & Burke, 2004) and found similar attitudes in women who chose to decline executive management positions rather than sacrifice family responsibilities.

Seventy-six per cent (76%) of respondents denied that there was an invisible barrier preventing women from progressing in their careers. This is in contrast with Mathur-Helm (2005), who established that women continue to face barriers such as the glass ceiling even though gender equality awareness was raised after the transformation in South Africa. Cross tabulations of "glass ceiling" and non-progression were found to be significant and indicated that the majority of respondents did not experience invisible barriers to their careers but have not progressed in their careers (p=0.05).

The 24% of respondents who agreed that there is an invisible barrier to the progression of women, identified the main barriers as slower rates of promotion, lack of career development opportunities and significant gaps in earning.

The majority of respondents had been promoted only once and were lecturers. No respondents were professors and there were only 2% who were associate professors. This shows that the progression of women at Universities of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal is moving at a very slow pace. This is interesting in that in South Africa, government passed policies and legislation to redress the wrongs of apartheid, such as the National Women's Empowerment Policy, the Commission on Gender Equality (1999). The fact remains that even though the South African government has made strides in promoting women's advancement through policies and legislation, women still find it difficult to rise to senior and executive management positions.

Fifty-seven per cent of respondents indicated that they have not experienced barriers in their careers, whilst 43% have experienced barriers in their careers. This is contrary to Schein (2001) who found that barriers to women in management exist worldwide. She noted that "even though women represent more than 40% of the world's labour force, their representation in management remains unacceptably low."

The 47% who experienced barriers in their careers indicated that the organisational barriers that they experienced were lack of internal networking opportunities, no support from their line managers and ethnicity. Cross tabulation of organisational barriers and career progression showed a significant relationship between the variables and indicated that the respondents who experienced organisational barriers did not progress in their careers (p=0.04). Van Vianen (2002) concluded that organisational cultures, policies and practices foster unfavourable processes for career progression of women.

When respondents were asked if they experienced an invisible barrier in their institutions, the majority of respondents (76%) stated that there are no invisible barriers preventing them from progressing in their careers. This is in contrast with Mathur-Helm (2006), whose study reported that 50% of the respondents agreed that the glass ceiling in South Africa's banking sector definitely existed.

The 24% of respondents who did experience invisible barriers at their institutions, stated that they experienced the following barriers: slower promotion rates, lack of career development opportunities and significant gaps in earnings.

5.3.2. Objective 2: To determine if personality traits influence vertical progression

Respondents agreed that personality traits do influence the vertical progression of women. The majority of respondents (45%) agreed that lack of training and qualification is the main factor preventing women from applying for promotion. The other major factors included lack of work and family life balance. Less than 31% of respondents cited lack of interest, enthusiasm and confidence as factors hindering them from applying for a promotion. Several past studies (Adler, 1993; Booysen, 1999; Mathur-Helm, 2004) claimed that a lack of education is a vital barrier to women's career advancement. This is supported by this study in which a majority of respondents cited lack of training and qualification as a hindrance to career progression. An empirical research study of Nottingham suggested that balancing work and life is very difficult. Cherry (2001) and Mathur-Helm (2006) found family obligations which lead to work-life balance as the most apparent barrier in professional women's careers. In South Africa, women sometimes compromise on their careers because family is seen as a woman's responsibility (Mathur-Helm, 2006).

The majority of respondents agreed that qualifications (49%) and self-motivation (43%) helped them to get to their current position. Mathur-Helm's (2006) study concurred and showed that women believe that professional qualifications lead to faster growth in one's career.

The majority of respondents (52%) cited societal norms as a personal barrier experienced to their career progression. This is in line with Adkins (2006), who asserted in a study done in the US and UK that women felt that the greatest barrier to entry they face is from society that has the perception that women are not cut out for executive management. There was a perception that in the new South Africa the small number of women who do make it to executive level, do so as part of affirmative action as opposed to having the right skills, experience and qualifications (Booysen, 2007a, Cummings, 2004).

5.3.3. Objective 3: To make recommendations for the facilitation of upward mobility of women at Universities of Technology

This objective was for respondents to make recommendations to the Universities of Technology on how to overcome the barriers experienced by women in their career advancement.

5.3.3.1. Factors that the Universities of Technology can use to promote progression of women

The majority of respondents (40%) indicated that Universities of Technology could promote progression of women by being an equal opportunity employer. South Africa implemented equal opportunity and affirmative action legislation in 1994 to redress the past imbalances created by the apartheid regime (Mathur-Helm, 2004). However, this study shows that respondents felt that they would progress in their careers only when their institutions are equal opportunity employers. Twenty-one (21) years after the implementation of legislation and policies for equal opportunity employers the impact is still not felt by female academics in institutions of Higher Education.

5.3.3.2. Factors that make it easier for women to progress in their careers

The majority of respondents indicated that flexible working arrangement (37%) and work-life balance (36%) are factors that make it easier to progress in their careers. One of the biggest challenges facing South African women executives is maintaining the balance between career and family (Booysen, 2007b; Pile, 2004). Research in the UK and Canada also suggests that the retention of female executives in organisations is impacted by work-life balance (Orser, 1998; McLean, Brady & Bachmann, 2003). According to April *et al.* (2007), the impact of work-life balance is likely to be greater in South Africa due to the societal pressures around women's role in child rearing.

5.4. RECOMMENDATIONS ARISING FROM THE STUDY

For women to reach critical mass in senior and executive management, the following recommendations, as answers to objective 3, should be implemented.

5.4.1. Training and development

The majority of respondents (49%) agreed that qualifications is what got them to their present positions. Forty-five per cent (45%) of respondents also agreed that lack of training and qualifications was the main factor that prevented them from applying for a promotion. Some respondents, when being sent the reminders to complete the questionnaire, replied by email that the only way to progress in Higher Education is by getting a PhD.

5.4.2. Mentorship

A mentor is an influential individual in a position of seniority with experience and knowledge and who is committed to providing career support and mobility to their protégé (Lineham & Scullion, 2008). Respondents were of the opinion that women who have climbed the workplace ladder will, through a mentoring relationship, assist other women by acting as role models. Mentoring provides career development such as sponsorship, coaching and support and psychological functions such as encouragement, feedback and advice (Wang, 2009).

5.4.3. Gender empowerment

In South Africa, various initiatives such as National Empowerment policy, the Commission of Gender Equality, and the National Report of the Status of Women in South Africa are in place to address challenges faced by women in the workplace (Mathur-Helm, 2006). Despite the progress made by South Africa in promoting the advancement of women, low representation in the corporate boardrooms is still experienced by women (Catalyst, 2004). Transformation in South Africa has only raised awareness about gender equality but women still face barriers to career advancement (Mathur-Helm, 2005). The highest office in Higher Education, which is the vice-chancellor, is held by women in only three out 23 Universities (13%). This concurs with the result of this study that gender empowerment is needed for women to progress in Higher Education.

5.4.4. Networking

A network is an informal internal relationship that allows a protégé valuable information exchange opportunities, strategic career planning, support, visibility and heightened career mobility (Har-Even, 2004). Most organisations are male-led, and

the 'old boys' network benefits males and excludes females. As a recommendation for women, institutions of Higher Learning should ensure that females gain access to such internal networks to interact with promotional gatekeepers and mentors. Significant advantages gained from networking are information exchange, collaborations, visibility and support (Linehan & Scullion, 2008).

5.4.5. Employment Equity

The Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998, was intended to encourage more women in employment (Mathur-Helm, 2005). Chapter 2 of the Employment Equity Act disallows unfair discrimination against designated employees (Black people, women, and people with disabilities). The Act helped the previously disadvantaged individuals in respect of access to opportunities in the workplace as organisations were under pressure to meet the Employment Equity Act requirements (Booysen, 2007a). Even with these interventions by the government, the progress is still slow. Respondents felt that the implementation of Employment Equity in Higher Education can help counter the challenge of barriers preventing female academics from progressing in their careers.

5.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations that arose during the course of this study and recommendations to help solve the problems are discussed below.

5.5.1. Sample size

While the results of this study represent the opinion of 111 respondents who participated in the study, they are not generalisable to the larger population of female academics in Universities of Technology. The use of a larger sample could help ensure that the results obtained could be concluded to reflect the perceptions of female academics in Higher Education.

5.5.2. Questionnaire measurement scale

Closed questions were used with specific alternatives to choose from. Due to the non-response rate, the questionnaire was resent a couple of times as reminders to respondents. Some respondents replied that they could not complete the questionnaire as they felt that the choices in the questionnaire were not applicable

to them. To help with variability, a mixture of open-ended questions, and a mixture of rank orders could have helped to entice more respondents.

5.5.3. Response rate

The respondents were sent the questionnaire via the internet using the web-based software, QuestionPro. The disadvantage of using a questionnaire was realised in the low response rate. The response rate even though not below the acceptable rate of response was quite low.

5.6. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- The work-life balance practices and policies in South Africa can be identified and compared to test the enhancement of women's career advancement to senior management positions.

- A qualitative study, as opposed to a quantitative study, of career progression of women in Higher Education in KwaZulu-Natal could be conducted.

- A comparative study of career progression of women and men in Higher Education in KwaZulu-Natal.

5.7. SUMMARY

The majority of the respondents in this study were African, between 36 and 45 years of age, were married, had between zero and two dependants, were lecturers with a master's degree and had more than 15 years of working experience. The answers to three objectives as discussed in Chapter 4 of this study showed that the women have not progressed in their careers in Higher Education. At the same time, respondents felt that they had not experienced barriers in their careers and that there is no invisible barrier preventing the upward mobility of women in Higher Education. The aim of this study was achieved in that factors affecting the progression of female academics at Universities of Technology, as well as how these impact on their career progression, were identified.

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Appendix 1:

Letter of informed consent and questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND LEADERSHIP

Dear Respondent,

MBA Research Project
Researcher: MKO Zungu (031 907 7524)
Supervisor: Prof Anesh Singh (031 260 7061)
Research Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

I, **Mamotse Ketura Onica Zungu** an MBA student, at the Graduate School of Business and Leadership, of the University of KwaZulu Natal invite you to participate in a research project entitled **Career progression of women in Higher Education: A case study for Universities of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal**. The aim of this study is to create an understanding of the barriers faced by women in their career progression to senior management.

Through your participation I hope to understand the barriers preventing women from advancing to senior management. The results of the focus group are intended to contribute to increase the awareness of career progression of women to senior management in Higher Education.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey/focus group. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the Graduate School of Business and Leadership, UKZN.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

The survey should take you about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely

Investigator 's signature_____

Date_____

This page is to be retained by participant

Questionnaire

Question	Options
1. Age	☐ 25 and below ☐ 26 - 35 ☐ 36 – 45 ☐ 46 - 55 ☐ 56 and over
2. Marital status	☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Widowed ☐ Divorced/Separated
3. No of dependants	☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 and over
4. Race	☐ African ☐ Indian ☐ Coloured ☐ White
5. Highest level of education	☐ Matric ☐ Diploma ☐ Bachelors ☐ Honours ☐ Masters ☐ Doctorate ☐ Other (specify)
6. Level in organisation	☐ Lecturer ☐ Senior Lecturer ☐ Associate Professor ☐ Professor ☐ Other (specify)
7. Work experience in years at your institution	☐ Below 5 ☐ 5-9 ☐ 10 - 14 ☐ 15 and over
8. Have you progressed in your career at your institution?	☐ Yes ☐ No
9. If Yes to Question 8, how many times have you been promoted?	☐ 1 ☐ 2

	☐ 3
	☐ 4
	☐ 5 and over
10. If No to Question 8, why?	☐ I did not apply for promotions because I am not up to the challenge
	☐ I did not apply for promotions because of my family responsibilities
	☐ I applied but was not successful
	☐ Other (specify)
11. Which personal factors prevented you from applying for promotions? Choose all that apply	☐ Lack of confidence
	☐ Lack of interest and enthusiasm
	☐ Lack of training and qualifications
	☐ Lack of work and family life balance
	☐ Other (specify)
12. What do you think helped you get to your present position? Choose one	☐ Self-motivation
	☐ Support from family
	☐ Encouragement by colleagues
	☐ Encouragement by mentor
	☐ Employment equity
	☐ Qualifications
	☐ Other (specify)
13. Have you experienced barriers to your career progression at your institution?	☐ Yes
	☐ No
14. If Yes to Question 12, which of the following personal barriers have you experienced?	☐ Family pressure
	☐ Societal norms
	☐ Childcare responsibilities
	☐ Other (specify)
15. If Yes to Question 12, which of the following organisational barriers have you experienced at your institution?	☐ Gender stereotyping
	☐ Ethnicity
	☐ Tokenism
	☐ Lack of internal networking opportunities
	☐ No support from line manager
	☐ Other (specify)
16. Is there an invisible barrier that prevents the progress of women at your institution?	☐ Yes
	☐ No
17. If Yes to Question 15, which of the following invisible barriers	☐ Significant gaps in earnings
	☐ Slower promotion rates
	☐ Lower levels of responsibility

have you experienced at your institution?	☐ Lack of assignment to high visibility positions ☐ Lack of adequate professional career developmental opportunities ☐ Other (specify)
18. Does the University promote progression of women in any of the following ways (Choose all that apply)	☐ Being an equal opportunity employer ☐ Promoting fairness in recruitment and selection ☐ Fair promotions ☐ Other (specify)
19. What do you think will make it easier for you as a woman to progress at MUT (Choose all that apply)	☐ Work life balance ☐ Flexible working arrangements ☐ Professional membership ☐ Childcare facilities ☐ Other (specify)
20. Please provide suggestions on how to counter the challenges for women at your institution. Choose all that apply	☐ Employment equity ☐ Gender empowerment ☐ Mentorship ☐ Training and development ☐ Networking ☐ Other (specify)

20 April 2015

Mrs Mamotse Ketura Onica Zungu (212553212)
Graduate School of Business & Leadership
Westville Campus

Dear Mrs Zungu,

Protocol reference number: HSS/0343/015M
Project title: Career progression of women in Higher Education: A case study of Universities of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal

                                                        Full Approval – Expedited Application

With regards to your application received on 15 April 2015. The documents submitted have been accepted by the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee and **FULL APPROVAL** for the protocol has been granted.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

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

Yours faithfully

....
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Professor Anesh Singh
Cc Academic Leader Research: Mr Muhammad Hoque
Cc School Administrator: Ms Zarina Bullyraj / Ms Gina Mshengu

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
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22 February 2016

Proof of language editing

I, Jeanne Enslin, acknowledge that I did the language editing of **Niki Zungu's** dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree of Master of Business Administration.
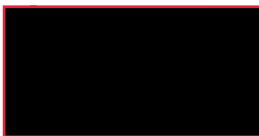
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CAREER PROGRESSION OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF UNIVERSITIES OF TECHNOLOGY IN KWAZULU-NATAL

If any text changes are made to the electronic document which I sent to Niki Zungu on 22 February 2016, the document needs to be returned to me to check the language of the changes. Technical editing, formatting, checking of references and cross referencing were done by Ronèl Gallie, the technical editor.

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