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BALANCING WORK AND FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES: THE CASE OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN NKANGALA DISTRICT

A report on a research study presented to

The Department of Social Work

School of Human and Community Development

Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand

In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the

Masters of Arts in Occupational Social Work by Coursework and Research Report

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May, 2016

Supervisor: Professor Edwell Kaseke

DECLARATION

I, Khomotso Lucy Mahasha (Student number: 883159), am a student registered for MA in Occupational Social Work by Coursework and Research Report in the year 2014.

I hereby declare the following:

- This research report, entitled *Balancing Work and Family Responsibilities: The Case of Women in Management Positions in Nkangala District*, is my own unaided work. It is submitted for the degree of Masters of Arts in Occupational Social Work at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, and has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at any other institution.
- I am aware that plagiarism (the use of someone else's work without their permission and/or without acknowledging the original source) is wrong.
- I confirm that the work submitted for assessment for the above course is my own unaided work except where I have explicitly indicated otherwise.
- I have followed the required conventions in referencing the thoughts and ideas of others.
- I understand that the University of the Witwatersrand may take disciplinary action against me if there is a belief that this is not my own unaided work or that I have failed to acknowledge the source of the ideas or words in my writing.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

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ABSTRACT

In spite of the government's aim to promote gender equality in the workplace, women are still underrepresented in management positions. Women still face many challenges, such as discrimination, gender stereotypes, the 'glass ceiling' and work/family conflict. This study sought to explore how women in management positions balance work and their family responsibilities. The study adopted the qualitative research approach and used multiple case studies to study the experiences of women in management positions. The study population consisted of women in management positions at Nkangala District in Mpumalanga. Purposive sampling was adopted to select eight participants for the study. A semi-structured interview schedule was used to collect data from the participants. To analyse the data, the researcher adopted thematic content analysis. The study revealed that women in management positions face conflict between their work role and family responsibilities. Participants also indicated that they managed the conflict through careful structuring and planning of their activities, prioritizing their responsibilities and delegating some of their duties. Participants also indicated that they needed support from spouses, families, employers, supervisors and colleagues in order to cope with their multiple roles. It is recommended that organizations (employers) develop policies that enable women in management positions to achieve work-life balance. Such policies may include career breaks, job sharing, flexible working arrangements and childcare policies. The study has the potential to contribute to a growing body of knowledge on how women in management positions balance their work and family responsibilities. Furthermore, the study could help managers and understand the experiences of women managers in the workplace, and thereby enable them to respond more effectively to the challenges that these women face. The study might be useful to other women in management positions, as the findings will help to create awareness of the challenges women in management face in balancing work and family responsibilities.

Key words: women in management, multiple roles, work-life balance, gender stereotypes, gender roles

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CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the study, outlines the statement of the problem and the rationale for this study, as well as the aim and objectives of the study. It also describes the theoretical framework that guided the study. The chapter further gives a brief overview of the research methodology employed in the study as well as the structure of this research report.

Previous studies revealed that gender and leaders' positions affect the work-family life balance (Apperson, Schmidt, Moore & Grunberg, 2002). Managerial positions are characterized by work overload, long working hours and frequent travel, and are also psychologically demanding. On the other hand, gender is also found to relate to work-family conflict, because women generally value the role of caring for their children more than their being in leadership positions; in addition, they develop a sense of individuality fulfilling what is regarded as their responsibility, and attach more meaning to their childcare role than to their work role (Kiamba, 2008; Rosette & Tost, 2010). Furthermore, women are still expected to carry all the family responsibilities despite their employment status. This study sought to find out the current status of women and how they balance their work role and family responsibilities. The study focuses on women in management positions.

1.2 Background to the Study

The study explored barriers that obstruct women's advancement into management positions, as well as how women in these management positions balance their work and family responsibilities. The study was conducted at Nkangala District in Mpumalanga. Koontz (2009 in Anderson, 2011, p. 49), defines management as "the art of getting done through and with people in formally organized groups. It is not about personal achievement but helping others do their job". Managers can be classified by the level they occupy in the organization, such as first line management, middle management, and top management. For the purpose of this study, management will mean those women who operate in the middle management, such as deputy directors, assistant managers, executive managers, office managers and directors, or any office manager who has subordinates reporting to her.

According to Cooper and Quick (2003), managers, due to the positions of power that they occupy and the influence they have over others, are responsible for making important decisions in the organisations which they work. Hence, they are responsible for productivity, and report and account to shareholders, communities and other stakeholders. The duties of managers are characterized by many challenges, including dealing with clients, subordinates and other specific operations. Work-life balance is experienced in different ways, depending on the position the individual holds in an organization (Chiloane-Tsoka, 2010). Managers experience work-life conflict due to the scope of their work that may require them to work long hours in order to complete work, travel long distances, and attend endless meetings (Kaizer, Overfield & Yarborough, 2011; Powel, 2003). Consequently, workload increases to the extent that it cannot be completed within the limited time available. Managers are frequently faced with conflicting roles that require their time and physical energies, either from their families, or from their occupational roles. Such conflict affects their ability to perform both roles effectively (McDonald & Leaptrott, 2009). Studies show that, compared to their male counterparts, women in management still carry the major burden of home and family problems regardless of their positions in the in the organizations when compared to their male counterparts, (Managa, 2013; Matias & Fontaine, 2015; Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011; Ross-Smith & Huppartz, 2010; Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). The sources of the work-family burden are related to the expected and actual roles of women in society and to the fact that, despite the progress that has been made in the advancement of women in the workplace, managerial and executive women still occupy minority status in most organizations. Even though the government has attempted to address issues of inequality in the workplace, women are still faced by a myriad of challenges. There are many barriers to women's advancement into higher positions. According to Jacobs and Schain (2009), women are affected by work and life balance because some women are forced to quit their work to care for their children, which delays and even obstruct their advance into higher ranks.

1.3 Statement of the Problem and Rationale for the Study

Since South Africa gained democracy in 1994 there has been an increase in the number of women in higher positions in both the public and private sectors, and an increase in the number of women in parliament. According to *South Africa's Millennium Development Goals Report, 2009* (as cited in Meyer, 2014), progress has been made in the advancement of

women in leadership roles in the country. However, a study by Business Women Association (2012) shows that women's progress to higher positions is still slow, and women still face many challenges in the workplace. Despite the government's commitment to addressing the representation of women in leadership roles, the career development of women into management is still of major concern, possible due to barriers women experience in the workplace and in their social life. Barriers to women's advancement into higher positions include discrimination, multiple roles, conflict between work and family responsibilities, personal characteristics, the 'glass ceiling', gender stereotyping, limited education and organizational policies and procedures (Nkomo, & Ngambi, 2009; Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011).

Despite these challenges that women in management face, some women have evidently been more successful than others (Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011; Wallace & Smith, 2011; Whitehead & Kotze, 2003). However, there is no clarity regarding the factors that lead to their achievements. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore how women in management positions balance work and family responsibilities. Understanding how women balance work and family responsibilities will assist in developing effective and efficient remedies to support women in management positions. The study will hopefully contribute to a growing body of knowledge on the experience of women in management positions about balancing their work and family responsibilities; it would also help managers and organizations understand the experiences of women managers in the workplace so that they may respond effectively to the challenges.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the barriers to the advancement of women into management positions?
2. Are there any support systems for women in management positions?
3. How do women balance their expected gender roles and management roles?

1.5 The Primary Aim and Secondary Objectives of the Study

1.5.1 Primary Aim

The primary aim of the study was to explore how women in management positions balance work and family responsibilities.

1.5.2 Secondary Objectives

- To explore the perceptions of women in management regarding possible barriers to women's advancement.
- To explore the experiences of women in management positions in balancing work and family responsibilities.
- To establish the support systems available for women in management positions to enable them to balance work and family responsibilities.

1.6 Theoretical Framework

1.6.1 Social Role Theory

The theoretical approach to work-family balance is rooted in role theory because role theory suggests that managing multiple roles simultaneously may cause women stress (Ruppanner, 2013). It is argued that when family and work roles collide with each other, conflict ensues between these roles. The work role itself requires time and energy; then the role of manager or supervisor produces more stress because the position requires physical energies, mental intelligence, and the ability to manage people (Okonkwo, 2014). According to Cooper and Quick (2003), management positions are characterized by substantial pressure that may have a negative impact on managers' jobs. Examples of stress emanating from management roles may consist of: retrenchments, managing organizational changes, the pressure of increasing productivity, and contesting challenges in the labour market. Furthermore, lack of ability of a manager to utilize limited time effectively, may also lead to serious imbalances which may result in stress (Cooper & Quick, 2003). Nelson and Burke (2000) state that women in management positions struggle more with work-family conflict than their male counterparts and that the source of conflict is related to the traditional and existing roles of women in

society; furthermore, despite progress in women's advancement, managerial and executive women still occupy a minority status in most organizations. Therefore, role theory has been applied in order to understand these work and family roles.

Women occupy multiple roles, such as an employee (manager), mother, caretaker, family member, church member, wife and so on. Some roles are those that women have themselves chosen to undertake, whereas other roles are socially forced assumptions with regards to the practices fitting to those positions (Jang & Zippay, 2011). Consequently, women may experience role conflict, role confusion and/or role overload. When individuals are not sure about which traditional role practice to assume in different situations, such individuals may experience role confusion; and when an individual's multiple roles do not fit with one another, role conflict ensues. Role overload describes the situation where women feel they have many responsibilities and many duties that are expected of them with limited time and no ability to carry out all those roles at the same time (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

According to Rosette & Tost (2010) women who are in management positions also experience pressure resulting from working out their gender expected roles and their leadership status. Harrison and Lynch (2005) point out that according to Social Role theory, communal roles adopted according to gender are those related to distribution of labour, and they predict the way women and men behave differently. Historically, because of social, ecological, social, and technological pressures, women and men were assigned to labour tasks that were compatible with their physical characteristics (Eagly, 2006). In this manner women were assigned responsibilities related to family and home care because of their expected primary responsibility of childbearing. In contrast, men were probably fulfilling tasks that required speed, strength, and work that kept them away from their families for long durations. Gender roles advanced based on an expectation about the characteristics and behaviours of women and men, and as a result of the differential social roles performed by women and men (Eagly, 2002).

Presently, many women and men are moving away from these traditional gender role norms as they occupy communal roles that previously were retained for the opposite sex, for example fathers who are raising children on their own and taking care of house chores, or women who aspire to leadership roles. As predicted by social role theory, their anticipated

gender roles become linked to the social role they fulfill rather than to their sex (Harrison & Lynch, 2005).

Today, more women and men are moving away from these traditional gender role norms as they take on social roles traditionally held by the other sex, for example, male homemakers, and female leaders. As predicted by social role theory, their anticipated gender roles become linked to the social role they fulfill rather than to their sex (Harrison & Lynch, 2005).

Social role theory tries to explain the mutual relationship between individuals and organizations by focusing on the role they play. Role behaviour is influenced by the way society expects women and men to behave (Thompson, 2002). For example, the role played by women at home of doing house chores is influenced by the society we live in, because in African cultures women are expected to care for children, obey their husbands and care for family members as well as doing house chores, and men are expected to be breadwinners. These societal expectations influence women to play those roles. As a result, it becomes difficult for women to access leadership roles and to achieve success in leadership roles because this is not what is expected of them (Eagly, 2002).

Social role theory implies that people have a tendency to doubt women's ability to hold certain roles, such as management positions (Eagly, 2013), the reason being that men are viewed as naturally suitable for undertaking leadership roles; consequently, more men are used to holding leadership roles. However, presently, women's conventional roles are changing as more women are gaining access to higher positions in organizations. However, women who deviate from the gender stereotypes are perceived as disobedient and less attractive (SABPP, 2013).

Social role theory also explains that conflict arises amongst women's multiple roles such as managers, academics, mothers and wives (Rosette & Tost, 2010). It is also assumed that women's performance may suffer because of their family commitments. South African Board for People Practices (SABPP) (2011) maintains that women view motherhood as their central life interest, and that this priority could lead to greater conflict between work and family demands because it would mean that one role was more important than another. As a result of this factor or stereotype, women are unlikely to be promoted into management positions in the workplace.

Social role theory also suggests the coping strategies women may use when juggling multiple roles, depending on individual characteristics and organizational climate. Two strategies are highlighted; these are boundary management and role management (Dulin, 2007). Boundary management is the "strategies, principles and practices one uses to organize and separate role demands and expectations into specific reams of work roles from family roles by doing work during work hours without allowing interruptions of personal matter" (Dulin, 2007, p.105). This theory also implies that one must attend to family roles when at home without bringing work home or answering work calls when at home. In other words, these individuals are able to separate the roles by emphasizing strong boundaries.

Role embracement refers to the zeal with which one enacts the role (Kossek, Noe & DeMarr, 1999). It is shown in the level of commitment one puts in one role, either the work role or the family role or both roles. Role embracement means that if one is devoted to some roles they work harder to ensure that those roles are performed perfectly; for example, an individual who values her work role may even volunteer to work without pay on behalf of an employee who could not come to work, even though she had time off.

1.7 Brief Overview of Research Methodology

The study employed qualitative research method. The study was explorative in nature. The study adopted a multi-case study design because eight cases of different women were studied. The population for this study consisted of eight women in management positions working at different organizations within Nkangala District. Purposive sampling was adopted since the selection was based on the judgment of the researcher. The semi-structured interview schedule was used when conducting face to face interviews. The study adopted thematical content analysis when analyzing the data because the aim was to search through data to identify any recurrent patterns.

1.8 Structure of the Research Report

This research report is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is the introduction. The second chapter focuses on the literature review. The third chapter describes the research

methodology used in the study, whereas chapter four focuses on the presentation and discussion of the research findings and gives conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on how women in management positions balance work and family responsibilities. The chapter also discusses women's representation in management positions across the globe as well as in South Africa. A historical background on South African women is provided to give a picture of where women came from and where they are now in terms of representation and labour participation.

Managers are responsible for positions of power and stature, so their decisions have compelling consequences for large numbers of employees as well as for shareholders, communities, and other stakeholders. In other words, managers aim to meet organizational goals by taking on an effective role that requires physical energies and time (Cooper & Quick, 2003). Nelson and Burke (2000) state that women in management positions experience more work-family conflict than their male counterparts as a result of the conventional existing roles of women in society, and also due to the fact that, despite progress in the advancement of women in the workplace, managerial and executive women still have a minority status in most organizations. Therefore, role theory has been applied in this study to understand the interaction between work and family roles.

2.2 Historical Background

During the apartheid era in South Africa, people were discriminated against according to their race, gender and class. Women in general were discriminated in terms of gender, and black women were discriminated in terms of race and gender. Thus, black women were found to be more discriminated against and marginalized across the country as they were excluded from education, formal employment and career advancement (Lalthapersad, 2003; Mathur-Helm, 2005). Furthermore, women were excluded from participating in decision-making, especially

about issues affecting them (Lues, 2005). Therefore, black women were faced with the dual challenge of race and gender discrimination due to the apartheid that benefited white men and white women, who benefited through their relationship with white men (Mathur-Helm 2005). Apart from the issue of race, black women were also discriminated against culturally, through patriarchy. Therefore, gender in South Africa is racially and culturally segmented (Mathur-Helm, 2005).

The best managerial positions were reserved for white men and black men provided unskilled labour (Booysen & Nkomo, 2010). White women were employed in administrative and clerical positions or in nursing. On the other hand, black women were largely employed as domestic workers with low wages, unfavourable working conditions and no opportunities for advancement (Lalthapersad, 2003). The South African Board for People Practices (2013) reports that only 3.6 % of African females occupy top management positions, whilst 12.8 % of white females are in top management positions. So there is evidence that black women had limited opportunities compared with white women (Mathur-Helm, 2005).

After 1994, the South African government introduced laws that protected women's rights and supported women's advancement into higher positions. These laws also sought to redress the past imbalances and eliminate unfair discrimination in terms of race, gender and disability. Corrective labour practices such as the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No. 75 of 1997 and the South African Constitution Act No. 108 of 1996 were introduced. The aim of these laws is to promote equal employment opportunities to all, including previously disadvantaged groups such as black people, women and people with disabilities. However, it is also argued by Mello and Phago (2007) that government and organizations' attempts to implement the Employment Equity Act has been ineffective owing to lack of engagement and an inability to manage diversity within organizations, especially those in the private sector. On the other hand, it is highlighted that despite these anti-discriminatory legislations there is still a gender pay gap, not only in South Africa but around the globe indicating gender inequality in the workplace (Kulich, Trojanowski, Ryan, Haslam & Renneboog, 2011). It has also been shown that women are paid less than their male counterparts, even with the same qualifications and the same experience (Kulich et al., 2011; World Economic Forum, 2013).

2.3 Position of Women in South Africa

It is reported in South African history that the position of women in South African society at the beginning of the 21st century was invisible, because women were not supposed to participate in public life and were expected to carry the responsibilities of family care (Kiamba, 2008). Moreover, women were afraid to voice out their concerns because they were afraid of being victimized, either by society or by what was culturally expected of the roles of women (Mello & Phago, 2007). Moreover, in an African framework, the long-established norms and traditional expectations concerning conditions and roles of women in society are quite common, and most women are still struggling to overcome these conventional beliefs (Boserup & Kanji, 2007; Harrison & Lynch, 2005). As a result of these beliefs and attitudes, women are seen to be inferior to men and are subjected to inequality in terms of status, income, and distribution of resources and information.

The South African Board for People Practices – SABPP (2011) reports that all cultural groups have certain assumptions regarding gender roles, and that many still hold the assumption that women do not deserve to be in higher positions or to be above men. These beliefs make women think less of themselves and feel inferior, and also limit themselves in terms of careers (Kiamba, 2008). Kirai and Kobia (2012) point out that most women experience a sense of blame or critical self-regard if they initially prioritize their leadership aspirations over their family responsibilities. Because women's work and family demands are simultaneous, they have a significant impact on women's careers.

As stated by Jacobs and Schain (2009), achieving professional status may be more difficult for women than it is for men. However, the perception of a woman's role in the workforce has changed somewhat over time (Dancaster & Cohen, 2010). Previously, society expected women to remain at home to care for their children and husbands, while men were expected to work outside the home in order to provide for their families. Furthermore, it was feared that if women were to participate in the labour market, the valued feminine attributes, such as being obedient and submissive, would be lost (Lalthapersad, 2003). Even today such expectations still exist in our societies and tend to hold women back from aspiring to develop their careers (Kiamba, 2008).

2.4 Women in Management

Koontz (2009, in Anderson, 2011, p. 49), defines management as "the art of getting things done through and with people in formally organized group. It is not about personal achievement but helping others do their job". Managers can be classified by the level they occupy in an organisation, such as first line management, middle management and top management.

Statistics show that women are still underrepresented in leadership positions globally. The Grant Thorn International Business Report (2012) states that only 21% of women occupy managerial positions globally. In South Africa, the percentage of women employed in managerial positions is larger than the global portion of women's representation at 40.2%. However, women in South Africa are still underrepresented, especially in the private sector (Business Women Association, 2012). It is pointed out that the South African women population was 52% of the total in 2012, whereas the working women population was 43.9%, which illustrates that women are still underrepresented in the labour force. Only 21.4% of women constitute executive managers, and this is even lower at directorship level, with only 17.1% women directors, 3.6% of CEOs and 5.5% of women as chairpersons (Business Women Association, 2012).

Women in leadership statistics in South Africa

Table 1. Business Woman Association Census, 2012

Position	**2011**	**2012**
CEO/ MD	4.4%	3.6% (12 women)
Chairperson	5.3%	5.5 % (18 women)
Directors	15.8%	17.1% (669 women)
Executive managers	21.6%	21.4% (1452) women

These statistics raise the concern at the fact that whilst the population of women in the labour force has increased, the population of women in leadership has decreased (SABPP, 2013). Although the statistics show no progress in the promotion of women into top management

positions in the private sector, there is noticeable progress in public service sectors in terms of promoting qualified women to higher management positions. The reason for this may be that the government is more committed to redressing the injustices and imbalances created by the apartheid legacy (Mello & Phago, 2007). The Business Women Association of South Africa (BWASA) (2011), as cited in Mupambirei (2013), released the information that women occupied 35% of top management positions in the public sector compared to 21% of those in the private sector. Furthermore, the Department of Social Development outperformed other departments with, women occupying 74% of the top management positions in 2011 (Mello & Phago, 2007).

2.5 Contextualizing Women Representation in the Public Service

Although, as previously indicated in this chapter, the government seems more committed to implementing legislation that promotes the representation of women, the government has not as yet reached its target of 50% female representation at management level. Men are still appointed to a significant proportion of executive positions in public service, and women are still the minority in higher positions (Chiloane-Tsoka, 2010; Kahn & Louw, 2011, Meyer, 2014). In 2009, women representation in management positions within the public sphere was 34, 87%, and in 2012 was 36.5%. This reveals slow progress in the rate of advancement of women into management positions (Meyer, 2014). Kahn and Louw (2011) point out that women in public service can be appointed to director and chief director positions, but have very little access to director-general and deputy director-general positions. It is further stated that given South Africa's demographic profile, women should occupy at least 52% of management positions. In contrast, women's representation in parliament dropped from 44% in the 2009 elections to 40% in the 2014 elections; in provincial legislatures, it dropped from 41% to 37%, whereas women premiers dropped from 55% in 2009 to 22 % in 2014 (Kahn and Motsoneng, 2014). The fact that there is slow progress in promoting women's representations into management positions indicates that there are strong barriers that prevent women's career advancement, not only in the private sector, but in the public service as well (Doubell & Struwig, 2014; Managa, 2013; Meyer, 2014).

2.6 Gender Inequality in the Workplace

Many South African women continue to experience marginalisation and discrimination in the workplace, in their homes and within the communities. This is highlighted in Kahn and Motsoeneng (2014) in the claim that during the period of 1994 to 2009 there were more men than women who advanced into higher positions. According to Burmeister (2014 as cited in Meyer, 2014), it is challenging to achieve the 50% representation of women in the workplace because there are fewer women in some fields such as the military, and in the technical, mining, engineering and construction fields. This therefore means that there is a need for employment of women in such disciplines. Rey (2003), as cited in Chiloane-Tsoka (2010), asserts that women are also underrepresented in tertiary institutions, especially in higher-ranking positions and in leadership, and that women are instead confined to the lower ranks. Furthermore, women are marginalized and underrepresented in fields like science and technology. Myburgh (2014, as cited by Kahn et al., 2014) states that 90% of employees working in these fields are men. Women, it is claimed, are interested in fields like retail and the caring professions such as social work, nursing and education, financial services (Kahn & Motsoeneng, 2014).

The World Economic Forum (2013) reports that there is still gender inequality in the workplace in terms of a pay gap. It is reported that in South Africa women earn up to 33% less than their male counterparts even if they are doing the same duties. This wage gap is more prevalent in the private sector than in the public service, and South Africa is second after Lesotho, in Sub-Sahara African countries, in terms of wage gap gender equality (Goko, 2013, in Kahn et al., 2014).

2.7 Patriarchy, Gender Roles and Gender Related Values

The other important key in understanding the obstacles to the advancement of women leadership is patriarchy. Ruby (2003, p.38) defines patriarchy as “a form of society where men’s needs, concerns, and interests are central; whereby the authority of the father/husband over both wife and children is revered”. The patriarchal system insists that men control everything, including women’s bodies and children. Men claim superior positions in every situation including workplaces, whereby male bosses expect to dominate and be obeyed.

Patriarchy oppresses women and awards men authority and power over women (Ruby, 2003). According to (Managa, 2013), although some women have made strides, the culture still oppresses women and discourages them from fully competing with male counterparts. The patriarchy system forces women to continuously attempt to perform as men do while trying to negotiate traditional gender roles to accommodate their careers. It is also argued that women's work goes unnoticed and women are stereotyped as unproductive. These perceptions put strain on women and place a lot of stress on both their work and private lives'; this results in a decrease in women's morale (Kiamba, 2008).

According to Booysen et al. (2010), cultural factors that interpret gender based roles, expectations and responsibilities are liable to limit women's advancement into higher positions. Furthermore, these factors impact on women so as to make them choose to quit their positions despite their expertise. According to Coob (2005, as cited in Kiamba, 2008), in African societies, women are not allowed to express themselves and be assertive, but are expected to be obedient to their husbands and to men in general. Furthermore, these societies regard a good woman as one who is submissive and passive to her husband so that she can be accepted in the society (Kiamba, 2008). However, it seems that some women have been able to defeat their cultural obstacles and societal norms to stand up for leadership positions, even though they had to juggle their leadership positions with cultural expectations (Burke & Collins, 2001; Kiamba, 2008).

The way children are raised also contributes to gender inequality within our societies (Kiamba, 2008). In African societies, a boy child is socialized to occupy leadership positions, whether in private or in public, while a girl child is socialized to be a stay-at-home, caring for children and being a good wife. This illustrates how women are expected to behave right from birth (Burke & Collins, 2001). Rosette and Tost (2011) assert that normal gender roles and behaviours are rewarded, while opposite gender roles are restricted. The conventional gender roles that position women through culture, adhered to beliefs and values can form one's identity. Culture plays a very crucial role for an individual and her/his social environment. Consequently, children learn from their social environment, and their identities form from a very young age. Culture also contributes to the socialization of these gender roles and behaviours, and women are socialized in a manner that is expected by society. However, women may change their identities if they feel that their identities are oppressive and not progressive (Foster, 2006).

2.8 Barriers to the Advancement of Women in Management and Leadership Positions

2.8.1 Gender Stereotypes and Discrimination

Stereotyping is one of the major constraints to women's advancement in management. It is still believed that women are incapable of undertaking leadership duties due to family responsibilities and their feminine traits (Cheung & Halpern, 2010; Kiaye & Singh, 2013 Prime, Carter & Welbourne, 2009). Furthermore, it is assumed that women cannot devote themselves to their work because they are devoted to their care giving responsibilities. Therefore, they are treated with mistrust regarding their ability to undertake management positions. On the other hand, it is highlighted that women managers are stereotyped as possessing a soft spot, as being emotional and as portraying feminine attributes which are regarded as inappropriate in leadership (Kanjere, Thaba & Teffo, 2011; Nkomo & Ngambi, 2009). Thus, due to these stereotypes, and simply because historically, and even now, men are regarded as better leaders than women, women's abilities to be leaders are undermined. Even the fact that women are leaders in their homes is not taken into account, considering that women manage their families, especially when men had relocated to cities to seek paid work. Women should not be judged by their gender for qualifying positions in management but through their ability, skills and qualifications (Kanjere, Thaba & Teffo, 2011; SABPP, 2013).

Sometimes, women are seen as undertaking management in ways that are contrary to the rules that have been set by the patriarchal culture, such as women should stay at home to care for children (Zwane, 2003). Women are believed to experience more work-family conflict than their male counterparts. These perceptions obstruct women to be promoted into higher positions. This kind of stereotyping also leads to discrimination against women in the workplace in such a way that men are appointed to higher positions whereas women are appointed to lower paying jobs (Hoobler, Wayne & Lemmon, 2009).

The South African Board of People Practice (SABPP, 2013) reports that discrimination in the work place is still prevalent, noting observations that women across the world are intentionally discriminated against. In contrast, women also experience discrimination that is

not planned, but arises from the practices and culture of organizations which subject women to some kind of discrimination.

Despite the attempts by the South African government to redress gender imbalances in the workplace through establishing legislation and policies such as the Employment Equity Act and the South African Constitution, it appears that women still experience discrimination in terms of sex, gender, race, class, religion, culture or profession, and also in terms of economic, social and political power. Kanjere, Thaba and Teffo, (2011) concur that South African women still continue to suffer discrimination in the private and public spheres due to socio-cultural stereotypes.

Zwane (2003) asserts that discrimination is also shown through favouritism towards male managers over female managers. Women experience discrimination in the following three forms: overt discrimination; covert discrimination and self-discrimination. Overt discrimination takes place where rules, regulations and policies in an organization favour men over women, in the form of working weekends and discriminatory reproductive health policies in the workplace. Covert discrimination is subtle discrimination and can take place when the job activities are assigned which are above a particular woman's abilities, or when a job does not allow flexibility to enable a woman to attend family responsibilities. Self-discrimination is a combination of both covert and overt discrimination. The female manager herself is often a major source of a gatekeeping activity towards herself. She sees herself as being unaccepted. This discrimination can be demonstrated indirectly or seen through actions (Zwane, 2003).

Gunpath (2006) explains how female managers face discriminatory practices and suffer ups and downs in their management positions. Sometimes they fail to meet the high standards set by other people. The potential of the female managers is usually underestimated. Despite females' advancement in management, stereotypes and barriers continue to exist. Some of the females do not get the back-up of authority that would normally be accorded to male managers. Sometimes they struggle to gain acceptance or recognition as capable managers. They lose their independence when they seek help from males, although they are expected to turn to males for assistance. They may also be expected to attain extraordinary work results

and to prove their achievement, whereas males may not be expected to perform in that manner (Steyn & Jackson, 2014).

In addition, there is a belief that women do not have the potential to lead and that their leadership style is different to that of men, and can be detrimental to themselves and to the organization they lead (Burke & Collins, 2001; Mathur-Helm, 2005; Rosette & Tost, 2010). It is argued that women's leadership style is more people oriented, and men's more task oriented. Thus, while most women's leadership style might make subordinates feel inspired, it does not influence productivity in the workplace.

On the other hand, Cheung and Halpern (2010) argue that women lead in more democratic, participatory and collaborative styles when compared to their male counterparts. It appears that women using this kind of leadership style have successfully fulfilled their leadership roles adequately. So feminine attributes and leadership being incompatible is a thing of the past. Cheung and Halpern (2010) dispute the stereotype that women are too emotional to lead. Burke and Collins (2001) agree that there are differences in leadership style between men and women, but assert that this does not mean that women cannot be great leaders with provision of management skills, and being given developmental opportunities within their organizations. It is also demonstrated that women need support and coaching from their organizations in order to succeed. Mupambirei (2013) asserts that women carry nurturing traits naturally, and through their socialization may develop certain leadership traits. Hence, it is believed that through proper training and education women can acquire good leadership qualities.

2.8.2 Organizational Structure Barriers

Organizational settings, culture and conditions may subject women in management positions to challenges that would not otherwise be experienced by their male counterparts (Jacobs & Schain, 2009). Rowe and Crafford (2003) declare that limited support structures and networking opportunities prevent women in management to career advancement; these may take the form of corporate culture and structure, and low salaries, which may hinder executive career advancement. Such structures continue to obstruct the advancement of women management through policies that do not favour their balancing work and family responsibilities, using programmes such as part-time and flexi-time work options, job

sharing, and telecommuting (SABPP, 2011). Ralston (1990), cited in Jacobs and Schain (2009), maintains that women who do not have flexible working schedules experience more work-family conflict compared to women who have options to work flexible hours. Additionally, management positions tend to be demanding, and characterized by work overload resulting in work often not being completed at the end of the day. As a result, women may carry a work overload and therefore work extended working hours in order to meet deadlines. Cheung and Halpern (2010) also identified work overload as a major threat to womens' development. Work overload results in lack of support in terms of resources and personal assistance. Sanichar, (2004) affirms that organizational culture has a huge impact on balancing work and family. If the employees working at an organization work long hours in order to complete work, other employees will also be pressurized by that culture to work long hours in order to meet deadlines and be seen as committed to their work. This kind of organizational culture is perpetuated when executives value employees who come early and leave late from work, and value employees less who are concerned with work-life balance (Sanichar, 2004).

2.8.3 The 'Glass Ceiling'

A 'glass ceiling' is one of the barriers that prevents women from advancement into management position (Kiaye & Singh, 2013). The term 'glass ceiling' is used to describe "the frustration of working women at every level who can see where they want to go but find themselves blocked by an invisible barrier" (April, Dreyer & Blass, 2007, p. 9). Women in management positions know where to go and what to achieve, however they are blocked by the glass ceiling which prevents them from accomplishing their goals. As a result, women seem to become discouraged and demotivated. They are blocked in their attempts to gain access to higher positions in professional life and remain assigned to lower positions. People also sometimes perceive women as gaining opportunities for promotion in exchange for sexual favours with their senior males (Porterfield & Kleiner, 2005; Simpson & Altman, 2008; Zwane, 2003).

In addition, females have fewer chances of promotion than males with comparable education and experience. This factor holds them back as they try to break through the 'glass ceiling'.

Although they are expected to make a vital difference in management, they lack mentors. According to Kiaye and Singh (2013), females are confronted by stereotypes and barriers that cast doubt on their competence, which in turn works against them when there is a vacancy in the top management of a company. According to Dhar (2008), even when females are willing to share their leadership skills with males for career growth, some males are individualistic and want to keep their leadership skills to themselves. Mathur-Helm (2006) asserts that the 'glass ceiling' is a combination of organizational culture, policies and strategies, and women's competencies. Thus, it is imperative to understand the organizational and individual factors that may contribute to the 'glass ceiling'.

According April, Dreyer and Blass (2007), the 'glass ceiling' in other countries is different from the 'glass ceiling' in South Africa because of socio-cultural behavioral and how organizations are structured, because it is believed that the 'glass ceiling' is caused by socialization linked to gender identities.

2.8.4 Lack of Role Models and Mentors

Every employee needs support from an experienced or older employee to be able to gain relevant experience and carry out duties. It is believed that in higher management positions, such support is also necessary. It is explained that mentoring provides emotional support and enhances confidence in the employee (Akande, 1994; Mello & Phago, 2007; Wallace & Smith, 2011). Mentoring is defined as "a form of relationship constellation that provides developmental support as an aspect that gives women support, especially in that there are no networks, and such organizational cultures are full of non-performance barriers that prevents women to succeed in the management positions" (Mello & Phago, 2007, 156). In some instances, mentoring has not been given much attention; some reason that this may be that some people are not willing to mentor women due to stereotypes about women have personalities that are not suitable for leadership (Zwane, 2003).

Both Cooper and Quick (2003), and Ezzedeen and Ritchey (2009), mention the concept of loneliness and isolation when women lack mentors. It would seem that when a woman gains superiority, a relationship with a superior dissolves. These factors of isolation and loneliness are described as a feeling that is experienced by women at the top when they do not receive mentoring and are excluded in male networks. Moreover, those women may feel

disconnected to the whole organization, which may have an adverse impact on the woman's self-esteem, her subordinates, and on the rest of the organization. According to Mello and Phago (2007), a lack of informal networks is an obstacle to women's achievement of higher managerial positions because they may be afraid of loneliness. The statement is supported by Johnson and Mathur-Helm (2011), who state that boardrooms are still a men's world. Even the social networks favour men, as evidenced by practices such as socializing by drinking in bars, playing golf, watching sports as well as talking 'man language'. In contrast, women find it difficult to join such networks. Akande (1994) argues that it is not only discrimination in the workplace that makes it difficult for women to climb the ladder, but also the inability to interact in the men's world outside of the workplace. As Simpson and Altman (2000) illustrated, men get promotions through informal channels, such as the golf field. So if women are excluded from such networks, it would be harder for them to get to higher managerial positions. Shantz and Latham (2011), cited in Du Plessis & Barkhuizen (2015), termed the informal networking among men the "old boys' club" network. This informal network is where information about careers is shared and professional support provided to one another. This network is common in male dominated occupations through social places like clubs. These types of informal networks make it difficult for women to participate, as a result of which, they miss out on opportunities to receive information that could lead to professional advancement. According to Du Plessis and Barkhuizen (2015), this network may not discriminate against women intentionally, but it also does not promote women's involvement. However, it is suggested that if women can access proactive and institutionalized mentoring programs, they can overcome their fear of holding high positions. Moreover, mentoring would empower women to realize their potential and strength, and so enable them to advance to higher positions (Wallace & Smith, 2011).

One of the barriers that obstructs women's advancement is called "*Queen Bee Syndrome*"; this refers to the reluctance of women executives to promote other women into high positions (Johnson & Mathur-Helm, 2011). The Queen Bees do not like to promote other women for fear of competition, and they like to remain unique in an organization, as unusually high-status or successful women. According to April, Dreyer and Blass (2007), the Queen Bee Syndrome is to be found in organizations or departments where the manager or supervisor is a woman who supervises other women. Normally, the Queen Bees do not associate or associate themselves with other women; they would rather socialise with male counterparts because they feel threatened by other females (Johnson & Mathur-Helm, 2011).

2.8.5 Conflict between Work and Family Responsibilities

The concept of work-life balance has gained momentum recently in the literature, and within organisations. The reason for this is that it affects employees' wellbeing and has work-related outcomes such as productivity and occupational stress (Ajala, 2013; Lyness & Judiech, 2014). Each individual experiences the work-life balance differently, depending on circumstance like gender and marital status, and as a result of societal expectations of gender roles that expect women to spend more time on family and house chores compared to paid work (Johnson & Mathur-Helm , 2011; Matias & Fontaine, 2015; du Plessis & Barkhuizen, 2015). Despite the fact that women are entering the workforce in numbers, and pursuing leadership roles, women are still subjected to roles emphasizing family and caretaking responsibilities. Consequently, conflict emerges between their work and family roles. Clark (2009, p.349) defines work-life balance as a "satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict". According to Kasper, Meyer and Schmidt (2005), there is always discomfort whenever the concept of work-life balance is discussed because there is a contradiction between the professional life and family life. It has been shown that many managers are affected by these two domains, work life and family life, and how to maintain a balance between the two.

Managers within organizations face performance pressures due to the ever-increasing competition in the economic environment. Therefore, managers and employees may be expected to spend more of their time and physical energies on work in order to increase productivity. In addition, employees, especially managers, are expected to show more commitment to their work. Consequently, it may be difficult to balance the expected work commitment with one's personal life (Whitehead & Kotze, 2003; Cooper & Quick, 2003; Bolino & Turnley, 2005). It has also been shown that women in the 21st century experience challenges in terms of balancing these dual roles. However, a recent study conducted by (Okonkwo, 2014) revealed that women in management did not experience work-family conflict because, due to their economic status, they were able to hire help, such as employing a servant. The servant would see to some of the home responsibilities such as cleaning and childcare. It is argued that women who experience challenges in terms of work-and family conflict are women who do not earn enough to afford some of the services like a domestic worker and laundry. In addition, this study reveals that many African families depend on

extended family members for social support, especially with childcare. In some African families, working women would leave their children with the grandparents or in-laws (Jacobs & Schain, 2009). With this kind of available resources and social support, Okonkwo (2014) found out that there was no conflict between work and family roles amongst professional women.

2.8.6 Multiple Roles

Women hold multiple roles as wife, mother, family member, manager (employee), caretaker (include cleaning of the house, cooking and laundry); some are involved in church committees and so on. Some of the roles are ones they have themselves decided to undertake, whereas others are socially imposed on women (Jang & Zippay, 2011). According to Bolino and Turnley (2005), individuals also hold multiple roles in organizations - a 'job-holder role' and an 'organizational-member role'. The job-holder role refers the work title one occupies within the organization whereas the organizational member role refers the degree of loyalty one shows to an organization, like being committed and motivated to work for the success of the organization. Arising from stereotypes about women, women in management positions have to work extra hard, more than their male counterparts, to prove that they can handle their positions. This means that women may do work that is beyond their scope in order to prove their commitment to the organization. So women may find it difficult to execute these roles due to lack of resources such as time and energy energy (Rothman et al., 2014).

It has been shown that occupying multiple roles may have a negative impact on women's career development, because some women may take a break from work to raise their children (SABPP, 2013). Furthermore, women who experience challenges when balancing work and family are likely to develop occupational stress, burn out, loss of appetite, insomnia, overindulgence and back pains (Whitehead & Kotze, 2003). However, Jacobs and Schain (2009) argue that multiple role-playing has been found to have both positive and negative effects on women in management, because occupying multiple roles enhances feelings of personal worth and security, and promotes psychological wellbeing by providing a sense of meaning and purpose to one's life. Furthermore, a highly paid position is associated with good mental health, self-sufficiency, self-confidence in women, as well as a positive

interaction between work and family requirements (Jacobs & Schain, 2009; Maki, Moore & Grunberg, 2005; Wallace & Smith, 2011; Whitehead & Kotze, 2003).

2.9 Family Structure and Social Support

It has been found that work-life balance is influenced by many factors, such as the size of the family, the number of hours spent outside the home, the age and number of children living at home, marital status, the amount of support accorded an individual, the level of control one has over working hours, flexibility of working hours, and the kind of support one has at the workplace as well as at home (Nelson et al., 2000). Downes and Koekemoer (2011) maintain that women who have pre-school going children experience more work-and-family conflict, especially if they do not receive support. Women who are married and receive support from their husbands experience less work-life conflict compared with unmarried women and single parents (Evbouma, 2008).

The vast majority of women depend on various support systems in order to be able to cope with their work role and with family responsibilities. To them, support means the ability to have a balanced life outside the workplace, and to receive support from their superiors, supervisors, and colleagues in order to have a good fit between family and work roles (Ajala, 2013; Sanichar, 2004). Social support refers to "interpersonal relationships and social interactions that help to protect individuals from the effects of stress" (Aycan & Eskin, 2005, 454). The sources of support include, but are not limited to, spousal support, organizational support and supervisory support, as well as cultural work-life support and structural life support (Ajala, 2013; Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Downes & Koekemoer, 2011; Kossak et al., 1999).

2.10 Family Support

The family responsibilities of women may affect their work role in an organization; at the same time, women need assistance at home with household chores, elder care duties and childcare so that they can focus on their work role (Ajala, 2013, Imbaya, 2012). This kind of support would enable women to perform exceptionally well in both their work and family roles. A study conducted by Jacobs and Schain (2009) indicates that many African families

depend on extended family members for social support, and especially with childcare. In some African families, working women will leave their children with the grandparents or in-laws leaving the woman to focus on work roles (Okonkwo, 2014).

Because of the traditional role of women within a family, married women need their spouses' support in order to succeed in their management role (Imbaya, 2012). Furthermore, cultural values may be in conflict with a woman's freedom of movement such as travelling, sleeping outside the home and socialising with men (Kiamba, 2008). Moreover, family responsibilities are involved. Imbaya (2012) asserts that family is the most substantial system in the life of an individual, and therefore, a woman's success in a management role depends on the support family gives her. This support may take the form of moral support, support with house chores and childcare, and spousal support. Spousal support is the "help, advice, understanding, and the like that spouses provide for one another" (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). The spouse may support his partner emotionally or instrumentally. Women feel emotionally supported when their partners show understanding for their roles, are empathetic, give advice and show interest in and appreciation for what they do. The emotional support enhances women's self-efficacy and self-confidence. The spouse can also support the partner by sharing the house chores and childcare. This kind of support is termed instrumental support in that it alleviates the burden of family responsibilities on a woman so that she can focus more on her career. Spousal support has been proven to have a positive impact on how women balance their work role with family responsibilities (Ajala, 2013, Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Evbouma, 2007; Imbaya, 2012; Kossek, Lewis & Hammer, 2010).

2.11 Organizational Support

Many women do not perform maximally when attending to organizational roles alongside family roles because both organizations and society do not understand women's needs within a family framework (Evbouma, 2008). The risk of imbalance between work and family roles does not affect only individuals, but also the family, the organization in which they work, the government, as well as the society at large (Ajala, 2013). In order for women to perform maximally within their organizational roles, the organization should seek to support women by lessening work-family role conflict so that they can be able to focus on their work (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011). Organizational support is defined as "the extent to which

employees perceive that the values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing" (Sinha & Subramanian, 2012, 72). According to Ajala (2013), it has been found that organizational support has a relationship to employees' commitment to the organization and a good quality of work-life balance, which results in employees being more satisfied with their jobs. Many contemporary organizations are beginning to initiate women- and family-friendly policies and programmes in support of their employees (Evbouma, 2008; Sanichar, 2004). The aim of these women- and family-friendly services is to alleviate stress relating to balancing work and family responsibilities (Evbouma, 2008). Women- and family-friendly services were found to increase women's performance in the workplace. The services are also made to enhance the employees' morale and self-worth. Organizations may support women in management by offering on-the-job training, access to decision making processes, advancement to managerial positions and support for equitable distribution of gender responsibilities, mentoring programmes and removal of 'glass ceiling' phenomena (Evbouma, 2008). Ajala (2013) asserts that, nowadays, organizations do not just offer employees training for the job, but are also trying to equip employees with support systems that promote workplace learning. Offering employees capacity building in the organization has proven to have a positive impact on job satisfaction, and leads to increased productivity, which enhances quality of work life.

The organizational support includes structural supports that involve restructuring one's job, or flexible job design and changing human resource policies in order to enable an individual to have control over her workload and work hours (Kossek, Lewis & Hammer, 2010). Having structural work-life support will enhance women's opportunities to be able to balance work, non-work role and other roles outside the workplace. Other examples of structural work-life support include: teleworking, working at home, reduced workload, work sharing, vacations, sick leaves, childcare facilities within the organization of employment, occupational health and safety programmes, sabbatical and career breaks (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).

2.12 Emotional Supervisor Support

Supervisors' emotional support towards employees' work and family life contributes to employees' increased energy levels. The supervisor may create a healthy working

environment for the employee by discussing the work and family roles respectively and assisting the employee in adjusting these roles (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). The emotional support by a supervisor may boost the employee's self-worth through discussing family related matters and providing positive feedback (Ajala, 2013). Supervisors who fail to support their subordinates, or refuse to allow subordinates into the decision making process create unfavourable working conditions for their employees, as a result of which, the employees may lack motivation (Schultz & Schultz, 2014). Emotional supervisor support is a resource that benefits women who do not receive much of the support from home. However, emotional supervisor support should not be regarded as the combination of work and home roles, but should be utilised as a source of support in order to assist women to find balance between work and non-work roles (Ajala, 2013).

Emotional supervisor support is related to cultural work-life support and co-worker support whereby women in management positions provide support to one another (Kossek, Lewis & Hammer, 2010). Cultural work-life support is defined as "informal workplace social and relational support, for example, from supervisors and co-workers together with organizational cultural norms that increase an individual's perceptions that employees who are jointly involved in work and family roles are fully valued" (Kossek, Lewis & Hammer , 2010, p. 4). This kind of support additionally includes training for supervisors and co-workers to support one another in non-work roles and promote support groups as well as organizational norms (Ajala, 2013). Due to women's exclusion from informal networks such as "old boys' club", such as playing golf, which is where men socialize and exchange career information, women may benefit from this cultural support (Du Plessis & Barkhuizen, 2015). According to Kossek, Lewis & Hammer, (2010), cultural support is divided into two levels: one is at group level, which includes a manager's support, supervisor's support and co-workers' support. The other level is at the organizational level, whereby organizational norms and resources (such as the flexibility to work at home, and work group support) and cultural values are promoted.

2.13 Strategies for Women to Cope with Family-Work Conflict

Family-work life balance is often a concern to working women, and especially so, those in management positions. Cheung and Halpern (2010) conducted a study to find out what strategies women in management used to overcome such barriers. They then developed a

model for addressing the work-family life; this model was called selection, optimizing and compensation (SOC). According to the authors, *selection* means women in management need to set their goals straight in terms of their work and family responsibilities, and set time for such goals on a daily basis. *Optimizing* means prioritising what needs to be done first and developing the ability to multi-task. Lastly, *compensation* means delegating and outsourcing some work in the workplace, relying on the house helper for house chores. Apparently, women who succeeded in management are those who have refined the roles placed upon them by the larger society by letting go some duties, such as house chores, but on the other hand still remain good mothers and good leaders (Wallace & Smith, 2011).

These strategies are similar to those described by Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007, as cited in Matias et al., 2015). The authors' study revealed work-family coping strategies that address role conflict. The first one involves having good enough time at work-family in order to minimize the functions of work-family responsibilities to a lower level. The second strategy implies being a 'superwoman' both at work and at home by performing all roles single-handedly and to best ability. Thirdly, to be able to cope, one has to delegate some duties at work and at home to other people. Another strategy involves the ability to prioritize responsibilities by arranging duties in order and timeously. According to Matias & Fontaine (2015), the first strategy and the fourth strategy seem more like problem solving strategies, whereas strategy two seems like avoiding the situation. It is also highlighted that "delegating some duties', being "super" and "being good enough" have been proven to work, unlike prioritizing, which has been found to not be a useful coping strategy.

On the other hand, Hall (1972), as cited in Matias and Fontaine (2015), has revealed three coping strategies with work-life conflict. The first one involves Structural Role Definition, which means changing what is expected of the roles played. The second strategy is called Personal Role Definition, and means changing conceptions about what is expected of certain roles, or changing one's character in order to be able to cope with multiple roles. The last strategy involves Reactive Behaviour, which means working hard to meet all role expectations without changing anything about one's life (Matias & Fontaine, 2015).

2.14 Legislation and Policies on Work-Family Life and Women's Promotion

Women managers still battle with exotic and unfavourable working conditions influenced by traditional patriarchal attitudes, even though they have participated in work policies and legislation formulation (Da Silva Wells, 2004). The South African government acknowledges that women in the past were subjected to different forms of discriminatory policies, behaviours and attitudes and also been obstructed from full participation in the labour market. The government legislation and policies such Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 aim at redressing some of the injustices women experienced in the past, such as under-representation of women in senior and managerial positions (Diner, 2014). The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 was introduced to correct these unfair practices and inequitable laws and practices that took place in the labour market, with an aim to achieve diverse workplaces that represent all citizen of the Republic of South Africa.

The Employment Equity Act No.55 of 1998 also promotes implementation of affirmative action to redress past discriminatory practices that resulted in female managers lacking acceptance and facing isolation as managers. According to Diner (2014), this Act legitimizes the female equity struggle and creates the space for females to redress gender equality at the workplace. However, females still rate discrimination and prejudice as the greatest deterrents to career progression (Diner, 2014). Mathur-Helm (2005) asserts that promoting gender equity in government offices and in parliament will assist in making decisions related to women. Moreover, representation of women in parliament will enhance the opportunity for women to promote and support legislations and policies that will benefit women. Mathur-Helm (2005) notes that Section 15(20) of the act states that measures should be taken by employers to eliminate barriers, including unfair discrimination against people from designated groups, while also ensuring representation of suitably qualified people from designated groups in all occupational categories and levels in the workplace. The Labour Relations Act of 1995, section 2(1)(a) states that unfair discrimination, whether direct or indirect, against an employee is prohibited on any arbitrary ground including gender, race, class, religion, sex, ethnicity and disability.

Other legislation, such as the South African Framework Policy on Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality, and the Commission on Gender Equality, have also uplifted the status of women in the workplace. According to the Gender Equality Commission (2014), the Commission is aimed at promoting, respecting, protecting, developing and attaining gender equality in South Africa. The South African National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality tries to guarantee that procedures for accomplishing Gender Equality are key to some portion of South African change processes inside of all structures, procedures, establishments, approaches, and projects of the government, common society and the private segment (The Office on the Status of Women (2000) as quoted in Diner, 2014).

Section 9(2) of the South African Constitution Act 108 of 1996 notes that all citizens are equal before the law, that no one should be discriminated against in terms of race, gender, sex, religion or class, among the other things. Women should therefore not be discriminated against when applying for higher positions in the workplace. In addition, the country has put in place many progressive policies and legislations, including the Equality Act of 1998; the Domestic Violence Act of 1998; the Maintenance Act of 1998, and the Termination of Pregnancy Act of 1998 in order to protect women (Diner, 2014).

The government influences the kinds of policies organizations have to put in place with reference to women and work-life balance (Dancaster & Cohen, 2010). Currently, there is no legislation in South Africa that promotes work-life balance (Downes et al., 2011). The South African legislation has been supportive of bringing women into the workplace by introducing equity laws and paid maternity leave, but there is still tension with working mothers. Working women keep on getting the societal messages that they ought to control their work inclusion so as to lessen the impact of their employment on non-work activities (Dancaster & Cohen, 2010).

The concept of balancing work and family responsibilities has gained a good deal of attention as women have been joining the labour force and moving to higher positions within organizations (Ruppanner, 2013). Many organizations have tried to formulate policies that address the concept of work-family conflict and balance. The aim of some of these policies is to promote continuous female labour force participation by lessening the responsibilities of work/family roles on women. However, it has been indicated that many of these work/family

policies are not clear (Dancaster & Cohen, 2010). It was found that women who experience less family and work conflict are from the countries with policies of family leave, early childhood education, work hour scheduling, and school scheduling (Matias & Fontaine, 2015). In South Africa, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act allows for maternity leave of four months. The Act also recognises family responsibility leave, which is time off for attending to family responsibilities such as caring for a sick child, parent of spouse. It is argued by Van Jaarsveld (2002), as cited in Dancaster & Cohen (2010), that, considering that family responsibility leave is used for a variety of reasons, such as the death of a parent, spouse or a child, the number of days for family responsibility leave should be increased, as presently the mandated leave is only five days per annum.

The aim of family responsibility leaves is to minimize work-family conflict by allowing women to have time for family demands (Jang & Zippay, 2011). For those organisations that have limited or no family leave, women would leave children immediately after birth, or quit work in order to be able to care for their children. Such factors delay women in advancing their careers and they deprive women opportunities to advance into management positions. Women are thus more disadvantaged since they are responsible for childcare in many cases because of expectations about women's roles (Ruppaner, 2013).

2.15 Work-Life Balance Policies

Strategies aimed at supporting employees and organizations with work-life balance services have become popular in the modern day (Cooke, & Jin, 2009). Work-life policies or programmes give employees control in integrating work life and family responsibilities (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011). Many organizations are beginning to adopt the work-life programmes because they give a competitive advantage in industry and also serve as a means to retain top talent (Sanichar, 2004). According to Downes and Koekemoer (2011) there are many different work-life policies initiated by different organizations. Some work-life polices include having onsite childcare facilities, subsidized elder care and employee assistance programmes. Dex (2004), as cited in Downes and Koekemoer, (2011), categorised the work-life balance policies into five categories.

- Flexitime schedule: meaning that an employee has the right to choose a working schedule to suit her, including tea breaks, lunch time, and time for knocking off. But these arrangements are subjected to management's approval.
- Flexi place or tele-commuting: means that employee may opt to work some days from home or any place other than the organization's premises.
- Job sharing: means that two or more people can share duties in one position in order to allow individuals to have flexi-times to attend to non-work roles.
- Sabbatical leave or career breaks: is when employees are allowed to take some time off work to advance their careers.
- Part-time flexi place: implies that employees can work one to three days per week, at their location of choice. subject to management approval.

The work-life balance policies help employees to manage their family responsibility and still place focus on their work role. According to Downes and Koekemoer (2011), there are many research studies that have focused on work-life balance policies and flexi time internationally, but there is limited research on flexi time and work-life policies in the South African working context.

2.16 Conclusion

Managers, due to the nature of the managerial position, experience work-life balance differently from other employees. Managers may be required to spend long hours at work, travel long distances, attend a great many meetings, and attend to emails and voicemail and other external work commitments. The duties of managers are characterised by many challenges, such as dealing with clients, communities, shareholders, subordinates and other specific work operations. This often results in the workload exceeding the amount of time available to complete it and, as a result, the amount of work overwhelms the human mind's ability to comprehend it. In addition to the manager's workload, women also still carry the primary responsibilities of home and childcare. Since women also participate in management positions, there is a need for a conversion of customary roles that place women in a compromised position (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). Often, women managers experience conflict resulting from tension between their work role and family responsibilities that demand their physical strength, emotional and psychological ability: this conflict can affect their capability

to accomplish both roles adequately, unless they delegate some responsibilities such as house chores and childcare (McDonald & Leaptrott, 2009). For women, balancing these roles is a challenge.

CHAPTER THREE – METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methods the researcher used while conducting the study. Firstly, the chapter describes the research strategy and research design employed in order to answer the research questions of the study. Secondly, the chapter explains the study population and the sampling technique used. The research instruments and data collection methods are also discussed. The chapter also explains how data were analyzed. Lastly, the chapter explains the research ethics considered in the conduct of the study, and discusses the limitations of the study.

3.2 Research Strategy and Design

The researcher used the qualitative research method in order to elicit information about how women in management balance work and family responsibilities. The study was exploratory in nature. According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005), when using qualitative research, the researcher's emphasis is on improving understanding of human behavior and experience. Furthermore, in qualitative research the researcher hopes to gain information on the subjective experiences of the participants. Cresswell (2014) maintains that qualitative research methods adopt an interpretive and naturalistic approach whereby participants are interviewed in their natural settings, where they are experiencing the problem being investigated. The researcher studied the women in management positions at their places of work and at their homes.

The researcher adopted a multi-case study design where data was collected from different individuals working in different organisations. A case study is explained by De Vos et al. (2005) as a method that aims at gaining an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon being studied. The researcher utilized the multi-case study, as evidenced by the fact that the data was collected from women in management at different organisations, in other words, the researcher studied multiple cases of these women individually. Yin (2013) maintains that

case studies can be used when research questions attempt to explore some current circumstances. A case study design is relevant when questions need comprehensive and detailed explanation of some social phenomenon (Devos et al., 2005). In this study, the researcher wanted to find out how women manage their expected gender roles and their management role, and also to find out the barriers that women experience when advancing to higher positions in the workplace. The multiple case study was used to produce detailed descriptions of the work-life balance phenomenon. Yin (2013, 12) emphasizes that multiple case studies enhance the outcomes of the study by reflecting on the themes, thereby intensifying the findings.

3.3 Population, Sample and Sampling Procedures

The study population consisted of women in management positions working in different organisations within Nkangala District in Mpumalanga. The organizations were drawn from the public service and the private sector. The organizations were chosen based on the researcher's knowledge that there was quite a number of women managers in these organizations. The researcher used nonprobability sampling to select eight participants for the study. Purposive sampling was adopted since the selection was based on the judgment of the researcher. The sampling technique is used in qualitative research methods because the aim is not to generalize the results to a larger population, but to explore the phenomenon in greater depth. The women were identified through consultations with the managers of these organisations. To participate in the study, one had to be a woman in a management position.

Firstly, the researcher visited the potential participants at their workplace to invite them to participate in the study. The potential participants were provided with the information pertaining to the study and an explanation of the aim of the study. The researcher visited ten women in management positions; eight responded positively and showed interest in participating in the study by calling the researcher. The researcher, together with the participants, agreed on the time and venue for the interviews. The sample included black and white participants.

3.4 Research Instruments

The researcher used a semi-structured interview schedule to collect data. A semi-structured interview schedule allows for flexibility during the interview. The interview schedule contained a list of open-ended questions (De Vos et al., 2005). A semi-structured interview schedule allowed the researcher to ask questions relevant to the study and related to objectives.

3.5 Pre-Testing of Instrument

The researcher pre-tested the research instrument on two women with the same characteristics as the study population. Pre-testing the research instruments helped the researcher to identify and address problems that emerged during the pre-test interview. Moreover, pre-testing provided the interviewer with experience of using the research instruments (Bryman, 2012). The research instrument was amended where flaws were identified. Some questions were added to the list, whereas others were rephrased after the pre-test.

3.6 Method of Data Collection and Research Procedure

Face to face individual interviews were utilized to gather in-depth information from participants. Sewell (2001), as cited in De Vos et al. (2005, p. 287) defines interviews as an "attempt to understand the world from the participant's point of view, to unfold the meaning of people's experiences, and uncover their lived world prior scientific explanations". The aim of employing face to face interviews was to collect in-depth information about the women in management positions. Kvale (1996) asserts that interviews seek to describe the meaning of the central themes in the life world of subjects.

The researcher is a qualified social worker and well trained in establishing rapport and conducting sensitive interviews. The researcher therefore paid particular attention to helping the participants feel at ease and comfortable with the interviews. The interviews were tape-recorded with the consent of the participants as a way of ensuring the quality of the captured

data. Two participants indicated that they were not comfortable being tape-recorded, so the researcher wrote down their responses. The interviews lasted between 20 and 30 minutes.

Even though the participants were provided with the information regarding the study through the participant information sheet (Appendix A), the researcher also informed the participants about the rationale for the study. The researcher thanked the participants for agreeing to participate in the study. The researcher was able to probe for further clarification where necessary. Bryman (2012) asserts that if further information is required, especially in open-ended questions, probing maybe employed. During the interview, the researcher found that the participants were comfortable and able to express their feelings freely. After each interview, the researcher would thank the participants for giving up their time to participate in the study.

3.7 Method of Data Analysis

The researcher employed thematic content analysis to analyze the data. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 79) define thematic content analysis as "a method of identifying, analyzing and reporting themes or patterns within data". The purpose of thematic content analysis is to search through data to identify any recurrent patterns (Bryman, 2012).

Thomas (2008), cited in Royce (2011, p. 165), outlined four steps in qualitative data analysis, and which were followed by the researcher:

1. The conversations, interviews or responses were transcribed and written down.
2. The source material was carefully read, and key segments of text were highlighted.
3. Themes or categories and subcategories were coded (identified).
4. Patterns were sought that made sense of the most important themes or categories. The researcher explained the significance of the themes or categories to the research participants.

The researcher followed the steps of Braun and Clarke (2006) in performing thematic content analysis. The researcher kept a record of emerging themes during the data collection process. The process of data gathering and data analysis were carried out simultaneously. The

researcher then read the interview scripts, and re-read them to familiarize herself with the data so that the themes identified could be noted. Secondly, the data was categorized and coded according to the identified themes and sub-themes. Thereafter, the themes were reviewed to relate the themes with the entire data and coded extracts. Lastly, each theme was defined and named.

3.8 Trustworthiness

It is noted that in qualitative research, the research instrument is the researcher herself; thus, if the researcher's questions and biases are unchecked they may jeopardize the data's trustworthiness (Bryman, 2012). According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005), to establish the trustworthiness of the study it is important to address factors that ensure that the findings are credible, transferrable, dependable and confirmable.

Credibility refers to the degree to which the research is valuable, consistent and convincing. This is achieved through utilizing the triangulation method. Triangulation is defined as "the use of more than one method or source of data in the study of social phenomenon so that findings may be cross-checked" (Bryman, 2012, p. 717). However, triangulation was not possible in the study, because it would have been time consuming and require more resources. Other methods were used to ensure that the findings are credible. The researcher compared the obtained data with literature, and also by Participant Validation method, that is, providing the findings to participants for corroboration purposes (Bryman, 2012). The researcher presented the findings to two participants. The two participants agreed with the findings of the study and indicated that they related to the responses given. The researcher ensured that she used open-ended questions in order to avoid being biased throughout the data collection process.

Transferability refers to the extent that research findings are transferable to a different situation or population than that of the initial study (De Vos et al., 2005). The researcher provided full thick descriptions of the participants to enable other people to judge whether the findings could be transferable to another context. Dependability is concerned with consistency of the data, which indicates whether the findings would be consistent if the study were repeated with the same subjects in similar context. The researcher kept the audio tapes,

field work notes and transcripts of the data collected to show that proper procedure had been followed.

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the findings are solely from participants and free from personal biases, motivation and interests of the researcher (Bryman, 2012). The researcher remained unbiased during data collection and during data analysis by being reflexive. According Monette, Sullivan and Dejong (2005), reflexivity refers to the researcher being aware of the expectations, hopes and attitudes she brings with her the field; this is done to avoid the researcher influencing the participants' responses. Further, it helps the researcher not to influence the findings with her values.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

During the study, the researcher has considered the following ethical issues as highlighted in Babbie (2014).

3.9.1 Voluntary Participation

Voluntary participation means that participants were never forced to take part in the study. Participants were informed that participation in the study was completely voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any time without prejudice. The participant information sheet (Appendix A) was given to participants prior to the interviews.

3.9.2 Informed Consent

According to Babbie (2014), researchers are expected to obtain consent from all those who are directly involved in the research, before collecting data. The aim of informed consent is to show respect to the participants and make them feel free to make independent decisions without fear of negative consequences. The researcher ensured that participants had access to relevant information prior to signing the consent form. The participants were asked to sign consent forms for the interview and for tape recording of the interview.

3.9.3 No Harm to the Participants

The researcher ensured that there was no harm to participants by clearly explaining what would be involved in this study. The researcher also guarded against asking questions that could embarrass or endanger the participants.

3.9.4 Anonymity and Confidentiality

Participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity. Participants were informed that only the researcher and her supervisor would have access to the recordings and the transcripts. Anonymity was ensured so that participants cannot be identified with the responses. The researcher used pseudonyms instead of the participants' or organizations' real names. The participants were also informed that neither their names nor their departments' would be mentioned in the research report.

3.9.5 Deception

The researcher ensured that all participants were aware that the research was conducted as part of her academic studies. The researcher also considered debriefing (Babbie, 2014). This was done after every interview. The participants were provided with the researcher' and her supervisor's contact details in the eventuality that they needed more clarity or information regarding the study.

3.9.6 Ethics Clearance

The researcher obtained the Ethics clearance from the Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical) of the University of Witwatersrand before commencing with the study. The proposal for this study was also approved by the faculty of Humanities. The researcher ensured that she conduct the study in an ethical manner. See Appendix D for Ethics Clearance Certificate.

3.10 Limitations of the Study

The following are the limitations of this study.

- Some participants did not want to be tape recorded during the interview. The researcher had to write down their responses word by word while they were responding. As a result, the researcher might have missed some words or points.
- Another limitation is that data were not collected from multiple sources, eg. key informants. It is noted that single source may increase the potential for common - method bias.

3.11 Conclusion

In this chapter, an explanation of how the study was conducted was provided. The chapter described the research methodology adopted to conduct the study. The research strategy used was qualitative and was elaborated in specific detail. The participants of the study were purposefully selected. The steps undertaken in carrying out the research were detailed and the tool used is clearly stated. Thematic content analysis was adopted to analyze the data. The chapter also elaborated on the ethical issues that were considered in carrying out the study. And finally, the chapter described the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR – PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The chapter presents and discusses the results of the study. The primary aim of the study was to explore how women in management positions balance work and family responsibilities. The findings of the study are presented and discussed according to the objectives of the study. The chapter begins by giving demographic profile of participants.

4.2 Demographic Profile of Participants

The table below gives the demographic profile of the participants.

Table 2: The demographic profile of the participants (N=8)

PSEUDONYMS	JOB TITLE	RACE	NUMBER OF YEARS IN THE POSITION
Participant 1 (Itu)	Marketing Manager	Black	Two years
Participant 2 (Lilian)	NGO Manager	White	11 years
Participant 3 (Boitumelo)	Branch Manager	Black	Four years
Participant 4 (Siphiwe)	Sub-district Office Manager	Black	Three years
Participant 5 (Truddy)	Librarian Sub-District Manager	Black	Seven years
Participant 6 (Magrett)	Deputy Director	Black	Two years
Participant 7 (Lizzy)	Branch Office Manager	Black	Three years
Participant 8 (Sara)	District Manager	Black	Three years

The table shows that four participants are married; four are living with their partners. All the participants were in middle management positions. The participants indicated that they had the qualifications and experience needed for the positions they occupied, and that they had got into their positions by applying, going for an interview and thus gaining appointment. As indicated by the number of years in the position, many participants had not had their positions long.

4.3 Perceptions of Women in Management about Possible Barriers to Women's Advancement

The first objective of the study was to explore the perceptions of women in management about possible barriers to women's advancement. The objective provided the researcher with insightful information about barriers that obstruct women from advancing to higher positions in organisations. The perceptions of the participants were that there were some barriers that obstructed women from advancing into higher positions. Some of the barriers identified by the participants are detailed below.

4.3.1 Stereotypes

The participants believed that socio-cultural stereotypes of women were a barrier to the advancement of women. The socio-cultural stereotypes stem from cultural beliefs that women are inferior to men. Such beliefs extend even into the work environment whereby people believe that they cannot be led by a woman. This finding confirms an earlier finding by Schain (2007) that gender stereotypes constrain women's leadership. Participants were asked to elaborate on the barriers that they think contribute to barring women's advancement.

Participant 1 observed that:

> *"Being a woman in leadership position is different than if you were a male. You are disrespected, and not recognized. People still think that women cannot have positive impacts and ideas in the workplace. Your decisions are always questioned, myself I cannot make a decision without prior approval by my male manager, but my male counterparts are making decisions on their own without having to consult the manager."* (Participant 1)

Participant 2 shared these sentiments:

> *"As women we are undermined by our male counterparts, sometimes by other women. When you come up with a positive idea or criticism, it would not be taken seriously, but when a male come up with the same idea he is taken into consideration. Even if you are more qualified than him, his opinion matters than yours, simply because you are a woman. Women are undermined irrespective of their qualifications. This kind of issues drags women down because you are rated according to gender not according to qualifications and ability."* (Participant 2)

Similarly, Participant 5 noted that:

> *"People believe that women are too emotional for holding leadership. They believe a good leader does not show emotions and is not sympathetic. As results when a promotion for higher positions comes up, men are given first preference."* (Participant 5)

It is clear that the participants hold the perception that women are not trusted to occupy higher management positions. They felt that men were favoured over their female counterparts for management positions. The stereotypes hold women back because they internalize them. In the participants' view, women in management positions were denied recognition because people still associated a management position with a male figure. Men and other women often still believe that women are incapable of managing a leadership role, due to the belief that women are too emotional and soft. The participants' sentiments are supported by Schain's (2001) findings that, despite societal and organizational changes, people still believe that men possess better characteristics for leadership positions than do women. Kiaye and Singh (2013) indicate that even though women are accepted in the labour market, they still experience some form of discrimination when it comes to advancement into management positions.

The participants indicated that although they had been able to break the 'glass ceiling' and occupy management positions, it was still a challenge to be recognized as an able leader. The participants indicated that, as women, they had to work harder than their male counterparts in order to prove that they could be managers. If a woman fails, other factors that may have

contributed to the failure are overlooked and people say it is because women are not suitable for leadership roles. However, if a man fails, other factors that may have led to the failure are taken into account. Participant 4 noted that:

> *"Our voices as women are not heard. You would be made to feel like you not exist, especially because I am the only female manager amongst six managers. Even when I raise a concern, since I am the minority I feel overpowered, women's views are not taken into considerations during decision making. At times decisions that are in conflict with women's life are taken without acknowledging her. For example, the decisions of working on weekend will be considered without looking at the fact that I have to do house chores on weekend."* (Participant 4)

Participant 5 had this to say:

> *"In the past men were trusted in management positions and women were said to belong in a kitchen. That stereotypes still exist nowadays and is affecting women advancement in management positions."* (Participant 5)

According to Schain (2007), women continue to experience persistent stereotypes that associate leadership with men. Women are still perceived as lacking the qualities and attitudes that a leader needs to possess. Heilman and Eagly (2008) concur that women face resistance in leadership positions, basically due to the stereotypes attached to them. People associate women and men with various personality traits and perceive those traits stereotypically associated with men to be more suitable for leadership positions. Women are associated more with communal qualities, which means being sympathetic to other people. It means displaying feminine traits by being friendly, gentle, sensitive and showing emotions, and these are perceived to be negative attributes in leadership. In contrast, men are associated with agentic attributes which display ability to control, assertiveness and confidence (Heilman & Eagly, 2008). People associate these attributes with a good leader.

A study conducted by the South African Commission on Gender Equality indicated that over 30% of the participants in the study were of the view that women were too emotional to manage positions of power (Gouws & Kotze, 2007). However, participants in the current study contend that showing emotions is not a sign of weakness; they believe that what makes a good leader is skills, knowledge, experience and an ability to influence other people.

Participants were of the view that with training and mentoring they were able to acquire the skills required for management positions.

The participants were asked whether there were any behaviours expected of them in the workplace that would not otherwise be expected of men. Participants observed that people expect women to play a mothering role even in the workplace. Participant 3 noted that:

> *"Subordinates expect you to mother them because you are a woman. To understand when they are absent from work that they have family responsibilities."* (Participant 3)

Participant 2 also shared this observation.

> *"Subordinates expect me to be more empathetic, soft and understand their behavior as well as their feelings."* (Participant 2)

This observation indicate that women are not seen as leaders but as mothers. The expectation results from society's expectations that associate women with the role of home maker and men with the role of leader.

4.3.2 Lack of Confidence

Another barrier identified by participants was that women lacked the confidence to occupy higher positions; they doubt and do not believe in themselves. Participants were thus of the view that one of the barriers to women's advancement into management positions was low self-esteem. It was reported that women were holding back due to lack of confidence in themselves. Participants 7 notes that:

> *"Apart from external barriers that prevent us from accessing higher position, we women also lack confidence to push forward, we are afraid to apply for higher positions. Most of the time we need validation from others before we can start to believe in ourselves. I was scared to apply for the positions because I thought I will not do it well and that will prove that women are not fit for higher positions."* (Participant 7)

Participant 8 reflected on her own experience as follows:

> *"At first I had inferiority complex, aimed to please and to show my ability. I was afraid to prove people perceptions that women are should not be trusted with management positions. However, as times goes by I learned to be confident in my work. I realized I can do it the way my male counterparts do."* (Participant 8)

One of the successful women in law firms in South Africa, Sally Hutton, is reported by the *City Press* newspaper of 14 February 2016 as having said that.

> Many women seem to only want to take on a challenge when they feel that they are 100% ready and able to do it perfectly. In my experience, this is a uniquely female issue. We have been socialized not to take risks, but career development requires leaps of faith (City Press, 2016).

According to Mathipa and Tsoka (2001, p.327), confidence is the "key to becoming and remaining manager". Hence confidence leads to good performance in a leadership role. Kiamba's (2008) study supports the findings that women themselves are the cause of underrepresentation in management positions because they are reluctant to occupy high positions. It further states that women are afraid to voice their needs; they are not assertive; they are scared of power and are they are not eager to play the game. Sandberg (2013) asserts that women lack confidence to pursue leadership positions, but wait for the positions to come to them instead of being ambitious. It is revealed that self-worth is very important in leadership positions.

4.3.3 Underrepresentation of Women in Management Positions

Participants were of the view that women are presently underrepresented in management, hence women have no one to push for their appointments. Participant 4 shares her views as follows:

> *"Mhh! The workplace is still a man world. You find women in management, but only few are in senior management positions. Actually the workplace is still a men's world whereby as women we still trying to fit in."* (Participant 4)

Participant 8 elaborated on this point as follows:

> *"I think women are still underrepresented around Nkangala, because if you observe the mining industry around here it is still dominated by white people, particularly white men in higher positions. However, I observed an impressive progress in public sector in terms of promoting women into higher positions."* (Participant 8)

Participant 2 argued:

> *"I think women are not completely represented; however I am impressed with how women nowadays get into management positions. The situation has improved when compared to the last past ten years. Especially in government departments."* (Participant 2)

The participants felt that due to underrepresentation in senior management positions, their voices were not heard in the boardrooms. These findings are in line with the findings of a study conducted by Mathur-Helm (2006), which revealed that women in her study felt left out in the male-dominated positions and found it difficult to belong in that system. April et al. (2007) indicated that people bond through similar interests, even in the workplace. Women are still judged as having got their positions because of their gender. Thus, they have to work harder than their male counterparts in order to establish their credibility (April et al., 2007).

Despite the fact that women are underrepresented in management positions, some participants' expressed satisfaction with how the issues of women's representation were being addressed. The participants' sentiments are supported by the Mello & Phago (2007) study, which notes that the South African government has a comprehensive policy framework that promotes equity while supporting the advancement of women to managerial positions. The huge progress is more visible in the public service than in the private sector. Many participants in the study are from the public sector. Further, there has been noticeable progress in the implementation of affirmative action as well as Employment Equity Act within the public sector (Mathur-Helm, 2005).

4.4 The Experiences of Women in Management Positions in Balancing Work and Family Responsibilities

The second objective of the study was to explore women's experiences in terms of balancing their work and family responsibilities. The objective helped the researcher to understand what kinds of strategies women use when trying to strike a balance between work and family. Three themes emerged under this objective.

4.4.1 Work-Life Conflict

Some of the participants argued that they were constantly faced with the challenge of balancing their work with their expected roles as women in the families and in the society as a whole. From the participants' point of view, it is difficult to manage the boundaries between work and family if you are in management position. Participant 3 explained that:

> *"It is hard to maintain a balance when you are in a management position because the job is physically and emotionally demanding. When you get home the family also need your full attention. For me it is even harder because I have work overload. Two years ago I even went for counselling because the work was overwhelming. Apart from the workload I had to care for my ill father and care for my child."* (Participant 3)

Similarly, Participant 2 noted that:

> *"I used to be involved in many activities before taking this positions. I used to have time for myself, have fun with friends, and participate in church activities and visiting library. But this position is taking lot of my time and energy. I have lot of work. It is like I am doing a job of four people. On the other hand I have to take care of my family. Even though I have a maid, some responsibilities lie with me."* (Participant 2)

Apart from their demanding work, the participants also have family responsibilities like childcare and taking care of the house. The participants indicated that they were struggling to balance work and family roles due to the nature of their work. As a result, the work role interfered with family roles or family roles interfered with work role, which caused conflict. De Villiers and Kotze (2003) indicated that work-life interferences may occur when one

cannot stop thinking about uncompleted activities at work while she is at home. Furthermore, one may be too exhausted from work strain to carry out family responsibilities. Ezzendeen and Ritchey (2009), and Jang and Zippay (2011) argue that work-family conflict arises when the performance of one role interferes with the time and demands due to other roles, and also from the stress resulting from one role spilling over onto another role. For instance, work that is characterized by inflexible working hours, late meetings and work overload may make it difficult to accomplish some family responsibilities, such as fetching children from school.

For instance, the work roles (inflexible working hours, late meetings and work overload) interfere with family responsibilities (to fetch children from school). The participants in this study indicated that work-life interferences also resulted from work overload, whereby one was unable to complete assigned tasks within normal working hours, or when one had many demands from her family.

Participant 6 reported that her job was physically straining because she would be called during weekends to attend to emergencies. Hence, she felt guilty when she had to neglect her family for the sake of work. According to Kossek, Noe and DeMarr (1999), women experience work-life conflict and role overload regardless of their occupational level, age or marital status. Women continue to work more hours than men when their paid and non-paid work is combined because women spend more time on family responsibilities than men do. Women continue to work more hours than men when combining their jobs and family duties, because they spend more time on family responsibilities than men do.

4.4.2 Structuring and Planning

It was indicated that one of the strategies participants used to balance work and family was structuring and planning the tasks and activities to be performed within a specified period.

Participant 4 showed how she structured her time and activities.

> *"I don't believe in taking work home, because when I'm at work, I work hard to ensure that all task needed to be completed is done. So, when I'm at home I ensure that I address issues concerning family, so that I don't need to worry about family issues while I'm at work."* (Participant 4)

Participant 8 had this to say:

> *"I am good at managing my time, because I ensure thorough planning before executing any task. To me planning and time management is like budgeting. In order to save money, you do not buy something is not budgeted for. In my planning I also include time for myself."* (Participant 8)

Participant 6 emphasized that:

> *"As a manager you need to lead by example. An ability to manage yourself, time and family require constant hard work."* (Participant 6)

The participants showed that what is important when managing multiple roles, is time management and organizing tasks according to the availability of time or the priority status of a role. The participants also described their coping strategies for dealing with work-life conflict such as putting boundaries between work and family. Hoffnung (1992, as cited in Uys and Mclellan, 2009), states that women's life satisfaction derives from the control she has over her life. The participants in this study showed that they prioritized their roles by ensuring that they do not spend much time on unconstructive activities. However, two participants indicated that they took some work home if they had not completed it within the stipulated time. Two indicated that they were always being called to attend to work related issues even on their family time. It is hard for these women to plan and arrange how to spend their time. Their planning and structure is sometimes interrupted by work duties. Participant 7 observed that:

> *"I do not take work home, however my time with family is normally interrupted by emergencies whereby I have to leave my family to attend work duties."* (Participant 7)

According to role theory women manage to balance work and family by "role embracement or intensity" and "boundary management". According to Kossek (1999), as cited in Uys and Mclellan (2009), boundary management refers to the strategies that women use to separate the demands of work and the expectations of home responsibilities. The role theorist assumes that the demands, energy and amount of time women have is fixed; thus, if the demands of one role increase, there is a high likelihood of role conflict and role overload, which have negative effects. As a result, the lack of energy to carry the demands of all roles creates

conflict that produces anxiety and stress. The role embracement refers to the energy and time women require to fulfill a role (Uys & Mclellan, 2009).

Most of the participants in the study indicated that being a manager at the workplace requires one to be good at planning, organizing, managing time and delegating. The same skills are used in the management of family responsibilities. The participants believed that it would be difficult to manage all work load and family responsibilities without delegating. The participants showed that they were able to delegate some house chores to domestic workers and delegate some work to subordinates. The strategies used by the participants are similar to those in the model by Cheung and Halpern (2010), which was termed SOC (Selecting, Optimizing and Compensation). In other words, women select which roles to play and set time for those roles; secondly, they set priorities on tasks and duties to be completed. Lastly, they are able to outsource and delegate some responsibilities.

4.4.3 Role Prioritizing

Some of the participants indicated they were able to set boundaries between work and family life by way of prioritizing. Prioritizing means focusing more on the role one regards as essential. Participant 8 said that:

> *"Anyway, my children are all grown up, they can take care of themselves. My focus is on work role, because as a woman you have to harder than our male counterpart. We always have to prove ourselves that we can success in management roles, otherwise when you fail is because you are a woman."* (Participant 8)

Similarly, Participant 1 said:

> *"I do not have children, and I am not married. I wanted to focus on my career before opting to have children because I can imagine how difficult it would be to work, study and raise children on the same time. I still want to focus more on work."* (Participant 1)

Participant 7 was emphatic about her priorities, pointing out that:

> *"Being a mother is something you cannot ignore when you have children, especially the small ones. Those one they demand attention, but I am working for them anyway. So they come first."* (Participant 7)

Participant 3 voiced the view that:

> *"My children are important to me. One thing I miss since I took up this position is spent quality time with my family. But when the job calls I have to attend because the job provides financial resources to my family."* (Participant 3)

Participants in the study identified many roles that are expected of them including leadership role, a mother, church member, wife, partner, family member, community member, and a sibling. For participants, each role has a meaning, and at different times they identify themselves with a certain role, such as being a mother. These roles have different meanings to each participant; some prioritize a role of being a mother, whereas other participants prioritize a role of being a leader. According to Jacobs and Schain (2009), women regard the role of mother as their primary responsibility, especially women with younger children. From the observation of the researcher, the importance of each role depended on the life stage and life priorities of the participants. Participants with small children prioritized a mother role before the work role, unlike participants with grown up children. Participant 4 explained that she also loves her family and loves to spend time with them, but her work is demanding and she compromises her time with family to focus on her work because work puts food on the table.

White (1995) argues that women's career success is often related to their age. Participants with grown up children indicated that they were free to focus on their work role without worrying about small children who still demand more parenting time. Participant 6 did not mention her role as a mother, or her role as a spouse, even though she is a mother of two and is living with her husband. The roles the participants described above are related more to her profession than to her personal life. Based on the above information, we could conclude that the participant identifies herself more with her work role. The participants are similar to those women described by Blair-Loy (2003, 102) as "career oriented women". To them, it is not about just doing your job, but their careers described who they are. These women are motivated by their interaction with clients, colleagues and the work itself. Work provides these women with a sense of identity. These women tend to be those who have reached the highest levels in their s, and work devotions seem to be a cause and a consequence of career success (Blair-Loy, 2003).

4.5 THE SUPPORT SYSTEM AVAILABLE FOR WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITIONS

The third objective of the study was to establish the support systems available to women in management positions that enable them to balance work and family responsibilities. The participants identified the following support systems.

4.5.1 Support System

- **Family and spousal support**

The findings of the study showed that women in management positions need support in order to cope with the demands of their roles. Some participants indicated that they enjoyed family and spousal support. For instance, Participant 6 indicated that:

> *"The following are my personal support system, friend, family members, and children, some of my colleagues, friends and relatives, my husband. These people support me by providing spiritual upliftment, motivation, advice giving, sharing resources, love and warmth."* (Participant 6)

The following experience was shared by participant 2:

> *"After work I would be exhausted, fortunately I have a husband who assists with cooking. He is supportive and encourages me to work hard on my work role. Sometime he even assists with house chores. He is empathetic and understanding."* (Participant 2)

Similarly, Participant 7 noted that:

> *"I do not have a domestic worker. I rely on my sister for assistance, because I trust her with my children. I do not have to worry when I work late or during weekend because she is reliable."* (Participant 7)

The participants pointed out that the presence and degree of support structures was important in maintaining work-life balance. Participants indicated that they depended on their family members for emotional support and assistance with care of the children. The findings are in line with the observation by Okonkwo (2014) that most African families depend on extended family members for support. Some of the participants revealed that their husbands do not

only provide emotional support, but also assists in terms of cooking and washing dishes. This give women motivation and the opportunity to focus on other roles than that of home maker. It proves that sharing of house chores between partners has positive impact on career advancement of women. (Imbaya, 2012) has shown that women with spousal support report less work-life conflict and are satisfied with their jobs and enjoy their marriages.

- **Organizational support**

Apart from family support, the participants mentioned that they also needed organizational support to be able to achieve a balance between their work role and non-work activities. They indicated that organizational support might be in the form of providing women with family responsibility leave and mentoring. Participant 6 remarked that:

> *"My supervisor is understanding, she shares information with me and mentors me. She understands the challenges of being a woman, a mother, a wife, and the role I play within the organization."* (Participant 6)

This was echoed by Participant 6 who said that:

> *"In our department, we have veteran social workers who are mentoring us managers. They instill professional norms and values to us as well as providing professional guidance and support. The mentoring is not yet effective as some of the managers we are just thrown in the deep end and learn as times goes by i.e. you have to develop your own way in resolving challenges experienced. We are expected to teach or instill good public service standards, but we were never appropriately orientated and mentored. However, I feel that the number of family responsibility leave could increase."* (Participant 6)

Participant 1 shared a different experience:

> *"Our department does not offer much support to women in terms of balancing work and family. We do have maternity benefits anyway. But in terms of supervision, no. We work on our own, they only assist when there are major problems encountered in the organization. The only programme that I noticed is the EAP even though I do not know if it is effective."* (Participant 1)

Participants indicated that they regarded support from their superiors as important and motivating. For the participants it made things easier when they were able to talk to their supervisor about their family responsibilities and receive support in return. The participants who indicated that they received support from their supervisor seemed to have found strategies to manage the work-life balance better, unlike those without the support of their supervisors. The findings also revealed that women regard mentoring as one of the significant aspects women in management cherish. Mentoring was mentioned as a way that a supervisor shows support to her subordinates. Participants who received mentoring reported that they had confidence to take leadership roles. Participants who lacked mentoring indicated that they were struggling on their own. These findings corroborate the findings by Ajala (2013) that women need emotional support from their supervisors in order to manage work and family responsibilities, either through mentoring, giving advice, empathetic listening and understanding.

Another important aspect related to participants' support structure for work-life balance is the organizational initiatives such as flexi time, job sharing and telecommuting. According to the findings of this study, women do not have access to many of the work-life balances policies and services mentioned. The only policy common in all the organizations the participants worked for was the Employee Assistance Programme (EAP). The work-life initiatives such as flexible working hours, job sharing, and flexi place are not promoted and were not known to participants. All the participants regarded maternity leave as the only benefit that benefited women in balancing work and parenting roles.

- **Support from colleagues**

The participants also mentioned that the support of subordinates and colleagues played an important role in a manager's role. Below are some of the participants' responses when asked about their support system in the workplace. Participant 8 said:

> *"I have a strong, hardworking and dedicated team. They support me, and I am able to delegate some of my duties to them."* (Participant 8)

Participant 5 expressed similar sentiments:

> *"My subordinates are effective and committed. They are easy to manage, so they make my job simpler. I could not do many things without them. We are one connected team."* (Participant 5)

The participants indicated that they were encouraged by cooperation they received from subordinates and other colleagues. Some participants indicated that they found emotional support from their colleagues who are at the same level as them, either from the same department or from other departments. Participant 6 said.

> *"I normally communicate with other women from other departments. Surprisingly they experience same challenges as I do. So, I find comfort in sharing my personal experience with people who are going through similar experience."* (Participant 6)

Participants network with other women to provide support for one another. However, it was not all the participants who received support from their colleagues and supervisors. Some participants were treated to hostile behavior by their colleagues. Participant 3 explained as follows:

> *"The women who have been in the department for a long time, they do not want to give the younger one opportunity to prove themselves, neither mentor us to be like them. Instead of supporting us, they are oppressing us. I think they are threatened that we may take higher positions, I do know why they are behaving like that. Consequently, we the subordinates end up feeling inferior and not initiating anything. We feel discouraged and demotivated."* (Participant 7)

The findings indicate that some of the participants experience the Queen Bee Syndrome discussed in Johnson and Mathur-Helm (2011), where it is reported that Queen Bee Syndrome is the reluctance of women to support and promote other women. Often the women feel threatened and want to remain unique in the management positions within a particular organization.

4.6 Conclusion

The findings have been presented and discussed according to the objectives of the study. The study revealed that women continue to experience gender stereotyping and discrimination in the workplace. Despite government legislation to redress past gender imbalances, women are

still underrepresented in management positions. There are several factors found to be contributing to women's underrepresentation in the workplace; these include conflict between work role and family responsibilities, gender stereotypes and lack of confidence in women themselves. Societal expectations of women's role as home makers has not changed, which leads to women experiencing role overload. The study revealed that women in management positions balance their multiple roles by delegating and prioritizing their roles.

CHAPTER FIVE – SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the main findings of the study, and the conclusions and recommendations of the study. The main aim of the study was to explore how women in management positions balanced work and family responsibilities. The main findings of the study are presented according to the objectives, as introduced in chapter one.

5.2 Summary of Findings

5.2.1 Objective 1: To explore the perceptions of women in management regarding possible barriers to women's advancement.

The study revealed that women in management positions perceive gender stereotypes as a major barrier to their advancement. Gender stereotypes that regard women as inferior to men hold women back, because women internalize these stereotypes. Women are regarded as lacking traits suitable for leadership and possessing traits that are unsuitable for leadership, such as being emotional and soft. As a result of these stereotypical beliefs, women are not trusted with management positions. People still associate leadership with male figures, which results in women being discriminated against during recruitment processes. Moreover, women do not have much influence because they are underrepresented in management positions. Additionally, although situated in management positions, women do not receive recognition as able leaders because they are regarded as tokens to meet Employment Equity Act targets in the organization.

The study also revealed that women lack the confidence to occupy positions of power in s. Women procrastinate taking opportunities for high positions due to low self-esteem. It has been shown that women only want to take on a challenge when they feel that they are 100%

ready and able to do it perfectly. The study also revealed that women lack confidence because they internalize the stereotypes that describe women as lacking ambition to succeed.

The findings of the study revealed that women experience work and family conflict, because their jobs are emotionally and physically demanding. Regardless of women's position and status, women still carry primary responsibility for home, child and elderly care. Sometimes women have to make sacrifices in one role in order to meet the demands of other roles. For example, women delaying having children in order to first advance their career, or waiting until their children were grown up before putting their focus into their career. The study indicated that women who experience more work-family conflict are women with small children. As a result, many women advance their careers later, when their children have grown up.

5.2.2 Objective 2: To explore the experiences of women in management positions in balancing work and family responsibilities.

One of the factors identified as leading to work-life conflict for women in management positions is work overload, which leads to women taking work home in order to finish their work tasks. It has been found that women experience work-life conflict regardless of age and marital status. However, women with no children have indicated that they experience less work-life conflict.

The study revealed that balancing work and family is a process and sometimes balance is maintained and at times there is imbalance between the roles. However, it was indicated that women need to plan and structure their time, tasks and activities. Participants noted that women balance their work roles and their family responsibilities by constantly structuring and planning. Structuring implies that one needs to manage time and have ability to separate work roles from family roles. Participants indicated that to separate work roles from family roles, one needs to focus on work during work hours and ensure that the work for the day is complete, so that they do not have to carry work home. Similarly, when women are at home they must focus on family issues so that they do not interfere with their work. The findings of the study revealed that women in management positions also balance work and family responsibilities by delegating some of the home responsibilities to their domestic helpers.

Women in management positions also cope by delegating some of their work duties to junior staff.

The study also revealed that women cope by prioritizing the essential roles. However, the significance of roles differed from individual to individual. Some women prioritized the role of a mother, whereas others prioritized their work role. Women who prioritized their mother role were found to be women with small children, because it is acknowledged that small children still need tender care and mothers feel responsible for providing it. Women who prioritized their work role were women who had grown up children and could commit themselves to their work role.

5.2.3 Objective 3: To establish the support systems available for women in management positions to enable them to balance work and family responsibilities.

The findings revealed that there are different support structures available to women. The women received support from their family members, spouses, friends, supervisors, as well as from work-life balance programmes such as the Employee Assistance Programme.

Participants observed that they received support from their spouses in the form of emotional support, encouragement, motivation, listening and empathetic understanding. It was indicated that spouses provided support by showing understanding that women in management positions might not provide home care as expected due to their work role responsibilities. Further, spouses support each other by sharing household duties such as cooking. Women who receive spousal support manage work-life balance better. In addition, women cope by having support from family members like sisters who help with childcare and house chores.

The support system that is also regarded as important in the workplace is the support of a supervisor. Some women indicated that they received support from supervisors in the form of mentoring and empathetic listening. Furthermore, there are benefits like maternity benefits within the organisations that promote women's work-life balance. Also, the Employee Assistance Programme assists women and their families when they encounter personal problems. Moreover, participants indicated that they received support from their peers who share similar challenges and were able to provide social support. Participants also indicated

that their networking with women at other organizations was a way of sharing information and experiences.

5.3 Conclusions

Women in management positions are constantly striving to balance their multiple roles, because there will always be a degree of conflict between family responsibilities and work roles. It is observed that the work-life balance involves many dynamics, and depends on many issues such as age and assistance from family. From the participants' narratives, it emerged that it also depends on whether a woman has small children or children who are already independent. It also depends on whether the woman is married or not and, if she is, whether the husband is supportive or not. Another factor observed by the researcher is that these women reached their managerial positions after their children had become independent. Furthermore, it is observed that many of the women in management positions had reached their positions later in life. The results being that at some point they took a break to raise their children. Even if they did not quit work, some could not advance their careers by attending workshops and training due to family responsibilities. Consequently, their advancement was delayed.

Other conclusions drawn from the study are that there is still a struggle for gender equality in the workplace. However, it is noted that women themselves are reluctant to hold positions of power and that women see other women as threats. So in order to achieve gender equality and representation of women at higher positions, women need to develop confidence to take up leadership roles rather than waiting for the positions to be offered to them. Women require mentors and role models to enhance their self-worth. Mentoring seemed to have a positive impact on the career paths of women who strive to advance to higher positions. In conclusion, women in leadership positions need networking, mentors for the purpose of sharing contacts and information as well as providing moral support. Women also need to negotiate with their partners in terms of sharing parenting and home responsibilities so that they may not shy away from taking leadership roles because of not wanting to be seen to be neglecting their social responsibilities.

5.4 Recommendations

5.4.1. Policy and Practice

- It is recommended that government should closely monitor organisations to ensure compliance with the Employment Equity Act, especially those in the private sector, in order to achieve 50% representation of women in management positions.
- It is recommended that organizations should develop policies that provide women in management positions with a quality work-life balance. Policies such as career breaks, job sharing, flexible working arrangements and childcare policies.
- Organizations should be made aware of challenges faced by women in management positions so that Human Resources Departments and Occupational Social Workers may take proactive steps in terms of implementing strategies, policies, trainings and programmes to promote work-life balance.

5.4.2. Future Research

It is recommended that for future research, husbands of the women in management should be included in a similar study for the purpose of providing insightful information about the challenges faced by their spouses. In addition, the superiors and top management personnel within s should be part of the study in order to provide their views regarding the challenges faced by women in management.

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APPENDIX A

Social work

School of Human & Community Development

University of the Witwatersrand

Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050

Tel: (011) 717 4008 Fax: (011) 717 8259

Participant information sheet

Good day

My name is **Khomotso Lucy Mahasha**, and I am a post-graduate student registered for the MA in Occupational Social Work degree at the University of Witwatersrand. As part of the degree, I am conducting research on how women in management positions in Nkangala District balance work and family responsibilities. It is hoped that the study will help managers and s to understand the experiences of women managers in the workplace in order to respond more effectively to challenges that these women face.

I wish to invite you to participate in my study. The participation in the study will involve an interview of about 30 to 35 minutes. If you agree to take part in the study, I will make arrangements to interview you at a place and time that is convenient for you. Your participation is entirely voluntary and refusal to participate will not be held against you in any way. You may refuse to answer any particular questions or withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences. Please be informed that anonymity and confidentiality will be prioritised. Although the report can be seen by anyone, as it may be on the internet, your real name, personal details and the name of your department will not be used in the report. Please contact me on 0724503500 or my supervisor Professor Kaseke on (011) 717-4477 or at edwell.kaseke@wits.ac.za if you have any questions regarding the study. We shall answer them to the best of our ability. Should you wish to receive a summary of the results of the study an abstract will be made available on request. Thank you for taking time to consider participating in the study.

Yours sincerely……

Khomotso Lucy Mahasha

Date

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

1. Women represent 52% of the South African population but only 41% of women are employed. Only 21.4 % of all executive managers are women. Based on this information what is your intake of the representation of women in management positions around Nkangala district?
2. What challenges are faced by women in leadership/management positions?
3. What barriers if any did you experience in your career? Explain.
4. What have been your experiences with respect to balancing work and family responsibilities?
5. What are the major challenges to women advancement in your organization?
6. According to your culture, is division of household labour between spouses accepted practice? If yes explain how, if no explain what are the roles of the spouse?
7. What kind of support systems is available to you within the organization?
8. What kind of support systems is available to you within the family? Please explain how you are supported or not supported.
9. Are women in management positions mentored in your organization? If yes by whom? How effective was the mentorship?
10. What changes can you recommend in your organization in support of women in management positions?

APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY

Balancing work and family responsibilities:
The case of women in management positions in Nkangala district.

The purpose and procedure of the study have been explained to me. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may refuse to answer any particular questions, or withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences. I understand my name will not be used in the report.

I agree to be interviewed for this study.
I agree / do not agree that the interview can be tape-recorded (delete the answer which does not apply)
*Name of Participant:_____
Date: _____

APPENDIX D

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Mahasha

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H15/08/26**
PROJECT TITLE	Balancing work and family responsibilities: The case of women in management positions in Nkangala district municipality
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Ms K Mahasha
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Human and Community Development/
DATE CONSIDERED	21 August 2015
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved unconditionally
EXPIRY DATE	15 September 2018

DATE 16 September 2015 **CHAIRPERSON** J. Knight
(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Professor E Kaseke

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10005, 10th Floor, Senate House, University.

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

Signature

03/09/2015
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES