WOMEN IN INDUSTRIES: RESEARCH ON THE RESISTANCE AGAINST CHANGE IN EASTERN CAPE INDUSTRIES

BY

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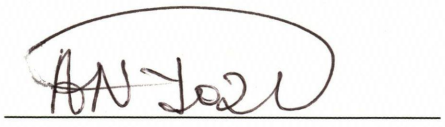
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DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation hereby submitted by me for the Masters of Administration in Industrial Psychology at the University of Fort Hare is my own work and has not been previously submitted by me at any other University or College for degree or diploma purposes. I further cede any copyrights of the dissertation in favour of the University of Fort Hare.

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Yozi, A.N.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to the memory of my grandmother Nodimani Lucy Dodo- Nzuzo, my uncles Gilindlovu, Babini and Wele Yozi, my father Mzwakhe Qoqa, who are all deceased. I know, with this work, you would have been very proud of me.

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ABSTRACT

One of the richest yet underutilised resources in South Africa is the talent of its women. This nation has for many years squandered this talent in a shameful fashion. Most South African industries comply with the new legislation that enhances the existence of women in industries, while in previous years they were denied opportunity to enter the labour market, especially in industry. Since then the new democratic country has come to realise the need for transformation in industries, and women are entering the labour market in good numbers. The study was undertaken to try and address the perceptions of men and women with regard to how they perceive the appointment of women in industries, especially in managerial positions, taking into account the cultural differences, which are plentiful in South Africa with its eleven languages.

This project was developed with the aim of understanding the experiences of women in industries, a subject on which there is almost no academic literature. This study was conducted in the East London (Buffalo City Area) in the Eastern Cape Province, about which, once again, little had been written, despite its industrial importance in this country. Some consideration has been given to the experiences of women working in industries, about which the literature is more copious. Elsewhere, as in South Africa, women were generally prevented from working in industries until recently. Their only place to work was the domestic one. This work included taking care of children, cooking and cleaning the house. Despite present formal admission to industrial work, women are still encountering problems. For example, often they do not get a warm reception from their male counterparts, and there is still much sexual discrimination. Nevertheless women are working in industries at different levels and positions, and are now competing with their counterparts in industry, formerly regarded as a man's world.

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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The role of women in South Africa has changed forever. Democracy, emancipation, gender equality and the growth of the human spirit has pushed aside the old myth of weakness and obedience, and left us with a nation of proud, strong leading women. The face of the South African workplace is changing, though there is no doubt that apartheid in South Africa has done a considerable amount of damage. The white paper on transformation defines transformation as a movement of a system from one position to another so as to keep pace with changing trends. This study is about change and management of change that occurs in organizations with its effects on all aspects of the organization, its management, the people involved, its culture, structure and processes.

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Transformation does not occur overnight, it is an ongoing process. South Africa has already kickstarted the process of transformation since the first democratically elected government came into power it inherited a society marked by deep social, and economic as well as by racial, political and social divisions. Guided by the principle of National Reconciliation, the government adopted the Reconstruction and Development Programme to reorientate and reunite society with the purpose of creating a socially coherent and economically equitable society.

The workplace too has undergone a process of transformation, as the days of master – servants are gone, just as are days when men were regarded as the sole bread winners. In the past, the only working place that women regarded as theirs the kitchen, and now things have changed. Women are now entering the labour market, and government has originated legislation and laws that support this change.

Some of the legislative acts that government has promulgated are the Affirmative Action Act, the Gender Equity Act, and the Labour Relations Act to mention just a few. South Africa being a diverse country, with eleven languages, and different cultures, industries face problems that industries have addressed by developing an organizational culture that accommodates South Africa's diverse. Though companies have generated organisational culture which refers to a system of shared meanings held by members distinguishing the organisation from other organisations (Robins, Odendaal & Roodt, (2003:380), it has been brought to everybody's attention that cultural diversity has an impact on women entering the labour market as there is resistance among men and some women too, to recognising women as part of the labour force, hence the need to conduct this research.

1.2 Background of the study

The workforce in South Africa is culturally diverse. South Africa is a typical example of a heterogeneous country and that is why today it is called a rainbow nation symbolizing the different cultural groups, with their cultural values and lifestyle preferences.

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In a country like South Africa, transformation is essential to shift the managerial philosophy and mindset from one that treats everyone alike to one that recognizes differences and responds to them differences in ways that will ensure employee retention and greater productivity while at the same time not discriminating. As South Africa has celebrated ten years of democracy, there has been tremendous change in the labour force, and previously disadvantaged people, like women, now have the opportunity of being recruited and appointed to senior positions or higher posts. This means a major change for organizations, as previously these high posts were for men, especially white men only, and women were not considered for such posts. Even if where a woman was hired she was not treated on the same basis as her counterparts in terms of salary, although they did the same job and should be entitled to the same benefits.

In a nutshell women were being discriminated in terms of ethnicity, race, and disability and of course gender. The mere fact that one was a woman used to bar her from any

managerial position in industry, as women were considered incompetent and unable to perform to set standards according to company perception. According to Ivancavich & Matteson (1996:50), the need for transformation in the workplace can be categorized in five ways, as outlined below:

1.2. 1 Redress of the legacy of apartheid

There is no doubt that apartheid has been damaging. The challenge facing the new government is transformation in all aspects. Whites who were in power used to rule the country inhumanely. Blacks who were and still are the majority in this country were on the receiving end. Think of the state of education of black youth, monopolization of employment and reservation of key positions for whites, coloureds and friends of the ruling party. Acceptable housing standards were for whites, the list is endless. Worst of all was the denial to blacks of the right to vote in their own country of birth, and transformation was the only answer to this state of affairs so as to bring out the dignity of the people of this country regardless of colour, race, cultural group, etc.

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1.2.2 Demographics Dynamics

South Africa's demographics reflect population, income, age, gender, education, occupation etc. These demographics were skewed in the past. Taking gender for instance, the women's place used to be the kitchen, people with disabilities did not even appear on the agenda, and there used to be Bantu education of poor standard. Things have changed for the better now due to transformation. Women are slowly but surely taking over managerial positions slowly but sure and people with disabilities are at the top of parliaments and in many organizations.

1.2.3 Legislative Concerns

The status quo is what it is today due to the abrogation and amendment of outdated laws and their replacement by such as cater for the needs of the society as a whole. In the past, laws were designed by a white minority government to secure the interests of whites and their favourites and to target certain groups, but now the laws accommodate every South African. Some new legislation has been adopted, other legislation has been amended to redress the imbalances of the past among them:

- Employment Equity Act of 1998
- Basic Conditions of Employment Act No 75 of 1995
- Affirmative Action Act of chapter 3 of Employment Equity Act of (No 55 of 1998)
- Labour Relation Act of 1995
- Constitution of republic the of South Africa Act 108 of 1996
- Sectoral Determination for domestic workers of chapter 7 of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No 75 of 1995

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1.2.4 Globalisation

Globalisation is all about worker's and manager's awareness of how global events may affect the well being of organizations, so that they know how to deal with people from other countries and can learn quickly from organizational practices around the world. Globalisation is also about complex networks of competition, resources supplies, and product markets that span the globe. Transformation in here means that our workforce has to be trained, equipped with the necessary skills to keep pace with the competitive world as South Africa is part of the global village. For instance, a woman may be hired by a particular company that has its headquarters overseas; hence globalization is important to enrich the employee so that s(he) can cope overseas and be able to adapt to the changed conditions.

1.2.5 Cultural Diversity

The workforce is in organizations that are continuously becoming more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race, and ethnicity. The term encompasses anyone who varies from the norm. It also includes the physically handicapped, gays, lesbians, the elderly and even people who are significantly overweight. South Africa is typically an example of a heterogeneous society with different cultural groups and cultural values, norms and lifestyle preferences. Transformation and Employment Equity is essential here to bring change.

1.3 Statement of the research problem

Despite the tremendous effort by government through amendments and adoption of new legislation in trying to redress the imbalances of the past, and also to address issues that have an impact on women in industry, still more needs to be done. I am of the view that though change is still ongoing and can not happen overnight, and as women are being recognized and recruited to managerial positions, resistance to change has an impact on women in industry, as most cultures don't approve of working women, and still hang onto or insist on the application of a patriarchal philosophy. Resistance to change in industry still exists to women and counterparts a result of this ideology, hence the need to conduct this research, to test the validity of my hypotheses.

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1.4 Purpose of the research

The aims in conducting this research are outlined below:

- To investigate whether cultural diversity has an impact on women in industry.
- To find out if resistance to change still exists in industries especially among men.
- To discover the various ways in which women issues can be approached in industry.

- To investigate whether gender differences serve as a barrier to women.
- To investigate and compare the competency of women in their jobs.
- To investigate whether gender has any relationship to accountability in industry.

1.5 Research questions

The research was designed to answer the following preliminary questions;

- What impact do organisational culture and cultural diversity have on women in industry?
- What influence does gender/race discrimination have in the workplace and what are the reasons for resistance to change?
- What impact does resistance against change and new legislation have on industry?
- What are the perceptions of women and their counterparts with regard to women entering the labour market?
- How do competencies/skills and aptitude of the gender - and race groups compare?

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1.6 Research objectives

The study sought to single out by providing and identifying some ways in which women can be approached by men as a result of the transformation/ change that has been happening in industries, given the role of organisational culture and cultural diversity in industry. This was addressed by unpacking the following objectives:

Broad objective

- To contribute to development and empowerment of women in the corporate world by changing perception far too common in industry that women are not competent enough to meet the requirements of the job.

Specific Objective

- To devise climbing ways in which women can overcome the challenges they face in ascending the corporate ladder.
- To identify and analyze what causes resistance to change among women counterparts.

1.7 Hypotheses/Assumptions

The following hypotheses may be inferred from the problem statement.

- Resistance to change and cultural diversity has some impact on women in industry, especially those occupying higher positions.
- Gender has a detrimental effect on accountability.
- Resistance to change still exists in industries and men take the lead in necessiting change.
- The perception of men with regard to new legislation is that it favours women unduly.

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1.8 Justification /Rationale

It is anticipated that the information gathered will be credible and useful, enabling the incorporation of lessons learnt into the development of guidelines to be used in the implementation of the Employment Equity Act in industries. However the reason for conducting this research is to determine whether resistance to change has any impact on women in industry and if it still exists there. The beneficiary of the research is the industry generally, whether public or private and specifically management in industry. Other beneficiaries will be individuals, especially in industry but also community at large, in trying to change perceptions and stereotypes with regard to women, and to build

a perception of women as humans who are capable, competent in delivering services and in performing up to set standards in industry, equally well as men can do of not better.

1.9 Scope or delimitation

The problem identified applies to all industries in South Africa. However, the study is confined to East London industries in the Eastern Cape, due to time and cost constraints. Within East London, the industries identified for the research are Coca- Cola, SAB, Daimler Chrysler and Johnson and Johnson all within the Buffalo city district.

1.10 Limitations of the study

Only employees of the selected industries have been used for this study. The research was highly complex and demanded much time as the processes followed in data collection were spread over a long period of time. Also, because of the geographical spread of the industries, the researcher incurred expenditure in traveling and accommodation as the researcher was based in Alice, having to travel to and from East London.

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1.11 Definition of concepts

Certain terms have been used throughout this thesis and need clarification.

1.11.1 **Workforce Diversity:** Robbins (1993:11) states that workforce diversity means variety in terms of gender, race, and ethnics.

1.11.2 **Constitution of Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996.**The Oxford English dictionary defines a constitution as a "body of fundamental principles or established precedents according to which a state or organization is governed."

1.11.3 **Gender Equity:** Gender equity is a set of actions, attitudes, and assumptions that provide opportunities and create expectations about individuals. In our definition of gender equity, gender is never separate from race, ethnicity, language, disability, income, and other diversities that define us as human beings http://www2.edc.org/WomensEquity/about/define.htm .

1.11.4 **Affirmative Action:** According to Innes, Kentridge & Perold (1993:4) affirmative action is a set of procedures aimed at proactively addressing the disadvantages experienced by sections of the community in the past and is not a single policy or strategy; rather, there can be a number of different ways of implementing it.

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1.11.5 **Employment Equity Act of 1998** deals with discrimination issues and the Act is aimed at creating equity in the workplace by eliminating unfair discrimination and prohibits direct and indirect discrimination. It also promotes the implementation of affirmative action in respect of age, gender, HIV status and disability (Luyikumu (2003) Demystifying Myths: Addressing uncertainty about Employment Equity as cited in People's Dynamic 21 (9):17-18.

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1.11.6 **Black Economic Empowerment:** South Africa's Department of Trade and Industries defines Black Economic Empowerment as follows: "BEE is an integrated and coherent socio-economic process that directly contributes to the economic transformation of South Africa and brings about significant increases in the number of black people that manage, own and control the country's economy, as well as significant decreases in income inequalities" http://www.fwdklerk.org.za/download_docs/05_03_BEE_All.doc.

1.11.7 **Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995** is a piece of legislation that protects the rights of women to be fairly treated in the workplace and protects them against unfair dismissals including unfair dismissal of women for reasons related to pregnancy (Luyikumu (2003) Demystifying Myths: Addressing uncertainty about Employment Equity as cited in People's Dynamic 21 (9):17-18.

1.11.8 **Sectoral Determination for domestic** women allows them to earn a basic salary, which varies depending on the area in which they are employed. They are also entitle to leave and maternity leave and where there was no pay slip and contract of employment, domestic workers now have the right to receive a contract of employment and a pay slip as well (Luyikumu (2003) Demystifying Myths: Addressing uncertainty about Employment Equity as cited in People's Dynamic 21 (9):17-18.

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1.11.9 **Basic Conditions of Employment Act No 75 of 1997** is another piece of legislation that protects women as they are entitled to at least four months maternity leave and that includes women working in the domestic sector as well as in the agricultural sector (Luyikumu (2003) Demystifying Myths: Addressing uncertainty about Employment Equity as cited in People's Dynamic 21 (9):17-18.

1.11.10 **Perception** can be defined as the process by which an individual observes, selects, organizes, and reacts to environmental stimuli in a meaningful way (Du Plessis & Rousseau 2003: 133).

1.11.11 **Transformation**: the white paper on transformation explains that transformation is the movement of a system from one position to another so as to keep pace with the changing trends (**http://www.gov.za/whitepaper/1995/trnsformation.htm**).

1.12 Chapter outline

The research report is structured as follows:

- **Chapters two, three, four and five** are devoted to women under apartheid, culture and organizational culture, diversity management and change/ transformation in industries.
- **Chapter six** outlines the methodology and design for the study, the sample and sampling procedure, as well as the instruments used for collecting data.
- **Chapter seven** presents and analyses the data gathered.
- **Chapter eight** presents the overall conclusions drawn from the research. Conclusions and generalizations are followed by recommendations for future research.

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1.13 Time Frame

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The proposed time frame for the study was from May 2006 to November 2007. That includes time of planning, fieldwork and completing the research report.

CHAPTER TWO

Women under Apartheid

2.1 Introduction

South African women live in a society split by the cleavages of apartheid. The system divides the people of South Africa into separate groups, and from the enforced divisions arise differences in the position of women. It is necessary, therefore, to differentiate in describing their conditions and their lives. Whites were a powerful and privileged minority. In spite of a considerable linguistic and cultural variety amongst them, under apartheid they formed a single group in contrast to the black majority which was divided into several groups in order to facilitate the maintenance of the apartheid system and white domination (Bernstein, 1985:1).

Life roles were laid down for females at birth, in the first place by skin colour, in the second place by sex and economic class. To an overwhelming extent the child's whole life, her education, her possibility of achievement, for jobs and status, as well as everything affecting her personal relations, was predetermined by these three factors. If the child questions the role into which she has been cast, then she will find there is no way to change it saves by changing the whole society. Though true for men as well as women, it applies most forcibly to African women. Sexual and racial discrimination condemn them to the bottom of the pile; on their backs rests a vast superstructure of law and of custom, in which the habits and institutions of an old, pastoral society are cemented into a modern industrialised state (Bernstein, 1985:1).

A crucial factor has been the impact of imperial power on indigenous culture. Inferiority was imposed on Africans by colonialism in Africa. The black woman had burden trebled. The first imposition, on both women and men, was the ideology of 'inferiority' ingrained and maintained by the colonists, along with the destruction of pre-colonial social structures, and the denigration of any culture other than that of the colonists themselves. The second imposition arises from both the traditions of the old society and the doctrines of the new - that is, the inferior status imposed on women by the relationships between

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women and men. The third was that from the beginning of the development of industrialisation, sexual discrimination was embedded in the overall system of exploitation (Ibid: 2). The black majority of South Africa was divided into separate groups by the colonial powers, as it was still under apartheid. Each group was administered in different ways, reflecting the differences in the conditions and origins of their oppression. Within each group, the position of women was generally even worse than that of men.

Factors most strongly affecting women's lives were embedded in the apartheid system. Apartheid divides people into separate groups where class and colour tend to coincide. Different laws apply to the separate groups and their living conditions differ widely. Therefore the descriptions and explanations of these must also be separate although there were some areas where the problems and disabilities arising from sexual discrimination overlay those deriving from racial discrimination. But generally speaking, the majority of South African women suffered first and foremost from the effects of apartheid. Since an awareness of what apartheid was and how it operates is essential for understanding the position of women in South Africa, a brief description of it follows.

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The stratification of South African society has its basis in colonial conquest. The consolidation of domination by the white minority, and the perpetuation of racial laws and ways of thinking, has been basic to the policies of successive governments. The economic foundations of the modern industrial economy in South Africa were laid down with the establishment of large-scale gold and diamond mining in the nineteenth century. The economy of the region, until then predominantly agricultural, underwent rapid industrialisation, based on a supply of cheap labour secured largely through control of the land by the white minority (Bernstein, 1985:3).

The process by which the mass of the people who occupied the land were dispossessed and excluded from access to it was a long and continuous one. They were driven off the land by force of arms in most of the country over a period of over two centuries; by the imposition of taxes which could not be paid without a cash income - which in turn could only be obtained by participating in the settler economy; and by other administrative

means. The scale of the dispossession has been enormous. It is reflected in laws which together designated 13.7 per cent of the whole country for Africans, and the rest, nearly 87 per cent, for the white minority (apart from a very small amount designated to black people other than Africans). The African areas consisted of fragments scattered throughout the country, and these, the 'reserves', later became the basis of the Bantustan system.

The second outstanding feature of South Africa's industrialisation was the utilisation of migrant labour, originally almost entirely male, controlled by the pass law system. The vast majority of African women were left outside the industrial labour market, while male migrants served a period of contract labour away from their homes for most of the year, with women, children, old and disabled people subsisting on small pieces of land in the bantustans. The result has been an extreme form of exploitation of both migrants and their families. By leaving the workers' families on the land it was possible to pay lower wages and avoid having to build houses and supply those services that are essential to maintain urban populations and ensure the reproduction of the labour force. It was assumed that the women would feed their families off the produce of the land (Bernstein, 1985:4).

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The employer could obtain a labour supply at less than the wage necessary to maintain the worker's family, while ensuring the continued supply of labour through annual leave periods which allowed the conception of children. From the beginning of industrialisation, therefore, African women were relegated to a position which had ever-spreading disadvantages. They were to fulfill their traditional role as bearers of children; they were to work on the land to supplement the low wages of the male migrants (only now they had to perform both their own tasks and those of the absent men). And they were to be denied the gradual access to paid employment that would normally have provided them with a new status in a changing society (Bernstein, 1985:6). From this explanation one may gain an idea of how women were treated in the olden days under during the apartheid regime. There was no equality at all, one group was treated as distinct from another group, and these would feel inferior or superior among themselves.

These conditions have now disappeared. For several decades the bantustans mere no longer able to support their populations, even at subsistence levels. The policies of apartheid caused a growing decline in the capacity of the Bantustan areas to produce enough to feed the population there. Enforced removals of people into the bantustans led to a massive rise in their population. Black agriculture was starved of investment funds. At the same time government policies, in various ways, further restricted land for cultivation to an even smaller proportion of the population in the bantustans: as a result, two-thirds of that population has become landless. Thanks to amendments to some acts, some people are able now to return to their land or to be compensated for the land they lost then, and Thoko Didiza (Minister of Land and Environment) has done a tremendous job to ensure that it is done properly.

The breakdown of rural life could not lead to the profound changes in social structures that would normally have followed a shift from a subsistence-based economy, because of the laws of apartheid, and because of the way in which colonial administrators perpetuated certain customs long after type of life that gave rise to them had been lost. These customs maintained and reinforced the subjugation of women in many ways. But the most devastating aspect of apartheid was the programme of mass removals, the uprooting and relocation of people through forced evictions in order to achieve a territorial segregation of the population according to the policies of apartheid. One of the principal means by which this policy of relocating and controlling populations was enforced was the pass law system, a key instrument of apartheid, and one of the main factors in the oppression of women (Bernstein, 1985:7).

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It was through the operation of the pass laws and other instruments of apartheid that human beings become units to be shifted around a changing map of South Africa with total disregard of families, communities, homes and employment. In those times these were in different parts of the world there have been large-scale emigrations and movements of populations caused primarily due to war, conflict or famine. But not since the era of the slave trade have such huge numbers of people been forcibly taken from homes and land, forcibly removed, and 'relocated', against their will. The apartheid regime may claim the unique distinction of being the only ruling power then that was

deliberately dismembering a unified country into separate different strands in a already consolidated by industrial development (Ibid: 8). South Africa was cut into pieces that were reassembled to suit the ideology and economy of apartheid. The cost in mass human suffering was appalling and the divisions created were to leave deep scars.

Yet in South Africa it was not the differences between groups of people that were crucial; it was the fact that regardless of all apartheid laws, they shared the same country, were integrated into its industrial apparatus and conned truly be separated without destroying the way of life that the whites wished to keep for themselves. The advance of industrialisation brought about a process of assimilation that could be abrogated. Under the impact of urban conditions, blacks and whites increasingly share the same culture, a unique culture arising from the mingling of contributions from many different origins.

The strongest impulses in South African society were towards national integration. Hence the lavish barriers of apartheid legislation to divide people. It is from this complicated mix of custom and law that women's conditions should be understood. The range of conditions was enormous, from the desolation of the bantustans where many women lived in extreme poverty and near-starvation to the luxurious suburban areas of the towns where white women were encased in splendidly appointed homes (Bernstein, 1985:9). South African women, black and white, lived in a society that was not only racialist, but also deeply sexist. The racialism and sexism were intertwined. Sexism in South Africa was not only revealed in cultural attitudes, but was also embedded in the law. White women, who share the right to vote with white men, had access to higher education and lived in physically well-endowed conditions, also live in this sexist, male-dominated society. Women were absent from the organs of decision-making and control in politics, in the economy and in the armed forces (Ibid: 10).

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However, the range and potency of these disabilities vary greatly between the different 'population groups', and the system of apartheid under which they lived exercised decisive control over the direction of all their lives. Despite their disadvantages relative to white men (familiar to women in many countries), most white women supported or actively helped to perpetuate the apartheid system which gave them privileges and

benefits at the expense of the black majority. The majority of women, that is black, women and more specifically African women, suffer first and foremost because they were black: ethnicity contributed much to their sufferings. Black women's specific disabilities, whether arising from social custom, cultural indoctrination or legal barriers, could not be separated from the overall system of apartheid.

Black women in South Africa suffer from a three-fold oppression: as blacks (ethnic group); as women (gender); and as workers in constituting a reserve army of labour. The three strands are interlaced. Black women could not change the immediate conditions of their lives without fighting against the restrictions on, for example, free movement or access to education, both of which were controlled by apartheid laws. To fight male domination they needed to fight the basis on which the bantustans were established, in fact to fight the whole balkanization of their country. To maintain family life, they had to enter the field as protagonists against migratory labour and the pass laws. It is for these reasons that this dissertation concentrates mainly on women's, resistance to change as outcome of new laws, cultural influence and diversity for women are both the majority and at the same time the most oppressed in South Africa, http://www.anc.org.za/books/triumphs.html#Intro-08/03/2006

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2.2 Women at work

2.2.1 Overview

The picture of women in work in South Africa is a changing one. Women constituted 33 per cent of the total workforce by 1980, as compared with 23 per cent in 1960, according to official figures for employment. But while the proportion of women in the workforce is increasing, and while there are shifts in the main sectors in which they work, the effects of the apartheid system are always present The main sectors in which women work are services (primarily as domestic servants), agriculture and, increasingly, manufacturing. (The official figures for the percentage of the female workforce in these three sectors were 40, 11 and 13 per cent respectively). For black women, and in particular African women, who are the majority, domestic service and agriculture are the main sectors of

work, followed by manufacturing sector. Professional work, mainly teaching and nursing, forms a smaller but significant sector (Bernstein, 1985:16).

A high proportion of those employed in occupations other than agriculture and domestic service are in jobs connected with the world of domestic needs; in food processing or canning works; in garment manufacturing and laundry, and among professional workers, in nursing and teaching. Service categories such as office and shop cleaning, laundry work, cooking, waitressing, tea and kitchen work, and messenger services absorb an extremely large number of women. Since the mid - 1970s women have moved rapidly into these service jobs. In 1973, 62,468 African women and 21,612 Coloured women were employed in these jobs. By 1981 the figures were, respectively, 112,024 and 32,730.

Official statistics are not accurate. The inadequacy of census figures is compounded by the fact that they cannot encompass women who work illegally, nor do they include a significant number of women who work in what is called the informal sector - mostly selling small quantities of food and second - hand goods, and doing home sewing (Bernstein, 1985:17). The number of women working illegally must be high. The difference between the number of men and women working as migrant labourers is stark. The total number of migrants estimated in 1975 was 1.75m, 393,000 of them being of foreign extraction migrants. Of the remainder most came from the Bantustan areas, less from other rural areas.

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Table 2.2.1 Migrants from rural Bantustan areas and from other areas

	From rural Bantustan areas	*From other rural areas*
Men	1,030,000	67,000
Women	147,000	113,000

Source: http://www.anc.org.za/books/triumphs_part3.html-08/03/2006.

It is believed that the estimated figure of 1.75m amounts to only 80 per cent of the actual migrant workforce. Another 20 per cent were illegal migrants. It is safe to assume that the greatest part of the illegal migrants were women (Bernstein, 1985:18). Reprisals against those employing illegal workers were increased at the end of 1979 by the imposition of a fine of R500 on the employer. Domestic workers were most affected by this regulation. Whereas in the past an employer would be prepared to turn a blind eye to employing a domestic without the proper permits, a fine of R500 was too much in view of the wages being in the vicinity of R360 a year. Those women unable to register and unable to find an employer who would risk the fine, faced being abruptly 'endorsed out'.

The difficulties of working illegally were exacerbated partly by these harshe measures as well as by the constant increase in control over the movements and lives of all black workers; but also by a dramatic increase in unemployment in the South African economy, which looked to be permanent. Estimates of unemployment amongst Africans in 1980 ranged from one in four to one in three. South Africa is moving from labour - intensive to more capital - intensive production in both industry and agriculture; money is being invested in machines, and the effects on employment of changing labour processes and methods of production are worse for women than for men. As in other countries, the persistence of the ideology of home - based women conceals both their under - employment and their unemployment (Bernstein, 1985:19).

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Women fortunate enough to have legal employment were still confronted with discrimination of various kinds. This chapter discusses the situation of women, principally African women, working in the main sectors of female employment in domestic service, agriculture, the manufacturing industry and the professions.

2.2.2 Agricultural Labour

Agricultural work, whether as subsistence farmer or as casual or permanent employee, is one of the main forms of labour for women in South Africa, in particular African women. Women have always been agriculturists in Africa, involved in subsistence agriculture since pre - colonial days, and responsible for most of the agricultural work. Apartheid in

South Africa has distorted traditional village life even more than the intrusion of colonialism in other parts of the continent. It has become impossible to subsist off the land. Land hunger, the chronically non - arable state of the land, the absence of a large number of men during their economically active years (the men were responsible for the heavy work, hut - building, ploughing), the heavy taxation, the spiraling impoverishment - all these contribute to forcing women off the land in increasing numbers to seek work where they can on white - owned farms (Bernstein, 1985:20).

Women, black and white, make up a quarter of the total full - time farm labourers on farms in the Western Cape. White women are mainly employed by farmers in a clerical capacity. Coloured women have become full - time farm labourers on the Western Cape fruit and wine farms, replacing the traditional male labour force. On some farms there was, in 1983, one man to 12 women. The Western Cape is representative of the whole country in this respect: according to government statistics published in 1984 a quarter of the people employed in farming, forestry and fishing were women (Ibid:21).

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Agriculture plays a major role in the economy and, with the exception of gold this sector brings in more export earnings than any other. It is extremely dependent on hired African labour. Until a few years ago much of this took the form of labour tenancies. The tenants worked for the farmers for part of the year at abysmally low wages, but were able to keep a few livestock and cultivate a small plot of land. The policy of forced removals coupled with changes in the methods of large - scale farming has been devastating for the labour tenant families generally, but particularly so for women. They are not only deprived of access to land, but also of the domestic employment that supplemented their living on the farms. The only skills these women possess are those related to agriculture or domestic service, often not available to them as a legal option because it because increasingly difficult for them to register themselves. More and more farmers resorted the more profitable use of migrant, seasonal labour, obviating the necessity of providing housing and land for their workers. Women come to constitute the majority of casual workers on farms, often travelling long distances in order to work (Bernstein, 1985:22).

To qualify as migrant workers in 'white' areas, women had to register at the local labour bureau; and if, as frequently happend, they were classified as farm workers they would remain so for the rest of their lives, making it impossible for them to find other, better paid employment. Farm labourers received extremely low wages. A government survey in 1981 reported an average wage of R25 to R35 in most regions. As in other categories, women were paid lower wages than men. Farmers often prefered to hire women for this reason, and also because they often had to bring their children with them for whom there was no alternative child care, providing the farmer with extra unpaid labour. Because of their inability to get legal work, women were still more susceptible to illegal and low-paid employment (Ibid: 23).

2.2.3 Domestic Work

Domestic service is the largest sector of paid employment for women in South Africa. A quarter of all employed women in 1980 were domestic servants, according to the official census nearly three - quarters of a million women. Of these almost all were black and the bulk (86 per cent) was African (Ibid: 24). Domestic workers, states Jacklyn Cock in Maids and Madams, were situated at the convergence of three lines along which social inequality is generated: sex, class and racial division. Nowhere else was it possible to find such clear examples of how the racial and sexual factors facilitate and intensify exploitation. The extreme exploitability of women was personified in the domestic servant.

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The ideology of a 'woman's place' identifies the domestic sphere of wives and mothers as the 'natural' place for women, and their primary occupation, even if they have other work outside the home. Married women were to be regarded as dependants of their husbands even when economic circumstances changed the way society operates. Children are identified by the husband's surname, and without it they are 'illegitimate'. The black domestic servant fulfils the classic female functions of housewife, cook, cleaner, nursemaid, but not in her own home, for the advantage of her husband, or her own children. She cannot even claim the satisfaction of creating a centre of family love and care as do housewives in other countries. It was the furthest to which the false concept of

'family' could go, and it was done within the context of extreme exploitation of black women (Bernstein, 1985:27).

Domestic service was an important part of the economic and racial structures of South African society. Black women perform their roles on two levels, and in a double sense. They remain responsible for the domestic functions within their own households, and at the same time perform these functions within white households. The domestic responsibilities of white women became the responsibility of the subordinate black women. Black mothers rear surrogate children. They were separated from their own by the laws of apartheid, while white children had both white and black mothers. Together with certain other categories (such as agricultural workers) domestic workers were excluded from such protective legislation as does exist (Bernstein, 1985:146).

The Labour Relations Act allowed for some organised consultation with employers, but specifically excluded farm workers and domestic workers in private households. The Industrial Conciliation Act, governing relations between employers and employees, wage agreements and conditions, did not apply to domestic workers, nor does the Wages Act, which recommended minimum wages for various categories. The Unemployment Insurance Act exclude domestic workers, as well as home workers who are employed for less than one day a week. The Workmen's Compensation Act excludes domestic workers and casual employees from reimbursement for injury or disease. None of these acts were particularly effective in championing workers' rights, but the important fact was that the excluded categories were regarded as being marginal to the labour force and have no recourse whatsoever to a limited form of protection. Many domestic servants live on their employers' premises, another indication that conventional family life was is whites only.

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Jacklyn Cock undertook a study of 175 domestic servants and 50 employers in 1978 in an area near Grahamstown in the Eastern Cape. The sample was a small one, but the author states that there was no reason to suppose it was unrepresentative. Almost three-quarters of the full-time domestics earned below R30 a month. The average wage was R22.77. The wages were among the lowest of any in South Africa. The highest wage was R60, earned by only one worker. In 1984 wages for domestic workers in Cape Town were

reported as being often between R80 and R125 per month. A meeting of the South African Domestic Workers was told in 1984 that some domestic workers in the Orange Free State were being paid as little as R20 per month (Bernstein, 1985:166).

Of the women in Jacklyn Cock's study 99.9 per cent of domestic workers worked more than a 48 - hour week; seven workers in the survey worked more than 80 hours. Almost a third worked a seven-day week; having a day off per week was considered a highly-prized advantage in a job. One mother of three small children was able to visit them once a month on her day off. Not only did domestic workers work far longer hours than other workers, but they also received less paid leave. The majority had to work on public holidays; a considerable number had no annual holiday. Thirty-four per cent were given one week's holiday a year or less. Less than one-third spent the whole of Christmas day with their families.

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All the workers had children. In over half the sample the domestic worker was the sole breadwinner and support for her family. Of the 78 per cent who had been married, only 48 per cent were still married, the others having been widowed, divorced or deserted. The deprivation of family life is severe, and the conditions of life of the domestic worker are an important factor in marriage breakdown. Women who are 'living - in' may not have their husbands stay over even for one night, although the room occupied by the domestic is either separated from the house, or if attached, has a separate entrance. Those who did so illegally ran the risk of being caught in police raids on servants' quarters. Even in situations where both husband and wife were domestic workers within the same area, and their respective employers were agreeable, *it was against the law for the couple to live together*. There were no extenuating circumstances, and the vicious operation of the system was illustrated by this letter written by an employer to a newspaper describing a visit of two policemen to a private house: "The reason for their visit . . . was that we were accommodating an additional African, the maid's three - year old boy, without a license. The maid explained that the boy normally spent the day with friends while she was at work, but for two days while they were away, she had been forced to bring him with her. He had not slept on the premises and would return each night to the location. This was

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apparently not legally permitted without the boy having a license to be with his mother. Under these circumstances my maid was duly fined R10."

To ensure that employers did not close their eyes to the illegal spouse in the back room, a government proclamation made the employer subject to conviction and fine, as well as the employee, should a domestic worker's husband or children be found with her overnight. Over 50 per cent of the full - time domestic workers in Jacklyn Cock's study began work between 6.00 and 7.00 a.m., a further 43 per cent began between 8.00 and 9.00 a.m. Fifty - two per cent stopped work after 5.00 p.m., with close on 20 per cent stopping work after 9.00 p.m. This did not include those nights when the employer entertained. The average work - week was 61 hours. The long hours made any social life virtually impossible. The women interviewed keenly felt their low status and the image most frequently used to describe their situation was that of slaves - *amakhoboka.* They are trapped in a condition of subjugation and immobility within which they are subject to intensive exploitation.

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The domestic worker does not endorse her subordination but she recognises her powerlessness. In the work place, the disparity in income and lifestyle between worker and employer was highly visible. Black women employed as domestic servants experience apartheid in a peculiarly humiliating way. A black woman looking after a white child at the seaside may take off her shoes and enter the sea to care for the little one, but she is prohibited from bathing there herself. Black women may take their small charges upstairs on the whites' buses, but may not travel on those same buses if not accompanying a white child (Bernstein, 1985:166). A major part of domestic work in South Africa is washing and ironing, both for full - time servants and for part - time washerwomen. The washerwoman created for her employers, that 'ideal' domestic environment demanded by whites; the immaculately washed, pressed and folded clothes. In the house, the domestic servant lives daily with a multiplicity of expensive consumer items - furniture, clothes, carpets, electrical appliances, and with the large - scale purchase of food and materials; yet all these must be disassociated in her own mind from any conception of her own needs in her own home. After a day of standing at the ironing board, or fulfilling the multiple functions of a home - maker, she may take her swollen

feet to her backyard room, or to the crowded township. But the pleasant home she has helped create belongs to someone else (Ibid: 177).

White children and many black children learn their place in the structures of apartheid society through the institution of domestic service. White children assimilate racial attitudes through their parents' treatment of black servants - an example constantly demonstrated within the home from babyhood. For black children, the lessons are different. Lilian Ngoyi, who became president of the Federation of South African Women, described how she was haunted by the memory of going to deliver washing for her mother to a white family, who refused to let her and her baby brother into the house: 'Why should an African child not get into this woman's house, and is there a dog in the house?'

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2.2.4 White Women at Home

Black women relieve white women of the monotony and responsibility of domestic work, freeing them to pursue other interests. White women can enrich their lives, economically or socially. They may enter wage employment (34 per cent) mainly as skilled and service workers in commerce and industry. They earn salaries many times as high as that paid to their domestic staff, enabling them to expand their role as consumers (Bernstein, 1985:16).

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Most white women in South Africa lead expansive social lives. They are freed from the isolation that marks the mother of young children in the nuclear family of the Western world. They play a lot of sport - bridge, tennis, golf, bowls and swimming. They have many hobbies, largely centering on home and garden, and they entertain frequently. Visitors to South Africa always comment on the free - flowing hospitality they receive, rarely thinking that this is only made possible through the exploitation, economically and socially, of black labour.

But many are unable to utilise their freedom constructively and dissipate it in a round of trivial social activities. After parturition many seem to become redundant, childbirth being the one duty they cannot delegate to the black women. They are not essential for

the smooth running of their homes; they delegate the care of their children to the black 'nanny'; and their role as consumer and displayer of their husbands' wealth becomes pivotal. The size, grandeur and decoration of shopping centres in the suburbs of large cities bear testimony to this. Many white women, writes Jacklyn Cock, are the victims of a peculiarly dehumanizing type of sexual domination (Bernstein, 1985:16).

The notion of female inferiority and dependence has been deeply internalised by many women. This 'cultural colonisation' renders them open to manipulation in a variety of ways. In the sexist stereotype femininity implies a high level of concern with personal adornment. This is manipulated by the advertising industry to promote endless consumption (Bernstein, 1985:26). Cock goes on to state that attributes of femininity - helplessness and delicacy - can only apply to a comparatively small number of women resting on the 'unladylike' activity of others.

Olive Schreiner termed this 'the phenomenon of female parasitism'. Behind the phenomenon of female parasitism has always lain another and yet larger social phenomenon; it has invariably been preceded by the subjugation of large bodies of other human creatures. Without slaves or subject classes to perform the crude, physical labours of life and produce superfluous wealth, past parasitism of the female would have been impossibility (Bernstein, 1985:27).

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But some of the freedom from children and home was then harnessed to combat the threat, increasingly posed as the liberation struggle gathered momentum, on this whole way of life. Many white housewives were trained to handle weapons and partake in civil defence.

2.2.5 Domestic Worker's Self Image

Viewed from outside, domestic workers appear to be deferential as well as completely powerless. Yet, despite their isolation, their work conditions are a form of education; their deference is superficial, a way of coping with their situation, and conceals their true feelings. They have strong perceptions of themselves as women. Only a small proportion of Cock's sample, 16 per cent, thought that women are generally inferior to men in their

personal qualities. Many seemed to have a sense of personal superiority to men. The examples cited by Cock include these: 'We are the same; the problem is that we are women. Otherwise I have more power than my husband. Once he gets into difficulties at home, he gives up.' 'We are more capable than men. Men can't face problems. They think it's the end of the world.' 'We are equal but my husband couldn't manage without me (Bernstein, 1985:28).

Many of those interviewed expressed deep resentment against their wages and their treatment. Cock states: Compared to their white, mainly middle - class employers, these women have a much greater 'feminist consciousness' or insight into discrimination against women. The widespread disruption of family life that the system of migrant labour entails has resulted in the burden of family responsibilities being placed upon black women. Their sense of grievance against what they see as black men's irresponsibility, particularly their drinking habits and secrecy about their incomes, came through very strongly. But their indignation about discrimination against women is clearly overshadowed by their consciousness of discrimination against blacks (Bernstein, 1985:29).

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2.3 Women in the democratic era

Large numbers of women have over the years entered the male dominated workplace, mainly due to societal, technological, political, organisational and legal changes. South Africa's economy can no longer function effectively without the contributions made by women. They accept the challenge of moving up the corporate ladder in order to meet the existing person power needs. Whilst some women have moved into managerial positions, others are experiencing barriers in reaching higher positions of authority and power. Some of the reasons why women are experiencing barriers include home commitments, lack of managerial training and restrictive organisational traditions and cultures (Fontyn, 2002, Van Rooyen, 1989:6-19).

According to Erwee (1989:5), companies advanced very little on the road to gender equalizing employment during the eighties. This implies that a change in structure,

culture and operations had to be undertaken by business to address the situation. This change posed a great risk to business since many did not see investment in women's careers as viable as they adhered to the conventional wisdom that there is a greater turnover among female employees, despite evidence to the contrary.

Over the past decade or more, South African society has been experiencing widespread and fundamental transformation. De Bruyn and Kruger (2002:29) refer to the period in South Africa's history since 1990 as a period in which structural changes in the economic, technological, institutional, social, political, physical and international environments are occurring much faster than ever before. Change has therefore become an integral part of organizational life in South Africa, and its management one of the primary functions of an organisation's leadership (Draft, 1999; Georgiades & Macdonell, 1998).

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A typical problem encountered by organizational change initiatives, is resistance to change on the part of employees, as revealed by the statistics or ratios mentioned by the President of this country, Thabo Mbeki, in a women's rally that was held on 10 August 2005 at Hlogo Tlou stadium in the district of Limpopo. He mentioned that in government, most provinces had reached a representation of thirty (30) percent by women in provincial cabinet and legislatures, while the national cabinets had reached a figure of fourty five (45) percent representation by women, www.southafrica.info/doingbusiness/trebnds/women/Mbekiwomensday1008.htm /09/03/2006.The President did not give any statistics pertaining to the private sector. According to the survey by accounting and consulting firm Grant Thornton, as cited in the website www.southafrica.info/ess-info/sa-glance/social-delivery/update/population-day-120705.htm/09/03/2006, South Africa has the third (3rd) highest proportion of companies employing women as senior managers, and the eighth- highest proportion of women in senior management posts. The latest findings from the annual Grant Thornton International Business Owners Survey reveal that seventy five (75) percent of businesses in South Africa employ women in senior management positions, in contrast to the global average of fifty nine (59) percent giving South Africa the third –highest proportion of

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companies employing women as senior managers. The survey also reveals that twenty six (26) percent of total senior management posts in South Africa are filled by women, beating the global average by seven (7) percent and placing South Africa eighth in the world. Leonard Brehm, Grant Thornton's National Chairman, said that "the survey results were indicative of progress made by women during our ten years of democracy, but cautioned – there is still a long way to go".

While six of the ten companies surveyed internationally included at least one woman in a senior management position, remarkably few women have penetrated the overall ranks of senior managers: internationally women occupy less than a fifth (19%) of senior management posts available. Internationally, the survey found Russia has the highest proportion (89%) of companies where women occupy a management role, followed by the Phillipines (85%). Both the United States and Mexico are on a par with South Africa at seventy five (75) percent. Bottom of the pack are the Netherlands and Pakistan (27%0, Japan (29%) and Germany (33%).

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According to the survey, Russia is the only country to approach full gender parity, with fourty two (42) percent of management posts held by women, followed by the Phillipines at thirty nine (39) percent. "It is striking in the United States, for example, that although seventy five (75) percent of businesses employ women in senior management positions, women only hold twenty (20) percent of total senior jobs" Grant Thornton said in a statement.

At the other end of the scale, Japan and the Netherlands have the lowest results on both counts. In Japan a mere eight (8) percent of senior management are women, whereas in the Netherlands the figure is marginally better at nine (9) percent. From these statistics it is clear that there are barriers that affect the promotion of women into top management positions , they are the following:

- ✓ Parenting and domestic pressures (Fontyn, 2002).
- ✓ Prejudiced organizational cultures (Copeland, 2002).

- ✓ Organisations lack gender equity plans (The Forgotten Equity (2002).
- ✓ Lack of managerial training particularly the lack of encouragement from employers to do MBA's (Breaking the Glass Ceilings (2003).
- ✓ Difficulties in creating networks in a male dc environment (for example missing out on meetings held on the go he pub (Fontyn, 2003).
- ✓ Competition from other working wome 1998:31).
- ✓ Women's lack of self confidence and self belief (Fontyn, 2003).
- ✓ Lack of female role models (Copeland, 2002).
- ✓ Sexual Harassment (Breaking the Glass Ceilings, 2000; The Forgotten Equity, 2002).

In terms of organisational culture, women often feel that they need to be twice as good as men to be considered effective employees by their managers. Human & Horrowitz (1992:20) said that some managers believe that women and certain cultural groups are less capable than others, and that social discrimination is practiced in organisations even if formal policies and procedures are laid down to prevent it. This is confirmed by a study of Tsoka (1998) that indicates many traditional stereotypes are still present in the South African business world.

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Goy (1993: 27) states that women communicate better than men and moreover they care for their employees, therefore they are capable of being managers as they bring skills they have acquired in managing the home and bringing up a family to the business forum. It is a common belief that women are generally associated with certain natural abilities and that they perform efficiently in those roles related to domesticity. Studies have also shown that women are better mentors as they focus on relationships, feelings and intuition (Lew- kiedrowski, 2001). Sadly few men appreciate softer qualities, and they often perceive them as a weakness (Bennet, 2001:1).

2. 4 South African women: changing career patterns

Although South African managerial women are advancing slowly up the corporate career ladder, many other women are also moving into nontraditional careers such as entrepreneurship. This career advancement is enhanced by the elimination of discriminatory clauses regarding race and sex in labour legislation and a greater willingness of companies to invest in their female human resources. By establishing multiracial women's groups, women are working together to abolish societal and organizational barriers to career growth and to enhance women's quality of life, Ronel Erwee cited in Adler and Izraeli (1989:213).

Despite the fact that the economy of South Africa is the strongest of all African countries, it is currently facing a severe recession. One of the factors contributing to the recession is the relatively low level of productivity. Three reasons for this relatively low productivity can be mentioned:

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- lack of a "productivity consciousness" in South Africa,
- insufficient education and training of the total population,
- and inadequate management skills.

The last factor, inadequate management skills, is of particular relevance to this research since women are entering the labour market and especially in male dominated positions, that involve strategic decision making. Since women are not used to these positions, training with regard to management skills will be of the essence to them in adjusting to the new environment, not implying that other factors are not important for them. South Africa urgently needs to continue developing an adequate supply of high quality managerial talent in order to survive recession. Unfortunately, the country is also suffering from a critical shortage of high- level manpower.

The manpower problems are exacerbated by the racial division of the society. The white minority, which has the economic and political power, constitutes only seventeen percent of the population, yet the majority of executives are whites hence the need for the application of Gender Equity and Affirmative Action Acts. There is, however, growing

recognition among companies that men and women of all races must be trained to provide a cadre of future executives. To this end, companies are allocating significant funds to training potential managers of all races, and are encouraged in these efforts by generous government concessions. Companies complain that too little new managerial talent has emerged from their training efforts- particularly among black managers, (Adler & Izraeli, 1989:214). Despite the increase in employment of women during the past decade, companies claim that there is a lack of encouragement, and adequate career guidance. This is supported by analysis of employment trends, barriers to managerial advancement and cultural and societal problems.

2.4.1 Employment trends

There has been a significant increase in the employment rate of women in South Africa. In 1960, percent of women were in the labour force; by 1980, the proportion has grown to thirty three (33) percent. Participation rates vary according to racial group. It is currently thirty two (32) percent for black, thirty eight (38) percent for colored, twenty six (26) percent for Asian, and thirty three (33) percent for white women (Adler & Izraeli 1989:2140). Participation rates for women show certain trends, which are linked to the women's age groups. Participation rates are highest (22 percent) for women in the 20-25 year age group and decline to 14 percent for the age group 25- 35. A gradual increase in participation (11 percent) occurs after the age of 35 as women return to the workforce after their childbearing years.

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According to Van der Walt as cited in Adler & Izraeli (1989:214), 55 percent of all working women in South Africa are engaged in four traditionally female occupations: nursing, teaching, clerical and sales work. Ninety –four percent of all nursing staff are women; and fourty eight (48) percent of teaching, fifty six (56) percent of clerical, and fourty five (45) percent of sales positions are occupied by women. The remaining fourty five (45) percent of women workers are spread over the remaining occupational categories, e.g. the various professions, all industry and agriculture related occupations, other service occupations , etc. Whereas white women have reached a "saturation point'

in traditional female occupations, there is still room for improvement within the traditional categories for colored and for asian women. Black women still have much scope for moving into the traditional careers, as approximately eighty (80) percent were employed as agricultural workers or domestic servants in 1980.

In recent years the proportion of women has increased significantly in the following fields/areas; sciences (1965- 4.8 percent; 1981- 15.9 percent); physicians, dentists, and veterinians (1965- 3.8 percent; 1981- 8.8 percent); paramedical careers (1965- 32.9 percent;1981-47.2 percent); legal careers (1965- 2.2 percent ; 1981- 8.26 percent); other professions, e.g. , psychologist, economist (1965-14.4 percent ; 1981- 23.2 percent); and management and related careers (1965- 8.3 percent; 1981- 13.8 percent), (Adler &Izraeli 1989:215).

By 1981, fifty six (56) percent of white women and four (4) percent, thirteen (13) percent, and five (5) percent of colored, asian, and black women, respectively, had attained more than high- school education; but despite their educational achievements, women do not enter high- level occupations to the extent that their scholastic training would have one expect. Women who embark on a managerial career are less likely than men to obtain further relevant academic qualifications.

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2.4.2 Barriers to managerial advancement

Women managers worldwide face a host of problems. Many of the problems reported for American women managers are common to South African women managers of all races. To illustrate this let us look and identify certain salient issues that characterise the South African society as outline by Adler and Izraeli, (1989:215-220).

2.4.2.1 Cultural and societal problems

Until recently, a major barrier to women's advancement was the status of married women as legal minors. This situation has largely been rectified for white, colored, and Asian women with the passing of the Matrimonial Property Act in 1984. One of the most important provisions of the Act abolishes the husband's control over his wife's right to negotiate and undertake contractual agreements and therefore endows her with full contractual capacity. This provision does not apply to black women who are still subject to traditional laws.

According to African tribal tradition, black women are regarded as subordinate to men regardless of their age or educational status. This implies that a woman has to obtain written permission from a male (her father, husband, son, brother – in law, or other relative) if she wishes to enter employment, (Adler & Izraeli, 1989: 216). It is likely that tradition will remain a powerful barrier for Asian women as well. Permission and approval of fathers, husbands, or other male guardians is still necessary for an Indian woman "to step outside the family for any reason". It is hardly surprising, therefore, that women are conspicuous by their absence among the executives of welfare, educational, political, and labour organisations. Even if a black woman gains access to a managerial career, like her male counterpart, she faces additional problems.

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These problems are not unique to South Africa, but are generalisable to anyone with a black skin who attempts to function in a white world. The black, colored, or Asian woman aspiring to a managerial career may very likely anticipate experiencing similar status dilemmas and contradictions. A problem working mothers in South Africa face is the acute short age of crèches and day care facilities. Very few companies make day-care facilities available to women; the facilities that do exist are provided primarily by local communities and government agencies.

Black women, in particular, face great hardships. In the traditional extended family system that operated in black society, care of relatives children was considered part of

any family's responsibilities, but the extended family system has disintegrated in urban communities. In the Asian community the extended family system is still operative to some extent. White women have access to relatively more crèches than the others and, moreover, can employ black domestic workers, so can other career women (Adler and Izraeli, 1989:215-220).

2.4.2.2 The psychological impact of cultural norms

In South Africa's culture (as in most other cultures), the traditional female roles are still highly regarded, and such qualities as subservience, supportiveness, and submissiveness meet with approval. Career women therefore often face a conflict since the qualities that make them "acceptable" in traditional terms can undermine their self confidence and their ability to assert themselves, to assume responsibility and to succeed in a career.

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Once a woman starts climbing the corporate ladder, new problems often emerge. Prekel found that professional women tended to keep on trying to prove themselves and to become too task oriented, appeared aloof and abrupt to co-workers, did not listen effectively, and often " overcommunicated" in trying to prove their point, as stated in Adler and Izraeli (1989: 217). The fact that women in South African companies constitute only a small minority of the managers and have relatively less power and few promotion opportunities may explain some of the dynamics surrounding their roles and the difficulties they experience.

2.4.2.3 Employment legislation

A study group on women in employment made an intensive survey, in 1978, of labour legislation that contained clauses discriminating against women workers. As a result of prolonged lobbying, a number of bills were amended in 1983. The Manpower Training Amendment Bill prohibits employer discrimination in all aspects of training. The Wage Act Amendment Bill has made discrimination against women in wage agreements illegal. The Conditions of Employment Bill lifted a long standing ban on women's working

nights and overtime. The aim of the Labour Relations Amendment Bill is to provide more stable working conditions and greater protection to workers and to eliminate existing discriminatory clauses (Adler and Izraeli, 1989:218).

The Wiehan Commission's investigation of South African trade unions led to the Labour Relations Act, which legalizes black trade unions. As a result, the black trade union movement has grown considerably, but only a few black women have become leaders in this area. Black women trade unionists are especially dominant in the retail, clothing, chemical, engineering and food industries.

2.4.2.4 Employment policies

Women have become men's legal equals in the workplace during the past few years. The positive changes in legislation are, however, not always implemented by employers. Some employers still practice discrimination, e.g. in relation to pensions and medical benefits (Ibid: 219).

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2. 5 Women in Management worldwide

One of the richest underutilized resources in South Africa is the talent of its women. And this nation has for many years squandered this talent in a shameful fashion (Adler and Izraeli, 1989:3). Although women constitute over fifty percent of the world's population, in no country do they represent half, or even close to half, of the corporate managers. In dealing with this issue, some underlying assumptions have been identified.

2. 5.1 Fundamental assumptions

In reviewing the situation female manager face across a wide range of countries, one can clearly see that many of the constraints are quite ubiquitous: nevertheless, the relative importance of each varies markedly from society to society. Both the possibility for increased representation and impact of women in management and the selection of

potentially more effective strategies to bring about such change depend fundamentally on each culture's perception of the dominant constraints (Adler and Izraeli, 1989:5).

Although generally implicit, and underlying each of the nation based explanations, one of two fundamentally different assumptions about the ideal role of women in management is being made. The first defines an equity model based on assumed similarity, and the second defines a complementary contribution model based on assumed difference (Adler and Izraeli, 1989:5).

The equity model, which is based on assumed similarity, is most pervasive in the United States. In this model, women are assumed to be identical, as professionals, with men, and therefore equally capable of contributing in ways similar to those of men. From the perspective of this model, the primary question is one of access. Are women given the opportunity to demonstrate their competence? Primary change variables include legal requirements, e.g., affirmative action programs and the equal rights amendment in the United States and structural change i.e., avoiding tokenism, and training women in management skills traditionally neglected during their formal and informal education (Ibid:5).

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Given the emphasis on access (to the previously and currently male dominated management world), the process for women entering management becomes one of assimilation: women are expected to act, dress, and think like men who currently hold most desired management positions. Effectiveness is then, understandably, measured against male norms: "Can she do what he has been doing as well as he has been doing it?" The potential for women to make a unique, different, but equivalent contribution remains the logic of the equity model, and is therefore invisible.

The second model, most articulately expressed in Steen's description of Swedish managers, but pervasive throughout Europe and evident in many other areas of the world, is based on the assumption of difference, not similarity. In this complementary contribution model, men and women are assumed to differ and therefore to be capable of

making a different, but equally valuable, contribution to the organisations. Unlike in the equity model, fair treatment is assumed to be a question not of statistical representation, but rather of equivalent recognition of men's and women's different patterns and styles of contribution. From this second perspective, change strategies revolve around:-

- Identifying the unique contributions of men and women,
- Creating enabling conditions for both types of contribution to be made and rewarded within the organisation,
- Looking for synergy ways in which men's and women's contributions can be combined to form new and more powerful managerial processes and solutions to the organisation's problems.



Under this second set of assumptions, female managers are expected to act, dress, and think "like women" (Adler and Izraeli (1989:6). Their behavior, though similar in some ways to that of their male colleagues, differs in many important respects. In applying the two sets of models in the South African context, both models can be very useful and applicable, as they tend to overlap. Women in South Africa should be equally treated with males hence the application and amendment of certain legislation such as gender equity, affirmative action, and labour relations acts.

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Moreover, as the emphasis in this model is on similarity, this model fully concurs with the fact that individuals can contribute to the development of this country irrespective of gender, as long as one is a human and capable of performing up to set standard and rendering services in the industry or the country at large .The second model, the complementary contribution model, is also applicable to South Africa, as South Africa has a diverse workforce with different cultural groups. The identification of these differences is very vital, as people are unique, especially if the three highlighted strategies can be taken into considerations.

2.6 Accepting the challenges

Despite the barriers to managerial advancement, there are many forces in South African society and strengths within women that can assist them in overcoming obstacles. By identifying and using these forces constructively, a woman can advance in her managerial career and companies have to support this by ensuring that the following are considered and maintained, (Adler and Izraeli, 1989:220-224).

2.6.1 The social responsibility of companies

Organisations that have adopted a positive policy of nondiscrimination against women act as a constructive force for change. There are 400 United States multinational corporations operating in South Africa; of these, only 146 are signatories to the Sullivan Code, which aims to end racial discrimination in U.S. companies operating in South Africa. These 146 foreign multinationals are making a substantial and very direct contribution by providing employees with equal opportunities to secure quality education and community facilities, adequate housing, unrestricted union organisations, and the freedom to locate where jobs exist.

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2.6.2 Training managers

Many South African companies are in a position to invest time, money, and effort in the development of potential black managers, and to address problem of black advancement needs further attention. According to studies conducted ago black managers have indicated that their most important training needs are the development of cognitive skills and learning such management functions as planning, organizing, problem solving, and control. The research also indicates that the manager's task should be clearly defined and that he or she should be given a job or assignment that will allow him or her to develop the necessary managerial competences. Strategies such as those mentioned above may be common practice in the United States. In South Africa, however, many companies do not

currently employ such strategies, but are gradually changing their training policies for all managers, regardless of race or sex (Adler and Izraeli, 1989:220).

2. 6. 3 Creating mentors

Many South African companies are debating whether an official management – sponsored mentor system is applicable in their organisations. Nasser, Huma and Hofmeyer support the idea that a system in which potential managers are assigned to a mentor could be used in most South African organisations. Schimik has noted that the male model of mentorship does not appear to be totally suited to females, and that there is a dearth of female mentors in most (male dominated) organisations in South Africa, mainly because of the small number of women in senior management positions. Male managers are reluctant to serve as mentors for women because such a role is unfamiliar to them and, moreover, is often underrated as a personnel development technique (Ibid:221).

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The scarcity of mentors for female managers within organisations can, to some extent, be overcome by the use of role models in the broader South African society. Another trend that has emerged is for white women to become more aware of the plight of black women. This has led to the formation of groups such as the Women's Bureau of South Africa, Women for Peace, and the Women's Legal Status Committee. The members of such organisations work together across racial lines to promote cross - cultural understanding and to help identify and solve problems common to all women. These women believe that being a female transcends racial divisions. Several business and professional women clubs have organized seminars on career guidance and advancement in which women of all races share strategies for advancement in organisations.

2. 6. 4 Career workshops

Because of the growing career interests of women in their careers, the Women's Bureau of South Africa formed a Career Counseling Work Group, which develops:

- Training courses and workshops aimed at equipping women to meet the demands of higher level professional and managerial jobs and to develop entrepreneurial and industrial skills,
- Vocational and career counseling methods to meet the needs of women, and application of these methods within companies.

Women attending career workshops can be classified according to three groups:

- Young professional women (20-29 years) in the exploration phase of their careers;
- Older professional women (30- 39 years) aiming at higher- level posts;
- And senior women (age 35- 45) who are contemplating a second career.

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Each of these groups has unique career development needs that are accommodated in the work shops. The senior professional women often contemplate starting their own businesses, and special workshops on starting a business have been developed by the Women's Bureau of South Africa. This organisation is compiling a register of professional women working in offices at home as part of a nationwide Employment Creation Project (Adler and Izraeli, 1989:222).

2.7 Women in employment: obstacles and opportunities

Although South Africa faces a serious shortage of managerial skills, large numbers of women (mostly white) who possess such skills are not active in the labour market at all, (Innes, Kentridge and Perold (1993:195). At the same time, unskilled black women tend to find themselves at the bottom of the employment pile, concentrated in agriculture and domestic work. Antoinette Leresche, in his article about women in management, explores

the factors keeping skilled women out of employment and looks at what unskilled women can do to enhance their position.

It is widely acknowledged that South Africa is facing a crisis in management which is affecting productivity levels throughout industry and commerce. While it is ironic that a country can simultaneously face massive unemployment and a critical skills shortage, the problem is that South Africa has an oversupply of unskilled labour and a shortage of skilled, professional, and managerial workers. The extent of management skills can be demonstrated by comparing South Africa with other industrialised countries. As is clear from the Table below, South Africa has a very poor ratio of managers to subordinates.

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Table 2.2.2 **Ratio of managers to subordinates (1981)**

Japan	1:12
Australia	1:14
USA	1:16
South Africa	1:42

Source: (Bingham, 1986)

This ration can also be explained by looking at the following two factors, which are the South African labour market and the challenges of drawing women into the work force, to investigate why the ratio is the way it is. In dealing with these factors the following explanations surfaced.

2.7.1 The South African labour market

The chronic shortage of managers may in part be attributed to the impact of apartheid, which structured South Africa into a labour-intensive, low – productivity society. The concentration on extracting an abundance of raw materials with cheap, unskilled labour, and the conscious denial of adequate education to the majority of the South African population has culminated in the present skills crisis.

Recent estimates are that by the year 2000 there will be 210 000 management posts vacant, whilst only 42 000 skilled white South Africans will be available to fill these positions, this is not only inadequate in numerical terms but the trend towards affirmative action will put organizations under considerable pressure to fill the posts with black South Africans. Vacancies for technically skilled people will be in the region of 200 000 (Van der Meer, 1991), and similar considerations will prevail in filling them.

Manpower planners thus face the task of training and educating sufficient numbers of South Africans to address these imbalances. However, the challenge is formidable: one third of all black South Africans have no formal education, and eighty (80) percent have not been to high school. It is clear that for some time to come there will continue to be an oversupply of unskilled South Africans coming into the labour force, and an undersupply of managerially skilled South Africans.

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2.7.2 The challenge of drawing women into the work-force

Economic hardship as well as increased competition in the global arena has led companies to look more closely at improving productivity levels in managerial terms as well as at shop floor level. If the shortage of skilled workers in traditionally white male strongholds is to be alleviated, it is of prime importance that women are encouraged to participate more actively in the economy.

White South African women have by and large received the education necessary to offer the level of sophistication and skills required at managerial level, but encouraging them to enter the labour market would amount to no more than a short term measure. In the longer term, ways need to be found of drawing on all of South Africa's human potential, and this presents particular challenges with regard to drawing black and white women into South Africa' work force.

Many women thus no longer work purely by choice, but out of economic necessity; and yet women do not receive the same remuneration as their male counterparts: on average white female graduates in the public and private sectors earn less than fifty (50) percent of what their male counterparts earn for doing the same jobs. This raises a major obstacle which needs to be addressed if more women are to be encouraged to enter the job market.

Furthermore, if planners are to draw women into managerial positions throughout the private and public sectors, ways will need to be found to re-orienting them to new fields of work. At present eighty three (83) percent of skilled women are in traditional occupations such as teaching, nursing, and administration, but this is not where the shortages of skilled manpower are being experienced most accurately.

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2. 8 Women: key to unlocking Africa's economic development

According to Nene Molefi, the Managing Director of People Dynamics which is a journal for human resources, sees the concept of women in Africa as a growing phenomenon that should not be seen in isolation from principles for African leadership, (People Dynamics February 2005 Volume 23 No 2 :5). Contrary to popular thought, african leadership principles have always recognized and acknowledged the importance of the role of women in the socio- economic development of the continent, for example co –dependence, inclusivity and ubuntu. The continent itself presents challenges peculiar to its make – up, history, dynamics and circumstances.

She stresses that the underlying reason for writing this article was to revisit our past and demonstrate how real this concept is, as she strongly believes that the key to developing the economy of our continent is through the development of women. Over the years, women in Africa have demonstrated their economic survival skills in many ways. Though historically, in colonial Africa, women were excluded from the mainstream economy, many women in this continent have had to fend for their families without the immediate support of their spouses.

A case in point is the Migrant Labour System in South Africa. Men, who carried the traditional label of "head of the house" were forced to seek employment (far away from home) and remain employed the rest of their lives. This provided long term security for them despite the meager salaries they earned. The design of the Migrant Labour System was such that women who remained behind at the homestead, assumed the role of the provider which inadvertently forced them to look into their inner resources to complement the salaries of their spouses – nothwistanding the fact that the same salary also maintained the spouse's lifestyle in the cities.

This reality resulted in women having to develop an entrepreneurial spirit and its inherent risks. They became risk takers, an important quality for any business person of note. The little money they received was used as capital and if lost in a small business venture – that was the risk they had to contend with. Women were forced to assume multiple roles in the upkeep of their family, viz. breadwinner, child minder, community leader, etc.

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These roles demanded that women engage in negotiation, conflict resolution, priority setting and budgeting all of which demonstrate their leadership potential. For as along as Nene can remember, businesses like tuck shops, shebeens, second hand clothing, household cleaning products etc were run by women. Almost every school in the townships had a woman often referred to as "Auntie "selling food and sweets. What was evident was that the quantity of products they were selling kept to the framework of daily living – never in the big league of business.

South Africa, through Black Economic Empowerment Policies, has recognized the role of women as primary supporters of their households through the innovative means they employed without capital, infrastructure or education. It is precisely for this reason that everyone should celebrate the advancement of women through Government policies which propose Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) targets, score cards etc. in recognition of the underlying entrepreneurial spirit that women possess.

The fact that fifty point seven percent (50. 7 %) of South Africa's population are women suffices to realise the economic development of this country and indeed of the continent is reliant upon both men and women. It is often easy to talk about easing the tax burden on most of us who are tax payers without examining all that is required to do so. Advancement of women in Africa will definitely increase the pool of people who will uplift the continent. BEE has broadened the areas of participation for example women in mining, which will demonstrate that women are fully capable of participating in big business those early survival skills do come in handy. Men should therefore not feel threatened by the economic efforts of women in Africa as the benefits will accrue to.

BEE, however, is only one way in which government has played its part by creating an enabling environment to increase the pool of economic activity. The most critical aspect of economic development and upliftment lies with the women themselves. The following are just some of the contributions that are critical:

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- Active support of women owned businesses; this could be women making beads, beauty therapy, artwork, jewellery etc,
- Mentorship and coaching; sharing your knowledge and skills with those who are eager to know,
- Reducing levels of women unemployment ; where we have the means, it is important that we consciously seek to employ women in our businesses or through the decision making positions that we hold in organizations,
- Encouraging and stimulating debate and exchange of views about the challenges facing our continent : making it part of our social gathering that you share knowledge, for example , about why it is important for our President to spearhead (together with other leaders of the continent) the development of Africa and create peace and stability. Exchange business books by local and international business people and discuss various strategies mentioned and customize them for the situation,
- Enhance those underlying entrepreneurial skills through training and skills transfer: Institutions of higher learning should not assume that lack of literacy

translates to lack of entrepreneurial skills. We need to motivate ways of transferring business skills without erecting a barrier of high level qualifications- which tends to demoralize those (especially adults) who want to advance themselves,

- Empower other women through investment and ownership of shares. It is with great pride that we observed over the last few years how Nozala Investments and Withhold Investments (both founded and headed by women) have been practicing the policy of broad based empowerment – long before the promulgation of the Act. They have spread their wings much wider than a few individuals could have, thereby contributing positively to the empowerment and upliftment of large numbers of women. Part of the answer lies in replicating the formula of these leading women.

In conclusion, the manner in which women have demonstrated strength, bravery, resilience and leadership transcends the realm of business into politics. We must remember that one of the profound life – changing events in South Africa was the women's march against the pass laws. The power of collective voice and determination can only confirm the two well known African phrases;

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- Wa thint'abafazi wa thint'imbokotho (You strike a woman, you strike a rock).
- Mmangwana o tshwara thipa ko bogaleng (A mother holds the knife on the sharp side in fending and protecting her family).

2. 9 Women in business has South Africa broken the glass ceilings?

Shirley Zinn, President of the IPM and HR Director of Nedbank Group is of the opinion that South Africa has not yet reached the glass ceiling (People Dynamics 2006:1). After eleven years of democracy, legislation, think tanks, public commitments, grand standing, much lip-service and there is still a long way to go. The statistics speak volumes, for example, 93 % of all Boards are still male (Survey: Women on Board, 2005). Government has indeed taken the lead and has positioned women to play key roles at the

very top of government structures. Business clearly still has some way to go, and the question that begs an answer is "why" Gender equity in the workplace is, like all South Africa's transformation initiatives, an imperative for business success today.

The corporate world has given many pledges and commitments that gender differences are a thing of the past, and yet unfortunately and too often, misperceptions continue as to why women's career progression in industry is not as fast as that of males. It is not necessarily the social and behavioural differences of women that underlie this trend, but also the institutionalization of our companies that creates barriers preventing women's progress in business.

The real fact is that women need to use their best talent, never mind gender and race, and when one has a population of women that is more than fifty percent (50 %) of the country, women cannot be ignored. No business can suggest that certain positions are inherently off limits to women; on the contrary, in today's times women are fast becoming the entrepreneurs that add to South Africa's wealth creation and employment opportunities. But all this has been achieved through a supreme effort, despite both economic and social discrimination against women that continues to undermine women's progress in building democracy. Ensuring that women actively participate in the mainstream of our economy is critical. Shirley cited that we can not tolerate being denigrated to the ranks of the countries in this world well known for their paucity of women in their boardrooms and management echelons.

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Therefore it is incumbent on women and men who have reached the pinnacles of business to assist those still engrossed in the struggle. Women's collective activism is required to raise the bar for women in this country. Our collective activism can achieve it. Shirley calls on companies to report on the success of top women executives, and to celebrate their appointments. In this way the stereotype can start to be replaced with inspirational role models who share their experiences, and so encourage female youth to aspire beyond entrenched limitations.

The President of this country, Thabo Mbeki, in his speech delivered at a women's day rally at Hlogotlou stadium in the Sekhukhume district of Limpopo on 10 of August 2005, appealed to South African business to appoint more women to middle and top management positions, saying that "while progress has been made in the public sector, the situation in the private sector is not good", www.southafrica.info/doing-business/trends/women/mbeki-womensday1008.htm (accessed on 09/03/2006).

The President's quotable remarks were as follows: "Let's smash the glass ceiling!" "Let's push our boundaries on transformation and embrace the view that diversity generates business success, innovation and enrichment". "Let's continue the march towards gender equity and building a non- sexist South Africa". "Let's move beyond the numbers game to true empowerment and liberation of yet untapped talent in our organizations". "Let's make the difference, starting with our own personal transformation journey". "Let's make the second decade of democracy the decade of the liberation of women taking their rightful places in business".

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2.10 South Africa push for gender equity

Phillipa Garson as cited on the website www.southafrica.info/ees-info/sa-glance/constitution/gender.htm, observes that thirty percent of all our parliamentarians are women, which puts South Africa at number eighty in the world in terms of gender equality in government. The country leapt quickly from a position of 141 in the world before the 1994 elections to number eight, when the ANC adopted a thirty quota on its party list.

2.10.1 Status quo in the public sector

The country can also boast that nine of its twenty seven Cabinet Ministers and eight of its fourteen deputy Ministers are women. Both the speaker of the National Assembly and the chairman of the National Council of Provinces are women, Frene Ginwala and Naledi Pandor respectively. According to the International Parliamentary Union, the

international association of parliaments of sovereign states, as of June 2002, Ginwala and Pandor were two of only twenty five women around the world to preside over a house (of are 1809). South Africa is one of only three African countries to have women presiding officers in parliament or a house of Parliament.

Sheila Meintjes, a Commissioner with the Commission on Gender Equality, a statutory organisation set up to advance women's rights in South Africa, believes thirty percent is the critical mass needed to make a difference in the struggle to promote women's rights. "This has been very important in promoting a range of policies and legislation that stands to benefit women", she said. But an international campaign is under way to increase women's representation in parliaments to fifty percent. With the slogan **50/50 by 2005: Get the balance Right**: the campaign has far to go to achieve its aims. By 2000, women comprised only thirteen percent of national parliaments around the world, with a yearly increase of 0.5 percent.

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"It is only when there is a critical mass of women in all their diversity in every country of the world, in both appointed and elected decision making positions and in all international bodies, that gender issues will be addressed in the policy agenda and the goals of equality, development, peace and human rights for all can be realized in the 21st century", says Nel, in an online effort to advance women's rights around the globe. Considering that fifty two percent of the population is made up of women and that there are 1.2 million more women on the voter's role than men, the50/50 goal make sense. "It is clear that women are actually very interested in politics. They want to participate ", says Meintjes.

Meintjes pointed out that not all women in Parliament are "actively taking up women issues besides engaging in the rough and tumble of parliamentary politics. While those who are not active feminists are still keen to advance women in society, they are over – extended and are doing "double duty", given that women are supposed to be represented on every parliamentary committee.

2.10.2 Commission on gender equality

To change a patriarchal, chauvinistic society into one which sees women as equal players will be a long arduous process. It is up to the Commission on Gender Equality to monitor all sectors of society to ensure that they are promoting gender equity. The commissioner must also investigate complaints on gender related issues, and conduct research on all existing and impending legislation from a gender perspectives, www.southafrica.info/ees-info/sa-glance/constitution/gender.htm/28/03/2006.

Already, the Commissioner is swamped with far more complaints than he is able to attend to. With only five regional offices and thirty six staff members, the organisation lacks the capacity to fulfil its mandate. However, it has entered into a range of partnerships with relevant organisations, like People Opposed to Women Abuse, to broaden its impact. The commission is now publishing an annual report card on progress on gender equality in both the state and civil society. But the most important partner in the struggle for women's rights are men. "There is a realization that if we don't bring men in as partners we won't win the battle" says Meintjes.

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In an article by Managing Director of Human resources at Eskom and current president of the Institute of Personnel Management, Mpho Letlape, titled "African energy and the power of women", she states that gender equality means more than merely getting numbers right. The focus has shifted from quantity to quality, and what matters today is the extent to which women can make a meaningful contribution to the organisation. Gender equity has become a major focus on the Eskom agenda, as there are currently eighty female general mangers in critical line positions, all of whom contribute to the new diversity –friendly culture within the organisation.

This culture reflects the view that, instead of trying to create a stereotypical Eskom employee with the standard beliefs, behaviour and responses at Eskom difference is embraced, variety encouraged, and all aspects looked at to find the best solution

necessary to solve a problem. It is no secret that women bring a different kind of management style and problem solution strategy to the table.

According to Letlape, women make good managers and leaders because of their interpersonal skills. Women tend to present a balanced management style that accommodates various situations in the workplace and encourages productivity. The key to finding the right solution to a problem is therefore to harness all the positive contributions, to combine them, and to ultimately come up with the perfect tailor made solution. At the end of 2004, 30% of managerial professional and supervisory positions at Eskom were being held by women. As Human Resource priority, gender equality has become a dynamic component within the organisation, setting in place support structures for women to seize new career opportunities and prospects, some quite unheard of in the days before equity and empowerment. Of these the main ones are mentoring programmes, flexible working hours and a holiday programme from the children of Eskom employees.

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2.10.3 Private Sector still dominated by men

According to Philippa, as cited in the website, www.southafrica.info/ees-info/sa-glance/constitution/gender.htm9 (accessed 28/03/06), women's representation in the private sector is even worse. A report by the Employment Equity Commission in 2001 showed that women are inadequately represented across all sectors of the economy: at management level, 87% of all top management positions are still held by men and 80% of all senior management jobs are in the hands of men.

Women currently hold 37.6% of jobs in management (all levels) and professional jobs combined –which includes the teaching and nursing professions. There are still many barriers preventing women from getting ahead in business. Besides lacking the necessary education and skills, they are often denied financial assistance for lack of without a male guarantor.

While the political battle for gender equity has partly been won, the social and economic battles are clearly far from over. Levels of violence against women are alarmingly high. Women are extremely vulnerable to rape, sexual abuse, domestic and other violence, teenage parenthood, a lack of educational opportunities, unemployment and sexual harassment.

2.11 Financial Sector Charter – focusing on women

In an article written by Lynette Lambert in November 2005 on women from Alexander Forbes, she emphasise that "despite the release of the Financial Sector Charter specifying the role women play, the sector is still dominated by men" http://www.alexanderforbes.com/News/OtherNews/2005/11/WomenCount.htmaccessed 08/03/2006.

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She goes on further say that, "released almost two years ago, the Financial Sector Charter was the first charter to specify targets to be reached by women. It has been welcomed and seen as a progressive step in realising the positive role women, especially black women, can play in the growth of the economy. However, the financial services sector still continues to be dominated by males, especially white males. says Nomkhita Nqweni, an executive director of Investment Solutions and deputy president of ABSIP (Association of Black Securities and Investment Professionals), http://www.alexanderforbes.com/News/OtherNews/2005/11/WomenCount.htm 8/03/2006.

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Nqweni is of the opinion that, in the private sector, specifically in the financial services industry, there are still too few women on boards and in directorship positions of companies, and it is even more somber when one considers the CEOs of companies (ibid: 2006)."By having interventions such as women targets in the Financial Sector Charter, it is hoped that corporate South Africa, specifically the financial services industry, will embrace and support the ascendancy of capable women to influential positions in the boardrooms, adding a different dimension and diversity in the decision-making processes.

This will undoubtedly have a positive influence on our economy and nation." says Nqweni.

"Within the asset management industry, specifically. it is encouraging to note that one of the top 11 asset managers in South Africa, according to the Large Manager Watch Survey, has a woman CEO, Magda Wierzycka, who has been instrumental in the growth of assets under her management at African Harvest Fund Managers." However, when one looks at the key decision makers (investment teams) of the top 11 asset managers, there is still some way to go in terms of representation of women. Of the top 11 asset managers listed in the Large Manager Watch Survey, only six managers have women as key decision-makers in their investment teams. Black women representation is lower, with only two in key decision-making positions (Ibid).

In the tough and male-dominated financial services environment there are some black women who have broken through the proverbial glass ceiling to take critical leadership positions in this sector. To mention a few: Dr Ranosi Mokate, deputy governor of the South African Reserve Bank (SARB); Gloria Serobe, CEO of Wig Capital and director of several boards; Wendy Luhabe, chairperson of IDC and director of several boards; and Sonia Sebotsa, CEO of Women`s Development Bank http://www.alexanderforbes.com/News/OtherNews/2005/11/WomenCount.htm 8/03/2006.

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"Mentoring and the sharing of experiences with progressive and successful businesswomen are key, as through this the competency and skills base of women in South Africa will be enhanced. Furthermore, this will ensure that we (women) are constantly pulling each other up, hence facilitating transformational efforts in South Africa, and should, therefore, make a remarkable difference in the boardrooms in corporate South Africa," Nqweni says.

2.11.1 Women at the forefront

Historically, even the BEE deals which have been concluded have involved mostly men. The first noticeable deals involving the participation of women are the Women`s Development Bank in the FirstRand and Bidvest (through Dinatia) deals, and Wiphold in the Old Mutual and Telkom deals, http://www.alexanderforbes.com/News/OtherNews/2005/11/WomenCount.htm 03/2006. "This has been a welcome change to the relegation of women into `bridesmaid` status in empowerment transactions and is a trend that should continue in affirming women and ensuring that they are at the forefront of the country's economic transformation." Nqweni says.

The South African government must be commended for leading transformation in South Africa by ensuring that an enabling environment has been created for women to take up leadership positions, says Nqweni. Appointments by government of women such as our newly appointed Deputy President, several Cabinet Ministers and CEOs of state-owned enterprises are examples of the government's role in the transformation process in South Africa, and attest that women are capable of leading and running thriving and profitable enterprises. Maria Ramos, CEO of Transnet, and Monhia Hiahla, CEO of ACSA, are other examples that demonstrate successful transformational efforts in South Africa by having women as "captains of industry", http://www.alexanderforbes.com/News/OtherNews/2005/11/WomenCount.htm 03/2006.

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"These pioneers need to ensure that they lead by example and are role models for future businesswomen. They give younger women entrants in financial services hope and also broaden their scope on the role that they can play in the economy. Mentoring and the sharing of experiences with progressive and successful businesswomen are key, as through this we will be deepening the competency and skills base of women in South Africa,"saysNqweni http://www.alexanderforbes.com/News/OtherNews/2005/11/WomenCount.htm 08/03/2006.

2.11.2 Growth rates

Nqweni`s opinion is substantiated by research conducted by Mpho Nkeli, an executive director of Alexander Forbes, who remarked, in her MBA thesis in 2004, on the progress of employment equity in South Africa in 2004. In 2001 alone, the greatest growth in the management and professionals category was among Black South Africans, whose numbers almost tripled to reach 840 000, while White managers and professionals grew by 300 000 to 900 000 and Coloureds and Asians more than doubled to reach 90 000 and 142 000 respectively. A significant increase compared with 290 000 Black South Africans in the same occupational category in 1991. However, women have not experienced the same growth over time as men have, in general, and this is especially the case for Black women.



Nkeli cited some of the factors that have contributed to the delayed acceptance of women in business as follows:

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- a limited pool of required skills,
- a slow breakdown of the stereotyping that women are not capable of handling management positions,
- past discrimination which limited work experience gained,
- the issue that women are sometimes less inclined than men to take advantage of job opportunities in other provinces
- family responsibilities (women generally have more home-based responsibilities than men) and
- South African businesses not being ready for female managers.

Furthermore, women in management positions are often in the minority and, consequently, women in business have few female counterparts so that networking opportunities tend to involve mostly men. According to the Commission of Employment Equity report of 1999 to 2001, the financial services sector is one of the sectors with the lowest black representation at these occupational levels

http://www.alexanderforbes.com/News/OtherNews/2005/11/WomenCount.htm
08/03/2006.

"Although the Financial Sector Charter will contribute to correcting the gender imbalance in the workplace because it has specific targets for women in management and executive positions to be achieved by 2008, one of the challenges faced in today's economic climate is the need businesses have to adapt their management profile and afford more female employees the opportunity to occupy positions of influence" says Nkeli. "Enabling women to `have a voice`, both politically and economically, facilitates both broader perspectives and enhanced decision-making processes",

http://www.alexanderforbes.com/News/OtherNews/2005/11/WomenCount.htm
08/03/2006.

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2.12 South African women in the Construction industry

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An article issued by the National Department Of Public Works stated that the late and ex National Minister of Public Works, Ms Stella Sigcau, had launched another economic empowerment initiative on 09 August 2001, this time targeting South African women in the construction industry,

http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/pr/2001/pr0808a.html?rebookmark=1
08/03/2006.

The Minister was a keynote speaker at the Women's Day Celebrations at Allan Ridge Community Centre, Uitenhage. Called the Strategic Empowerment Programme for Women in Construction, the R135 million programme was an extension of the Strategic Projects Initiative (SPI) launched by the Department of Public Works in May 1998 as part of the Department's Affirmative Procurement Policy. SPI aimed to accelerate the graduation of blacks from a sub-contractor to a prime contractor level on government construction contracts above R5 million. Projects with a combined contract value of R600 million were identified under the SPI.

http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/pr/2001/pr0808a.html?rebookmark=1 08/03/2006.

To date SPI has delivered some of the most successful multi-million rand projects using blacks as prime contractors, including:

- R67 million Kokstad Medium Security Prison
- R24 million St Albans Prison Production Workshop
- R11 million Botshabelo Magistrate Court
- R8 million Butterworth Police Station

On the other hand, the Strategic Economic Empowerment Programme was to accelerate the development and capacity of women-owned businesses to execute large-scale government contracts. Since becoming the Minister of Public Works, Ms Sigcau championed tirelessly for the advancement of women in construction as part of an overall strategy of construction industry development - to grow and transform the industry. About 50 projects worth R135 million exclusively targeting Women Business Enterprise (WBE's) has been announced and initially piloted under the Strategic Empowerment Programme in all the nine provinces for the year end 2001/2002, http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/pr/2001/pr0808a.html?rebookmark=1 8/03/2006.

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2.13 The Role of Women in the New Partnership For African Development (NEPAD)

In an article written on the 6 June 2003 about the Africa Economic Summit 2002, as cited in the website stipulated below, participants were called for the urgent adoption of a resolution urging far greater involvement of women in the decision-making processes of the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD). The session ran more than half an hour over time, with many participants expressing strong views on women not having sufficient input into the formulation of the NEPAD document or sufficient representation on its steering committee,

http://www.weforum.org/site/knowledgenavigator.nsf/Content/_S7159?open(accessed 08/03/2006).

Graça Machel, Chairperson of the Foundation for Community Development (FDC) from Mozambique and a Co-Chair of the Africa Economic Summit 2002, opened proceedings by saying discussions about NEPAD and women should be about women's rights as much as the role they play in the initiative. As stakeholders their rights should be entrenched and women should be in "clear positions" to help shape NEPAD. Machel said women's rights are not yet "in the mainstream of shaping society". In NEPAD's peer assessment process, the performance of Africa's leaders should also be judged in terms of the way they deal with women's rights.

http://www.weforum.org/site/knowledgenavigator.nsf/Content/_S7159?open(accessed 08/03/2006).

Futhi Mtoba, Partner for the Financial Institutions Services Team, of Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu from South Africa, said "African women's role in business is largely limited to the informal sector, which denies them access to credit, "and credit is empowerment". The NEPAD should facilitate the movement of women into medium-sized business (Ibid). Gisele Yitamben, President, Association pour le Soutien et l'Appui à la Femme, Cameroon, said it has been asserted that food security is the most important thing in Africa. The truth is that women are "the feeders" in society, and the current starvation crisis in Africa is a reflection of the fact that women have been excluded from the agricultural industry.

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http://www.weforum.org/site/knowledgenavigator.nsf/Content/_S7159?open(accessed 08/03/2006).

Jacob Zuma, the former Deputy President of South Africa, said women have not been given any specific role in the NEPAD. In the statement of NEPAD's objectives, there is only one line that mentions them, calling for their promotion and empowerment. Zuma described this line as "a loaded statement", but said it is "an opening" and its eventual impact depends on how it is "unpacked". He said the reason there are no women in

NEPAD's steering committee is because this is composed of African heads of state and there is no woman among them. "This tells us clearly women are not in the highest decision-making processes on the continent," said Zuma, indicating that this has to change,

http://www.weforum.org/site/knowledgenavigator.nsf/Content/_S7159?open(accessed 08/03/2006).

He said South Africa's ruling party, the ANC, has a strong history of women's involvement, but has still found it necessary to make rules and set quotas regarding their participation in decision-making. Zuma said steps are already being taken to secure a greater role for women in the NEPAD process. South Africa is preparing an addendum to the NEPAD document "addressing their involvement".Lulu Gwagwa, Chief Executive Officer, Independent Development Trust (IDT), South Africa, said the previous World Economic Forum Africa Economic Summit decided to try to include more female chairpersons and rapporteurs in future deliberations, but "nothing has changed significantly".

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Klaus Schwab, President of the World Economic Forum, said the role of women in Forum activities is "close to my heart". It is a fact that few women are in business leadership. "When we talk about women's involvement, it shouldn't just be about parity, but we need to reflect the characteristics and the values of women," said Schwab. The search for new models in society and in business indicates that the world is moving towards a more value-based approach, "a more female world".

Machel described the NEPAD as a baby, and said now is the time to ensure it develops in a way that truly reflects what women want it to be. A consultative process has to be set up as soon as possible and a working document drawn up on how to "unpack" the line about women's empowerment.

(http://www.weforum.org/site/knowledgenavigator.nsf/Content/_S7159?open (accessed 08/03/2006).

Linah Mohohlo, Governor of the Bank of Botswana, said the NEPAD document needs to be reworked to include the input of women so they are "not just an addendum". "The steering committee must have serious involvement of women on it," said Mohohlo. Not only heads of state can make decisions "on where the world is heading". She proposed adopting a resolution calling for greater involvement of women in the NEPAD. Unless such a measure is taken, "We know very well the matter will not be taken further," she said. She proposed setting quotas of 50% women's representation on decision-making bodies. This action should be taken now, before the NEPAD train is going so fast that women trying to get on will fall and break their legs, with the train simply steaming on, said Mohohlo.

http://www.weforum.org/site/knowledgenavigator.nsf/Content/_S7159?open(accessed 08/03/2006)

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2.14 Conclusion

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In this chapter an overview of the history of women under apartheid has been provided, highlighting their domestic role, and their the agricultural work. The chapter alsopresented an overview of the status quo in South Africa in order to provide a deeper understanding of where things where, and where things are. The rate of progress ahievedd in South Africa is an indication of the positive and enthusiastic way in which most organisations are trying to implement the new legislation in filling the gaps and cracks that have been created by the apartheid era. As highlighted, progress has been achieved especially in the public sector, but there is still more to be done from the private sector side. Employment trends in South Africa have been highlighted, some barriers to management advancement discussed. An overview of women in management worldwide was provided and some fundamental assumptions were discussed. Women in employment, opportunities and obstacles have been discussed with a few to the South African labour market. South Africa is pushing gender equity and women are keying into unlocking Africa's economic development. The next chapter will deal with culture and organisational culture and how these manifest themselves within organizations, and how they impact on women.

CHAPTER THREE

Culture and Organisational Culture

3.1 Introduction

There is no one single South African culture. As South Africa is so ethnically diverse, it is not surprising that there are vast cultural differences as well. Because of the legacy of apartheid segregation, many cultural differences correspond closely to the racial groups as defined by apartheid (Blacks, Whites, Coloureds, and Asians). This may change, as assimilation progresses, although currently many cultural differences between apartheid-defined racial groups persist, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Culture_of_South_Africa .

The rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities are to be protected according to the constitution by the Commission for the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Cultural, Religious, and Linguistic Communities. This is a Chapter 9 Institution which was created by the constitution. South Africa demonstrates significant differences between the experiences of men and women. Cultural attitudes towards women tend to demonstrate inequality. The poorest and most disadvantaged people in South Africa remain black women, and women are disadvantaged in terms of their earning power, their access to education and their employment status. In addition, South African women face cultural chauvinism in other areas: for example, in some traditional Southern African cultures, a woman cannot own property, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Culture_of_South_Africa. This brief introduction to culture calls for a definition of culture, so that the literature about it will be easily understood.

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3.2 What is culture?

A culture is the unique pattern of shared assumptions, values, and norms that shape the socialisation activities, language, symbols, rites, and ceremonies of a group of people (Don, Susan, John, Gavin, Trevor, Klopper, Lynette, &Theuns, 2004:357). Norms, values, and assumptions form the basis of culture but cannot be observed. Culture can only be inferred from the more visible and observable elements – its socialisation

activities, symbols, language, narratives and practices. Cultures develop in both large and small groups of people. One way to think about culture is to compare it to personality.

Like personality, culture affects in predictable ways how people behave when no one is telling them what to do. When people belong to the same culture there can still be great variation among the cultures members. A society can have its own unique culture while at the same time subcultures can exist in it. In many countries, distinct tribal, ethnic, and regional subcultures have developed over time. Similarly an organisation may have its own unique culture in some departments or among members of some professions. In most large organisations, multiple cultures exist side by side (Don, Susan, John, Gavin, Trevor, Klopper, Lynette, & Theuns, 2004:358). People from different corporate and industry cultures may be brought together through mergers, acquisitions, joint ventures, and other forms of strategic alliances.

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3.2.1 Culture as emergence

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Richard Seel observed that, culture is not a static 'thing' but something which everyone is constantly creating, affirming and expressing, according to Mary Douglas, an anthropologist (Organisations & People Vol. 7 No 2; May 2000 pp 2-9) agrees .She writes about, "...the admonitions, excuses, and moral judgements by which the people mutually coerce one another into conformity." According to Douglas (1985: xxiii), in her view culture is not imposed from outside but exposed from within; any programme which attempts to change culture in a planned way is likely to miss the mark.

Indeed, as Douglas observes, "...the central issue is not cultural change. The amazing thing that needs to be investigated is cultural stability, whenever and wherever it is found." (1985: xxii). If culture is being created all the time by everybody how is it that we sense it to be reasonably stable? I think we can begin to answer Douglas' question by using some of the insights of complexity theory, in particular by looking at emergence. Indeed, my own working definition of culture contains this as a key word:

Culture is the result of all the daily conversations and negotiations between the members of an organisation. They are continually agreeing (sometimes explicitly, usually tacitly)

about the 'proper' way to do things and how to make meaning of the events in the world around them. If you want to change a culture you have to change all these conversations—or at least the majority of them. And changing conversations is not the focus of most change programmes, which tend to concentrate on organisational structures or reward systems or other large-scale interventions.

3.2.2 The cultural web

A model of culture developed by Jerry Johnson may help to explain the difference between the two approaches. The cultural web here shows how culture came into existence, its origin. Having looked at the cultural web an outline of organizational culture will then follow.

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Cultural web model

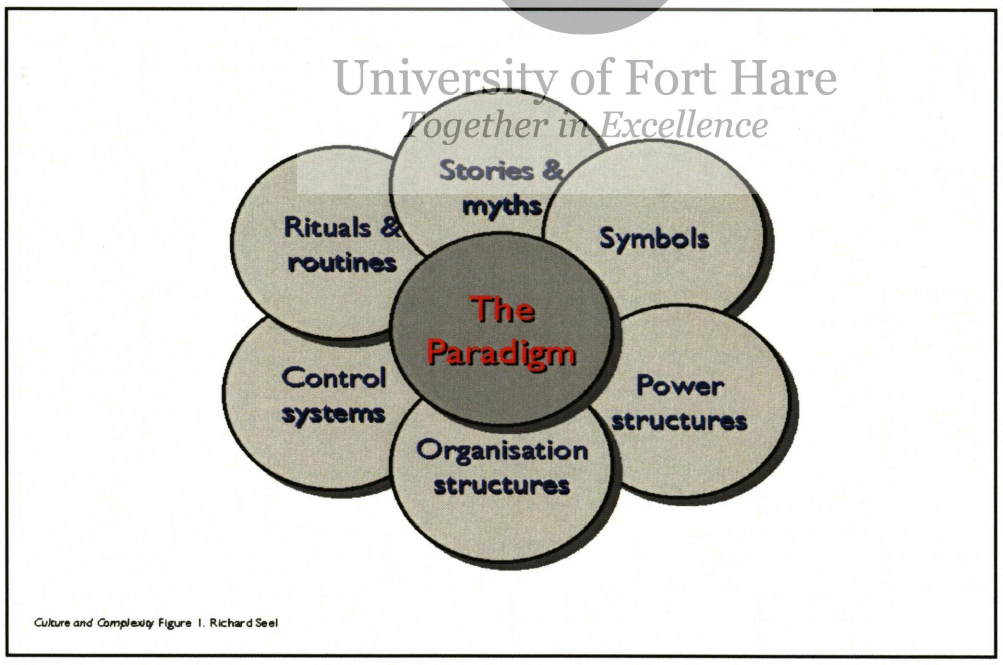


Figure 3.2.2.1

Johnson calls his model the 'cultural web'. The paradigm in the centre is the set of core beliefs which result from the multiplicity of conversations and which maintains the unity

of the culture. The 'petals' are the manifestations of culture, which result from the influence of the paradigm.

Most change programmes concentrate on the petals; they try to effect change by looking at structures, systems and processes. Experience shows us that these initiatives usually have limited success. A lot of energy (and money) is put into the change programme, with all the usual communication exercises, consultations, workshops, and so on. In the first few months things seem to be changing but gradually the novelty and impetus wears off and the organisation settles back into something like its previous configuration. The reason for this is simple, though often overlooked- unless the heart of the culture is changed there will be no lasting change.

3.2.3 Paradigms

A paradigm is a self-consistent set of ideas and beliefs, which acts as a filter, influencing how we perceive and how we make sense. The term was brought into common currency by Thomas Kuhn in his famous "*Structure of Scientific Revolutions*", first published in 1962. Fritjof Capra adapted Kuhn's original definition to present it in a form more suitable to the study of organisations:

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A paradigm is a constellation of concepts, values, perceptions and practices shared by a community, which forms a particular vision of reality that is the basis of the way a community organises itself. (Capra, 1997:6)

3.3 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture is the set of beliefs, values, and norms, together with symbols like dramatized events and personalities that represents the unique character of an organization, and provides the context for action in it and by it. www.oup.com/uk/booksites/content/0199253978/student/glossary/glossary.htm. There seems to be a general agreement that organizational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organization from other organizations (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt (2004:380). This system of shared meaning is, upon closer

examination, a set of key characteristics that the organization values. According to Deal and Kennedy (1982:15) people are a company's greatest resource, and the way to manage them is not directly by computer reports, but by the subtle cues of a culture, hence the importance of this literature about culture ,Price (1997:138).

According to Richard Seel, organisation culture is the emergent result of the continuing negotiations about values, meanings and proprieties between the members of an organisation and with its environment (Organisations & People Vol. 7 No 2; May 2000 pp 2-9).

3.3.1 Characteristics of organisational culture

Research suggests that there are seven primary characteristics that, in aggregate, capture the essence of an organisation's culture.

- Innovation and risk taking. The degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and to take risks.
- Attention orientation. The degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis, and attention to detail.
- Outcome orientation. The degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes.
- People orientation. The degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organization.
- Team orientation. The degree to which work activities are organized around teams rather than individuals.
- Aggressiveness. The degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easy-going.
- Stability. The degree to which organizational activities emphasise maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

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Each of these characteristics represents a continuum from low to high. Appraising the organization on these seven characteristics gives a composite picture of its culture. This picture becomes the basis for feelings of shared understanding that members have about the organization, how things are done, and the way members are supposed to behave.

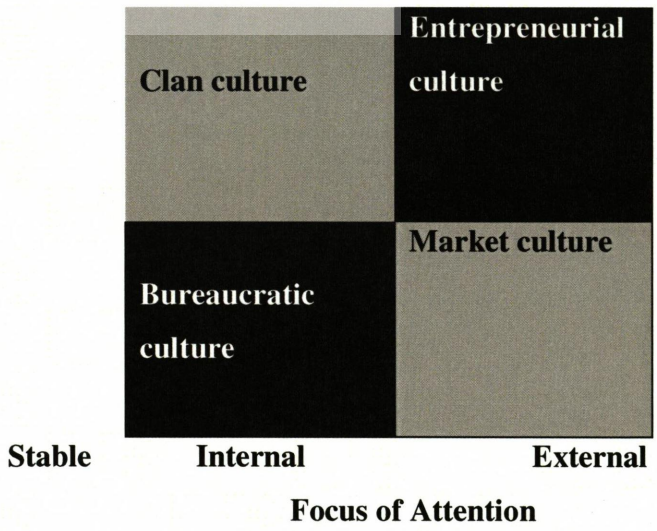
3.3.2 Types of organisational culture

Cultural elements and their relationships create a pattern that is distinctively part of an organisation, just as personality is unique to an individual. As with a classification of individuals that share some common characteristics, several general types of organisational culture can be described (Don, Susan, John, Gavin, Trevor, Klopper, Lynette, & Theuns, 2004:365). Of the many frameworks that have been proposed, one useful one is presented in the figure below:

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Framework of types of cultures

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Source : (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt (2004:380)

Figure 3.3.2.1

In this figure, the vertical axis reflects the relatively formal control orientation, ranging from stable to flexible. The horizontal axis reflects the relative focus of attention, ranging from internal functioning to external functioning. The extreme corners of the four quadrants represent four pure types of organisational culture: bureaucratic; clan; entrepreneurial; and market. In a culturally homogeneous organisation, one of these basic types of culture will be predominant. In a culturally fragmented organisation, multiple cultures are likely not only to exist but also to compete for superiority.

As is true of organisation designs, different organisational cultures may be appropriate under different conditions, with no one type of culture being ideal for every situation. However, some employees may prefer one culture to another. Employees who work in organisations with cultures that fit their views of ideal cultures tend to be highly commited to their organisations and optimistic about their futures. Let us discuss the different organisational cultures in greater detail;

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- **Bureaucratic Culture:**

An organisation that values formalisation, rules, standard operating procedures, and hierarchical coordination has a bureaucratic culture. The long term concerns of bureaucracy are predictability, efficiency, and stability. Its members highly value standardized goods and customer services. Behavioural norms support formality over informality. Managers view their roles as being good coordinators, organisers, and enforcers of written rules and standards. Tasks, responsibilities, and authority for all employees are clearly defined. The many rules and processes are spelled out in thick manuals, employees believe that their duty is to "go by the book" and follow legalistic procedures.

Most municipalities and government institutions have bureaucratic cultures, which can impede their effectiveness. There are detailed personnel manuals which clearly delineate the rules for hiring and dismissing personnel. The approval process for ordering a computer can take more than a year, during which time the equipment ordered can become technologically obsolete.

- **Clan Culture**

Tradition, loyalty, personal commitment, extensive socialisation, teamwork, self-management, and social influence are attributes of a clan culture. Its members recognise an obligation beyond the simple exchange of labour for a salary. They understand that contributions to the organisation (e.g hours worked per week) may exceed any contractual agreements. The individual long term commitment to the organisation (loyalty) is exchanged for the organisation's long term commitment to the individual (security).

The clan achieves unity by a long and thorough socialisation process. Long time clan members serve as mentors and role models for newer members. These relationships perpetuate the organisations values and norms over successive generations of employees. The clan is aware of its unique history and often documents its origin and celebrates its traditions in various rites. Members have a shared image of the organisation's style and manner of conduct. Public statements reinforce its values.

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In a clan culture, members share feelings of pride in membership. They have a strong sense of identification and recognise their interdependence. The up through the ranks career patterns result in an extensive network of colleagues whose paths have crossed and who have shared similar experiences. Shared goals, perceptions, and behavioural tendencies foster communication, coordination, and integration. A clan culture generates feelings of personal ownership of a business, product, or ideas. In addition, peer pressure to adhere to important norms is strong. The richness of the culture creates an environment in which few areas are left totally free from normative pressures. Depending on the types of its norms, the culture may or may not generate risk-taking behaviour or innovation. Success is assumed to depend substantially on sensitivity to customers and concern for people.

Teamwork, participation, and consensus decision making are believed to lead to this success. Many traditional Japanese organisations have a clan culture. South African organisations that have a clan culture focus include, among others, Charter life,

Safcorpanalpino, Impala Platinum, Clicks Holdings Limited, African Explosives Limited, Edgars, Afrox, and Gensec. At Afrox all employees have access to voicemail and e-mail, which greatly facilitates internal communication. This is symptomatic of Afrox's policy of empowering its employees to perform.

- **Entrepreneurial culture**

High levels of risk taking, dynamism, and creativity characterises an entrepreneurial culture. There is a commitment to experimentation, innovation and being on the leading edge. This culture does not just react quickly to changes in the environment; it creates change. Effectiveness means providing new and unique products and rapid growth .Individual initiative, flexibility, and freedom foster growth and are encouraged and well rewarded. Entrepreneurial culture is typically of enterprises such as Microsoft- that are still run by its founder.

- **Market Culture**

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The achievement of measurable and demanding goals, especially those that are finance base and market based (e.g. sales growth, profitability, and market share) characterise a market culture. Hard- driving competitiveness and a profit orientation prevail throughout the organisation. In a market culture, the relationship between individual and organisation is contractual. That is, the obligations of each party are agreed on in advance. In this sense, the formal control orientation is quite stable. The individual is responsible for some level of performance, and the organisation promises a specified level of rewards in return. Increased levels of performance are exchanged for increased rewards, as outlined in an agreed schedule. Neither party recognises the right of the other to demand more than was originally specified. The organisation does not promise (or imply) security; the individual does not promise (or imply) loyalty. The contract, renewed annually if each party adequately performs its obligation's, utilitarian because each party uses the other to further its own goals.

3.4 Culture as a descriptive term

Organisational culture is concerned with how employees perceive the characteristics of an organisation's culture, not with whether or not they like them. It is a descriptive term. This is important because it distinguishes this concept from that of job satisfaction. Research on organizational culture seeks to measure how employees see their organization: Does it encourage teamwork? Does it reward innovation? Does it stifle initiative? By contrast, job satisfaction seeks to measure affective response to the work environment. It is concerned with how employees feel about the organisation's expectations, reward practices, and the like. Although the two terms undoubtedly have overlapping characteristics, keep in mind that the term organizational culture is descriptive, while job satisfaction is evaluative.

3.5 Do organisations have uniform culture?

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Organisational culture represents a common perception held by the organisation's members. This was made explicit when we defined culture as a system of shared meaning. We should expect, therefore, that individuals with different backgrounds or at different levels in the organization will tend to describe the organisation's culture in similar terms. Acknowledgement that organizational culture has common properties does not mean, however, that there cannot be subcultures within any given culture.

Most large organizations have a dominant culture and numerous sets of subcultures. A dominant culture expresses the core values that are shared by a majority of the organisation's members. When we speak about an organisation's culture, we are referring to its dominant culture. It is this macro view of culture that gives an organization its distinct personality. Subcultures tend to develop in large organizations to reflect common problems, situations, or experiences that groups of members face. These subcultures are likely to be defined by department designations and geographical separation. A purchasing department, for example, could have a subculture that is uniquely shared by

members of that department. It will include the core values of the dominant culture plus additional values unique to members of the purchasing department.

If organisations had no dominant culture and were composed only of numerous subcultures, the value of organizational culture as an independent variable would be significantly lessened because there would be no uniform interpretation of what represented appropriate and inappropriate behaviour. It is the "shared meaning" aspect of culture that makes it such a potent device for guiding and shaping behaviour. But we cannot ignore the reality of many organizations also having subcultures that could influence the behaviour of members.

3.5.1 Strong vs. weak cultures

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It has become increasingly popular to differentiate between strong and weak cultures. It is argued that strong cultures have a greater impact on employee behaviour and are more directly related to reduction in turnover. In a strong culture, the organisation's core values are held strongly and shared widely. The more the members accept the core values and the greater their commitment to those values, the stronger the culture. Consistent with this definition, a strong culture will have a great influence on the behaviour of its members because what they share and the intensity create an internal climate of high behavioural control.

One specific result of a strong culture should be a lower employee turnover. In a strong culture members agree about what the organization stands for. Such unanimity of purpose builds cohesiveness, loyalty, and organizational commitment. These qualities, in turn, lessen employee's propensity to leave the organization.

3.5.2 Culture vs. formalisation

A strong organizational culture increases behavioural consistency. In this sense, we should recognize that a strong culture can act as a substitute for formalisation.

Formalisation rules and regulations act to regulate employee behaviour. High formalisation in an organization creates predictability, orderliness, and consistency. A strong culture achieves the same without the need for written documentation. Therefore, we should view formalisation and culture as two different roads to a common destination. The stronger an organisation's culture, the less management needs be concerned with developing formal rules and regulations to guide employee behaviour. Those guides will be internalised by employees when they accept the organisation's culture.

3.6. What do cultures do

We have alluded to the impact of organizational culture on behaviour. We have also explicitly argued that a strong culture should be associated with reduced turnover. In this section, we shall more carefully review the functions that culture performs and assess whether culture can be a liability for an organization.

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3.6.1 Functions of culture

Culture performs a number of functions within an organization.

- Firstly, it has a boundary-defining role; that is, it creates distinctions between one organization and other organizations.
- Secondly, it conveys a sense of identity to organization members.
- Thirdly, it facilitates commitment to something larger than individual self-interest.
- Fourthly, it enhances social system stability. Culture is the social glue that helps to bind the organisation by providing appropriate standards for what employees should say and do.
- Finally, culture serves as a meaningful control mechanism that guides and shapes the attitudes and behaviour of employees. This last function is of particular interest to us.

The role of culture in influencing employee behaviour appears to be increasingly important in today's workplace. As organizations have widened spans of control, flattened structures, introduced teams, reduced formalisation, and empowered employees, the shared meaning provided by a strong culture ensures that everyone is pointed in the same direction.

3.6.2 Culture as a liability

We have been treating culture in a non- judgemental manner. We haven't said that it is good or bad, only that it exists. Many of its functions, as outlined, are valuable for both the organization and the employee. Culture enhances organizational commitment and increases the consistency of employee behaviour. These are clear benefits to an organization. From an employee's perspective, culture is valuable because it reduces ambiguity. It tells employees how things are done and what is important. But we should not ignore the potentially dysfunctional aspects of culture, especially a strong one, to an organization's effectiveness. The following are dysfunctional aspects of culture:

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- ***Barrier to change***. Culture is a liability when the shared values do not conform to those that will further the organisation's effectiveness. This is most likely to occur when an organization's environment is dynamic. When an environment changes rapidly, an organization's entrenched culture may no longer be appropriate. Therefore consistency of behaviour is an asset to an organization when the environment is stable. It may, however, burden the organization and make it difficult to respond to changes in the environment.

- ***Barrier to diversity***. Appointing new employees who, because of race, gender, disability, or other differences are not like the majority of the organisation's members could create a paradox. Management wants new employees to accept the organisation's core cultural values. Otherwise these employees are unlikely to fit in or be accepted. But at the same time, management wants to openly acknowledge and demonstrate support for the differences that these employees

bring to the workplace. Strong cultures put considerable pressure on employees to conform. These cultures limit the arrange of values and styles that are acceptable.

In some instances companies spend large amounts of money to put pressure on employees to change. Organisations seek out and appoint diverse individuals because of the different strengths they bring to the workplace. Yet these diverse behaviours and strengths are likely to diminish in strong cultures as people attempt to fit in. Strong cultures, therefore, can be liabilities when they effectively eliminate those unique strengths that people of different backgrounds bring to the organization. Moreover, strong cultures can also be liabilities when they support institutional bias or become insensitive to people who are different.

- ***Barriers to acquisitions and mergers.*** Historically, the key factors that management considered in making acquisition or merger decisions were related to financial advantages or product synergy. In recent years, cultural compatibility has become the primary concern. While favourable financial statement or product line may initially attract an acquisition candidate, whether the acquisition actually works seems to have more to do with how well the two organisation's cultures match up.

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3.7 Creating and sustaining culture

An organisation's culture does not appear from nowhere. Once established, it rarely fades away. What forces influence the creation of culture? What reinforces and sustains these forces once they are in place? We shall answer both of these questions in this section.

3.7.1 How a culture begins

An organisation's current customs, traditions and general way of doing things depend largely on what it has done before and the degree of success it had with those endeavours. This leads us to the ultimate source of an organisation's culture: its founders (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt (2004:385). The founders of an organisation traditionally have a major impact on that organisation's early culture. They have a vision of what the

organisation should be. They are unconstrained by previous customs or ideologies. The small size that typically characterises new organizations make it easy to pass on to all organizational members.

The process of culture-creation occurs in three ways. First, founders only appoint and keep employees who think and feel the way they do. Secondly, they indoctrinate and socialize these employees to their way of thinking and feeling. And finally, the founder's own behaviour acts as a role model that encourages employees to identify with them, thereby internalizing their beliefs, values, and assumptions. When the organisation succeeds, the founder's entire personalities become embedded in the culture of the organisation. According to research in South Africa, culture building starts at the top of the organisation with the Chief Executive. He or she knows what kind of culture is wanted, and steers management towards it. This also applies to strategy and its implementation.

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3.7. 2 Keeping a culture alive

Once a culture is in place, practices within the organisation maintain this culture by giving employees a set of similar experiences. For example, many of the human resource practices, inter alia, the selection process, performance evaluation criteria, training and career development activities, and promotion procedures ensure that those appointed fit in with the culture, reward those who support it, and penalize (and even expel) those who challenge it. Three forces play a particularly important part in sustaining a culture: selection practices, the actions of top management, and socialization methods. Let us deal with these forces briefly.

3.7.2.1 Selection

The explicit goal of the selection process is to identify and appoint individuals who have the knowledge, skills, and abilities to perform the jobs within the organisation successfully. Typically, more than one candidate will be identified as meeting a given

job's requirements. It would then be naïve to ignore that the final decision of who is appointed will be significantly influenced by the decision of maker's judgement as to how well the candidates will fit into the organisation.

This attempt to ensure a proper match, whether purposely or inadvertently, results in the appointment with those of the organisation, or at least a good proportion of those values. In addition, the selection process provides information to applicants about the organisation. Candidates learn about the organisation and, if they perceive a conflict between their values and those of the organisation, they themselves could choose not to be an applicant. Selection, therefore, becomes a two-way street, allowing employer or applicant to abrogate a marriage if there appears to be a mismatch. In this way, the selection process sustains an organisation's culture by not selecting those individuals who might attack or undermine its core values.

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3.7.2.2 Top management

The actions of top management also have a major impact on the organization's culture. Through what they say and how they behave, senior executives establish norms that filter through the organisation and convey whether risk taking is desirable; how much freedom managers should give their employees; what is appropriate dress; what actions will pay off in terms of pay raises; promotions, and other rewards; and so on.

3.7.2.1.1 Socialisation

No matter how good the recruitment and selection of an organisation, new employees will not be fully incorporated into the organisation's culture. Perhaps most importantly, because new employees are unfamiliar with the organisation's culture, they are potentially likely to disturb the beliefs and customs that are in place. The organisation will, therefore, want to help new employees to adapt to its culture. This adaptation process is called socialization. Research in South Africa indicates that several of super performers firmly hold that to build the culture you need to live very carefully. New

people must be able to become part of the corporate culture quickly. Socialisation may be conceptualized as a process consisting of three stages: pre arrival, encounter, and metamorphosis. The first stage encompasses all the learning that occurs before a new member joins the organisation. In the second stage, the new employee sees what the organisation is really like and confronts the possibility that expectations and reality may diverge. In the third stage, relatively long-lasting changes take place. The new employee masters the skills required for his or her job, successfully performs his or her new roles, and adjusts to his or her work group's values and norms. This three stage process impacts on the new employee's work productivity, commitment to the organisation's objectives, and eventual decision to stay with the organization or not.

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A socialization model process

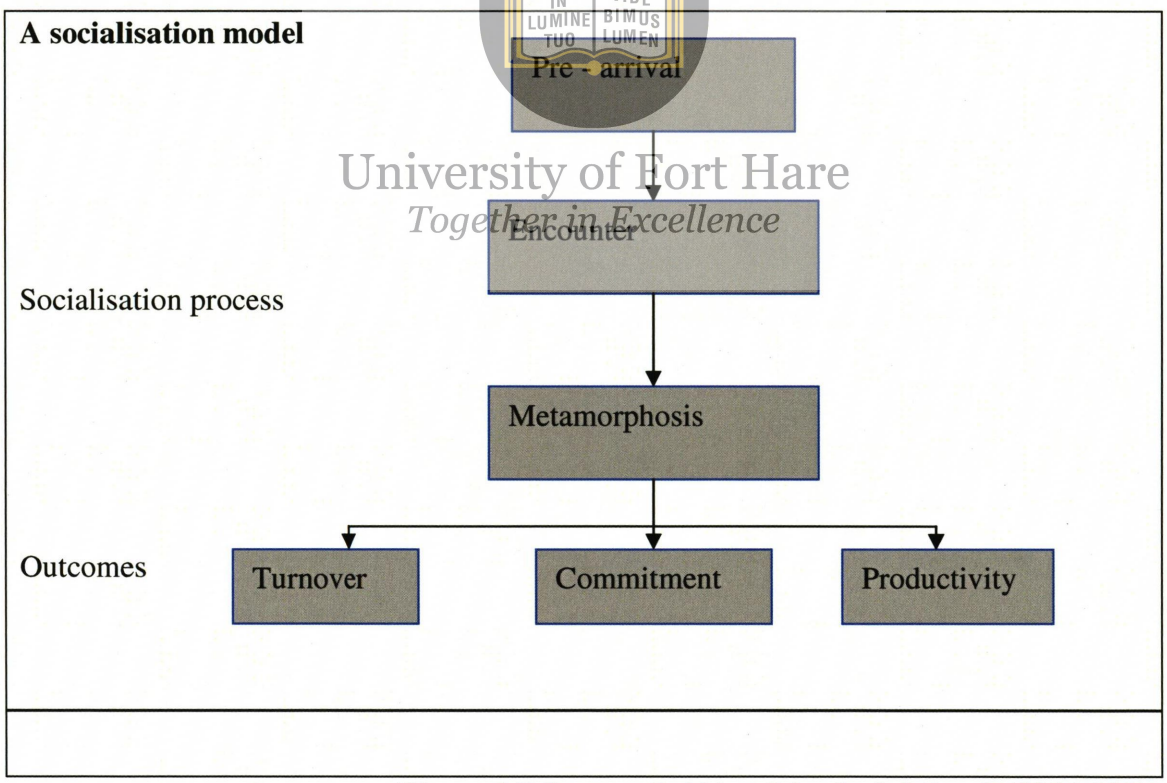


***Figure 3.7 Source**: Robbins,Odendaal & Roodt (2004:388)*

The pre-arrival stage explicitly recognises that each individual arrives with a set of values, attitudes, and expectations. These cover both the work to be done and the organisation. For instance, in many jobs, particularly professional work, new members

will have undergone a considerable degree of prior socialisation in training and in school. One major purpose of a business school, for example, is to socialise business students to the attitudes and behaviours that business requires. If business executives believe that successful employees value the profit ethic, are loyal, will work hard, and desire to achieve, they can appoint individuals from business schools who have been pre-moulded in this pattern. But pre- arrival socialisation goes beyond the specific job.

The selection process is used in most organisations to inform prospective employees about the organisation as a whole. In addition, as noted previously, the selection process also acts to ensure the inclusion of the "right type" those who will fit in. "Indeed, the ability of the individual to present the appropriate face during the selection process determines his or her ability to join the organisation in the first place. Thus, success depends on the degree to which the aspiring member has correctly anticipated the expectations and desires of those in charge of selection in the organisation".

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When the new member enters the organisation, he or she enters the encounter stage. Here the individual confronts the possible dichotomy between his or her expectations- about the job, co-workers, the boss, and the organisation in general - and reality. If expectations prove to have been more or less accurate, the encounter stage merely provides a reaffirmation of the perceptions gained earlier. However, this is often not the case. Where perceptions and reality differ, the new employee must undergo socialisation that will detach him or her from previous ideas of what the organisation deems desirable. At the extreme, a new member may become totally disillusioned with the realities of his or her job and resign. Proper selection should significantly reduce this probability.

Finally the new member must work out any problems discovered during the encounter stage. This may mean going through changes – hence, we call this the metamorphosis stage. We can say that metarmophosis and the entry socialisation process are complete when the new member has become comfortable with the organisation and his or her job. He or she has internalised the norms of the organisation and his or her work group, and understands and accepts these norms. The new member feels accepted by his or her peers as a trusted and valued individual, is self confident and competent to complete the job

successfully, and understands the system – not only about his or her own tasks, but also the rules, procedures, and informally accepted practices. Finally, he or she knows how they will be evaluated, that is, what criteria will be used to measure and appraise his or her work. He or she knows what is expected, and what constitutes a job "well done".

3.8 The Deal and Kennedy model of corporate culture

According to Deal and Kennedy (1982) corporate culture incorporates five critical elements: the business environment, values, heroes, rites and rituals, and the cultural network. The critical areas briefly, are as follows:

3.8.1 The business environment.

Deal and Kennedy argue that the activities of governments and competitors, changes in technology, customer demand and general economic conditions are instrumental in shaping the cultures of organisations with survival potential. The orientation of organisations within this environment – for example a focus on sales or concentration on research and development- develops specific cultural styles.

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3.8.2 Values

Values are at the heart of corporate culture. They are made up of the key beliefs and concepts shared by an organisation's employees. Successful companies are clear about these values and their managers publicly reinforce them. Often values are written and operate at a subconscious level.

3.8.3 Heroes

Heroes are personifications of the organisation's values, achievers who provide role models for success within the company. Heroism is an element of leadership which has been powered by managers: since the 1920s, the corporate world has been powered by managers who are rationalists, who do strategic planning, write memos, and devise flow charts (Deal and Kennedy 1982:37). Heroes on the other hand, create rather than run organisations; are intuitive rather than decisive; have all the time in the world because

they make time; are experimenters rather than routinisers; are playful; get things 'just right'. Heroes have vision and go against the existing order if necessary in order to achieve that vision. Deal and Kennedy describe this as a process in terms of 'making success attainable and human' (1982:39).

3.8.4. Rites and Rituals

Ceremonies and routine behavioural rituals reinforce the culture. Examples include product launches, sales conferences or the Friday afternoon 'beer –bust'.

3.8.5. The cultural network

This is the carrier of stories and gossip which spreads information about valued behaviour and 'heroic myths' throughout the organisation.

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3.9 How employees learn culture

Culture is transmitted to employees in a number of forms, the most important being stories, rituals, material symbols, and language. Organisational culture is formed and can be represented diagrammatically like this:

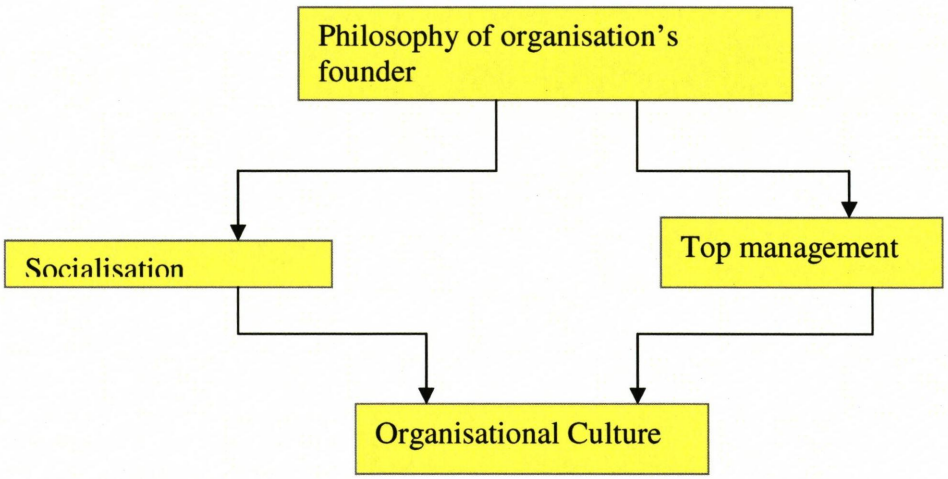


Figure 3.9.1: Source Robbins, Odendaal& Roodt (2004:389)

3. 10 Changing culture

In recent years many organisations have felt it necessary to change corporate culture to ensure survival or to gain competitive advantage. Often this was prompted by the realisation that the existing culture did not fit the desired future state for the organisation. Forces in the organisation's external environment could signal the need for a change in culture. For example, in the late 1980s and early 1990s the UK Conservative government took action to unleash market forces within the National Health Service and this had a significant impact, particularly in the case of the culture of Hospital Trust.

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In Trompenaars (1993) terms this represents an attempt to move from an individualistic to a collectivist culture. Apart from the external environmental stimulants, the fore for cultural change could come from within when senior executives apply new approaches to management, such as total quality management and process re-engineering. Next it would be necessary to envisage the desired end state as far as culture is concerned. Certain commentators see the need for strong leadership to permeate the total organisation, where 'heroes' recognise the need for change and put in place change agents and construct symbols of change in order to create the necessary momentum (Deal and Kennedy, 1982). The major emphasis in cultural change and development is on trying to change the values, attitudes and behaviour of the workforce.

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How does one go about changing culture? According to Schein (1985) the organisation can rely on the following ' primary' and 'secondary' mechanisms to change culture. These cultural change mechanisms will now be considered.

3.10.1 Primary mechanisms

(a) Matters to which leaders pay most

If senior managers place much emphasis on, for example, the control of expenditure or the importance of service to the customer and, this is visible to employees, then a powerful message is transmitted about the significance of this type of activity. Sometimes

it may be necessary to mount workshops or discussion groups to get a key message across to all employees.

(b) Leader's way of reacting to crises and ritual incidents

This could be reflected in the type of situation that is seen as a crisis situation (e.g. a relatively high materials wastage rate in the manufacturing plant) and the nature of the leader's response to the crisis (e.g. an urgent determination to tackle and solve the problem).

(c) Role modeling, teaching and coaching by leaders

Role modeling occurs when, for example, junior staff copies the behaviour of their seniors and integrate such behaviour into their own pattern of behaviour. This could apply to mannerisms and behaviour such as ways of interacting with valued clients or customers. With regard to teaching and coaching, working closely with people, offering guidance and reassurance in a supportive climate has much to commend it and has value in promoting commitment.

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(d) Criteria used for allocating rewards

Recently the visibility of performance in the job as a criterion in the determination of rewards has been apparent. At one time loyalty to the organisation received greater emphasis as a criterion than is the case today. If the relationship between performance and rewards is highly visible there is likely to be an expectation that it is functional to strive for improved performance.

(e) Criteria used for employee selection, promotions and termination of employment

The criteria that would apply under this heading relate to what selectors consider important characteristics in hiring staff, the most appropriate work behaviour to secure career advancement, and what to avoid in order to reduce the likelihood of being made redundant.

Redundancy could be used to determine the employment of employees on a compulsory basis when, for example, performance is unsatisfactory. An alternative way of shedding labour is to offer voluntary redundancy, or early retirement, particularly to those who might have difficulty in fitting into the new culture. It stands to reason that instituting redundancy measures can have a major impact on the lives of those who leave the organisation, but it can also adversely affect those who stay. For example, if there is lack of fairness or compassion in the implementation of the redundancy scheme, resentment can arise and have a negative effect after the change to culture has taken place. The legacy of this type of managerial behaviour could sour employee relations between management and workers.

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3.10.2. Secondary mechanisms

(a) Structures, systems and procedures

There could be a fortification of existing structures, systems and procedures or a significant change in them so that the organisation is repositioned to face the future with greater confidence. For example, the desired change might be to create the post-entrepreneurial organisation (e.g. flexible and free from cumbersome bureaucracy) as suggested by Kanter (1989) Eugene & Nic (2002:101). With regard to changing peoples attitudes and behaviour so that they will fit comfortably with the emerging culture, it is suggested that training and development have a part to play. For example, in teamwork

training people are given the experience of working cooperatively in activities away from the actual work situation.

This provides them with an opportunity to encounter the attitudes and processes associated with teamwork, and to perceive each others strengths and weaknesses. There is a view that it would be more productive to concentrate on changing behaviour initially in training sessions in the expectation that attitudes will follow the new or changed behaviour. This approach was adopted in equal opportunities training programmes because early attempts to develop awareness and acceptance of the need for equal opportunities were seen as unsuccessful in challenging entrenched biases. Subsequently the emphasis switched to training programmes that highlighted appropriate behaviour (e.g. unbiased interview techniques in selection and promotions). The hope is that the new experience will pose a challenge to the biased attitudes, leading to the development of core appropriate attitudes.

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(b) Artefacts, facades and physical spaces

These are aspects of the physical environment that convey images which make an impact. For example, a certain impression is created when a person attending a job interview walks into the reception area of the company and perceives an expensively furnished setting. Another manifestation of the physical environment likely to capture the attention of the person and convey a message is the number of open spaces, the layout of the offices and the nature and distribution of office equipment. When organisations change situations identified above as part of a cultural facelift they could also change certain aspects of the physical environment so that they blend with the changes made. They may also change their logo (symbol of corporate identity) if the old one is out of keeping with the changed circumstances.

© **Stories and legends about important events and people**

There could be stories and legends containing a mixture of fact and fiction about heroic deeds in the past that may have contributed in a significant way to the company's success, or alternatively saved the company from disaster. The message is that present employees must not lose sight of dedication to duty and the need to continue with unselfish commitment to the success of the organisation. Where accounts of management incompetence or greed circulate perhaps the expectation is that these are things we should learn from and avoid now and in the future.

(d) Formal statements of philosophy and policy

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These could include mission statements, which are explicit articulations of the direction in which the organisation is going and the values to which it will adhere. These statements should reflect reality and ideally should be reinforced with reference to their practical significance in a discussion forum (Eugene & Nic, 2002:102).

3.11 Culture change initiatives

Three initiatives or interventions worthy of note are quality circles (QCs), total quality management and business process re-engineering. These interventions are as follows:

3.11.1 Quality Circles

A quality circle (QC) is a group joined by shopfloor workers to solve problems related to barriers to quality improvement, cost reduction, working conditions, health and safety, etc. The group, normally led by a team leader, consists of 5 to 10 volunteer employees who meet regularly (weekly or fortnightly) to identify and solve problems. In order to equip the QC members to sharpen and develop their problem solving skills, they are

offered training programmes covering topics such as problem definition, statistical analysis and teamwork and communication skills.

It is claimed by some commentators that QCs have a beneficial effect on a number of fronts e.g. communication, participation, job satisfaction and personal growth- which leads to increased quality and efficiency. For instance, Dale et al. (1998) believe that QCs represent an advanced form of employee participation which is associated with favourable employee attitudes and productivity. It is suggested that social needs are satisfied in QCs because an outlet is provided for the expression of grievances and irritations, and instant recognition is provided for the accomplishments of members. All this could have a beneficial effect in terms of a sense of dignity, morale and group cohesiveness. However, there is evidence that challenges these claims. It is suggested that the significance of the QC in Japan has been overrated because the difficulties addressed were relatively trivial; in fact, a rather small percentage of 'quality' problems were confronted (Schonberger, 1982).

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3.11.2 Total quality management

TQM is a major management philosophy that embodies the important aim of satisfying customer's requirements as efficiently and profitably as possible, to improve performance continually as situations allow and to ensure that all work activities achieve the corporate objectives and are completed right first time. Quality is seen as the key to the organisation's success, and the success of any policy on quality lies firmly on the shoulders of every employee.

To underpin this approach to management would probably require a mixture of soft (e.g. customer care, participation, training, teamwork and performance) and hard factors (e.g. production standards and techniques, and quantitative analysis in the assessment of quality). The proponents of TQM would see it as a 'bolt - on ' technique, which was only

attributable to QCs. In this case of QC's the training and cultural change techniques necessary to embed the circles in the values and attitudes of employees were rarely instituted. But TQM is strategically driven by top management and almost prescribes involvement of all employees in matters connected with quality in their jobs. Since TQM emphasises commitment, trust and self -control within a unitarist perspective it is consistent with Human Resource Management. Also, the introduction of TQM gives HRM the opportunity to play a more strategic role in the organisation, such as the creation and maintenance of a supportive culture.

It is interesting to note that generally there is a lack of HRM comment in the TQM literature, which tends to be concerned with the technical design of systems and solutions (Wilkinson and Marchington, 1994). Nevertheless, Guest (1992) sees quality improvement as inextricably linked to HRM in the following ways:

- Training and development is the normal technique for communicating the importance of quality
- Because the quality and commitment of the employees is crucial in improving the quality of the product or service there is a need for systematic recruitment, selection and training.
- Top management commitment to TQM is a function of the quality and development of management.
- Adherence to quality takes root in a process of employee involvement and a flexible mode of operation, and this is likely to be more compatible with an organic type of organisation imbued with high trust.

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Although TQM has its supporters as an effective intervention in changing and developing culture it has been subject to criticism. It is argued that it is questionable whether employee empowerment or greater autonomy results. On the basis of the case study of an electronics manufacturing company where TQM was adopted, it was clear that problem solving teams worked on problems identified by management, and implementation of the

solutions and any deviations from the standard format for the execution of a task led to the exercise of management control (Sewell and Wilkinson, 1992). Putting TQM into practice is no easy matter. It has been suggested that there is a high failure rate in the application of TQM in Europe (Zairi et al., 1994). In the United States the results of the study showed that there was a lack of managerial skills in handling it, a resistance to change on the part of those involved, and recognition that it took longer than expected to produce results (Lorenz, 1993).

3.11.3 Business process re engineering (BPR)

BPR has been defined as 'a radical scrutiny, questioning, redefinition, and redesign of business process with the aim of eliminating all activities not central to the process goals (Thomas, 1994). As a process of change that questions the way activities are carried out in the organisation BPR focuses on core business (that is, activities that add value), leaving non core activities to be contracted out.

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A special characteristic of BPR from an organisational design perspective is that it advocates a departure from rigid compartmentalisation of processes in hierarchical organisation arranged on a functional basis, which can lead to unacceptable of the cross functional project team approach, which is similar in some respects to matrix organisation and project management. It poses a direct challenge to the division of labour and the need for hierarchical control.

The proponents of BRP point to advantages in terms of speed of response, quality, delayering and the scope to apply information technology to handle complex interdependent and cross- functional processes. In the early 1990s IBM introduced a new management structure after the arrival of its new chairman and chief executive. Shortly afterwards the focus was on business processes, that is , the way the company carried out the multitude of tasks related to forming and maintaining customer relationships. The

main justification for the company's adoption of BRP was to satisfy the needs of customers more effectively (Kehoe, 1994).There are some parallels between BRP and TQM, sine both interventions include major organisational and cultural changes. Both require vision and commitmen ton the part of employees.

3.12 Matching people with cultures

There is now a substantive body of evidence to demonstrate that organisations attempt to select new members who fit in well with the organisation's culture. And most job candidates similarly try to find organisations where their values and personality will fit in. Recent research by Goffee and Jones provides some interesting insights on different organisational cultures and guidance to prospective employees. They have identified four distinct culture types. Let's look at their cultural framework and how one can use it to select an employer where he/she can fit in best.

Goffee and Jones argue that two dimensions underlie organisational culture. The first they call sociability. This is a measure of friendliness. High sociability means people do kind things for one another without expecting something in return and relate to each other in a friendly, caring way. In terms of our definition of organisational culture presented previously, sociability is consistent with a high people orientation, high team orientation, and focus on processes rather than outcomes. The second is solidarity. It is measure of task orientation. High solidarity means people can overlook personal biases and rally behind common interests and common goals. Again, referring back to our earlier definition, solidarity is consistent with high attention to detail and high aggressiveness.

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3.13 Organisational culture: South African perspective

Research in South Africa has indicated that the concept of culture, as described in the four culture typology, is a very useful tool for managers. It provides a quick and easy entry point to the culture of management of an organisation. The results of the South African studies show the following:

- The positive or negative tilt of culture explains why the functional organisation can easily change into a dysfunctional one.
- On the surface it might look as if the culture of an organisation is healthy with appropriate levels of sociability and solidarity, but below the surface these could have a very negative impact on performance.
- The results of the culture measurement could be used to formulate and decide on the best course of action when it is necessary to change culture.
- By using the concept of culture, managers could establish competitive advantages for their businesses.

Various studies have been conducted on organisational culture and its impact on the South African business environment. One of these studies focused on the development of a model of organisational culture, which includes the organisation as a system, the survival functions, and the dimensions of culture (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, and 2004:393).

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3.13.1 Model of the influence of organisational culture on creativity and innovation

A second study has focused on creativity and innovation and how it is influenced by organisational culture. The results of this study has shown that cultural determinants like trust relationship, behaviour that encourages innovation, work environment, customer orientation and management support influence the degree to which creativity and innovation are stimulated and promoted (Ibid:393).

In our definition of organisational culture, we have suggested that one of the primary characteristics of organisational culture is innovation and risk taking. This South African research confirms the importance of innovation and risk taking, especially in the changing environment experienced in South Africa.

Based on the literature viewed for this study, determinants of organisational culture that may have an influence on the degree to which creativity and innovation are stimulated, but could not be empirically tested, are, for example, goal orientation, support mechanisms (like availability of time to be creative and innovative), recruiting and

selecting creative people, rewards and recognition, continuous learning, values like freedom and flexibility, speed of decision making process, and competitiveness. The South African model of organisational culture emphasises the complex nature of culture, but also its importance in managing companies effectively in the new millenium.

3.13.2. Relationship between participative management and corporate culture

Another study in South Africa focused on the relationship between the dimensions of participative management and corporate culture (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt (2004:393). The results indicated that, from a cultural perspective, corporate culture is one of the organisational processes that are grounded on established values and norms on which employees focus their behaviour, attitude, perceptions and decisions.

The study confirms that participative management and corporate culture, as perceived by workers and management, were interrelated and are not independent concepts. That the results of the study support the literature implies that culture is an important factor which determines the success or failure of participation. The results thus confirm the point of view that a participative culture can only be achieved if all stakeholders are actively involved in an organisation where employee involvement and empowerment are also key factors. The implications are that participative measures can only be successfully implemented if they are supported by a participative corporate culture.

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3.14 Organisational Gender Culture

Green and Cassell (1996) argue that the case for linking culture with gendered experience is a compelling one and one which is becoming increasingly recognised as crucial to the understanding of women's experience in organisations. Organisational analysis is complex in that the differentiated cultures both within and between organisations can display diverse undersatnding of masculinity and feminity, but nonetheless these reinforce traditional patriarchal hierachies. Most importantly, analysing the impact of the gendered nature of organisational cultures on the everyday experiences of women managers is an area ripe for further investigation, www.oup.co.uk/pdf/bt/fincham/Chapter15.pdf .

3.15 Frameworks for assessing cultural differences

Cultural differences between or within countries can be assessed according to various frameworks. The three most commonly used are the Kluckhorn – Strodtbeck framework, the Hofstede framework, and the Trompenaars framework, and these will be briefly discussed below (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, and 2001:32).

3.15. 1 The Kluckhorn – Strodtbeck Framework

This framework uses six basic cultural dimensions to assess differences between cultures. These are: person's relationship with the environment, time orientation, nature of people, activity orientation, focus of responsibility, and conception of space. These dimensions will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

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(a) Relationship with the environment

Cultures differ in their views of the individuals relationship with nature. There are two extremes: some cultures are subjugated to nature, while others try to dominate it. A third more moderate approach, is to live in harmony with nature. Most people of European or Western origin try to dominate their environment because they believe that their destiny is not determined by fate. These people try to find cures for disease, and solutions for natural disasters. Most cultures from the Middle East believe that everything is pre – ordained and that people can do nothing to change their destiny. Asian cultures tend to believe that man should live in harmony with nature.

(b) Time orientation

Cultures differ with respect to their time orientation – some focus more on the past, others on the present, and still others on the future. Most Western cultures perceive time as a scarce resource that must be used efficiently because "time is money". Much money is therefore invested in time saving devices such as e-mail, the internet, and fax machines. These cultures normally focus on the present and the near future. Most

traditional African cultures tend to focus on the past, have little time consciousness, and consequently little time urgency. Traditionally, Africans are guided by traditions and historical practices, but, of course, in the workplace, many will have been Westernised, and have a western outlook.

Knowing what people's orientations are can provide valuable insight into their attitudes to deadlines, planning for the future, duration of assignments, and being punctual.

© Nature of people

Various cultures will have differing views of human nature. Some cultures view people as essentially dishonest and untrustworthy. Cultures with moderate views tend to see people as basically good, but on the lookout not to be taken advantage of. The dominant perception of human nature will influence the leadership style of a culture. An autocratic style will dominate in those cultures that view people as bad or evil; and a participating or even a laissez-faire style will be evident in countries that emphasise trusting values. Middle of the road cultures like to emphasise participation, but have control mechanisms in place to deal with deviant behaviours. These cultural views of people may contribute significantly to a manager's fundamental beliefs about people, and this, in turn may again affect motivation of staff.

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(d) Activity orientation

A further distinction between cultures can be based on activity orientation. Some cultures are more activity – or doing – oriented; others focus on being or living for the moment; and a third group focuses on controlling by restraining their desires through detachment from objects. North Americans and Germans are activity oriented. They focus on achieving things in life. They work and play hard and prefer to be rewarded in tangible (materialistic) ways for achievements. Mexicans and most Africans, by contrast, live for the moment. People in these cultures tend to make their decisions on an emotional basis. They live at a slower pace and tend to enjoy the moment. Australians, perhaps, are

between these two extremes: they work relatively hard, but also value leisure and won't sacrifice the one for the other.

An understanding of a culture's activity orientation gives insight into how people from that culture approach work and leisure; how they make decisions; what criteria they apply in allocating rewards.

(e) Focus of responsibility

Cultures differ in terms of assuming responsibility for others. Some cultures, like the North American, are highly individualistic. Most individuals in these cultures use personal characteristics and achievements to define their identity. This dimension of culture has direct implications on the design of jobs, approaches to decision making, communication patterns, reward systems and selection practices. In individualistic societies, emphasis is placed on individual achievements, while in group societies; emphasis is placed on being a "team player". In hierarchical societies, such decisions are made on the basis of social rank.

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(f) Conception of space

The last dimension in this framework refers to the ownership of personal space. Some societies are very open and public, while others tend to keep things private. Most societies mix the two and fall somewhere between these two extremes. The Japanese workplace reflects the public nature of Japanese society, and there are few private offices. Managers and operational staff work in the same office space, and there are no separations between desks. This may also be a function of low levels of status differentiation in this society. Most western countries, such as the U.S.A., Britain, and Australia, reflect their cultural values by using private offices (also to reflect their status). Important meetings are conducted behind closed doors. In societies with a "mixed "orientation, there is a blend between private and public, "work stations" in open space

arrangements are separated by partitions of about 1, 5 m high, which grants "limited privacy".

3.15.2 The Hofstede framework

Geert Hofstede made a comprehensive study of cultural comparisons. These studies have been conducted in the IBM branches across 40 countries and included 160000 employees. From his findings, Hofstede concluded that there were indeed differences between cultures, and that these cultural differences accounted for more variance in work related values and attitudes than biographical variables such as age, gender, profession, and position. The dimensions that Hofstede used for his study were the following:

- Individualism versus collectivism;
- Power distance
- Uncertainty avoidance;
- Masculinity versus feminity; and
- Long term orientation.

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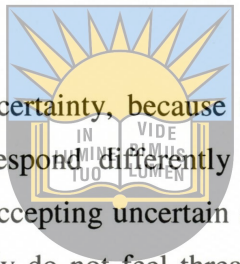
(a) Individualism versus collectivism

Individualism refers to a loosely knit framework in which people are supposed to look after their own interests and those of their immediate family. In societies where these values dominate, individuals experience a large amount of freedom. The opposite is collectivism, which is characterised by a tight social framework in which there is an expectation that people should look after and care for one another. Hofstede found that individualistic values are fostered in wealthy countries and poor countries reflected collectivist values.

(b) Power distance

Individuals vary in terms of wealth, power, status, and prestige, due to the differences in natural and learned abilities. Societies deal in different ways with these differences ad inequalities. Hofstede used the term power distance to describe the extent to which society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organisations is distributed unequally. A society that is high in power distance accepts these differences in power and its members show respect for authority.

(c) Uncertainty



We all live in a world of uncertainty, because the future is and will always be largely unknown. Societies respond differently to uncertainties. Some societies socialize their members into accepting uncertain and ambiguous situations, so that people in such societies mostly do not feel threatened by behaviour and opinions that differ from their own. Hofstede describes such societies as low in uncertainty avoidance, and mentions Sweden, Singapore, and Denmark as examples.

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A society high in uncertainty avoidance is characterized by increased anxiety, which manifests in greater nervousness, stress, and aggressiveness. Because people in such societies feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity, mechanisms are created to provide security and reduce risk. Organisations in these societies are likely to have more formal rules and regulations. Employees show relative low job mobility and lifetime employment is widely practiced.

(d) Masculinity versus femininity / quantity versus quality of life

Robbins et.al chose to label this dichotomy quantity versus quality of life as opposed to Hofstede's "masculinity versus feminity", because they considered the latter term to have a "strong sexist" connotation. Some cultures, emphasizing quantity of life, value things such as assertiveness and the acquisition of money and

material things. In Japan, almost all women are expected to stay at home and take care of children; very few are in managerial positions. In countries high on the quality dimension (including the Nordic countries such as Sweden, Norway, and Denmark) it is not uncommon to find men staying at home while their wives work. Men are also allowed to take paternity leave to take care of newborn children.

(d) Long term orientation

Hofstede added a fifth dimension, long term orientation, later. Cultures with a long term orientation emphasise long –term results over short term gratification. Cultures that score high in this dimension are characterized by patience, perseverance, and respect for tradition

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3.15.3 Trompenaars framework

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Fons Trompenaars conducted a similar study in 28 countries, and 15000 managers were included in his survey. He tried to address some of the limitations of the Hofstede study in his research. Trompenaars study included five dimensions: particularism, individualism versus collectivism, neutral versus affective, specific versus diffuse, and achievement versus ascription.

(a) Universalism vs. particularism

People with universalistic view believe that ideas and practices should be applied everywhere without any modification. Such cultures emphasise formal rules and procedures in their deals with others, for example, in business contracts. On the other hand, cultures that believe that circumstances determine how ideas and practices should be applied are said to be particularistic in their views. These cultures put more emphasis on personal relationships and trust.

(b) Individualism vs. collectivism

This dimension is similar to the Hofstede dimension, but it was operationalised (measured) differently. "Individualism" refers to people who regard themselves as individuals, while " collectivism" refers to people who regard themselves as part of a larger group. This dimension, common to all three frameworks, has been widely researched and related to different variables such as goal setting, stress, and locus of control.

© Neutral vs. affective

In neutral cultures, emotions are held in control, and people are not emotionally expressive (for example, Japanese and British). In affective cultures, emotions are expressed openly and naturally (for example, Mexicans and Africans).

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(d) Specific vs. diffuse

In specific cultures, each individual who owns a large public space shares a portion of this space (the private space) only with close friends or relatives (for example, the U.S.A. and the U.K.). In diffuse cultures, the differentiation between public and private space also means entering into the private space (for example, China).

(e) Achievement vs. ascription

Achievement cultures award status based on individual performance (for example, Germany and the U.S.A.) Ascription cultures award status on the basis of who and what a person is (for example, China and Venezuela).

3.16 Conclusion

Culture spans the range of management thinking and organisational culture has been one of the most enduring buzzwords of popular management. Why? What is the appeal of the concept? Organisational culture is apparently unifying and this strongly appeals to management's concern to project an image of the organisation as a community of interests. Perhaps most importantly, culture penetrates to the essence of an organisation – it almost analogous with the concept of personality in relation to the individual and this acute sense of what an organisation is, its mission, its core values - seems to have become a necessary asset of the modern company.

It should be clear that the organisational culture and attempts to change and manage it are legitimate concerns of HRM. Culture is closely linked to strategy and structure and influences activities such as recruitment, selection, appraisal, training and rewards, which are of importance to the organisation, as people are the most valuable assets of the organisation. Changing culture is a prolonged and costly process. Since a chapter has been dedicated to culture and organisational culture, it is of importance that a chapter be about dealing with diversity and managing diversity in the workplace be included since relates to diversity, people being diverse as a result of their differences.

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CHAPTER FOUR

Diversity and Managing Cultural Diversity in the South African Workplace

4.1 Introduction

Chapter two and three presented a literature review of women under apartheid and culture and organisational culture respectively. It was necessary to include a chapter on diversity and cultural diversity since these concepts are of great importance to and some how correlate with the appointment of women in industry. This chapter will begin on with a brief introduction on the topic at hand, and then discuss it in details.

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The world's increasing globalisation requires more interaction among people from diverse cultures, beliefs, and backgrounds than ever before. People no longer live and work in an insular marketplace; they are now part of a worldwide economy with competition coming from nearly every continent. For this reason, profit and non profit organizations need diversity to become more creative and open to change. Maximising and capitalizing on the workforce diversity has become an important issue for management today, as website points out.
http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/hr022accessed22/05/2006.

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For many businesses, it is a disappointing and unfortunate fact: diversity efforts have not yet made the progress that so many had hoped for since South Africa's transition to a constitutional democracy. Understanding why South African business organisations generally have not yet made more diversity progress is difficult. The bottom line is to maximize the impact of diversity efforts, diversity work must be interwoven directly into the business strategies and the way business is managed as Jeff Sacht, argues in an article about diversity in the workplace and the progress that has been made.
http://wwww.workinfo.com/free/downloads/92.htm.

4.2 A brief history: the early days of changing the complexion of businesses

Diversity efforts were driven in the 80's, and early '90's primarily by the need to begin to adapt to the realities of a shrinking talent pool, and revised legislation 'outlawing ' discriminatory HR practices based on colour and gender, http://upetd.up.ac.za/thesis/available/etd-11112005-112310/. For instance, 'Equal Employment Opportunity' practices and subsequent 'valuing diversity' efforts focused on a subset of the population, requiring employers to increase the presence of under represented groups in their workforce.

The scope of diversity work expanded dramatically from 1994 onwards with the promulgation of the South Africa Constitution Act, and from 1998 onwards with the passing of the Employment Equity Act. Employers have been forced (by law) to accelerate the hiring of a more diverse workforce and to remove the barriers to employment progress for previously disadvantaged groups. However, changing the numbers has not been enough; figuring out how, effectively, to work together is the bigger challenge and education about differences has been introduced.

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While recognizing the law a mandatory, this " extra effort", which focuses on diversity training and interpersonal learning, is still perhaps treated as an optional extra frequently not integrated with business, and less effective than ' affirmed' leadership intends. Jeff further argues that, while there are a few success stories (like SA Breweries), there are many cases in which participants either do not know why they are there or why they are or are not able to apply what they learned on the job because their corporate culture does not reinforce the education they received.

4.3 Evolving diversity practices: the next generation

Some organisations are undoubtedly beginning to take a more comprehensive view of diversity issues, not simply completing diversity training, then "checking the box" as if

the work was done but, rather, looking at how the issue of diversity impacts on their ability to achieve their mission and enhance the bottom line. Some organisations are in the starting blocks where they are genuinely trying to understand the business rationale behind these efforts unsure of what to do next.

At the other end of the continuum, some leaders have already learned that attending to diversity issues could differentiate their organisation as an employer, vendor, or service provider – and they continue to take action. Within the next 3-5 years the legislation around Employment Equity (second generation legislation) will undoubtedly begin to force employers to examine diversity in the context of not only the business case, but also the people dimension of the business strategy, which, in turn, has an impact on both the workforce and the customers.

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4.4 Definitions of workforce diversity

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Diversity has been defined by a number of scholars and institutions in various parts of the world. Below are a few significant definitions, http://upetd.up.ac.za/thesis/available/etd-11112005-112310/. On the most elementary level, diversity can be defined as " race, gender, age, language, physical characteristics, disability, sexual orientation, economic status, parental status, education, geographic origin profession, lifestyle, religion, position in the company hierarchy, and any other difference" (O'Mara 1994:115). Thus any characteristic that differentiates one person from another implies diversity.

Gardenswartz and Rowe (1993), states that diversity can be defined as differences in race, gender, age, language, physical characteristics, disability, sexual orientation economic status, parental education, geographic origin, profession, lifestyle, religion, position in company hierarchy, and any other difference.

Cox (1994:6) defines cultural diversity as "the representation, in one social system, of people with distinctly different group affiliations of cultural significance". Giggs and

Louw (1995) define diversity in a work situation as "encompassing every individual difference that affects a task or relationships".

Gardenswartz and Rowe (1993) and Este, Griffen and Hirch (1995) make a distinction between primary (age, ethnicity, gender, physical ability, race) and secondary dimensions of diversity (geography, income, mental status, etc). They state that diversity is often synonymous with multiculturalism. Multiculturalism refers to variety cultures. This introduces another set of relevant terms, for example, Afro Centrism, multicentrism, pluralism, particularism, universalism, separatism, relativism etc.

Parek (1992:44) and O'Mara (1994:118) assert "that people operate in specific social structures composed of multi-communities/ cultures". In terms of diversity, it means that the differences of others should be created that does not require assimilation of another culture that is, taking on its traits and leaving the culture of origin behind.

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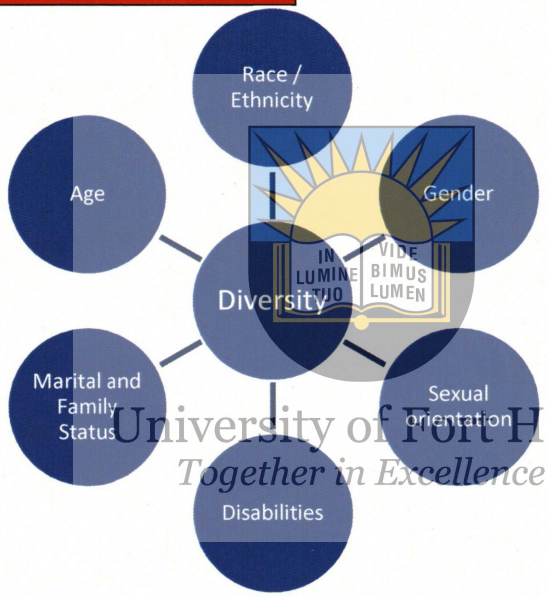
Thomas observes that (1996:11) "diversity refers to any mixture of items characterized by differences and similarities". Thomas says that the above definition appears simple on the surface, but its implications are significant. Firstly, diversity is not synonymous with differences, but encompasses differences and similarities. One way to looks at this is to think of a macro/micro continuum. A micro perspective looks at the individual components and a macro perspective looks at the mixture. To get at the true nature of diversity (comprising differences and similarities) requires an ability to assume both perspectives simultaneously; the micro facilitates identification of differences, and the macro enhances the ability to see similarities.

Secondly, diversity refers to the collective (all inclusive) mixture of differences and similarities along a given dimension. This means that when one is dealing with diversity, one is focusing on the collective mixture, not just pieces of it. Thirdly, the component elements in a diversity mixture may vary, and so a discussion of diversity must specify the dimensions in question. The components of a diversity mixture may be people,

concepts, concrete items, or abstractions. Diversity is about the differences among people, but there is some controversy over what that means.

As used by most employers and enforcement agencies, the concept of diversity typically includes the dimensions depicted in the figure below (Robert & John, 2004:121).

Figure 4.4.1. Dimensions of diversity



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Source: Marthis and Jackson 2004:121

Any of these dimensions can create conflicts among people at work, but they can also bring the advantages of different ideas and viewpoints. As organisations and mangers have more diverse individuals in the workplace, they find that diversity is a strategic HR consideration. Diversity is seen in demographic differences in the workforce. As a result of demographic shifts, HR management in organisations has had to adapt to a more diverse labour force both externally and internally. Among the problems to be addressed as part of managing diversity is to deal with a number of concerns often cited by protected groups of individuals as well as others. Two common concerns are perceived hostile organisational cultures and stereotyping.

Diversity encompasses all forms of difference among individuals, including culture, gender, age, ability, religious affiliation, personality, economic class, social status, military attachments, and sexual orientation (Nelson and Quick, 1997:39). In South Africa, we may add political affiliation, which is a subtle but powerful force in the diversity stakes. It now plays a critical role in affecting the composition, and thus the diversity, of the workforce in both the public and private sectors.

Diversity is the opposite concept to universality, a generalisation which may be made about all cultures. Certain activities occur across cultures; that is, they are common to all cultures, but their manifestation may be unique to a particular society. Workforce diversity is a powerful force for change in organisations, and change itself is a force to be reckoned with in companies (Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk, 1999:178). Many protected persons perceive that they work in organisational cultures that are hostile to them. The primary way to overcome these perceptions is to have an active diversity management program. Only by working to create a culture that is inclusive can organisational cultures be seen as less hostile by racial/ethnic minorities, women, older workers, those with disabilities, as well as those who are white, male, or younger.

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Diversity is generally defined as acknowledging, understanding, accepting, valuing, and celebrating differences among people with respect to age, class, ethnicity, gender, physical and mental ability, race, sexual orientation, spiritual practice, and public assistance status (Esty, et al., 1995). Valuing diversity means acknowledging that other people, other races, other voices, and other cultures have as much integrity and as much claim on the world as anyone does. It is the recognition that there are other ways of seeing the world, solving problems, and working together.

Diversity issues are now considered important and are projected to become even more important in the future due to increasing differences in the South African population. Companies need to focus on diversity and look for ways to become totally inclusive organisations because diversity has the potential of yielding greater productivity and competitive advantages (SHRM, 1995). Stephen postulated that diversity is an invaluable competitive asset that America cannot afford to ignore (Robinson, 2002).

Relationships and tasks are most relevant to the purpose of this research, because differences between people influence relationships, which in turn influence the execution of tasks. For the purpose of this research, the definition of Giggs and Louw is most significant in determining factors of workforce diversity.

4. 5 Determining factors of workforce diversity

4.5.1 Women in the workplace

The need to understand diversity is also driven by women issues relating to in the workplace. Today's workforce has the highest levels of employment participation ever by women. The number of dual income families and single working mothers has increased. Change in the family structure means that there are fewer men and women in traditional family roles (Zwegenhaft and Domhoff, 1998). Therefore, diversity issues cut across both race and gender, http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/hr022.

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4. 5. 2 Organisational Restructuring

There have been significant changes to organizations as a result of downsizing and outsourcing, which has greatly affected human resource management. Work practices have changed due to the impact of globalisation and technology and there is a trend toward longer working hours (Losyk, 1996). Generally speaking, reorganizations usually result in fewer people doing more, http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/hr022.

4.5.3 Legislation

Government legislation such as Employment Equity Act, Basic Conditions of Employment act, Labour Relations Act and gender equality measures, make discrimination in workplaces illegal. These laws specify the rights and responsibilities of both employer and employees in the workplace and hold both groups accountable, http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/hr022.

4.6 Workforce related- trends in diversity

Effective management of workforce diversity accommodates the challenges of leading a diverse workforce. Some of the challenges are contained in trends which managers should also take cognizance of. Cox (1994) identified the following trends, as stipulated in the website, http://upetd.up.ac.za/thesis/available/etd-11112005-112310/:

(i) Workforce is becoming more diverse regarding gender, race and nationality criteria. This is reflected by world population demographics. Joplin and Daus (1997:32), point to two issues that are recognized with increasing diversity and that can be effectively managed:

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(a) Changes in the power dynamics. This is very relevant for South Africa. For example the period 1998 to 1999, South Africa saw the first black president of its central bank. It is important for this new president to be effective in managing workforce diversity, so that that manager and staff do not develop feelings of detachment from the bank (Tsui et al in Joplin and Daus, 1997).

(b) Tokenism, real and perceived. Real tokenism occurs when an employee is hired over other clearly more qualified candidates in an effort to address stake holder concerns, or simply to meet number quota systems. From 1997 this has been a trend in South Africa.

(ii) The importance of cross- functional teams as a basis for achieving a competitive advantage is being emphasised. The interrelationship between differing work functions and their respective cultures is applicable. Levine (in Joplin and Daus, 1996), points to the value of participation in the effective management of workforce diversity. Diverse employee participation in critical organisational

processes is necessary to enable the organisation to capitalize on new, different and creative ways of thinking.

Such participation can ease the tension resulting from the issue of power sharing and changed power dynamics; the expression and gathering of different perspectives and opinions; the building of perceptions of empathy; and the reduction of real and perceived tokenism.

(iii) An emphasis on global marketing and multinational operations is increasingly necessary for companies to survive. Citizens of one country come into contact with problems and developments in other areas of the world by means of the media and technological developments. They realize that they are not the only ones struggling with specific issues and form they support networks to encourage each other.

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4.7 Challenges of diversity in the workplace

There are challenges to managing a diverse work population. Managing diversity is more than simply acknowledging differences in people, http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/hr022. It involves recognizing the value of differences, combating discrimination, and promoting inclusiveness. Managers may also be challenged with losses in personnel and work productivity due to prejudice and discrimination and complaints and legal actions against the organisation (Devoe, 1999).

Negative attitudes and behaviours can be barriers to organizational diversity because they can harm working relationships and damage morale and work productivity (Esty, et., 1995). Negative attitudes and behaviours in the workplace include prejudice, stereotyping, and discrimination, which should never be used by management for hiring, retention, and termination practices (could lead to costly litigation).

4.8 Overview strategies for promoting diversity

Many organisations have adopted equal opportunities policies – statements of commitment to fair human resource management. However, equal opportunities policies are notoriously ineffective, often no more than fine words decorating office walls, designed to appease politically vociferous activists and to soothe consciences. They disturb vested interests too rarely. The obstacles to creating a diversified workforce are embedded in organisational culture – particularly the subculture at the top. A serious equal opportunity policy requires (Molander and Winteron, 1994:102):

- Allocation of overall responsibility to a specific senior executive.
- Agreement of the policy with employee representatives.
- Effective communication of the policy to all employees.
- An accurate survey of existing employees in terms of gender, ethnic origin, disability, etc. and the nature and status of their jobs.
- An audit of human resource practices and their implications for equal opportunities.
- Setting equal opportunity objectives within the human resource strategy.
- Resources, such as training and development capabilities, to back up these objectives.

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This approach can be incorporated within an integrated framework termed the management of diversity. Management of diversity goes beyond equal opportunity. Instead of merely allowing a greater range of people the opportunity to 'fit in' or to be an honorary 'large, white male', the concept of diversity embodies the belief that people should be valued for their differences and variety. Diversity is perceived to enrich an organisation's human capital. Whereas equal opportunity focuses on various disadvantaged groups, the management of diversity is about individuals. It entails a minimization of cloning in selection and promotion procedures and a model of resourcing aimed at finding flexible employees (Price 1997:265).

The pitfalls in the process are evident. A 1995 report *(Targeting Potential Discrimination)* produced by the UK Equal Opportunities Commission detailed findings from 2,000 companies and showed that over two thirds did not collect information about the gender and ethnicity of their employees. Auditing HR systems is also problematic. However the main difficulties arise from cost and lack of commitment, exemplified by tokenism- the employment or promotion of isolated individuals to represent their gender or colour. This is no more than an inadequate sop to equal opportunities. There are two aspects to achieving diversity as stipulated in the website; http://www.professionalpractice.asme.org/communications/diversity/6htm. The first is getting there: moving from a non diverse to a diverse workforce. The second is managing diversity; ensuring that the benefits are realized while the costs are minimized. Typical components of a comprehensive diversity initiative include:



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- Talent shortage
- Range of customer needs
- Demographics
- Globalisation

4.9 Diversity Management

The existence of diversity in the workforce is something that most industries and managers need to deal with, as South Africa is a diverse country. Whether we try to ignore it or not, the fact still stands that South Africa and even other countries employ different people who come from different backgrounds and having different cultures. Then there is the uniqueness of individuals even if they are of the same culture, which poses challenges to industries and management facing diversity. This calls for a chapter about managing diversity, especially in South African industries.

Managing and valuing diversity is a key component of effective people management, which can improve workplace productivity (Black Enterprise, 2001). Demographic changes (women in the workplace, organizational restructurings, and equal opportunity legislation) will require organisational to review their management practices and develop

new and creative approaches to managing people. Changes will increase work performance and customer service.

Managing diversity means promoting inclusion, creating an environment where all differences are valued, and in which each employee can develop to her or his full potential. From a business perspective, managing diversity is valuable because it means an organisations gets the most from its employees. Companies that effectively manage diversity recognize that it is not enough to hire employees from underrepresented groups; they must also provide an environment where all employees are supported and valued.

In the past, debate in South Africa around employment equity typically centred on the moral, social and legal obligations of employers. However, there is a new paradigm emerging that perceives diversity as a valuable attribute that provides an organisation with a competitive edge, provided that a business environment conducive to the appreciation and utilisation of diversity is created. Not only does the diverse population of South Africa contribute to workplace diversity, but organisations are also becoming global in orientation and outlook. A homogeneity of workforce backgrounds is giving way to heterogeneity; a homogenisation of the human race, in terms of technological culture, is taking place. Unicultural groups, in which virtually all members come from the same background, are no longer the norm in workplaces. This is a paradox, though, because a 'world culture' is simultaneously also evolving.

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Biculturality and multiculturality, not only of the workforce in general, but of the workforce management in particular, are now the trend, unlike the previously predominant unicultural workforce management. Technology is rendering human culture paradoxical, even as workforces are becoming bicultural or multicultural. In a bicultural workforce, most members represent one or any other of two distinct cultures, whereas in a multicultural workforce, members represent three or more ethnic backgrounds (Adler, 1991:16).

4.10 Required tools for managing diversity

Effective managers are aware that certain skills are necessary for creating a successful, diverse workforce. First, managers must understand discrimination and its consequences. Second, managers must recognize their own cultural biases and prejudices (Koonce, 2001). Diversity is not about differences among groups, but rather about differences among individuals, http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/hr022 . Each individual is unique and does not represent or speak for a particular group. Finally, managers must be willing to change the organisation if necessary (Koonce, 2001). Organisations need to learn how to manage diversity in the workplace to be successful in the future (Flagg, 2002).

Unfortunately, there is no single recipe for success. It mainly depends on the manager's ability to understand what is best for the organisation based on teamwork and the dynamics of the workplace. According to Roosevelt (2001), managing diversity is a comprehensive process for creating a work environment that includes everyone. When creating a successful diverse workforce, an effective manager should focus on personal awareness. Both managers and employees need to develop, implement, maintain ongoing training because a one day session of training will not change people's behaviours (Koonce, 2001). Managers must also understand that fairness is not necessarily equality. There are always exceptions to the rule.

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Managing diversity is about more than equal employment opportunity and affirmative action, (Losyk, 1996). Managers should expect change to be slow, while at the same time encouraging change (Koonce, 2001). Another vital requirement when dealing with diversity is promoting a "safe "place for employees to communicate (Koonce, 2001). Social gatherings and meetings and business meetings, where every member must listen and have the chance to speak, are a good way to create dialogue. Managers should implement policies such as mentoring programs to provide associates access to information and opportunities. Also, employees should never be denied necessary, constructive, critical feedback for learning about mistakes and successes (Flagg, 2002).

4.11 The impact of workforce diversity in South Africa

Workforce diversity as explained in Cox's integrated model of cultural diversity is relevant, significant and important for South Africa, because too many organisations do not understand it and do not know how to manage it, http://upetd.up.ac.za/thesis/available/etd-11112005-112310/. The implementation of legislative measures for affirmative action (1997) and employment equity interventions (1998) creates increasing workforce diversity.

Increasing workforce diversity reinforces the need for knowledge about workforce diversity and its management in South Africa as has been recognised by some organisational development practitioners. Rosmarin (1994) adds the following perspectives about the impact of workforce diversity at individual, inter-personal/group and organisational levels in South Africa.

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(i) At a personal level, an examination of how differences impact on individual behaviour needs to be initiated. Different messages are received which help define a person's worth and self –esteem, both as an individual and as part of a group (however the group may be defined).Messages and judgements are received about others, particularly those who are different racially and culturally. It means examining aspects of one's own beliefs, values and life experiences which are normally hidden.

(ii) Probing at the interpersonal level involves a thorough and more minute dissection of what goes on between people, especially where there is racial, gender or cultural differences. It involves more awareness and understanding of the traits of people, which are regarded as positive or negative, and perceiving which of those traits are based on value judgements. When there is tension in a relationship, fear of someone, or something, may be the cause of such tension.

(iii) At an organisational level, there is a need to identify the policies, systems and practices which act as barriers to company and behavioural change. Companies may not be utilising the potential of the total workforce. Criteria

need to be established to measure diversity related performance. Commitment from management towards empowerment, participation and valuing of diversity needs to be examined. The extent to which HR programmes are implemented haphazardly, with little integration requires attention. The issues that are raised by Rosmarin are significant and important. These issues also require the identification of its causes.

4.12 Benefits of diversity in the workplace

Diversity is beneficial to both employers and employees. Although employees are interdependent in the workplace, respecting individual differences can increase productivity, http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/hr022. Diversity in the workplace can reduce lawsuits and increase marketing opportunities, recruitment, creativity, and business image, as people will be in a position to take into considerations the differences that occur within the industry (Esty, et al., 1995). In an era when flexibility and creativity are keys to competitiveness, diversity is critical for an organisation's success. Also, the consequences (loss of time and money) should not be overlooked.

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In an article written by Doctor Vanessa, on a professional practice website, postulated the following benefits of a diverse workforce:

- Improves sales, market share, profits;
- An ability to move into emerging markets;
- Improved employee morale;
- Improved communication between employees and working units;
- Improved retention, recruitment, and promotion and;
- Decrease of complaints and litigation

4.13 Approaches to managing diversity

Organisations can approach the management of diversity from several different perspectives. The continuum can run from resistance to creation of an inclusive diversity culture. The increasingly diverse workforce available, combined with growing shortages of workers in many occupations and industries, has forced more employers to recognise that diversity must be addressed. Further, the increasing prevalence of protected group members filing legal complaints has increased the legal liabilities faced by employers who resist diversity and engage in discriminatory employment practices (Robert & Jackson, 2004:121).

There are various options for dealing managerially with diversity. A first step is to realise that there are different organisational responses to diversity, and depending on the dominant response, management's dealings with diversity might differ.

4.13.1 Organisational responses to diversity

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Adler (1986:232-234) identifies the possible responses to diversity in the workplace as parochial, ethnocentric and synergistic. Members of parochial organisations do not perceive cultural diversity or its impact on the organisation. Members believe their way is the only way to manage and organise.

A second response to diversity is the ethnocentric response where diversity is recognised but is seen to cause only problems. The ways of others are seen as inferior and differences are believed to be the cause of problems. In synergistic response organisational members believe that 'our way and their way differ, but neither is inherently superior to the other'. Combining responses and efforts constructively to accrue the benefits of diversity through appropriate strategies is best. A cultural synergy requires organisational policies and practices based on, but not limited to, the cultural patterns of individual organisational members and clients.

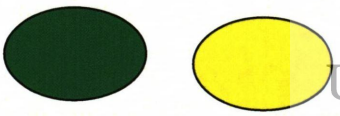
Synergistic organisations create new forms of management transcending the individual cultures of their members. Several assumptions underpin the synergistic approach. The

first is born of the realisation that the homogeneous 'melting pot' is a myth. Synergism espouses the belief that heterogeneity is a fact and that there are many culturally different groups in society maintaining its distinctiveness. Synergy also assumes that similarities and differences are of equal importance. The parochial idea of 'our way is best' refuted and it is accepted that there are many equally good ways of living and working. Cultural synergy assumes equifinality by which there are many equivalent (equi) ways to reach a goal (finality) and that there is no one superior way. This is linked to the assumption of cultural contigency that assumes that there are many equally good ways to reach a goal. Based on these assumptions, Adler (1986:235) suggests a model for solving problems in a culturally synergistic way. The model is graphically illustrated in the figure below:

Figure 4.13.1. Culturally synergistic decision making

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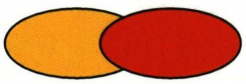
Step 1: Description of the situation (two separate cultures)



Describe the situation

What is the situation from your cultural perspective? From the other cultural perspective(s)

Step 2: Cultural interpretation



Determine the underlying cultural

What are the cultural assumptions that explain your behaviour?

What are those that explain the other culture's behaviour?

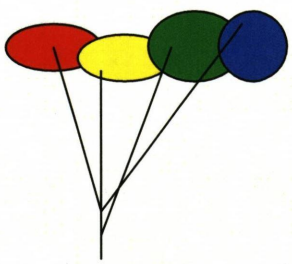
Assess cultural overlaps

What are the similarities and differences?

Step 3: Cultural creativity

Create culturally synergistic alternatives

Create new alternatives based on, but not limited to, the cultures involved





Select an alternative

Implement Culturally Synergistic solutions

Does the potential solution fit your cultural assumptions? Does it fit the other culture's assumptions? Is it new?

Implement solutions(s) and observe the impact from more than one cultural perspective. Refine the solution based on multicultural feedback (Eschwella et. al, 1999:328)

4.14 More diversity management models

The model presented above of culturally synergistic decision making can be supplemented by other models of managing diversity. For the present purposes, two of these are treated and discussed below:

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4.14.1 A strategic management approach to managing diversity

Kogod (1992:245-249) provides an approach to managing diversity that is analogous to a strategic management methodology. The author's approach requires that:

- The organisational climate has to be analysed and enhanced and that;
- A vision, strategies and action plans be created and implemented.

By analysing and enhancing the organisational climate, the present organisational attitude to diversity is assessed. Attempts are made to influence this climate towards recognising and supporting cultural differences. Communication, for example, is seen and analysed from a multicultural perspective and people are made aware of the importance of diversity and the need to treat every employee with respect. Barriers to accepting and managing diversity have to be developed. This vision then has to be compared with the present reality in respect of diversity. Any gap or disparity has to be addressed by strategies. Strategies can be at the level of the system, task on person. System level

strategies may include consultants as culture brokers linking diverse cultural groups, developing success stories and heroes of the diversity management process, creating incentives for managing diversity effectively celebrating events that honour diversity and instituting creative rewards and recognition of good practice. At task level, strategies can be designed to develop job aids accommodating cultural differences and systems envisioning results.

At a personal level, strategies of negotiation and conflict resolution need attention. After designing strategies these have to be implemented through proper action plans. Action plans must state what tasks have to be performed, who will do them and by when. Possible obstacles should also be contemplated and actions should be designed to remove them or reduce their possible impact. During this whole process, communication is very important. Communication should be enhanced by active listening, proper evaluation and negotiation and accommodation. Finally, the whole process has to be evaluated. If necessary, corrective steps must be taken to keep the process on track.

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4.14.2 Individual mindsets and organisational imperatives for successfully managing diversity

Gardenswartz and Rowe (undated: 428-434) provide some individual and organisational guidelines in dealing with diversity as a person and manager. At the individual level, the following apply.

- Diversity is not about 'them'. It is about 'us'. Knowing the cultural values, norms and practices of others is important but not central. Of central importance is to come to terms with yourself and understand your reactions to diversity.

- Face the issue of change and perceived losses. It must be realised that a changing workforce presents fears to people in terms of how it will affect their ways and opportunities. The positive aspects of the change should be identified and shared while the negatives should be perceived, noted and actively managed.

- Create a more participative power structure. This requires enhancing the ideas and practice that all people have a right to any job despite background, age, gender or lifestyle.

- Shed predictable habits and learn new behaviours. Humans are creatures of habit. Diversity requires people to let go of tried and tested techniques. A repertoire of behaviours is needed for which appropriate choices have to be made under different circumstances.

- Realise that all people view the world from their perspective. This is fine but, if it becomes the only and supreme yardstick, problems will occur in situations of diversity. Tolerance of doing things differently is needed.

- Emphasise common experiences that unify rather than differences that divide. People have shared experiences since time immemorial. These include birth, growth, marriage, death, the need to feel connected, and the desire to be engaged in meaningful work. Considering these similarities makes it easier to accept that we are more alike than different.

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- Demonstrate values through actions, not words. Lip service to diversity will be self-defeating and costly in terms of trust and employee commitment.

- Remember that diversity includes everyone. It is of very little use to rant and rave against those who are in power. To regain the competitive edge and create kinder, gentler and more profitable and productive organisations, power has to be shared. Everybody has to be represented in the decision making process.

The following organisational imperatives are suggested by Gardenswartz and Rowe:

- Show commitment at the highest levels. Diversity management programmes demand the support of the organisation's highest levels. This support should include modeling by people at top management level and providing resources for the programme. Accountability should also be enforced at the highest level.

- Seek involvement and commitment from the bottom up.

- Socialisation and training in dealing with diversity should be provided to all employees and training in dealing with diversity should be provide to all employees from the entry level to the most senior staff members. This calls for a long-term, reinforced and sustained effort.

- Teach a wide array of management techniques that work cross culturally. To be effective, managers should treat all people equitably, but not necessarily the same. Different cultural norms must be respected and honoured. To be successful a wide array of cross-cultural management techniques has to be imported and spread to all the relevant people.

- Integrate diversity into the fabric of the organisation. Diversity has to become a part of the system and not another add-on. To make diversity an integral part of the organisation it should be introduced to systemic and structural facets of the organisation such as recruitment, career development, and communication and reward systems.

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- Expect and sustain a long-term effort. Successful diversity management requires cultural changes that take vision, perseverance and patience. Benchmarks have to be set to note and celebrate if they are reached.
- Accept the new demographic reality. The world has to become a global village and isolation cannot be sustained. Diversity is the new reality everywhere and offers great opportunities and stimulating challenges. Accepting reality will enable us to deal with it more productively.

- Make rapid change the constant. We live in the world of the information explosion and change is so rapid that everything seems fluid. People and organisations have to be flexible if they are to cope.

- Be willing to pierce the power and work through the discomfort. Diversity is about sharing power. This is a tough issue to deal with. It often creates anger and

frustration. Essential changes to the power configuration can be a battle, but the changes provide opportunities to invest in all people.

- Be honest with yourself and others. A relentless honesty with oneself about changes and reactions to them is necessary.

- Realising one's own situation helps us deal with our fears, trends and discomforts. From that basis relating more authentically to others is possible.

- Spread goodwill to all. Feeling and showing warmth and kindness to people will usually elicit a similar response from them. Goodwill is reinforced by the realisation that success depends on our ability to live and work together.

Combining these individual mindsets and organisational imperatives will contribute to a successful dynamic of managing diversity in the organisation. Diversity is becoming prevalent worldwide and managers should be made aware of and educated about it. There are advantages and disadvantages in diversity and organisations must handle it synergistically. A strategic management approach can also be used in managing diversity and individual mindsets. Proper organisational attitudes and actions contribute to managing diversity productively.

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4. 15 Diversity Management Programs and Activities

A wide variety of programs and activities have been used in organisations as part of diversity management efforts. The figure below will shows common components in diversity management efforts.

Table 4.15.1 Common Diversity Management Components



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Source: Marthis and Jackson, 2004:125

For diversity to succeed, the most crucial component is for diversity to be seen as a commitment throughout the organisation, beginning with top management. Diversity results must be measured and management accountability for achieving these results must be emphasised and rewarded. Once management accountability for diversity results has been established, then a number of different activities can be implemented as part of a diversity management program, including diversity training.

4.15 Diversity Training

There are a number of different goals for diversity training. One prevalent goal is to minimise discrimination and harassment lawsuits. But other goals focus on improving acceptance and understanding of people with different backgrounds experiences, capabilities, and lifestyle (Robert & Jackson, 2004:125).

4.16. 1 Components of Diversity Training

Approaches to training vary, but often they involve at least three components. Legal awareness is the first and most common component of diversity training. Here the training focuses on the legal implications of discrimination. A limited approach to diversity training stops with these legal "do's and don'ts ". By introducing cultural awareness, employers hope to build greater understanding of the differences among people. Cultural awareness training assists all participants to see and accept the differences in people with widely varying cultural background.

The third component of diversity training – sensitivity training – is more difficult. The aim here is to "sensitise "people to the differences among them and to how their words and behaviours are seen by others. Some diversity training includes exercises containing examples of harassment and other behaviours.

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4. 17 Effects of Diversity Training

The effects of diversity training are viewed as mixed by organisations and participants. Relatively few studies have been done on the effectiveness of diversity training expenditures, other than asking participants how they felt about the training. There is some concern that the programs may be interesting or entertaining, but may not produce longer- term changes in people's attitudes and behaviours toward others with characteristics different from their own, (Robert & Jackson, 2004:125).

Mixed reviews about the effectiveness of diversity training suggest that either the programs or how they are implemented are suspect. Two common complaints are:

- Diversity training tends to draw attention to differences, building walls rather than breaking them down.
- Much of the content in diversity training is viewed as 'politically correct" and blames majority memebers, particularly white males, for past wrongs.

Some argue that diversity training more often than not has failed; pointing out that it does not reduce discrimination and harassment complaints. Rather than reducing conflict, in a number of situations diversity training has heightened hostility and conflicts. In a number of firms it has produced divisive effects, and has not taught the behaviours needed for employees to get along in a diverse workplace. The last point, focusing on behaviours, seems to hold the most promise for making diversity training more effective. For instance, dealing with cultural diversity as part of training efforts for sales representatives and managers has produced positive results.

4.18 Backlash against Diversity Efforts

The negative consequences of diversity training manifest themselves more broadly in a backlash against diversity efforts. This backlash takes two main forms. First, and somewhat surprisingly, the individuals of protected groups, such as women and racial minorities, sometimes see the diversity efforts as inadequate and nothing but "corporate public relations". Thus, it appears that by establishing diversity programs, employers are raising the expectation levels of protected group individuals, but the programs are not meeting these expectations. This failure can result in further disillusionment and more negativity toward the organisation by those who would initially appear to benefit the most from such programs (Robert & Jackson, 2004:126).

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On the other side, a number of those individuals who are not in protected groups, primarily white males, believes the emphasis on diversity sets them up as scapegoats for societal problems created by increasing diversity. Surveys of white males frequently show hostility and anger at diversity efforts. Those programs are widely perceived as only benefiting women and minorities and taking away opportunities for men and non minorities. This resentment and hostility is usually directed at affirmative action programs that employers have instituted.

4.19 Cultural Diversity

Cultural diversity, at the simplest level, reflects the characteristics that may make one individual culturally different from another. Cultural differences involve patterns of lifestyles, values, beliefs, ideals and practices. Cultural diversity includes the differences in race, ethnicity, national origin, language and religion (Khizar & June, 1996:11-12).

The extent of cultural diversity in a given situation depends on the differences of views held about the world, verbal codes of social behaviour, communication styles and expectations of those interacting.

4.20 Dealing with cultural diversity

No discussion of diversity would be complete without offering some considerations and practical suggestions for those people who will live, work, or play in contexts of diversity. Although no one would suggest that they have all of the answers to all of the particular problems or difficulties generated by diversity in any context, various authors do attempt to convey some of the lessons and insights born of their experiences, http://www.questia.co/PM.qst?a=o&d=15586178.

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The few presented here are hardly indicative of all of the contexts one might find oneself but considerations, issues, and aspects are going to be similar. Again, as with other sections, some selection has been made based on the significance of particular contexts to social debates currently going on and where diversity presents some particular and glaring problems (e.g., in health care and aging, and in social services and in education), Larry (1997:289).

4.21 Cross cultural conflict

Cultural diversity changes the workplace by providing new human resources and managerial challenges to employers. As the United States experiences shortages of skilled workers, most organisations will have to find ways to optimally utilise multicultural workers, http://www.questia.co/PM.qst?a=o&d=15586178. This often

entails dealing with employees who have different attitudes toward time, status and roles, relationships, responsibility, decision making, and technology (Goldstein & Leopold, 1990). To effectively manage diversity, managers and supervisors must be aware of the values, motivations, communication styles, attitudes, and needs of their employees (Foxyn & Polsky, 1989). This is a Herculean task even for people trained in intercultural relations. And as the nation's workforce is reshaped with respect to age, sex, racial composition, and national origin, the challenge to managers and supervisors is magnified (Abbasi & Hollman, 1991).

4.22 Demographic and Cultural Diversity

Characteristics such as age, sex, race, and national origin, are typically referred to as demographic diversity that reflects the degree of mix of characteristics of the people who make up an organisation's workforce. An organisation that employs mostly those returned to work from retirement, has very little age diversity (Don, Susan, John, Gavin, Trevor, Klopper, Lynette, &Theuns, 2004:368). An organisation that employs people of all ages in approximately equal numbers would have a great deal of age diversity. Numerous laws and regulations, such as the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997), prohibit employees from basing employment decisions on a person's demographic characteristics, http://www.questia.co/PM.qst?a=o&d=15586178.

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However, affirmative action efforts may be used to ensure that the demographic characteristics of an organisation's workforce reflect the demographic characteristics of the available labour force. Because of the legal issues associated with demographic diversity, many organisations now consider compliance with the above mentioned laws and regulations to be distinct from the effective management of cultural diversity. An organisation's cultural diversity refers to the full mix of the cultures and subcultures to which members of the workforce belong. Employees within each generation (or even each age cohort) tend to share a subculture that is distinct from the subcultures of other generations. In addition, subcultures based on religion, marital and family status, sexual

orientation, and other unifying life experiences are typically included in the meaning of cultural diversity.

4.23 Barriers to cultural diversity

Because managers and supervisors are creatures of culture, they tend to react to culturally different people in the same manner as their significant others. Therefore, prejudices found in the community are acted out in the workplace. Succinctly, prejudice is a conclusion drawn without adequate knowledge or evidence. The bigot blames members of out groups for various misfortunes: floods, high taxes, inflation, wars, and, interestingly, bigotry. Such prejudgments are easier to make than objective judgments, which require more energy, knowledge, integrity, and time. In their efforts to make expedient decisions, bigots react to concepts rather than people, Larry (1997:133). However, it is behaviors, not attitudes, which create the major problems in managing diversity. There are many laws against discriminatory behaviours, but there are none against discriminating prejudicial attitudes,

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http://www.questia.co/PM.qst?a=o&d=15586178.

It is not what managers and supervisors think about diversity that hurts or helps employees, but how they act out these thoughts. Some managers act out their prejudices by denying culturally different people equal employment opportunities. Contrary to popular writings, prejudices in the workplace are not limited to black white conflicts and confrontations. There is prejudice against women, workers, individuals with disabilities, foreign workers and white workers, all the people who comprise the labour force, Larry (1997:133).

A survey, conducted in 1993 by L. H. Research for the National Conference of Christians and Jews, found that Black, Hispanic, and Asian American resent one another almost as much as they do whites (Holmes, 1994). This raises doubt about the strategy of merely hiring more minorities. Unless there is systematic training to help all employees, white and nonwhite, to accept each other, conflicts focusing on ethnicity will expand from

within white groups to among the diverse groups. No ethnicity has a monopoly on prejudice.

4.24 Managing cultural diversity

The composition of the South African workforce has changed dramatically since about 1980. Many of the changes are summarised by the term workforce diversity. Workforce diversity refers to the mix of people from various backgrounds in the labour force. Two important aspects of workforce diversity are demographic diversity and cultural diversity. In large organisations, different staff may be responsible for initiatives related to managing these two types of diversity. However, most managers do not make a sharp distinction between them, (Don, Susan, John, Gavin, Trevor, Klopper, Lynette, & Theuns, 2004:369).

In many parts of the world political, social and economic changes and trends have resulted in increasing diversity in national populations and in the workforce employed to serve these populations. This diversity in the workplace creates new challenges for the public and private sector resource manager. The way in which diversity is dealt with can have beneficial or detrimental effects for the people and organisations involved (Schwella, Burger, Fox & Muller, 1999:325).

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According to Adler (1986:229-233), any form of effective diversity management has to start with a conscious effort to recognise cultural diversity without judging it and, in this way, perceive differences where differences exist. There also has to be a realisation that cultural diversity has advantages and disadvantages. According to the author cited, disadvantages occur most frequently when convergence is needed and employees are required to act and think in similar ways. Communication (converging on similar meanings) and integration (converging on similar actions) become more difficult in situations of diversity (Schwella et. al, 1999:325).

4.25 How to Manage Cultural Diversity

How to manage a culturally diverse workforce successfully will depend upon a number of factors which relate to the nature of the organisation and the extent in which it operates. An organisation in an area with a culturally heterogeneous population may consider whether the staff from the different cultural groups are represented in the workforce and at what level in the hierarchy they are working (Khizar & June: 11-12).

A company located in an area populated mainly, but not solely, by people from one cultural background may draw its workforce exclusively from that culture. The company may wish to ensure that all the people in their catchment area feel that they can apply for jobs in the organisation and are not discouraged from applying because the workforce is all from one particular community. The subject of cultural diversity in the workplace is a highly sensitive one and offers a variety of challenges to managers (Khizar & June: 11-12).

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Effective management of a culturally diverse workforce can mean changes to the working environment, including making a variety of amendments to the current rules and regulations; it also implies the sharing of power and decision making. Often individuals will throw up barriers to the changes required by saying that they treat everyone the same.

It is very important to identify and move from treating everyone the same towards identifying discrimination and recognising the exclusion, or underutilisation, of different sections of society. But much more importantly, a diverse approach means valuing differences and treating people in ways which bring out the best in them (Don, Susan, John, Gavin, Trevor, Klopper, Lynette, &Theuns, 2004:370).

Managing cultural diversity effectively has emerged as a key business issue during the past decade. The effective management of cultural diversity begins with an understanding of the elements of culture that are highlighted as follows:-

4.25.1 Assumptions

Shared assumptions are the underlying thoughts and feelings that members of a culture take for granted and believe to be true. Societies differ in their assumptions about time and trust (Don et. al, 2004:358).

4.25.2 Values and norms

A value is a basic belief about a condition that has considerable importance and meaning to individuals and is stable over time (Ibid: 358). A value system comprises multiple beliefs that are compatible and support one another. The societal values of private enterprise and individual rights are mutually supportive. In organisations with cultures that support total quality management, employees value continuous improvement and information sharing. Many contemporary organisations are striving to ensure that all employees value ethical and socially responsible conduct. The shared value in an organisational culture profile (OCP) provides one way. Norms are rules of behaviour of group members. When a norm is shared throughout an organisation, it becomes an element of the organisation's culture (Ibid: 359).

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4.25.3 Socialisation

This is a systematic process by which new members are brought into a culture. Individuals learn the ropes and are introduced to the culture's behavioural norms. The most powerful way to socialise people into a culture is through consistent role modeling, teaching, coaching, and enforcement by others in the culture. At the societal level, socialisation takes place within the family, in schools, and religious organisations, and through the media. In industry, socialisation often occurs through organised activities conducted by industry associations. The Port Elizabeth Regional Chamber of Commerce (PERCCI) socialises

members through regularly scheduled meetings, courses and workshops, social events, and awards ceremonies (Don et. al, 2004:359).

4.25.4 Symbols

A symbol is anything visible that can be used to represent an abstract shared value or something having special meaning .Symbols are the simplest and most basic observable forms of cultural expression.

4.25.5. Language

From a cultural perspective, langauge is a shared system of vocal sounds, written signs, and or gestures used to convey special meaning among members. The elements of this system include shared jargon, slang, gestures, signals, signs, songs, humour, jokes, gossip, rumours, proverbs, metaphors, and slogans. In general, the greater the number and use of such language elements, the deeper is the culture.

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4.26 The influence of cultural diversity on organisational behaviour

The importance of cultural diversity should not be minimised, since an organisation's culture, as a system of shared values and beliefs, guides people, decision making processes and procedures, and control systems to interact so as to produce behavioural norms. A strong culture guides behaviour and gives meaning to activities, and thus, contributes significantly to the long- term success of organisations.

Strong cultures attract, reward, and hold the allegiance of people performing essential roles and meeting relevant goals (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1985:680). There is no doubt that culture impacts on every aspects of life, from the way people relate to the natural environment to how they behave towards one another. Beliefs and values, assumptions and perceptions, all are cultural influences on behaviour.

Culture, in other words, is communicable knowledge for coping with a particular environment that is passed on for the benefit of present inhabitants of that environment,

as well as future generations. Culture can be an asset or a liability. It is an asset when shared beliefs ease and economise communications and facilitate decision-making. Motivation, cooperation and commitment may also be facilitated by shared values. Organisational efficiency is achieved as a result. However, a strong culture can also be a liability when it is not appropriate to an organisation's environment and overall strategy. Congruence between culture, strategy, and managerial style is important because it facilitates organisational efficiency (Gerber, Neil and Van Dyk, 1999: 179).

4.27 Hofstede's model for understanding cultural diversity

Various studies prove that cultural differences translate into different work related attitudes. It is therefore very important to facilitate inter-cultural understanding in diverse workforces. A Dutch researcher, Geert Hofstede (and his colleagues), provide a very useful model for understanding differences between cultures. They studied workers from the same company doing similar jobs, but working in different countries. Hofstede found that national culture explained more differences in work related attitudes than did other diversity positions within the organisation. Hofstede also found five dimensions of cultural difference that formed the basis for work related attitudes (see figure below).

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Figure 4.27.1 Hofstede's dimensions of cultural difference

Individualism ⟷ Collectivism

High power distance ⟷ Low power distance

High uncertainit6y avoidance ⟷ Low uncertainity avoidance

Masculanity ⟷ Feminity

Long- term orientation ⟷ Short- term orientation

Source: Hofstede (In Schultz et al.2003:25)

These five dimensions are presented in more details:

- **Individualism versus collectivism.** In some cultures individualism predominates, in others it is collectivism that predominates. Individualist cultures foster loose social frameworks among people, whose primary concern is for themselves and their families. The emphasis in these cultures is on individuals looking after their own interests. Personal responsibility is highly valued and individual decision making is cherished. Collectivist cultures, on the other hand, have different social frameworks which are tightly knit, unlike individualist cultures.

  Group cohesion and group decisions are valued and practised. Loyalty and unity colour and influence personal conduct in collectivist cultures. The USA is an example of an individualist society whereas Japan is an example of a collectivist culture. Individualist cultures encourage initiative, flexibility, and experimentation. Individual achievement is valued. Collectivist cultures, on the other hand, cherish a harmonious fit within the group. Members of the group are characterised by conformity. Team unity is the norm.

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- **Power distance.** This cultural dimension deals with the degree of unequal distribution of power. In cultures with a high power distance, managers and superiors have more power precisely because they are supervisors and managers. This is a significant hierarchy; formality is the norm and titles are valued and used. In low power distance cultures there is a strong belief that social inequality should be reduced to a minimum. There is more trust among people at various power levels. There is a relaxed regard for seniority /juniority dimensions. Superiority is based on merit. Managers without expertise are a contradiction in terms. Employees easily bypass bosses in order to get the work done.

- **Uncertainity avoidance.** Some cultures easily accept uncertainity and ambiguity; others are intolerant of such conditions. Cultures with high uncertainity avoidance are concerned with security and tend to avoid conflict.

There is a need for consensus. The inherent uncertainity in life is a threat against which people in such cultures struggle constantly. Cultures with low uncertainity avoidance are more tolerant of ambiguity. Here people are risk takers and are not perturbed by individual differences. Conflict is not a threat, but is seen as constructive. There is no fear of dissenting views. Such cultures place a premium on job mobility, unlike those of Japan and Italy, which place a premium on high uncertainity avoidance and thus emphasise career stability.

- **Masculinity versus femininity**. Cultures that encourage masculinity expect their members to be strong, powerful, assertive, competitive and directive. These behaviours are traditionally associated with males. Cultures that encourage feminity expect their members to be relationship- oriented, nurturing, supportive and empathetic. These behaviours are traditionally associated with females.

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- **Long term versus short term orientation**. Some cultures encourage tactical decision making and spontaneous action, while others foster strategic and well planned conduct. Spur of the moment business practice has distinct advantages (opportunities are immediately capitalised upon and exploited) and disadvantages (no thorough planning for management of opportunities, whether successful or unsuccessful). So too does long – term and often slower business practice have pros (good consideration of all parties involved and all scenarios) and cons (too constrained, stifling, and inflexible).

4.28 How do cultural dimensions manifest themselves in the South African context

Research reveales that the cultural values of white South Africans emphasise competition, high work orientation, free enterprise, individual self efficiency, self fulfillment, exclusivity and the use of planning and methodology (Boysen et.al, 2002:22-

224). The cultural values of black managers emphasise collective solidarity, inclusivity, collaboration, consensus, group significance, concern for people, patriarchy, respect and dignity.

Differences in gender, irrespective of race, were also found. South African male managers valued performance, competition and winning, domination, control and directive leadership. Leadership was perceived as a rational, unemotional and objective transaction. South African female managers emphasised collaboration, participation, intuition, empathy, empowerment, self disclosure, and subtle forms of control. Female managers perceive follower- leader relationships as interactional and transformational.

According to Booysen et al (2002:22), the challenge is to create a work environment that blends the diverse cultural expectations of people in such a way that all employees share in the vision for organisational success.

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4.28 A best practice model for creating an organisational culture that appreciates and values diversity

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Booysen et al. (2003:33-6) provide a systematic model for the management of diversity, which is based on theory, best practices and their collective consulting experiences. A systematic approach is mostly used when an organisation perceives diversity as a strategic and transformational issue.

- **Step 1: Top management commitment.**

Commitment from top management is imperative in an organisation that takes diversity seriously. Top management should demonstrate the link between valuing diversity and business excellence. They should wholeheartedly participate in the planning and implementation of the diversity initiative, commit resources to the process and demonstrate personal commitment.

- **Step 2: Establish a diversity leadership team to guide the diversity initiative.**

The diversity leadership team should comprise a vertical and horizontal cross- section of the company, reflect the demographic diversity and include representatives from top management and other stakeholders. This team should develop a team charter, familiarise itself with diversity and act as a role model for the rest of the organisation.

- **Step 3: Conduct an assessment of the organisational climate, needs and issues.**

The diversity leadership team oversees the assessment of the organisational climate, needs and issues. The purpose of the assessment is to gain an understanding of the perception organisational members have of diversity issues, and to determine to what extent diversity is perceived as an equity issue and to what extent it is valued.

The results of the assessment should be fed back to the entire organisation to raise awareness for the need to change and reduce resistance.

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- **Step 4: Craft a vision that values diversity.**

A vision describes a future desired state. Typically, a diversity vision has two dimensions: it touches the heart and mind of each employee, and it states why it is important to the organisation (makes a business case for valuing diversity). Buy-in is achieved through organization wide face to face discussion of the meaning of the vision, its acceptance, and how it translates into everyday work life.

- **Step 5: Develop and implement a strategic plan for valuing diversity.**

Using the issues raised in the assessment as a baseline, objectives, strategies and plans are developed. Training features in most organisational diversity plans, but should be linked with the assessment needs, and carefully designed and presented.

Training typically includes awareness training, knowledge training and the transference of specific diversity skills, such as communication skills.

- **Step 6: Evaluate and measure results.**

The impact of the diversity initiative on the business attitudes and organisational culture is measured by comparing progress against the baseline data from the first assessment.

- **Step 7: Ensure integration and accountability.**

A successful diversity initiative results in an organisational culture that really values diversity. The values and skills of the initiative should become an integral part of the fabric of the organisation, its values, operations, systems, policies and everyday practices. Management should be accountable for leading diversity throughout the organisation. Pioneering companies incorporate diversity goals into the performance review and reward systems of managers.

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The developers of this diversity model emphasise the importance of creating open channels of communication throughout the process.

4.30 The advantages of managing cultural diversity effectively

Diversity can only have a positive effect if knowledge is combined with action. The existence of diversity must be acknowledged and capitalised upon (Chang 1996:7). Cultural diversity needs are to be managed if its positive influences are to be harnessed.

The effective management of cultural diversity holds the following advantages:

- It stimulates, rather than stifles, individual participation and creativity.
- It increases the flow of ideas.
- It attracts and retains the best skills.
- It improves employer employee relations.

- It increases the morale of the workforce, rather than create suspicions and hostilities amongst employees.
- It reduces tension, confusion and counter-productivity in the workplace.
- It leads employers to view differences as valuable assets rather than unwanted liabilities.
- It increases the motivational levels of organisational members.

4.31 Organisational goals for managing cultural diversity

We have noted that legal compliance with non-discriminatory laws is one reason that organisations are concerned to managing cultural diversity. Human resources management systems, designed to promote the goal of equal employment, communicate an organisation's commitment to treating employees fairly and have improved the employment status of protected groups. Although many laws and regulations address demographic diversity, few address cultural diversity. Increasingly, however, concerns about cultural diversity reflect the recognition of the potential benefits of cultural diversity for improved organisational performance.

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Legal compliance.

Complying with laws and regulations that prohibit discrimination, such as the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997), is a necessary first step for any organisation. The basic premise of such laws and regulations is that employment decisions should be based on job-related qualifications, not membership of a democratic group. Affirmative Action regulations, which have recently become quite controversial, go a bit further. The basic premise of these regulations is that organisations should actively recruite job applicants to build a workforce that reflects the demographics of the qualified workforce locally.

To monitor their progress, employers generally assess various employment numbers and ratios. At some organisations these measures include female and minority hiring numbers, offer/acceptance ratios, turnover and retention rates, promotion patterns,

downsizing decisions, and compensation levels. Of course, simply monitoring numbers is not sufficient to ensure legal compliance.

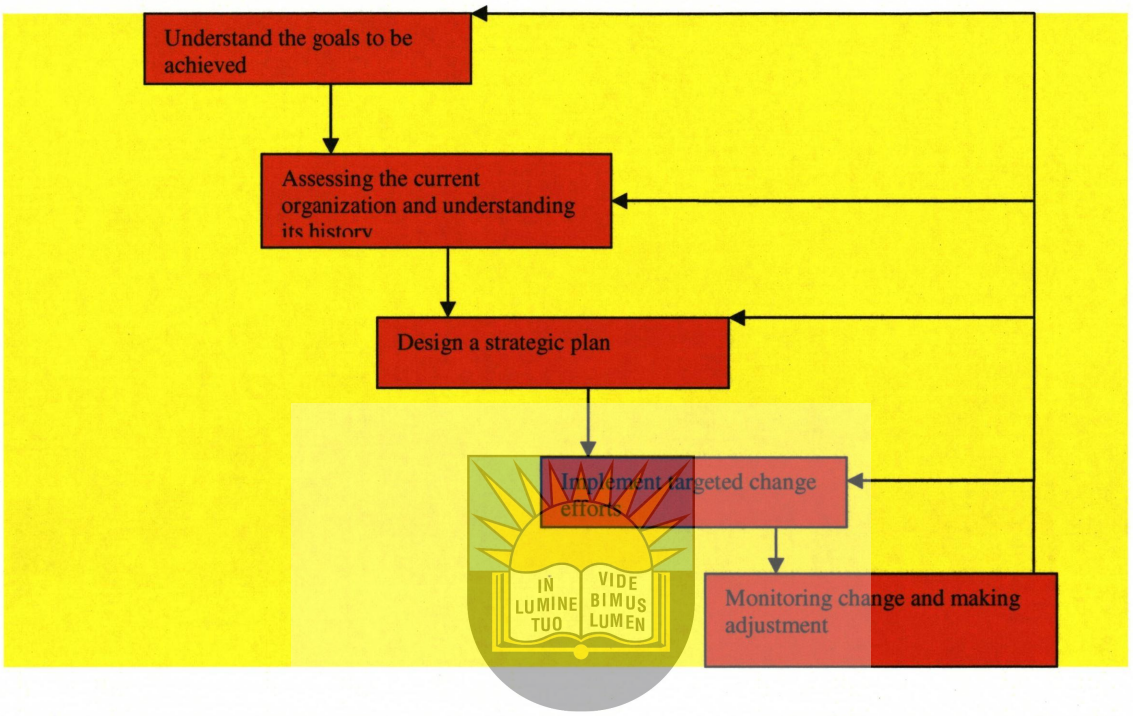
Creating a positive culture.

By analysing various employment statistics, an organisation can determine whether people from different backgrounds are being given job opportunities that match their capabilities. Research indicates that as the number of employees who share a subculture increases, its members experience fewer problems and less negative stereotyping. Nevertheless managers should not fall into the trap of using records kept to monitor legal compliance as a basis for drawing conclusions about their work situations. A positive organisational culture is one in which everyone feels equally integrated into the larger system.

Members of majority and minority subcultures feel respected; everyone has an equal chance to express views and influence decisions; and everyone has similar access to both formal and informal networks within the organisation. The most common methods used to assess organisational culture are employee surveys and focus groups. Questionnaires may be used to ask employees individually or in focus groups whether they feel valued and whether they feel that everyone is equally valued; the degree of respect, sensitivity, and fairness managers show towards how employees feel about their future career opportunities.

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Figure:4.31.1



Phases of Diversity Management change efforts (Don, Susan, John, Gavin, Trevor, Klopper, Lynette, &Theuns, 2004:372).

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4.32 Conclusion

In today's rapidly changing and diversifying world, the leading organizations of the 21st century will be those that create a constant stream of innovative goods and services, winning customers and earning loyalty through exceptional performance. No one type of person, or group of people, has all the skills and talents needed to do this. Diversity is not only people who look different it is also people who have different experiences. Recognising the business advantages of embracing diversity, many organizations have successfully implemented diversity programs.

A diverse workforce is a reflection of a changing world and marketplace. Diverse work teams bring high value to organisations. Respect for individual differences will benefit the workplace by creating a competitive edge and increasing work productivity. Diversity management benefits employees by creating a fair and safe environment where everyone

has access to opportunities and challenges. Management tools in a diverse workforce should be used to educate everyone about diversity and its issues, including laws and regulations. Most workplaces are made up of diverse cultures, so organisations need to learn how to adapt to be successful.

Nonetheless, workplace diversity still faces many barriers and challenges. Managing diversity is not easy, and undertaking a diversity initiative can backfire if the program is mismanaged, with long reaching effects on employee satisfaction and productivity. Effective training can often alleviate these fears and misunderstandings, increasing the possibility of a successful diversity initiative. Contrary to popular belief, the evidence doesn't support the idea that increasing diversity automatically translates into better performance; rather, it suggests that management must take a conscious, systematic approach.

Managing diversity in the workforce and workplace requires effective management. Cultural diversity is an important aspect of diversity. The challenges posed by diversity and transformation demand that human resources managers intervene proactively by recognising the nature of diversity and channelling them in a positive direction. Once diversity has been managed effectively, that will be able to contribute to the smooth, effective running of the organisation hence reaching the industry objectives. But in order for diversity to be managed effectively, the first thing is to recognise and identify its existence, and once that has been done, proper strategies should be devised to deal with it.

Thus, an organisation's commitment to diversity must be sustained. This leadership commitment requires the establishment of priorities and realistic objectives, the assessment and development of policies and practices to meet the particular diversity needs of the organisation and the provision of management and employee training and support processes. Relating to the above discussions on diversity and managing cultural diversity, and having discussed it very clearly, it is necessary to discuss change and management of change, so as to try and link diversity and managing cultural diversity to the transformation in industries. The next chapter will do so.

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CHAPTER FIVE

Change and Change Management

5.1 Introduction

"It's often easier to change *people* than to *change* people" (Kets de Vries, 2001:178). The previous chapters have reviewed the literature on culture and organisational culture, and diversity and managing diversity in the workplace, this chapter is devoted to change and managing change in the workplace as these variables are interlinked. This chapter reviews change within organisations from a systems psychodynamic perspective. This review will explore the nature of change, its effects and how it is managed within organisations. The aim of this chapter is to define change and how it is managed within organisations. First let us define change.

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5.2 Defining change

Change is now a powerful factor in organisations, much as productivity has been for years. Simply defined, change means to make things different (Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner, 2004:502). Change, to be successful, requires unfreezing the status quo, a movement to a new state, refreezing the new change to make it permanent. Too much change, however, leads to chaos; and too little change leads to stagnation.

"Change is the only constant" is a cliché that has never been more true. It is an inescapable reality of all businesses around the world (Bloisi, Cook & Hunsaker, 2003; Krantz, 1998; Krantz &Gilmore, 1989; Nelson & Quick, 2005; Robbins, 2003), and leaves room for only two options: change or be changed! Nelson and Quick (2005: 391) said "change in organisations is inevitable, but change is a process that can be managed", and they furthermore suggest that organisational adaptiveness, responsiveness and flexibility are key characteristics that will determine competitiveness and survival. This is

because the previous approaches to organising and getting work completed are becoming obsolete (Krantz, 1998).Change and transformation are often seen as inter-changeable terms in the world of business and thus, as a point of departure, a clarification of these terms is necessary. "Change is the coping process of moving from the present state to a desired state and that individuals, groups and organisations undertake in response to dynamic internal and external factors that alter current realities" (Bloisi, et. al., 2003: 707).

Nelson and Quick (2005:3) define change as the "transformation or modification of an organisation and /or its stakeholders", thus implying that transformation is a sub-set of change and that change is the 'global' phenomena. Within change, they suggest, the following categories exist:

- Incremental change: small, but continuous changes to make improvements within the organisation,
- Strategic change: is larger scale change to move from an old state to a defined new state in a series of stages,
- Transformational change: organisations move to a radically different and even an unknown state – it involves changes to mission, vision and leadership.

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Robbins (2003) provides some guidance in distinguishing between change and transformation in his review of first- and second- order change. First order change, he says, is incremental and continuous, bringing about change over time. While second – order change, he observes, is re-framing of assumptions within the business which results in a complete transformation of the business and its deliverables. This is a helpful distinction as it starts to provide some insights into the difference between change and transformation change being aligned to the first order and transformation to the second-order. Similarly, Rice (1963:18) distinguishes between change and 'major upheaval' – "Change in organisation the small scale change that is going on all the time as well as the major upheaval".

Change can be defined as rendering something different; while transformation is defined as changing completely the appearance, form and character of something (Longman Dictionaries, 1995). These definitions indicate that both change and transformation result in an altered state and hold that transformation is a more extreme altered state. For the purposes of this discussion, change will be used to denote both change and transformation.

Change may dramatically shorten the life span of the organisation. This would in turn reflect the organisation's inability to phase out strategies, policies and business practices that are no longer relevant while creating new activities, products, services and strategies to sustain performance, relevance and success. Some organisations are more affected than others. This is also noted by Dyk et al. (2001), who state that change usually takes place as a result of an adjustment to the environment, workplace, customers, or worker relationships. Lombard (1998:45) is of the opinion that transformation (change), in an organisational sense, is associated with the restructuring of companies needing to respond to changes in their environments, missions, strategies, and advances in technology.

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Structural adjustments are also often made to enhance the company's competitiveness for reasons of survival. Restructuring also refers to how a company rearranges its functioning components and the employee relationships between management and the influence on organisational culture. Traditionally, restructuring was used for planned change, but recently it is to help facilitate strategic changes (also known as change management). Change is, thus, its own challenge, and is driven by many factors and forces. It in turn unleashes many reactions among the affected individuals. Change is a big challenge that faces many managers in today's companies, especially now that women are entering the labour market and aim to occupy male dominated positions. Companies continually evolve, and thus change, which in turn makes managing change a complex issue.

5.3 Forms of change

Two basic forms of change are found in organisations: planned and unplanned change.

- **Planned change**. This occurs when a change results from a deliberate decision to alter the organisation. A company may wish to move from one structure to another and thus engage in a carefully constructed or orchestrated approach to alter the structure or functions of the organisation. However, change is not always planned.
- **Unplanned change**. Alterations may occur as a result of imposed conditions. Such change may be unforeseen. Unplanned changes may be environmental, for instance, natural disasters. Government regulation such as the employment equity act, gender equality, affirmative action and economic conditions may lead to abrupt and unexpected changes for organisations.

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5.4 Scope of change

Planned change is threefold in terms of scale:

- **Incremental change.** This is change of a relatively small scope, such as making a small modification in a work procedure. It is change involving minor improvements.

- **Strategic change**. This is change on a larger scale, such as restructuring of an organisation. In strategic change, the organisation moves from an old state to a known new state during a controlled period of time. Strategic change usually involves a series of transitional steps.

- **Transformational change.** This is the most massive scope of change. With this change, the organisation moves to a radically different, and, at times, unknown future state. In this change, the organisation's mission, culture, goals, structure, leadership may all change dramatically. Those who introduce or manage change are known as change agents. Managers or employees who oversee the change

process are internal change agents. Change agents can also be external, such as outside consultants.

5.5 Implementing change

In an article written by Natasha Winkler for People Dynamics March 2002, about change she stresses certain points to ensure a successful change implementation process, as stipulated below:

- Leaders must make the effort to create a measure of stability in the employee's situation. The greater the impact an intervention will have on an employee's work routine, the more emphasis must be placed on a measure of stability. A good example is building on existing knowledge and experience to enhance and teach new skills.
- Managers should take great care to act ethically at all times in order to get employees to trust them, and be perceived by employees to be acting in an ethical manner. When employees believe in the managers' integrity, they will be more likely to buy into the change intervention and accept its importance.
- Wherever possible, work behaviour should be adapted before the changes come into effect. An example is to enforce proper manual procedures, which will be followed when processes are automated. For example, where financial procedures (paper work) must be destroyed.
- It must be consistently communicated to all employees that change is necessary and that it will continue to take place in the organization.

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To survive in competitive, dynamic environment organisations must be innovative and ready for change at all times. Having creative and innovative strategies in the organisation is beneficial, but employing people who can implement and drive change is even better. The organisation should pro-actively create a climate that can make learning and change easier. Leaders must create a culture where change will be embraced.

5.6 Change management

Change management is defined as the continuous process of aligning an organisation with its marketplace and doing. It is more responsively and effective than its competitors. The need for change becomes evident when there is a gap between organisation, division functions or individual performance objectives and actual performance in the organisation. Alignment is the continuous synchronization of four key management levers:

- Strategy
- Operations
- Culture
- Reward

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Simply put, change management is management of change. Once a company has made a decision to change, a careful management of the change is imperative if the goals of the desired change are to be attained. Change management is thus a challenge because diverse individuals in the organisation will invariably hold diverse views of change, and their energy will need to be harnessed in order to meet the goals of change. Change has to be managed so as to control it. Managing change is also management of the reactions and resistance to change.

Martin (1995) as cited in Natasha's article in People Dynamics, March (2002:17), believes that the methods for changing an enterprise must be concerned with culture and the organisation of human resources, as well as information technology and how an appropriate system can be built fast enough. According to Stone (2002:573), indicators are usually changes to total net profit, sales per employee, labour costs, and accident rates. These factors can be used to identify performance deficiencies. A more difficult task in change management is the management of the employee's resistance to change. There are processes involved in the management of change. In most cases they require unfreezing and freezing of attitudes in an effort to establish new patterns of behaviour (Lombard 1998:66).

5.6.1 The seven deadly change management sins

According to Alan Witherden it takes years to build an element into an organisational culture; a few short months to destroy the effects. Yet managers continue to make the same mistakes when trying to implement change in their companies, (People Dynamics, May 2002:23 (20) (5). Witherden highlighted the following seven sins:

- Failure to address causes. Most organisational changes aim to modify employee behaviour. Managers may want employees to become more customer orientated, performance driven, entrepreneurial or focused on shareholder value, to collaborate more across departments or to be less risk averse or less bureaucratic. In so doing, however, they often address the symptoms of a problem without identifying its causes. Pressed for results and short of time, too many senior management teams latch onto the first plausible solution that seems to address the problem. But what are the underlying causes of the behavior? Causes can be found in the organisation's structure, process, technology, culture, the skills of employees and the behaviour of senior managers.

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- Absence of persistence. It clearly takes much longer to modify the culture of an organisation than it does to observe changes in the behaviour of employees. For example, managers can speedily make employees more customer sensitive by using a forceful combination of rewards and punishments. A strong investment in measuring customer service quality, coupled with powerful rewards for good service and heavy penalties for bad service, will modify the behaviour of some employees to some extent.

  To become part of the organisation's culture, however, this attitude will need to be repeated often enough, by a large enough proportion of employees, over a long enough period of time, for it to become progressively part of the 'way we do things'. Senior managers regularly say that they no longer need to reinforce quality or customer service because 'it has become part of the organisation's

DNA'. This analogy is dangerous. DNA is a permanent feature of human physiology but the behaviour of employees in an organisation is not.

- 'Just Do It'. When they are pressed for short-term results and convinced that it will be impossible to get employees to co-operate, senior managers often resort to implementing change though directives. Sending an executive order may give executives a temporary illusion of control. In reality, however, many such directives are neither followed by staff nor enforced by managers. Such directives weaken the credibility of the senior managers who signed them.

- Excessive focus on content. Successful change requires detailed planning. Too often, however, companies develop great project content and forget to examine how they will implement it. The following elements need to be understood and shared-
    - "Where are we now?" is not good enough. We must change;
    - Where is point B? What does it look like? What skills and behaviours are needed? How does one get there? What's the general path? Where can we stop and review progress?
    - It can be done. This will not go away. The company will make this change happen and people can be successful in the new environment;
    - It's worth it. The benefits exceed the costs of change and the pain of getting there.

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- Too little time? Organisations frequently make the mistake of assigning managers to projects for too small a proportion of their time. Managers assigned to too many projects and committees never have a critical mass of time and energy to impact any single project.

- Perceptions of resistance are flawed. When managers are asked why people resist change, their responses tend to be strikingly similar: Resisting change is 'natural',

it is 'human'. People are afraid of losing power, prestige, money, career prospects or their jobs. Resisters don't see the big picture; they are too narrow minded. They do not want to abandon their comfort zone. They suffer from the 'not invented here' syndrome.

- Employee buy in. Managers expend time and energy identifying the value of their products and services for customers. They must do the same for their employees. People are much more likely to accept painful changes when they see how today's pain is connected to future gains. They must have hope that their sacrifices will bear fruit for them. Similarly, corporate projects that explicitly address employee's needs and preoccupations are more likely to gain support than when customers and shareholders seem to be the only beneficiaries.

5.6.2 The Management of change

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The course of change does not only evoke heightened anxiety, but as Krantz (2005) pointed out is often shaped by it. Managing the inevitable change is crucial – because finally, leaders who cannot bring about the necessary adaptations within the organisation will not survive, or alternatively, the organisations that they lead will not survive (Rice, 1963). Often managing the change also means managing the resistance, and Kets de Vries (2001:192) pointed out that managing resistance is best achieved by highlighting that change benefits outweigh the fears – "they have to be made aware of the costs, to themselves, of not changing".

"The major problem of the management of change is the development of more sophisticated techniques for the controlled assimilation of continuous change. The capacity to change depends on the skill and competence of those who initiate it to take others members with them" (Rice, 1963:264). As Kets de Vries (2001) pointed out many people have the will to change, but lack the skill to change and thus need help to navigate the process. Furthermore he added that since people often do not reject new ideas, but rather have difficulty letting go of old ideas, change efforts have to be both cognitive and affective – it has to engage both the head and the heart. Thus change, he said, is

embedded in the process of individual change, and happens one individual at a time. Therefore, to effect change within the individual, one has to understand the individuals's personality.

Furthermore, from a psychoanalytical perspective, any effort to bring about change must first focus on an understanding of the phenomena that are to be changed (Czander, 1993). This includes an understanding of the forces that inhibit change, and lead to apathy, inflexibility and bureaucracy, since these give insight into the unconscious motivations of members (Czander, 1993). This, according to Caner (1993) is particularly important when considering second order change change which strives to alter the basic values and beliefs of employees.

Krantz (2005) added that the challenge, when managing change, is to create the conditions that help people cope with the distress of change and do this in a manner that protects the members and the organisation in order to function effectively. Dependent individuals may expect that the leaders omnipotently control their environment or to omnisciently foresee and prepare for every future change (Rice, 1963).

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Krantz (2005) suggested that since major organisational change efforts pose great psychic challenges to its members, organisations need distinctive conditions to be able to contain the anxieties evoked by these upheavals. He further suggests that without these conditions, change efforts are likely to fail. Although people work hard to reduce or avoid anxiety by splitting their consciousness and projecting onto others (Bion, 1961; Hirchhorn, 1993; Krantz, 2005; Rice, 1963), they also wish to restore their own sense of wholeness (Hirschhorn, 1993). Thus Krants (2005) suggested change efforts include features that fill the social defense vacuum, and that support members efforts to protect themselves. He suggested that the following elements that could successfully take on social defense functions:

- Transition planning structures that are authorized to manage complex issues;
- Outplacement support moderates persecutory anxieties that stem from downsizing and moderates the guilt of those who remain behind;

- Articulation of vision, purpose and goals enables members to take on a more realistic stance towards change ; and
- Communication that ensures members are provided with information.

However, Rice (1963) observes that to disclose all the problems may make followers so anxious that it impairs current performance, while disclosing nothing may lead to feelings of abandonment and resentment. It is therefore crucial that the leader establishes a balance; this balance is predicated on containment and demonstrating values (such as honesty) that instill a leadership 'compact'. The change that is most likely to be accepted is the change directed towards more effective performance (Rice, 1963).

Kets de Vries (2001) suggests five key components necessary for any change effort – both individual and organisational:

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Table 5.6.1 Individual and organisational change process

Individual change process	Organisational change process
• **Concern**: the process of change is started by an inducement of distress or pain; distress that outweighs the benefits of secondary gains such as sympathy or attention. This unpleasant emotion, precipitated by stressor of some kind, brings about awareness that negative consequences can be expected if the dysfunctional patterns continue. This is the beginning of the realization that all is not well.	• Similarly, organisational change processes are initiated by some 'pain' – typically caused by threats from competitors, declining profits, or internally by poor leadership, low morale, absenteeism, etc.
• **Confrontation:** this is the final 'push' that triggers the individual	• 'Creating a burning platform' and ensuring this discomfort is at

into action. Resistance is broken down and new insights are gained; their emotional energy is focused on the future, not on past concerns.	tolerable level. Resistance is broken down by recognizing the fear evoked at an individual level.
• **Clarification:** this is the public declaration of the individual's intent to change. This enhances determination and elicits support and thus acts as a reinforcement for change.	• Creating a 'collective ambition'; establishing a vision and building support and systems that allow for change.
• **Crystallisation:** this is the inner journey, sometimes painful, that increases self –knowledge and creates a new beginning.	• Provide employees with what they need to make change effort successful; increasing their emotional intelligence as well as their competencies.
• **Change:** this signals a new mindset – a new way of looking at things is internalised	• Improving business performance.

(Adapted from Kets de Vries, 2001)

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The above proposition (Kets de Vries, 2001) ties in with the basic psychodynamic therapeutic process that gives prominence to motivations that lie behind behaviour, and which is based on the idea that abnormal behaviour, emotions, and cognitions stem from distorted internal motivations that can be rectified through insight and re-learning (White & Watt, 1981). Once insights are determined, through extensive introspection, these are translated into actions and new life patterns (White & Watt, 1981).

The forces which work with or against change efforts are defensive structures (also mentioned by Krantz, 2005), emotional reactions and perceptions of self and others (Kets de Vries, 2001).

5.7 The nature of change within organisations

Change is unpredictable as much as it is constant; markets are unstable, technological innovation is explosive; hierarchies change into networks, bosses to coaches, and jobs to ever changing task assignments (Krantz, 1998). In the face of this organisations are under pressure to dismantle deeply held patterns and cherished cultural arrangements- and for many this can be profoundly disorienting (Shapiro & Carr, 1991cited in Krantz, 1998).

Modern day organisations are undergoing an unprecedented level of change – new technology, changing economic pressures, altered social dynamics, labour markets – all lead to downsizing, strategic alliances and or acquisitions and mergers (Krantz & Gilmore, 1989). These responses generally result in altering structures, policies, procedures and role design (Krantz, 2005). These serve only to amplify complexity within organisations and for its members, are highly disruptive within the system. In systems terms, organisations are now operating in environments which are characterized by increased complexity (Krantz & Gilmore, 1989) and disruption.

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The adaptations which organisations are making have coalesced into a consistent and common set of overarching themes which include:

- a sharply disciplined focus on customer satisfaction;
- replacing command and control methods with ones that elicit greater employee commitment;
- greater emphasis on learning and adaptability as new challenges and opportunities emerge; and
- addressing competitive issues through cross-functional collaboration, rather than via functional silos of old (Krantz, 1998).

Krantz (1998) goes on to suggest that the most pervasive theme is the recognition that to thrive in an intensely competitive, technologically unstable, and rapidly shifting market, organisations need to create a highly participative environment in which all

people (at every level) can feel and take personal responsibility for collective achievements and in which they are emotionally invested. He further highlights the paradox presented here the very conditions that put a premium on collaboration are the very conditions that pose a challenge to achieving this collaboration. For example, the loss of familiar structure may require the development of new and more fluid approaches to collaboration, but this loss of the familiar simultaneously creates anxiety, which mobilises the defensive responses that impede the required collaboration.

The nature of change is that it happens both inside and outside the organisational boundary. While the external environmental changes at a constant (and often alarming) rate, so too internal dimensions are adapting and changing. Organisational members thus have to contend simultaneously with this challenge – maintain focus on the primary task as it shifts like moving goal posts.

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5.8 The effects of change within organisations

The impact of organisational change efforts can be disabling and even devastating to the organisation and its members (Kant, 2005). The loss of familiarity and safety become profoundly disorienting for many within the organisation (Krantz, 1998). Unlearning habitual patterns can also be very anxiety provoking, even when those patterns are dysfunctional (Kets de Vries, 2001).

Initially members may attempt to resist the change. "Any healthy system will resist change, because as a living system, its life depends on its ability to establish a steady state" (Rice, 1963:262). While resistance is almost a natural and automatic response to change, Rice (1963) suggests that this resistance becomes problematic when it leads to a conscious or unconscious re definition of the primary task- for its own sake. Resistance stems from fear of loss (of status, or authority), or fear due to insecurity (Kets de Vries, 2001). De Vries further highlighted that leaders who are resistant to change have a devastating effect on the organisation.

Change also results in heightened levels of member anxiety. The effects of change manifest in the ways in which members attempt to deal with this heightened anxiety. In an organisational context, rituals are evoked to induce thoughtlessness and by not thinking, employees avoid feeling anxious (Hirschhorrn, 1993) – these rituals are called social defense. As mentioned, "the social defenses work through such processes as splitting, projection, and introjection" (Hirschhorn, 1993:2). Bureaucratic processes, according to Hirschhon (1993) are frequently disguised forms of social defenses. In bureaucratic systems, leaders are protected from anxiety by the layering of controls that separate them from their subordinates (Hirschhorn, 1993). He added that superior – subordinate and role – person boundaries are automatically maintained by a system of bureaucratic procedures.

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The social defense systems created in an effort to reduce anxieties have the effect of narrowing members range of experience and understanding precisely when it should be expanding (Hirschhon, 1993; Krantz, 2005). When anxiety is no longer kept in check with social defenses, it leads to more primitive projections and scapegoating (Hirschhorn, 1993). Furthermore, Hirschhorn (1993) highlightes that an impersonal environment results in a situation in which everyone is alienated and leads to punishment and hurt for the members. Krantz (2005) adds that reverting to splitting, denial, and projective identification to cope with anxiety inevitably leads to disturbing and threatening organisational environments.

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Furthermore, he suggested that functional interactions become rigid, blame ridden, and spiral into fragmentation and persecutory functioning that dominates and paralyses the organization. Paradoxically, it is often the change process that dismantles the social defense system, which protects the members from giving up features of organisational life that have helped to keep painful anxieties at bay. He further stated: "efforts to innovate confront organisations with a paradox of change: change undermines the features of organisational life that foster the very qualities of functioning required to make change succeed" (Krantz, 2005:3).

In addition to the anxiety that change provokes, it creates fear and a weakened capacity to contain disruptive emotional states (Krantz, 2005). Change also creates feelings within the individual that he does not control, and Hirschhorn (1993) stresees that this leads to him feeling persecuted, which results in the super- ego voices that accuse the individual of being worthless and helpless. When this becomes unbearable, the individual will project it onto the perceived persecutor in a 'fight' reaction to 'attack'.

A further effect of change is the production and distribution of emotional toxicity (Krantz, 2005). The toxicity is the primitive mental content that leads to destructive consequences within organisations when these are projected and enacted. This, according to Krantz (2005), is the result of failed containment.

5.9 Triggers to organisational change

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According to Dawson (2003:15) a range of 'triggers' to organisational change exists, and the main external factors are as follows:

- Laws and regulations (for example, legislation on age discrimination, global agreements and national policies on pollution and the environment and international agreements on tariffs and trade).
- Globalisation of markets and the internationalisation of business (the need to accommodate new competitive pressures both in the home market and overseas)
- Major political and social events (for example, September 11, the widespread European uptake of the euro in January 2002, and ongoing tension between countries).
- Advances in technology (computerisation)
- Organisational growth and expansion (as the organisation increases in size so may the complexity of the organisation, requiring the development of appropriate coordinating mechanisms).

- Fluctuations in business cycles (for example, changes in the level of economic activity, both within national economies and with major trading blocks).

5.10 Ringing the Changes

Research into employee perceptions of effective change processes during a successful change intervention shows that communication between managers and employees is a key as stated in an article written by Natasha Winkler in People Dynamics May 2002. The skill to lead effective change is at the core of management competencies needed in the 21st century. Thus, an important question posed by today's business environment is how managers can identify methods of inspiring employees to assist in the change process rather than finding ways to undermine the process by kicking a machine or calling in sick. Natasha conducted a study of the change process within a fast moving consumable goods (FMCG) company focusing on their South African operations. Employees were invited to participate in the research to measure their perceptions of successful change implementations.

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The study begun with an overview of current change management theories as reflected in the prevailing management literature. Peter Senge uses the term ' profound change' to describe organisational change that combines inner shifts in people's values, aspirations and behaviour with outer shifts in processes, strategies, practices and systems. In profound change there is learning. The organisation doesn't just do something new: it builds capacity for ongoing change.

The findings reveal that some of the trends that seem to emerge as reasons for resistance could be ascribed to fear of losing something of value, misunderstanding about change, lack of communication, disagreement about the benefits of the change and concerned about lack of skills or ability, because employees fear they will not be able to develop the new skills and behaviour that will be required of them.

5.11 Readiness for change

All individuals in organisations make decisions to support, fight or ignore initiatives. Resistance can be identified very early, especially if a thorough readiness for change assessment has been conducted. Three key problems to look out for within the organisation are:

- Past change experiences;
- The predominant culture
- Communication process

In his studies Marshall (2000) found that people naturally resist change. Their expectations, fears and concerns can result in attitudes or behaviours that block the success of a change effort. The real power of a vision is unleashed only when most of those involved have a common understanding of its goals and direction. He suggested the following focus areas to address this:

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- Building ownership of the process
- Manage workforce expectations
- Develop a clear vision
- Get employees involved in the process
- Maintain equilibrium and discipline during the change process

The change agent must understand the corporate culture and be aware of which techniques can be applied to achieve readiness for change within this culture.

5.12 Resistance to change

Change has to be managed because people generally fear and resist change. They perceive change as a threat to their self-interests. Reactance is a negative reaction that people feel when their personal freedom is threatened. Swanepoel et al. (2000:755) are of the opinion that if an organization has a track record of opposing change, more care can

be taken to design a gradual, non- threatening participative implementation process for future changes.

According to various writers (Dawson (2003:19) and Harigopal (2001:319), employees often resist change when they do not understand its implications, and perceive that it must cost them much more than what they will gain. In most cases, it is lack of trust in management, that is, there is little or no faith in the change agent. The chances that the employees will experience some emotional turmoil are very good. Therefore, individuals or groups can react differently to change. It can take different forms, such as passively resisting change or aggressively undermining it, or sincerely supporting and enhancing it. It may even reduce employee power and career opportunities.

When managers and employees resist change, it is for reasons. They perceive the change as a threat. According to Stone (2002:579), some of the reasons why people resist change are as follows:

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- *Fear of the unknown*: not understanding what is happening or why.
- *Disrupted habits:* feeling upset when old ways of doing things cannot be followed.
- *Loss of confidence*: feeling incapable of performing well under the new way of doing things.
- *Loss of control:* feeling that things are being done 'to' them rather than 'by' them or 'with 'them.
- *Poor timing:* feeling inadequate or humiliated because the 'old' ways are no longer perceived as 'good' ways.
- *Lack of purpose:* not seeing a reason for the change or not understanding its benefits.
- *Economic loss*: feeling that their pay and benefits may be reduced or that they may lose their jobs.

Some employees fear change because it may introduce new situations which they may have to deal with, new colleagues with different attitudes in the workplace. Conflicts may

result as a consequence of a changed work place situations this may lead to conflict because employees may feel that their concerns and needs no longer receive the attention they once did. Furthermore, one of the greatest fears of organisational change is the disturbance of the settled balance of power. Those who hold power, or have great influence under the prevailing arrangement, will feel threatened by the prospects of losing their political advantage or influence with the advent of change.

From the literature, a trend seems to emerge that some of the resistance could be ascribed to the following:

- **Fear of losing something of value**. Employees often resist change because they think they will loose something of value. As a result, they tend to focus on their own best interest and not that of the whole. Marshall comments that fear is the most powerful force driving our behaviour. Fear drives people away from the opportunity to break through to a new level of trust and growth.

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- **Misunderstanding**. Employees will resist change when they do not understand its implications and perceive that it might cost much more than they will gain. Such a situation may occur when trust is lacking. The change agent should deal with contradictions and ambivalence about change in a pro active manner.

- **Disagreement about the benefit of the change**. Employees may assess the situation differently from those initiating the change and may see more costs than benefits. The change leaders/managers may be working with different sets of information than those who initiated the change, leading to differences in the analysis of its value.

- **Concern about lack of skills or ability.** Employees resist change because they fear they will not be able to develop the new skills and behaviour that will be required of them.

5.13 Factors influencing successful change implementation

In an article written by Natasha Winkler, in People's Dynamics, March issue of (2002), the following factors here said to influence successful change implementation:

- **Ensuring top management support**. With the business case for change to hand, a company's leadership needs to make a commitment to the change process that will meet the challenge. Kotter, in McCall (1998:23), states that leadership has been defined as creating change or, more dramatically, as transforming organisations.

- **The guiding coalition.** Although senior management is fully responsible for achieving the change, it may delegate day to day oversight and monitoring functions to an individual or a team. This team compiles the implementation plan and uses it as their guidebook to ensure that pre set milestones are accomplished on time and within budget and that they yield the desired results. This team is there to make change happen.

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- **Changing employee behaviour**. According to Ray (1999), change is, by definition, movement from one set of behaviours to a new set of behaviours. Jack Welch of General Electric began shifting the management rhetoric and focus away from an obsession with structures and systems which impose direction and ensure compliance, towards reliance on embedding changes in the attitudes and behaviour of employees, in order to build the desired change into day- to day activities.

- **Building commitment**. Building commitment is a factor to consider during the initial planning phase. In an era in which the human capital of an organization is one of its primary assets, it is imperative to nurture and develop those asserts with great care.

- **Building trust.** If employees feel that their leaders can be trusted to support new values and actions, they will be more willing to commit time and effort and to take risks. This is referred to as 'the HP Way' at Hewlett Packard, where relationships are based on trust, not power (Reynolds). Trust is directly tied to the integrity of leadership.

- **Communication.** Communication goes beyond keeping employees informed of change efforts. Change forums should be devised where contributions, ideas, reactions and complaints can be aired. Encouraging this kind of give and take requires both time and effort, but the results can be all important. Bob Galvin was able to foresee the need for critical changes precisely because he was so 'well-connected' with managers further down in his organization (Kotter, 1996).

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- **The role of project management.** Changes require careful planning and sensitive implementation. The benefit of having a management steering group is that it will ensure a wide discussion of issues, but on the downside, this also encapsulates less personal accountability. A project manager is more involved and bringing in consultants ensures learning from other's experiences.

- **Compensation as a change stimulus**. Properly managed compensation is a change lever that can assist in the change process. Improperly managed, compensation is a change barrier that increases the organisation's resistance to change. Marshall (2000) believes that employees will behave in accordance with how they are rewarded.

- **Future shock as a result of organisational change**. Conner (in Berger et. al) defines future shock as the point at which humans can no longer assimilate change without displaying dysfunctional behaviour. Organisations must focus on increasing employees' resilience, that is, their capacity for change.

From the above literature Natasha identified seven variables which she considered to be important when implementing change. Respondents were asked to rate the variables in order of importance to enhancing a successful change process. The figure below represents the ranking of the variables on the basis of their mean scores on the seven dimensions.

Variables affecting successful change implementation

VARIABLE	MEAN SCORE	RANKING
Communication	2.56	1
Participation	3.29	2
Management commitment	3.36	3
Personal control	4.33	4
Change management skills	4.53	5
Trust	4.74	6
Adapting employee work behaviour	5.08	7

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Adapted in People Dynamics March 2002:18(20) (30). **Figure 5.13.1.**

Communication is considered to be the most important factor when implementing a change process. Participation and management commitment to the process was also rated highly.

5.13.1 Overall employee perceptions of change implementation

Natasha Winkler research into the change process within a fast moving consumable goods (FMCG) company in their South African operations, she gives the following overall perceptions of employee implementation of change; (People Dynamics March 2002:18(20)(30).

- Communication between management and employees was rated the most important variable contributing to a successful change implementation. Younger employees, as well as employees severely affected by change would want frequent qualitative communication. This further suggests a quest for knowledge

and understanding amongst today's workforce. Communication goes beyond keeping employees informed of change efforts. Change forums should be devised where ideas, reactions and complaints can be aired.

- Salaried lower male employees experienced opportunities for employee participation in the change process as less than satisfactory while males on senior management level perceived the opportunities for employee participation as above average. Salaried lower level male employees thought there were fewer opportunities for employees to participate in the implementation of the change process than senior management level male employees.

- Older, black employees experienced management commitment to change implementation as above average. Younger employees experienced management commitment as less satisfactory, indicating a desire for more commitment from managers.

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- Employees who experienced minimal change to their work routine had a stronger feeling of personal control than employees who had severe changes to their work routine. This could imply that the greater the effect of change on an employee's work routine, the more they want to be involved.

- Older employees, who experienced minimal change to their work routine, responded more positively on how adapting employee work behaviour could support successful change implementation.

- It was found that where employees experienced severe impact on their work routine, satisfaction with the process played a more important role.

5.14 Psyched up for change

Professor Ilse Elisabeth Plattner writing about the psychology of change management and its role in transformation, pointed out that, over the past decade, organisations have become more complex and dynamic, and change faster. She further postulated that, as a result, managers are challenged to manage the change and to create a work environment that supports employees in adjusting to change. In her article she emphasised a psychological approach to change management. First she analysed the psychological nature of change and the various ways in which human beings tend to respond to change. Secondly she focused on the aspects that, if considered in change management, will enable successful transformation and change in work organizations (Plattner 2004(22) 1&2:20-25).

She further notes that when people talk about their work, they often complain about the way things are done in their workplace and they are convinced that there is a need for change. However, the moment these very same people are told about the prospect of change, they become anxious. And once they are requested to do things differently they respond with much indignation: "We have always done things this way!" One gets the impression that when employees say, "We want change" they actually say, "we want change but we do not want to change".

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Change requires adjustment, adaptation, letting go of old habits and acquiring new ones. For employees, change can be confusing and distressing. Often employees fear change because it might disturb their habitual way of doing things. Even minor changes such as placing the copy machine in a different corner might cause irritation and protest. The question arises as to why employees so often show resistance when it comes to change. Answers to this question can be found in the nature of change as well as in the psychological make-up of human beings. Plattner in her article identified ten sub components transformation as discussed below:

5.14.1 Hope and Fear

Change often holds potential for innovation and improvement. However, change also always contains uncertainty and an element of risk. In the mind of human beings change is related to hope as well as fear. Hope and fear are two basic elements that accompany change and explain why people are simultaneously attracted to and afraid of change.

5.14.2 The Threat of Uncertainty

Most people in today's world of work probably claim they like change and new challenges (new jobs, new positions, new tasks, and new projects). Being open to change and new challenges gives them the impression of moving on, of improving their life or lifestyle, and makes them feel that they are open minded and progressive.

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But at the same time people are afraid of situations that could bring change into their life because there is always an uncertainty factor. Change creates anxiety, uncertainty and stress, even for those who manage change. Even people who are fully committed to change may experience stress. Seldom are there any guarantees that the new approach will work, that it will deliver the good according to Carnall (1992:91).

The uncertainty factor turns change into a threat. At work, for instance, a change could be a threat to employee's daily work routine. Although routine might seem boring, routine also makes people feel at home. Hence, it is essential for a successful change manager to look into the fears and uncertainties experienced by employees subjected to change and to understand the psychological process that employees go through when confronted with change.

5.14.3 Psychological Change Management

Employees are not just passive beings who have to be told what to do, how and when. Employees often have valuable ideas and they are willing to reveal them if asked and if they feel that their contributions are taken seriously.

Brainstorming sessions with employees, for instance, could even destroy fears about the change that bothered the managers themselves. There is nothing wrong for a manager to admit to employees his/her own concerns and uncertainties about intended changes. Instead, this will enhance his/her credibility and will motivate employees to take, together with the manager, responsibility for the change and to commit themselves to it.

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5.14.4 Team building and leadership

Organisational change requires commitment from the individual employees as well as from the team (Adair, 1990). In order to accept the change, a situation has to be created where employees can develop trust in the proposed change. Since work organizations usually are structured through groups of employees (e.g. in the form of departments, sections etc), attention should be given to a team approach rather than to an individual centred approach (particularly in large organizations) when planning and implementing change. Successful team planning is always based on the encouragement of active participation (Heng, 2001).

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5.14.5 Middle managers: mediators in successful change management

Organisations would be well advised to pay particular attention to their employees at middle management level. Usually, middle managers are excluded from decisions made by top management, and often they are not consulted on such decisions either. Middle managers are, however, expected to translate the decision made by top management into action and to represent them downwards. Hence, middle managers play a central role when it comes to the implementation of change. Organisations would, therefore, be best

advised to invest in their middle manager's interpersonal skills before sending them to workshops and seminars on change management.

5.14.6 Men and Women

When emphasising interpersonal skills in leadership, one must also consider an aspect that is hardly ever mentioned in respect to change management; the gender issue. Research has clearly shown that male and female employees prefer different ways of being approached by others (Helgesen, 1990). Therefore, approaching male and female employees in the right way may contribute success for the organization since they can then be expected to support the change.

5.14.7 Cultural Diversity

A multi cultural work environment provides a great opportunity to learn from each other, which could stimulate the creation of valuable ideas for change. However, working with people from different cultural backgrounds could also very easily become a cause of conflict, stereotypes and stigmatisation among colleagues, also between supervisors and subordinates (Scarborough, 2001).Thus, change managers should pay attention to cultural diversity within the organisation in order to avoid unnecessary stress.

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5.14.8 Self –confidence and self- esteem: keys to successful change management

Successful management in general, and successful change management in particular, depend very much on the self confidence and self esteem of both managers and employees.

5.14.9 Basic requirements for adjustment to change

Carnall (1992) as cited in Plattner's article, in People Dynamics January/ February 2004, emphasises that four requirements should be met in order to assist employees when going through the stages of adjustment to change. These requirements are as follows:

- **Empathy.** Employees always want supervisors who try to understand the situation from their perspective and who listen to them, without judging them.
- **Information.** Employees need sufficient information about the proposed change in order to understand why changes are necessary, how the changes will work and what impact the changes will have on them.
- **Credibility.** Employees need to believe in the changes. They need to be convinced that 'they will work, will achieve objectives that make sense to them, will resolve problems they sees as real', (Carnall, 1992:84).
- **Ideas for action.** 'Many of the managers and staff are clear about what is required of them, but not how to achieve a new approach' (Ibid: 85).

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5.14.10 Psychological stages of adjustment to change

Carnall (1992) identified five stages that usually determine the process of adjustment to change. Stage one is characterized by denial, often expressed in the argument "There is no need for change". Stage two contains defence, for instance, conveyed in the appeal of "don't change a winning team". Stage three contains discarding in the sense of "Let's try something different". In stage four employees move to adaptation, characterized by statements such as "It's not so bad but we have to get used to it ". In stage five, the final, internalization happens, which is expressed in statements like "It's normal that these days we do it that way". It is essential to provide sufficient time for each phase of change. The process of going through these stages and of arriving at stage five needs a strong support from supervisors and managers.

5.15 Kotter's process of operational change

Kotter (1996:102) has introduced us an eight- stage process of creating major change. Each stage in the process is associated with one of the eight fundamental errors that undermine transformation efforts.

1. Establishing a sense of urgency is crucial to gaining much needed co-operation. If needed, some sort of crisis could be created to force down a sense of urgency. Two of the major sources of complacency are firstly, too much positive feedback and, secondly, human nature, with its capacity for denial, especially if people are already busy or stressed.

2. This involves putting together a group with enough authority to lead the change and work as a team. The key is that both management and leadership skills are required to harness teamwork. The former keeps the whole process under control, while the latter drives the change. This is also an ideal opportunity to get participation at all levels.

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3. Creating a vision to help direct the change effort and developing strategies for achieving the vision, is essential. Begin with the end in mind. In a change process, a good vision serves three purposes: it clarifies the general direction of the change, motivates employees to take action and helps coordinate the actions of different employees.]

4. Another key factor is using every vehicle possible to constantly communicate the new vision and strategies. The real power of a vision is unleashed only when most of those involved have a common understanding of its goals and direction.

5. Empowering broad based action could get buy- in from employees, leading to a win –win situation in the process.

6. Major transformation spanning a longer period, needs to have milestones to keep people motivated. To sustain the effort, short term wins must be visible, unambiguous and clearly related to the change effort.

7. Success must be harvested. As change projects begin to demonstrate results, it is important to acknowledge success and give the team credit for results produced. The lessons learned, the team dynamics that have worked, and the team leadership that has emerged can all be brought to bear on new projects.

8. Finally, Kotter (1996:17) reminds us that changes must be anchored in the corporate culture. If processes are not changed to be compatible with the new practices, the old culture will re-assert itself.

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5.16 Change management competencies

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Natasha suggests the following are some of the critical skills required of leaders to manage change in the millenuim:

- **Change leadership.** The ability to communicate a compelling vision of the company's strategy that makes adaptive responses appear both feasible and desirable to its many stakeholders and also arouses their genuine motivation and commitment.

- **Relationship management**. The ability to establish relationships with and influence complex networks of people, who can be regarded as co-equals or who are internal or external business associates. Their cooperation is needed for the organisation to succeed.

- **Team/process facilitation**. Group process skills need to get diverse groups of people to work together effectively to achieve a common goal (Frost, 1999).

- **Personal skills**. A personality and know how respected by top management, skills in teaching, coaching, communication and a mental habit of breakthrough thinking (Martin, 1995).

- **Strategic level skills**. Knowledge of the strategic options and direction and the ability to participate in top- management strategic visioning.

- **Knowledge of change methodology**. Understanding of the techniques used in continuous process improvement. Understanding value streams, cross- functional teams and the techniques used in discontinuous process replacement,. The ability to model and redesign workflow.

- **Know of technology**. Understanding IT methods for rapid implementation of systems and skill in cross functional enterprise modeling. Knowledge of how to create a corporate infrastructure.

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- **Cultural skills**. Understanding of changed corporate values and how to instill them as well as understanding corporate culture issues, when culture can be changed, and how to change it. Ability to excite people with the vision of change.

5.17 Positive Approaches to helping women into management

The previous chapter highlighted problems faced by women in the workplace, their stresses and strains, their blocked opportunities, and their difficulty in breaking through the glass ceiling and securing senior management positions. While we have outlined strategies which women themselves may adopt in order to overcome these largely 'man-made 'barriers, we have also described a number of organizational initiatives. Indeed, we strongly assert that the position of women managers will only improve by any substantial degree through attitudinal, legal and organizational changes and initiatives. Hence it is important at this stage to focus on what the organization, employers, government and unions can do to make life easier for women, and emphasise the need for changing

attitudes and behaviour. This is a time when the female resource is vital to the future productivity of the economies of the west and the society as a whole can no longer accept the status quo.

5.17.1 What the organisation can do to come to terms with change especially in relation to women

With the large number of women entering management and creating businesses within and outside the traditional corporate structure, it is incumbent on organizations to develop corporate policies that will minimize the current pressure on women particularly working women with families. Such policies should include flexible working arrangements, career planning, child care provisions and training.

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5.17.1.1 Flexible working arrangements

There are a wide range of flexible working arrangements that organisations can provide for their male and female employees to help them accommodate changing family patterns. Flexi time is obviously one good example. For a dual career wife or husband to meet the parental responsibilities associated with their children's education, and needs, free and not feel guilty, many parents feel that they must tale their children to school and/ or pick them up. This is very difficult to accomplish under the usual '9 to 5' (or later) working arrangements, and would be made much easier under flexi-time conditions – as long as it was applicable for both husband and wife. Flexi-time is not only useful during normal school terms.

Why shouldn't it be extended to school holiday times? Many dual career parents are concerned about arrangements for their children during the summer months when they are not at home. There are several ways of coping with this problem: allowing the dual career wife or husband to have a lighter load during some months ; providing facilities on site during the summer months for young children (perhaps by the use of university students training in the field of primary education ; or some combination of

these. Other flexi-time working arrangements could include more part-time work in a variety of different forms: limiting the number of days a week, or hours in a day or indeed shortening the working week by allowing individuals to work three or four days.

Kamerman and Khan in their book *The Responsive Workplace* (1987:129) describe four different types of flexi-time operating in the USA, from the least to the most flexible.

a) **Flexi tour.** Employees choose their starting and ending times, but must keep the schedule they select and work the same number of hours each day.

b) **Gliding time.** This is similar to flexi tour except that employees may vary the time they start and finish each day.

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c) **Variable day.** Employees can vary the number of hours worked each day, providing they are present for a minimum period.

d) **Maxi- flex.** Daily hours can be varied as desired. Employees are not required to be present for any core period.

Lewis and Cooper, in their book Career Couples (1989:144), highlight a number of different flexi-time approaches and their benefits. A particularly innovative form of flexible working is flexible working years. This has proved to be successful in several West German firms, although the concept has not been widely implemented elsewhere. In this system, employee's net working hours are decided for a whole year and then individuals are free to choose their own working times in order to fulfill the yearly quota. This has advantages for both the employee and the organization. The employee is provided with the flexibility to work longer hours at certain periods and reduce work during other periods such as school holidays, while retaining a secure and regular system of payment.

Payment is by means of a regular monthly salary, regardless of the number of hours worked during the month. The benefits to employers will obviously depend upon the nature of the organization. The West German experiences suggest that these benefits may include improved ability to handle seasonal or cyclical fluctuations because of a more flexible workforce. The firm is able to tale full advantage of a vast pool of full – time, job sharing and even seasonal staff. 'Flexi year' is used as an umbrella term for all these different categories. Employees have the opportunity to work less than 40 hours a week without losing their full- time status, while temporary or seasonal staff enjoy a status change by becoming permanent employees. Finally, by fitting working time to peoples needs, there is greater productivity and lower absenteeism and turnover.

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5.17.1.2 Career adaptation scheme

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Lewis and Cooper (1989:144) also suggested some flexible career adaptations schemes.

(a) V-time, which stands for voluntary reduced time a system that allows full- time employees to reduce working hours for a specified period with a reduction in salary. It differs from the usual concept of part- time work in that it is temporary, with a return to full- time work guaranteed. All employee benefits are maintained, although they may be altered to a pro – rata basis. Usually, the schedule remains in force for an agreed period, perhaps 6 or 12 months, to allow employees and employers to try it out, with an assurance that the commitment can be renegotiated or terminated. The 'time off' may be taken by working shorter days or weeks or blockes of time days. V –time may also be used to gain new skills or to respond to a health problem.

(b) Career break schemes

Fewer than 7 % of women in the UK return to full time work immediately after maternity leave, but 90 % return after a longer break. Some organizations, recognizing that many women prefer to spend more time with their infants than maternity leave allows, have taken steps to provide longer career breaks. Re entry and retainer schemes have been initiated (for example ICL) to allow them to interrupt their usual work for a number of years, after which they can return with no loss of seniority. The employee is usually expected to undertake at least two weeks paid relief work for the company during each year of her absence, and is provided with regular information packs, as well as a refresher course on her return. In practice, many work for more than two weeks a year.

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The scheme may permit one five year break or two shorter breaks, each dating from the end of statutory maternity leave. Many women prefer the two breaks, which enable them to return to work between the births of a first and second child. Career breaks are open, in principle, to men as well as women, although in practice they tend to be taken only by women. Organisations permitting two short breaks could encourage them to be shared between the two parents. The benefits of a career break scheme are becoming increasingly apparent. For example:

- They ensure that participants remain in touch with their work and maintain confidence, expertise and knowledge;
- Firms offering career breaks will attract young women with talent and ambition because they will have less fear of having to choose between family and career;
- They ensure that investment in training is not lost and after a break a minimum of retraining is required;
- They provide role models of women successfully combining career and family;
- They improve motivation, time keeping and productivity;

- They increase flexibility by providing a pool of trained staff to draw on when people are absent, or during peak periods;
- They reduce stress for new mothers and fathers.

The career break scheme first introduced by NatWest Bank has served as model in the UK for many forward –looking organizations and professional bodies that are now adopting similar schemes. The Law Society suggests that those operating such a scheme should ensure maximum benefit by advertising themselves "as a career-break employer" in much the same way as many organizations claim to be equal opportunity employers.

© Sabbaticals

In Sweden, the idea of sabbaticals, after a certain period of work, has been institutionalized in a wide range of occupations. In the UK, six- months sabbaticals for employees aged 50 or over, with at least 25 years service, have been introduced by the John Lewis group, to allow employees to do things they enjoy which would not otherwise be possible. Sabbaticals are available at all levels. People in specialist and senior management posts are encouraged not to feel indispensable, although they are required to give longer notice than other employees. Arrangements are made to cover their absences by creating an opportunity for a trainee, or reorganizing colleagues' responsibilities so as to share out the work. This provides opportunities for employees to take on new responsibilities, which can contribute to personal and career development aware that they, too, will have the opportunity of sabbatical.

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Clearly, the age requirement puts it out of the reach of new parents, but sabbaticals may be used to meet other family obligations that occur at a later stage. Apart from the care of sick relatives, people might wish to spend time visiting adult children living abroad. Nevertheless, the fact that the system works well has aslo implications for organizations for monitoring leave of absence for younger employees, especially for those taking maternity or paternity leave. Men as well as women can benefit from policies that aim to ease the transition to parent hood. Just as women need role

models who successfully combine career and motherhood, so men need role models of fathers willing to accommodate their career for childcare.

Organisations can play a part in bringing about a change in attitudes. They can encourage fathers who show an interest in paternity leave or career breaks by guaranteeing that their career prospects will not be harmed. Ultimately, the most helpful organizations will be those offering the most choices to new parents so that their needs can be met.

5.17.1.3 Childcare

Increasingly throughout Europe, organizations are beginning to provide in-house day-care centers for their employees' children. Since governments have not taken on this responsibility, organizations will need to, at least in the short term. Childcare facilities for the children of female managers can ease the transition to parenthood and can eliminate the need for extended career breaks. Difficulty in making childcare arrangements is the primary obstacle to women in the UK returning to work after maternity leave (1989).

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Hirsh and Jackson point to a recent initiative in the UK, the childcare voucher's scheme in which vouchers are redeemable from child minders and nurseries. However, unlike the UK, in many countries childcare expenses are tax deductible and a number of US companies even offer options such as allowing the company car to be traded off against childcare or extra holidays (1989:117). Lewis and Cooper in their comprehensive book on *Career Couples* (1989:144), discuss in detail five options that can be available to working mothers in general and female managers in particular:

- **Workplace nurseries**

These have traditionally been provided in organizations such as hospitals, the textile industry etc., which employ large numbers of highly trained women and recognize the importance of accommodating their childcare needs. More recently, the need for such

facilities has been recognized in a range of organizations, Refuge Assurance, Midland Ban etc. The cost of setting up and running a workplace nursery is often considered to be prohibitive, but it should also be seen as a benefit in kind similar to and as important as, a canteen or sports and social clubs.

Furthermore, it has been demonstrated by one local authority that a workplace nursery has economic as well as qualitative benefits. Savings were calculated in terms of recruitment and retraining, due to the dramatic rise in the numbers of women returning after maternity leave, as well as in the benefits of reduced stress, decline in absenteeism and improved time keeping.

A crèche or on site nursery located very near to the place of work has several advantages over other forms of childcare. Parents can see their children during the day and are readily available in an emergency, it is invaluable for mothers who return to work while still breastfeeding, and the hours coincide with those of the working day.

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- **Childcare consortia**

For smaller organizations, it might be worthwhile for a group of companies to share childcare in a consortium. One successful example is the Kingsway Children's centre in London where places are subsidized by a number of private sector employers.

- **Working with local government**

The business community can work together with local government by contributing funds to enable established nurseries to remain open, or those which have been forced to close down to re-open. The pooling of local authorities childcare expertise and private sector financial resources may well lead to other joint ventures of this nature.

- **Caring for sick children**

The dilemma which occurs when a child or the child's carer is sick causes parents considerable stress. Many female managers report that under these circumstances they would claim to be ill themselves because taking time off to look after a sick child was not

considered legitimate by their employers. Others were compelled to use up holiday time or to lose pay. Although paid leave to care for a sick child should be available, it must be recognized that many employers are reluctant or unable to drop everything to cope with this situation. Kamerman and Khan (1987:129) described a number of alternative policies which have been implemented by pioneering US organizations to help parents cope with a sick child without taking time from work. They include the following:

- In home sick child care service. Trained nurses or caregivers are sent to the child's own home when he/she is too ill to attend a nursery or if the regular caregiver is ill;
- Mildly ill children may be cared for in a special room or wing of a workplace crèche, or in a hospital wing;
- In Berkeley, California, a satellite sick child care programme has been set up called 'Wheezles and Sneezles'. This is located adjacent to a childcare centre and is staffed by the same caregivers, so that they are familiar to the children. It is visited by healthy children, so that if and when they have to use it, it is not a strange environment.

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- **After school childcare**

Childcare problems do not disappear once a child begins school. In some ways, the situation becomes more difficult as the length of the school day is shorter than the working day. Organisations can assist by arranging to transport children from school to their parents' workplace and by providing after school childcare programmes. School holidays can also present a problem for children too old to attend nursery but too young to be left alone. Organisations or groups of organizations could assist by offering holiday childcare or summer groups for employees' children. Perhaps more fundamentally, it is important that parents are given the opportunity to take vacations that coincide with school holidays. Flexible working arrangements can be used to enable parents to work longer in term time and save up time to allow them a longer break during school holidays.

5.17.2 Career opportunities for female managers

In addition to helping the dual career woman cope with her domestic and work environment, it is important for organizations to encourage women to enter management, and then provide them with career opportunities. Increasingly, companies are providing 'affirmative action officers' or some equivalent personnel role to try and adhere to the spirit of EOC requirements. These people would be responsible for examining the existing imbalances in the organisation, exploring what could be done to make it easier for women to take up managerial positions, which might mean changing the managerial recruitment and selection policy (ensuring gender bias free selection techniques), providing facilities for working mothers, or changing male biased company literature which might put off a prospective female manager.

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Further, Hirsh and Jackson (1989:117a) emphasise the need for organizations to encourage female mature students and late starters, and a change in attitudes towards age of promotion to management. A number of UK organizations, such as the BBC, are actively pursuing real equal opportunities at work. In addition to these obvious affirmative action type activities, the whole infrastructure of the organization will change once women take up their posts. Ebe Jorgan and others have suggested a number of organizational changes that are needed to support the careers of female managers:

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5.17.2.1 Career planning, counseling and training

Because of the special needs and circumstances of some women, it is necessary to plan and counsel them on their short term range job prospects and their long- term career goals. This may include a period of retraining or updating at some suitable time in their careers, as well as providing a periodic mechanism for feedback on their current performance. In addition, women may benefit from' women-only' training courses on such topics as assertiveness, particularly early on in their careers.

5.17.2.2 Providing senior management sponsorship

To encourage and help support women managers, a system of sponsorship/ mentoring within the organization can be useful in the corporate jungle. This role would entail helping the female manager to meet colleagues, to better understand the organizations informal procedures and customs, and to acquaint her with any other peculiarities of corporate life (for example, myths about the company, or its history).

5.17.2.2.1 Helping male managers to come to terms with women managers

Training programmes should be established within the company to get male and female managers to share their perceptions, stereotypes, myths and feelings about one another, and particularly about the role of women in management. The goal here is to try and change male manager's views of their female counterparts, and to encourage them to be more supportive and less threatened.

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5.17.2.2.2 The creation of informal support networks for all women managers

This may be particularly helpful while women are still very much in the minority in the organizations, but less necessary as they begin to establish themselves in larger numbers and throughout the organization.

5.17.2.5 Changing Corporate and Societal attitudes

Many of the female managers that have been interviewed have suggested that major changes are necessary to herald 'real' equal opportunities at work. These changes will have to take into account the educational system, the socialization process, government policy, political awareness, and so on, (Davidson & Cooper, 1992:164).

5.18 Corporate Policy towards Equal Opportunities

More than a decade ago, a report by the Industrial Society (1980:123) recommended the following action:

- Stimulate industry encourage able women to take up careers in management and improve, therefore, attitudes among parents, teachers and women generally;
- Ensure that girls are given guidance and opportunities at schools and in higher education;
- Reduce sex bias in education and particularly in subject choice.

The issue, however, was how do we achieve these lofty goals? Perhaps one way to start the process moving is to encourage organizations to provide formal equal opportunity guidelines. Certainly, during the 1980's, a large number of organizations introduced formal equal opportunities policies, although the majority tended to have limited content, structure and consequently no power to initiate real change. In her view of UK local authorities, for example, Coyle (1989:45) reported that of 200 – plus who had adopted formal equal opportunities policies between 1982 and 1987, less than a quarter had introduced any formal structures for women's equality.

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Another overriding barrier which undoubtedly restricts the application of equal opportunity policy is the discriminatory attitudes of managers and employers, inclined often to assumptions that individuals (because of their sex and marital status) possess characteristics which would make them unsuitable for employment /promotion. Beck and Steel (1989:130) give the following examples of possible assumptions:

- Lack of commitment to work.
- Have outside commitments which would interfere with work.
- Possess poor mental /physical ability.
- Produce an anticipated unfavourable reaction of other staff and members of the public.

- Be unsuitable for the job because of the feeling that certain types of work are only suitable for a member of the opposite sex of single status.
- Be unable to supervise.
- Possess limited career intentions.
- Being willing to undertake training.

The report of the Hansard Society Commission on Women at the Top (1990:104) provides a summary of both the barriers that hamper women from progressing up the organisational ladder and the strategies adopted by employers in order to try and create more equal opportunities for women (see figure below)

Strategies for change

Barriers	**Strategies**
• ***Organizational Barriers*** - Unfair selection or promotion procedures	Equal opportunities policy, equal opportunities training, dual interviewing, precise job specifications, objective assessment criteria, external advertising, equal opportunity audits monitoring, targets
- Inflexible working arrangements	Senior level part-time /job –sharing arrangements, flexitime, working at home, annual hours, other flexible arrangements
- Mobility	Requirement dropped or modified, dual-career job search
- Age limits	Requirement dropped
• ***Traditional roles*** - Work and family life	Career break schemes, workplace nurseries, childcare vouchers parental leave, enhanced maternity leave, other childcare help
• ***Attitudinal barriers*** - Lack of confidence	Equal opportunity advertising, headhunting, internal promotion policies, women –only training courses.
- Prejudice	Boardroom commitment to change, equal opportunities training for managers, awareness training for all staff.

Source: The Hansard Society Commission 1990 **Table 5.18.1**

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5.19 How women felt about being in the working world

Hale (1999:410), points out that there have been numerous studies showing that women encounter glass ceilings as they try to climb the corporate ladder. Women feel lonely, isolated and removed from power within organisations.

Hale's (1999:411) study looked at how professional men and women in public sector workplaces perceive the relationship between gender and their 'lived' work experiences. The study, conducted in 1995, was built on a focus group design with in depth, follow up telephone interviews. The participants in the first group were public administration faculty from public universities in six states; the 11 participants in the second group were middle level practitioners and top- level administrators from public sector organisations and government agencies in eight states. The study revealed nine key issues which are identified and described below:

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Nine key issues identified by Hale (1999) in the relationship between gender and work experiences

1. **Internalisation and identity**	Self-judgements based on incorporated stereotypes, perceptions, assumptions; concerns of diversity and multicultural issues related to race, class, and age. Women were thought to be 'emotional' , and they saw men as remote, controlling, inconsiderate, annoying, not trusted and sometimes irate.
2. **Emotionality**	Comments from women revealed anger about male colleagues who ignored or refused to work with women. There was intensity of feelings about the subject, men's anger.

3. **White male anger**	Competitiveness, losing out, unfairness, about being overlooked for promotion in favour of a woman.
4. **Power**	Power, powerlessness. Discussions about power included women's sense of being devalued or disempowered. Women also felt that it is difficult for some men to accept women who are perceived as both powerful, and they interpret this double blind as men not wanting to treat women as equals in the workplace.
5. **Sexuality**	Sexuality, sexual ideation and expression.
6. **Discrimination**	Lack of objectivity in organisations. Women need better credentials to be hired than men.
7. **Shared experience**	Women's shared experience, sense of invisibility and isolation.
8. **Trust**	Lack of trust between men and women; risk aversion, fear of talking, taboos topic. Men's discussions about trust included concerns of confidence, the intertwining of trust and power, and enforcement of their distrust of women by creating unwritten rules.
9. **Communication**	Importance of listening, need to understand and be sensitive to men's and women's different perspectives. Many women recounted their frustrations with men interrupting when they (women) speak.

Source: Hale (1999:410) **Table 5.19.1**

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5.20 Challenges facing women at work

Bhatnagar (1988:343) states that the problems that "professional women face, are dealt with by means of an advocacy approach that looks at problems of women in isolation from the rest of the organisation". Women experience discrimination, sex role stereotypes, social isolation, nonavailability of mentors and tokenism" in their working environment (Bhatnagar, 1988:343). Bhatnagar (1988: 343) suggests a systems perspective to address these problems within an organisation. It is not easy for organisations to level the playing fields for women.

Bhatnagar (1988:343) advocates a "complementary approach", which would aim to implement change strategies to integrate females into the organisation, together with a strategy for reducing organisational resistance to change". "Future developments need to shift focus from sex static variables and adopt a contingency approach to studying sex-related phenomenan as an organisational process that is influenced by the characteristics of the actors (both male and female) the organisation, and the social situation" (Bhatnagar, 1988:353).

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These challenges are further identified in an article written by Dr Lee Senior in People Dynamics September issue (2003:19), which states that many women reported that gender related obstacles in the workplace cause them difficulty and distress. She further postulated that gender discrimination creates a subtle pattern of disadvantages that blocks women from career advancement. Women encounter strong prejudices and preconceptions concerning their abilities and suitability for particular careers. Dr Lee further postulates that, if women are forceful, they violate prescriptions of feminine 'niceness'. They should choose to be respected but not liked, or liked but not respected.

5.21 Steps employers can take to support women and help them to be fully productive?

In Lee's article, the emphasis was on the elimination of the sources of their occupational stress and crafting more meaningful work- life policies that allow women to partake of flexible work programmes without damaging their careers. Such policies included offering of part –time arrangements, flexi time, telecommuniting, paid parenting leave, reduced hours or compressed work weeks to help women manage the overlap between their work and outside lives and allow mothers to continue their careers, educating managers and supervisors to recognize problems like harassment and to respond sensitively and objectively, awareness programmes in helping employees to understand the pain. An indignity of sexual harassment too will to challenge stereotyped and prejudiced beliefs and foster attitudinal and behavioural changes. Providing the staff and their families with an Employee Assistance Programme (EAP) based on a comprehensive needs analysis. Their inherent features make EAPs particularly effective in supporting women in the workplace. They are comprehensive, neutral and confidential and address a wide range of problems including marital, family, financial and work-related issues.

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5.22 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed change, and provided a definition of change for the purpose of this study. It also discussed the nature and effects of change within organisations, and in so doing highlighted the impact of change at both an individual and organisational level. In order to understand the role of leaders in the change process, the management of change was also discussed. The central role of leaders in the change management process was highlighted, as were the effects of poor leadership during times of change.

The aim if this chapter was to establish an understanding of change and how it is managed within organisations. Incorporated in this discussion were the challenges that women face at work, as it is a part of change women entering male dominated. The next chapter will deal with the methodology used in conducting this study.

CHAPTER 6

Research methodology

6. 1 Introduction

Against the background of the foregoing chapters, it is now time to elucidate the methodology employed for this study.According to Leedy (1989:88), methodology is an operational framework within which facts are placed so that meaning is seen more clearly. Research methodology is the how of collecting data and the processing thereof within the framework of the research process. Two basic methodologies for collecting data can be distinguished, namely quantitative and qualitative methods. Both methods make use of specific techniques to collect data, inter alia, literature reviews, interviews, questionnaires and direct observation (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:27).

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Brynard & Hanekom, (1997:28) states that research methodology or methods of collecting data, necessitate reflection on the planning, structuring and execution of the research in order to comply with the demands of truth, objectivity and validity. Hence, research methodology focuses on the process of research and the decisions which the researcher has to take to execute the research project.

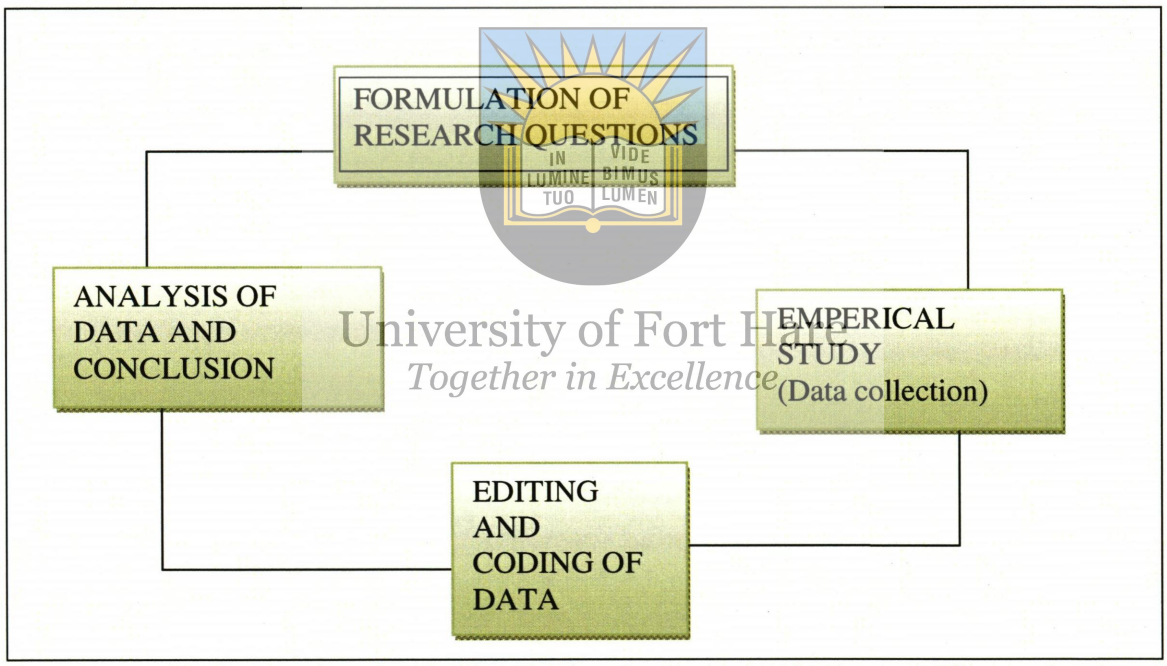
The research process consists of a set of controlled steps which the researcher follows in order to investigate a phenomenon (De la Rey, 1978:7). Statistics plays an important part in this process and is an indispensable tool in social science research. Statistics is concerned with the collection and analysing of data in order to obtain a better understanding of phenomena. It provides scientists with useful techniques for evaluating ideas, testing theory and discovering scientific truths (Healey, 1999:2).

Chapter six aims to discuss the relevant methodology and approach used in this empirical study. The topics to be addressed include research design and research methods the researcher used to conduct the empirical research for the study, as well as the statistical

methodology. It also highlights the population of the study and how it was determined description of the tools used in the collection of data and how the tool was administered.

6. 2 The research method

According to Steyn, Smit, Du Toit and Strasheim (2003), a research project is a specific research investigation – a study that is planned to follow stages in the research process. The figure below depicts a research project strategy.



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Source: Adapted from Steyn et al (2003) **Figure. 6. 2.1**

Different methods for the collection of primary data such as surveys, experiments, or observations are available for research (Diamantopoulos & Schehlgelmilch, 1997).The type of data required will largely determine the most appropriate method to be used. In this study the researcher decided to use the survey method. The survey method is used for descriptive reporting and makes use of a questionnaire to identify individual differences and perceptions that can not be observed. By means of the questionnaire, respondents provide information on their current and previous behaviour, attitudes and perceptions.

6.2.1 The questionnaire

A questionnaire is a document comprising a set of questions, which is sent to a large number of respondents with a view to obtaining their input and opinions on the topic of the research study. Researchers can use either structured or unstructured questionnaires. A structured questionnaire provides different options for each question, and the respondents are simply required to select and mark the applicable answer (Babbie, 1998). Unstructured questionnaires require far more cooperation on the part of the respondents since they are required to answer the questions in their own words. Since according to Welman & Kruger, (1998)- mail surveys methods it is not uncommon to have a response rate of 10 percent it is imperative to exercise caution in choosing questionnaires (Aarker, Kumar & Day, 1995). Table 6. 1 outlines the advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire as data collection method.

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In this research, the main reasons why the questionnaire was used as the method for collecting primary data include the following:

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- It is a relatively cheap method
- It is relatively easy to distribute and collect questionnaires when respondents are from a single organisation, as was the case in this study
- The majority of respondents have a type of "pen and pencil " job in which they could complete the questionnaire during office hours and after hours, just when it suits them.

6.2.1.1 Requirements for a good questionnaire

If a researcher succeeds in designing a good questionnaire, many of the shortcomings of a questionnaire can be overcome. An effective questionnaire must, however meet certain requirements. Table 6. 2 lists a number of requirements for the design of a satisfactory questionnaire (Sudman & Blair, 1998).

The advantages and disadvantages o questionnaires

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
• Relatively cheap method • Save time – a lot of information can be collected within a shirt period of time • Greater possibility of anonymity • Standardised questions simplify the coding of data • The answering of questions can be kept impersonal	• Possibility of low response rate • Researcher has low control over the conditions under which the questionnaire is completed • Explanation and clarification of concepts is not possible • Anonymity complicates the following up of questionnaires • It can only be used for short surveys with mainly closed questions

Table 6.1

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Requirements for design of a good questionnaire

- **Use a booklet format**

A booklet format is desirable because (1) it prevents pages from being lost, (2) it makes it easier to handle, (3) a double page format can be used, and (4) it looks more professional.

- **Identify the questionnaire**

Questionnaires need a date, title of the study, and the name of the person conducting the survey.

- **Do not crowd the questions**

Self administered questionnaires should not be crowded because crowding makes the questionnaire appear more difficult

- **Use large, clear print**

Questionnaires can be made user-friendly by making use of a large and clear print. Too small print makes the questionnaire appear difficult and as a result discourages respondents from completing it

- **Provide instructions for the completion of the questionnaire**

The ease with which a questionnaire can be completed plays a big role in a respondent's decision to complete the questionnaire. Specific instructions should appear on the questionnaire and be placed in the most useful location possible. Instructions should be easy to distinguish and therefore be in bold print, capital letters or italics

- **Do not split questions across pages**

Respondents find it difficult and confusing if a question is split over two pages, especially in respect of response categories for a closed question

- **Precode all closed questions**

Pre-coding allows the respondent to simply circle the right answer

- **End the questionnaire in a proper way**

Respondents should be thanked for their participation.

Source: Sudman & Blair (1998) Table 6.2

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Although Leedy (1996) outlines general requirements for a good questionnaire, he emphasises the important role that questions play. Table 6. 3 summarises what Leedy regards as essential for a good questionnaire.

Leedy's requirements for a good questionnaire

- Instructions must be clear and unambiguous.
- A cover letter must accompany the questionnaire and clearly state for what purposes the information is needed.
- Questions must be clear, understandable and objective.
- The questionnaire must be as short as possible.
- A logical flow of questions and sections must exist.
- The questionnaire must be directly related to the research problem.

Source: Leedy (1996) **Table 6.3**

6.2.1.2 The design of a questionnaire

The design of a questionnaire plays a crucial role in the success of the research. Saunders, Lewis and Thomhill (1997) regard the following as the principal steps in the design of a questionnaire:

- Determine information goals and identify the population
- Decide which questions need to be asked.
- Identify the respondent's frame of reference.
- Formulate the questions.
- Pretest the questionnaire.
- Revise the questionnaire.
- Compile the final questionnaire.

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The first step in the design of a questionnaire involves the translation of the research objectives into information goals for the formulation of specific questions. Once the list of questions has been finalised, it should cover all information goals and research objectives.

6.2.1.3 Creating an item pool (questions)

Once the scope and range of the content have been identified, the actual task of creating questions (items) can begin. No existing data analytic technique can remedy serious deficiencies in an item pool. The creation of the initial pool of questions is thus a crucial stage in questionnaire development. The fundamental goal at this stage is to systematically sample all content that is potentially relevant to the topic under study.

Two key implications of this principle are that the initial pool of questions (1) should be broader and more comprehensive than one's own theoretical view of the topic being researched, and (2) should include content that will ultimately be shown to be tangential

or even unrelated to the research topic. The logic underlying this principle is simple: Subsequent psychometric analysis can identify weak, unrelated items that should be excluded from the emerging scale but one is powerless to detect content that should have been included but was not. Accordingly in creating the item pool one always should err on the side of over inclusiveness (Clark & Watson, 1995).

Apart from asking the right questions, the following issues also need to be considered when formulating questions:

(a) Closed and open questions

Closed questions provide response categories whereas open questions do not. Various factors such as the purpose and method of the survey, and the respondent's profile determine which type of question is the most appropriate to use. According to Sudman and Blair (1998), closed questions are mainly used for the following reasons:

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- They encourage response by making the completion of the questionnaire easy.
- They enable respondents to complete the questionnaire in a short time.
- They simplify coding for data analysis purposes.
- They reduce the amount of probing needed.

Although closed questions require more pretesting, limit the richness of data and may become boring for respondents, they work better in situations where there is a preference for inexpensive, structured information. Welman and Kruger (1999) recommended that even if a questionnaire comprises only closed questions, it should conclude with an open question in case anything of importance to the respondent has been omitted.

(b) Difficulty of questions

Questionnaires provide few opportunities for probing- hence the different ways in which people interpret questions merit careful consideration. Table 6.4 provides guidelines on minimising the problems of understanding of questions.

Guidelines on formulation good questions

• Questions must be specific.
• Use simple language
• Use words with only one meaning
• Use numbers to measure magnitudes
• Ask questions one at a time

Table 6.4

Sudman and Blair (1998) believe that the formulation of questions should aim specifically at addressing the following three issues:

(1) Do the respondents understand the words in the question?

(2) Do all the respondents interpret the question in the same way?

(3) Do the respondents interpret the question in the way it is intended?

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(c) Scaling of questions

Scaling is a process of creating a continuum on which objects are located according to the number of the measure characteristics they possess (Aaker etal, 1995). The Likert scale is probably the most popular type of scale used for this purpose. This scale consists of a collection of statements about the attitudinal object. For each statement, respondents have to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with its content on, say, a four – point scale (Welman & Kruger, 1999). The number of response categories that can be used for closed questions depends on the method of administration. By making use of an even number of response categories, the central tendency effect can be eliminated. According to Welman and Kruger (1999), the error of central tendency can further be eliminated by avoiding statements which reflect extreme positions.

(d) Ordering of questions

Sudman and Blair (1998) regard the ordering of questions as important for three main reasons: (1) the order effects must be considered; (2) a logical flow for the questionnaire must be developed and (3) rapport must be established with the respondents.

Questions should be arranged in a sequence that minimises order effects. An order effect occurs when the answer to a particular question is influenced by the context of previous questions. In order to create a logical flow of questions, the questions must be divided into sections, each with a specific purpose in mind. To elicit a favourable response for the completion of the questionnaire, the questionnaire must start with easy, none threatening questions for which there are no wrong answers. By establishing rapport with respondents, one can obtain better cooperation. With the aforementioned as background, the next section discusses the design of the research used for this empirical research.

6.3 The research design

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The researcher used a quantitative research design. Quantitative research is associated with analytical research, and its purpose is to arrive at a universal statement (Mouton, 1983:128).In quantitative methodology the researcher assigns numbers to observations. By counting and measuring "things" or "objects", data is produced. Quantitative research is underpinned by a distinctive theory as to what should pass as warrantable knowledge (Bryman, 1984:77). It requires methods such as experiments and surveys to describe and to explain phenomena. The methods could include techniques such as observations, quantitative analysis and questionnaires. In conducting the study, the researcher used questionnaires, with both open- ended and closed questions.

There are many types of questionnaires. They can vary enormously in terms of their purpose, their size and appearance. To qualify as a research questionnaire, however, the questionnaire should:

- Be designed to collect information which can be used subsequently as data for analysis. As a research tool, questionnaires are not set up to change people's attitudes or provide them with information. Though questionnaires are sometimes used for this purpose- for instance as a way of marketing a product – it is not strictly in keeping with the spirit of a research questionnaire, whose purpose is to discover things, (Martyn, 2005: 144).

- Consist of a written list of questions. The important point here is that each person who answers the particular questionnaire reads an identical set of questions. This allows for consistency and precision in terms of the wording of the questions, and makes the processing of the answers easier.

- Gather information by asking people directly about the points the research is concerned with. Questionnaires work on the premise that if you want to find out something about people and their attitudes you simply go and ask them what is it you want to know, and get the information straight from the horse's mouth.

The researcher used questionnaires because on the following advantages that questionnaires provide:

- *Questionnaires are economical*, in the sense that they can supply a considerable amount of research data for a relatively low cost in terms of materials, money and time.

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- *Easier to arrange.* Questionnaires are easier to arrange than, for example, personal interviews. There is no need to arrange it at all, in fact, since the questionnaire may be simply sent unannounced to the respondents. (Some researchers, though, have sought to improve the response rate by contacting respondents before they send the questionnaire to them. These contacts can be by a phone or letter. However, it obviously increases the amount of time and money involved in conducting the research).

- *Questionnaires supply standardized answers*, to the extent that all respondents are posed with exactly the same questions- with no scope for variation to slip in via face-to- face contact with the research. The data collected then, are very unlikely to be contaminated through variations in the wording of the questions or the manner in which the question is asked. There is little scope for the data to be affected by interpersonal factors.

- *Pre-coded answers.* A further, and important, advantage of the questionnaire is that it encourages pre-coded answers. However, particularly with questionnaires, the value of the data is likely to be greatest where respondents provide answers fit in to a range of options offered by the researcher. This allow for speedy collation and analysis of data by the researcher. They also have an advantage for the respondents, who, instead of needing to think on how to express their ideas, are faced with the relatively easy task of needing to pick one or more answers which are spell out for them, (Martyn, 2005:159).

6.4 Research strategy

The research strategy chosen was a survey. Surveys are the most common technique of data collection, Shiraev and Levy (2004:36). In a typical survey, the researcher asks the subject to express his or her opinion regarding a particular topic, issue, or issues. There could be open- ended and more commonly, multiple choice questions. Open ended questions give subjects some freedom to express themselves, to explain many nuances of their thoughts and feelings. There are direct and indirect surveys.

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In direct surveys, the researcher maintains or can maintain a direct communication with the respondent and is able to provide feedback, repeat a question or ask for additional information. In indirect surveys, the researcher's personal impact is very small because there is no direct communication between the respondent and the interviewer. The questions are typically written and handed in, mailed, or sent electronically to the respondents in their homes, classrooms, or workplaces. In this study, the researcher used the physical distribution of questionnaires to the various companies such as Johnson & Johnson, Coca – Cola and South African Breweries.

The researcher visited the companies and then left the questionnaires with the Human Resource manager who assisted in distributing the questionnaires. The questionnaires were divided among the departments within the companies, and then which the human resource department in those companies served as the point for collection.

De la Rey (1978:14) states that the survey method can be used when a researcher wants to gain more information regarding a certain phenomenon, as well as when the information about a certain phenomenon is to be analysed. It is for this reason that the researcher used the survey method to obtain data, especially the indirect survey method which involves questions typed, and delivered in organisations that granted permission to conduct the study. Comparison and associations can be made in order to explore whether relationships exist between phenomena. The reason for choosing the survey method was because it is the most versatile method to use for an analysis of responses that are required in trying to address the stated problem.

The survey approach is a research strategy, not a research method, though most people tend to confuse or misunderstand these concepts (Dens Combe 2003:7). Many methods can be incorporated in the use of a social survey. Researchers who adopt the strategy are able to use a whole range of methods within the strategy: questionnaires, interviews, documents and observation. For the purpose of this study questionnaires were used. What is distinctive about the survey approach is its combination of a commitment to breadth of study, snap- shot focus at a given point in time and dependence on empirical data.

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6.5 The layout of the questionnaire used in the study

6.5.1 Type of questionnaire used

It was decided to use a structured questionnaire for this study (see appendix B). Structured questionnaires provide alternative responses to each question, and the respondent simply needs to mark the applicable answer. For financial reasons, the cover letter (see appendix A) and the questionnaire (see appendix B) were drawn up in English only.

6.5.2 Layout of the questionnaire

Survey questionnaires are normally used to obtain the following types of information from respondents: biographical particulars (age, gender, ethnicity, and so on), typical

behaviour, opinions and beliefs, and attitudes. For this study, questionnaire was developed to also collect information on the employee's biographical details. The questionnaire used in this study consistes mainly of closed questions because such questions are usually self-explanatory and can be answered with ease in a short period of time (see appendix B). The layout of the questionnaire is provided in table 6. 5.

Layout of the questionnaire

SECTION	TOPIC OF SECTION	NO OF QUESTIONS
1	Biographical information	6
2	Diversity	3
3	Gender /Race discrimination	5
4	Information about Culture	9
5	Women and Perceptions about them	9
6	Change and transformation	5
7	Feeling about change /transformation	5
8	Change and government legislation	5
9	Open ended questions on gender equity and women	4
Total number of questions		**51**

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Table 6.5

6.5.3 Appearance of the questionnaire

The physical layout of the questionnaire plays a vital role in a respondent's decision whether or not to complete it. Aaker et al (1995) regard the quality of the paper, the clarity of reproduction and the appearance of crowding as important factors. For this study the questionnaire was printed on good quality white paper. Ample space was allowed between the questions as well as between the sections. Clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire were also provided.

Time constraints also have a direct influence on respondents willingness to complete the questionnaire. If the questions are too difficult or too time consuming to complete, the respondents tend not to complete the questionnaire. Although this questionnaire consisted of 51 questions (which is a fairly large number of questions) the questions were formulated in a simple way which made it relatively easy for the respondents. Approximately 30 minutes are needed to complete the questionnaire for this study.

6.5.4 Pretesting of the questionnaire

The purpose of pretesting is to ensure that the questionnaire meets the researcher's expectation in terms of the information that will be obtained from it. Questionnaire pretesting is one way of identifying and eliminating those questions that could pose problems. Only after all the deficiencies have been corrected, can the final questionnaire be compiled and distributed.

The best way to test a questionnaire is to have as many people as possible look at it. Because a pre-test is a pilot run, the respondents should be reasonably representative of the sample population (Aaker et al, 1995). In this study, a formal pre-test was done by firstly forwarding the drafted questionnaires to the organisations to whom the questionnaire would be distributed, so that they could amend the questionnaires delete or some items. After careful consideration of the inputs from the different departments of different organisations, the final questionnaire was compiled and distributed.

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6.5.5 Distribution of the questionnaires

The next step involved the distribution of questionnaires to the employees and organisations selected. A cover letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire accompanied each questionnaire. Appendix A provides an example of the cover letter. The questionnaires had to be hand - delivered to the human resource department of the different organisations for distribution, since it is very important not to interrupt the operations of the company.

6. 6 Population

The population can be described as all persons, animals, or objects that have determined characteristics and that can be found in a determined place at a determined time. According to Clarke and Cooke (1992:38), it is useful to further define a population into

two categories which is a target population and study population. Target population is the population about which the researcher wants information, while the study population is the population from which the researcher can obtain information.

According to Christensen (1997:65), a population "refers to all of the events, things, or individuals to be presented, in a research project, whilst a sample refers to any number of individuals less than the population". Population does not refer to the population of the country, but to objects, subjects, phenomena, cases, events or activities, that is all the objects, subjects, events, phenomena, activities or cases which the researcher wishes to research in order to establish new knowledge, (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:43).

In this study, the researcher focused industries located in East London, namely SAB, Coca - Cola and Johnson &Johnson. All employees were thus invited to complete the questionnaire regardless of their rank or section. Some were on leave, others attended training or were on international businesstrips, while others, although at work, were unable to complete the questionnaires for various reasons. These employees excluded themselves from participating in the survey.

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6.7 Sample

According to Malhotra (1996:359), the basic principle of sampling is that by selecting some of the elements in a population, a researcher may draw conclusions about the entire population. Sampling is thus appropriate when the population size is large and if the cost and time associated with obtaining information from the population is high.

It often happens in research that the population or universe to be studied for a particular project is of such a magnitude that it could take the researcher years to complete the research. Hence, the researcher is faced with the dilemma of selecting from the larger group (the population) a small group or portion for study purposes that must still be representative of the large group. The small group or portion selected from the population is called a sample (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:43).The sample size was as follows from

Johnson and Johnson fifty employees from Coca –Cola one hundred and from SAB one hundred and fifty were selected to participate.

Usually, when a researcher wants to determine the sample size for a specific research project, a sample size can be used to establish the appropriate sample size. Sample size does not only depend on the size of the population, but also on its heterogeneity, the greater the herogeneity, the larger the sample which is required to obtain a high level of validity. If the population is relatively homogeneous, a smaller sample may be sufficient (Huysamen, 1994:47).A sample should be representative of the large group (population or universe) and should include all the elements of the population. This sample comprised both male and female employees from different departments within the specific industries.

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If a researcher wants to investigate the attitudes of students enrolled at a specific university towards, say, gender equality then the sample should include all the elements of the university student's population. That is, it should not only include males but also females, and not only first year students but also students at other levels of enrolment, both undergraduate and postgraduate (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:85). The manner in which the sample is selected depends on the goals of the research project. There are some underlying reasons why the researcher uses the sample as representation of the population as are mentioned below:

- Simplifies the research- it is easier to study a representative sample of a population than to study the entire population;

- Saves time- studying an entire population could be time consuming, especially if the population is very large area or distributed over a large geographic area;

- Cuts costs- observing, interviewing or using questionnaires to collect data from every element of the population could be very costly if the population is large and geographically distributed over a large area (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:43).

6. 8 The sampling procedure or technique

There are two types of sampling procedure or techniques, probability sampling and non probability sampling. Probability sampling as the name suggests is based on the idea that the people or events chosen as a sample are chosen because the researcher has some notion of the probability that this will be a representative cross- section of people or events in the whole population being studied. While non- probability sampling is conducted without such knowledge about whether those included in the sample are representative of the overall population, (Martyn, 2005:12). Probability sampling is made up of the following sampling procedures:

- Random sampling, which involves the selection of people or events literally at random.

- Systematic sampling is a variant of random sampling. It operates on the same principles but introduces some system into the selection of people or events. With this systematic sampling approach, the researcher's choice of selecting people will be based on choosing every 'nth' case.

- Stratified sampling, which can be defined as one in which every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected in relation to their proportion within the total population.

- Quota sampling, which establishes certain categories or strata considered vital for inclusion in the sample, and also seeks to fill these categories in proportion to their existence in the population.

- Cluster sampling, with the logic behind it that, in reality, it is possible to get a good enough sample by focusing on naturally occurring clusters of the particular thing that the researcher wishes to study.

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- Multi stage sampling, as the name suggests, involves selecting samples from samples, each sampling being drawn from within those previously selected (Ibid, 2005:12-14).

Non- probability sampling is made up of the following sampling procedures:

- Purposive sampling is applied to those situations where the researcher already knows something about the specific people or event and deliberately selects particular ones because they are seen as instances that are likely to produce the most desirable data.

- Snowball sampling, emerges through a process of references from one person to the next. Snowballing is an effective technique for building up a reasonable size sample, especially when used as part of a small scale research project.

- Theoretical sampling, follows a route of discovery based on the development of a theory which is 'grounded' in evidence. At each stage, new evidence is used to modify or confirm the 'theory', which then points to an appropriate choice of instances for research in the next phase.

- Convenience sampling is built upon selections which suite the convenience of the researcher and which are 'first to hand'.

Selecting an element from a population is called a random selection when each element has the same chance to be selected for the sample, (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:45). Behind the use of random sampling lies the assumption that,

- If there are sufficiently large numbers of examples selected and
- If their selection has genuinely been 'at random',

then the resulting sample is likely to provide a representative cross-section of the whole. The manner in which the sample is selected depends on the goals of the research project.

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When the research question requires an accurate description of the general population, a random sampling technique should be used. Random sampling is a technique whereby every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected for the study, and it has the advantage of providing a sample of participants whose responses represent those of the general population. The researcher used a random sampling procedure to draw the sample from the employees of the industries, chosen: SAB, Coca – Cola and Johnson & Johnson.

6. 9 Data collection

The most time-consuming part of research is the collection of data. This must, however, be done because without data it will not be possible to broaden one's understanding, to explain the " unknown ", or to add new knowledge to existing knowledge (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:27). The introduction highlighted the different methods for collecting data. Of these, the researcher had used questionnaires. There are many types of questionnaires. They can vary enormously in terms of their purpose, their size and their appearance.

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Questionnaires tend to be 'one-offs'. In general, researchers do not have the time or resources to repeat of research which involves the use of questionnares; nor do they have the opportunity to make amendments and corrections to the questionnaire once it has been printed and distributed. The vast majority of respondents are likely to be less than sympathetic to a plea from the researcher to fill in the questionnaire a second time in order to overcome a mistake in the first version.

Therefore it is important to get it right the first time (Martyn, 2005:146).The successful use of questionnaires depends on devoting the right effort to the planning stage, rather than rushing into distributing the questionnaire. If the questionnaire is to produce worthwhile results, the researcher needs to have a clear plan of action in mind and some reasonable idea of the costs and time-span involved in the venture (Ibid,

2005:147).Planning right from the start involves the researcher in consideration of the following points:

- Costs, such as costs of producing, distributing, collecting and analysing the results of the questionnaire;

- Production, which involves the designing of the questionnaire;

- Organization, as the process for distribution, collection and analysis of results from questionnaires demands an eye on organization;

- Schedule, the time-span that is likely to be involved before the results from the questionnaire are available for analysis.

- Permission to conduct the survey, depending on the nature of the questionnaire and the people to whom it is being sent, must be given by those in authority (Martyn, 2005:43).

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There are various ways in which questions can be put in a questionnaire. These are outlined below:

- **Open questions,** are those that leave the respondent to decide the wording of the answer, the length of the answer and the kind of matters to be raised in the answer. The questions tend to be short and the answers tend to be long.

The advantage of open questions is that the information gathered by way of responses is more likely to reflect a full richness and complexity of views held by the respondents. Respondents are allowed space to express themselves in their own words. Weighed against this, however, there are two disadvantages which are built into the use of open questions. First, they demand more effort on the part of respondents (which might well reduce their willingness to take part in the research). Secondly, they leave the researcher with data that are quite raw and require a lot of time consuming analysis before they can be used.

- **Closed questions** structure the answers by allowing only answers which fit into categories that have been established in advance by the researcher. In this case the researcher instructs the respondent to answer by selecting from a range of two or more options supplied by the questionnaire. The options can be restricted to as few as two (Yes or No, Female or Male) or can include quite complex lists of alternatives from which the respondent can choose.

  The advantages and disadvantages of closed questions are more or less a mirror image of those connected with open unstructured aquestions. In a nutshell, the main advantage is that the structure imposes on the respondents answers that provide the researcher with information which is of uniform length and in a form that lends itself nicely to quantification and comparism (Martyn, 2005:148).The answers, in fact, provide pre-coded data that can be e:asily analysed. Weighed against this, there are two disadvantages.

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- Firstly, there is less scope for respondents to supply answers which reflect the exact facts or true feelings about a topic if the facts or opinions happen to be complicated or do not exactly fit into the range of options supplied by the questionnaire. The closed question allows for less subtlety in the answers.
- Second, and largely as a result of the first disadvantage, respondents might get frustrated by not being allowed to express their views fully in a way that accounts for any sophistication, intricacy or even inconsistency in their views(Martyn, 2005:148).

Given the above the researcher decided to use both closed and open ended questions. For the purpose of this study the researcher, administered the data by distributing the questionnaire to the contact person mentioned by the industries and the researcher had distributed some of the questionnaires himself. The reason for using both open ended and closed ended questionnaires was to try to minimise disadvantages that these types of questions offer. The disadvantages of open ended questions will be balanced by the

advantages of the closed questions, and vice versa. Instruments such as attitude scales and ratings scales were developed to measure the reliability of the methods of data collection. In turn, the validity and reliability of measuring instruments had to be tested.

6. 10 Conclusion

This chapter presented the methodology of the empirical study. It set forth a description of the participants, and explanation of the measurement instrument and the method used to collect the data. This chapter mainly focused on the research methods that were utilised in this research. It revealed the research design followed, research strategy, population, sample, sample procedure and data collection methods. The advantages for choosing one strategy over the other were highlighted, together with the advantages of the methods chosen. The idea was to come up with effective techniques to gather sufficient research data which gave accurate research project results. The aim of the chapter was to describe the method used to conduct this study. The following chapter will discuss how the data was analysed and which statistical programs or packages were used to analyse it and arrive at the conclusion and findings.

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CHAPTER 7

Data analysis and presentation of results

7. 1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the results obtained from the statistical analysis. Firstly it will present the demographic analysis presented with the use of bar charts, to be followed by the statistical analysis performed by SPSS program and the statistics department. Out of three hundred questionnaires distributed, one hundred and eighty nine were received. The analysis will be presented by reporting frequency distribution, explained by charts and, later, on by explanations. The reliability of the results was very high, of three hundred questionnaires distributed, one hundred and eighty nine were received. The margin of error was found to equal five percent.

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The data analysed presented as follows, firstly the variables from section one, which deals with biographical information (see appendix B and C) will be explained by means of the graphs/charts. The other variables will be analysed by means of explanations, basically inferred from the appendixes at the back. This means that explanations from section two to section nine will be explanations of the variables and percentages from each section. In analyzing variables from section one, the variables to be explained will be gender, ethnic, marital, designation and industry type, as reflected in graphs and charts (see appendix B). Below is an outline of the way the data was analysed.

Section	How it was analysed
Biographical information	Percentage and graphs
Diversity	Percentage and graphs
Gender / Race Discrimination	Percentage and graphs
Culture	Frequency numbers and graphs
Women and Perceptions	Frequency numbers and percentage
Change and Transformation	Numbers and graphs
Feelings about change/transformation in industry	Numbers and graphs
Change and government legislations	Numbers and graphs
Open ended questions	Summary

7.2 Biographical analysis of information

7.2.1 Gender distribution of the sample

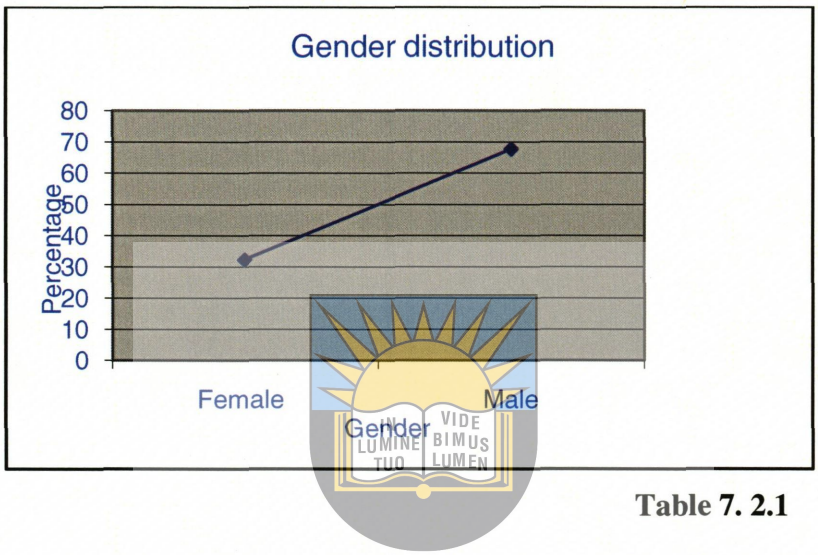


Table 7. 2.1

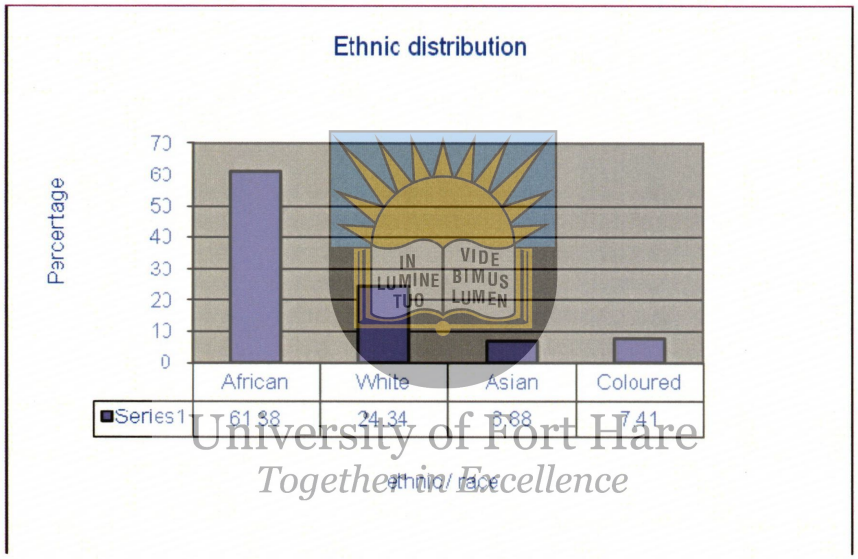
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This section summarises the results of the demographic variables which were included in the questionnaire in section one, which was dealing with biographical information gathered from the research. The above table shows the percentages of the response questionnaire, in relation to gender. From the table below it can be depicted that response rate as per percentage was as follows; thirty two point twenty eight (32.28%) was response from male and sixty seven point seventy two (67.72%) was response from female (see Appendix B and C) at the back.

The reason for the higher rate of response from the female side may be because of the interest shown by females in this study, and also of showing the effectiveness and successful the implementation of government legislations in trying to redress the imbalance of the past by employing women in industries. By this percentage it reflects that women are now entering the labour market slowly but surely, and the percentage rate also confirms the difference generally of the rate of women towards male in the country, though in industries they (women) have not yet reached the glass ceiling. One of the most successful strategies adopted by the South African Government to promote the status and

economic welfare of its women is to push gender equity in the parliament and government offices. It is deduced that according to the Employment Equity Commission (2001), only when there is a critical mass of women in all their diversity in both appointed and elected decision –making positions will gender issues be addressed.

7.2.2 Nationality/ethnic distribution of the sample



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Table 7.2.2

The above table shows the percentage response of the ethnic or race group from whom the researcher had received the response questionnaire. According to the table, the highest percentage rate was of the African, with 61.38%, succeeded by the white, with 24.34%, then with the coloured with 7.41% and lastly with Asian with 6.88% (see Appendix B and C). The reason behind these differences may be, because the industries from whom the researcher collected the data were basically based in the Eastern Cape Province, in East London.

7.2.3 Marital distribution of the sample

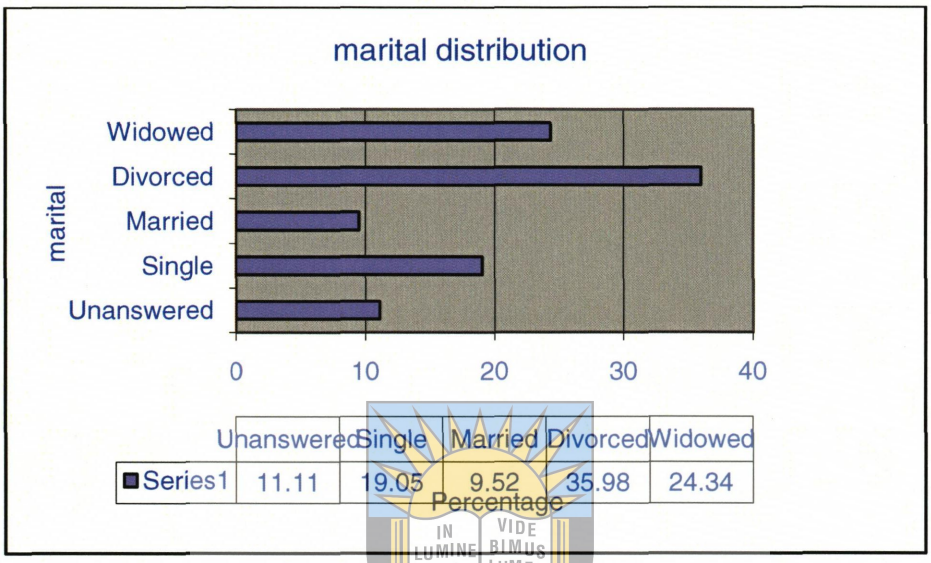


Table7. 2.3

From the table above, it can be deduced that, the highest percentage response from the questionnaires were those people who had divorced, with the percentage rate of 35.98% (see Appendix B and C). The divorce percentage is followed by people who are widow (24.34%), with the above contributing factors playing a tremendous role. The widow rate is followed by people who are single with 19.05% and with 11.11% rate of people who did not answer and 9.52% rate of people who are married.

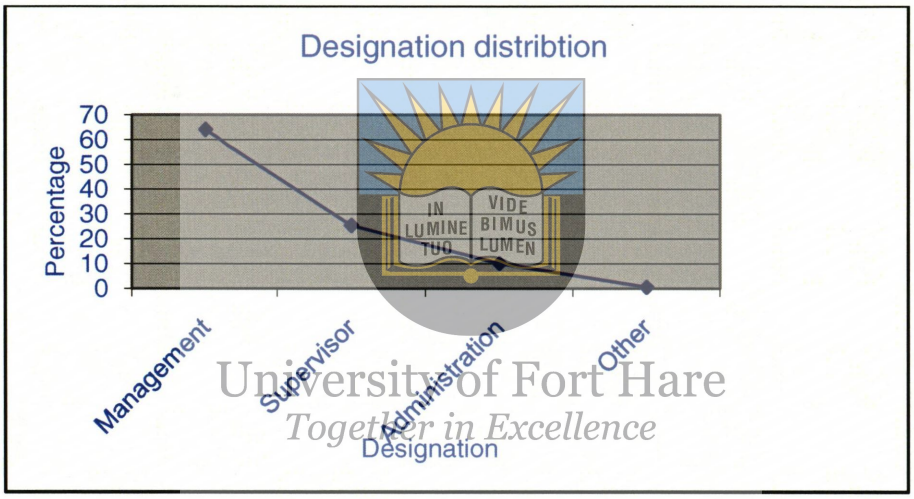
The most contributing factors with this regard are migration of people, divorce caused by infertility, changes in career and other career related issues of which most people turn to go overseas to look for green pastures which that could contribute to their standard of living raised by amount of salary they are going to earn abroad.

The other contributing factors for the divorced percentage can be as the result of the change of traditional roles, of which in most marriages, it becomes so important that there should be a shared responsibility as far as family matters are concerned, hence some men especially those who rely mostly to their traditions, cultures, norms and values and, also the role that used to be played by men in raising their families is not only a sole responsibility of the men but also of the women, hence most women turn to look at it.

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The other contributing factors with this regard was the highest rate of death of people due to the HIV epidemic, or other misrelated diseases or opportunistic infections such as diarrhea, herpes zoster and skin diseases which that have an impact on the rate of death in organization, hence widow rate as per the percentage shown above.

7.2.4 Designation distribution of the sample



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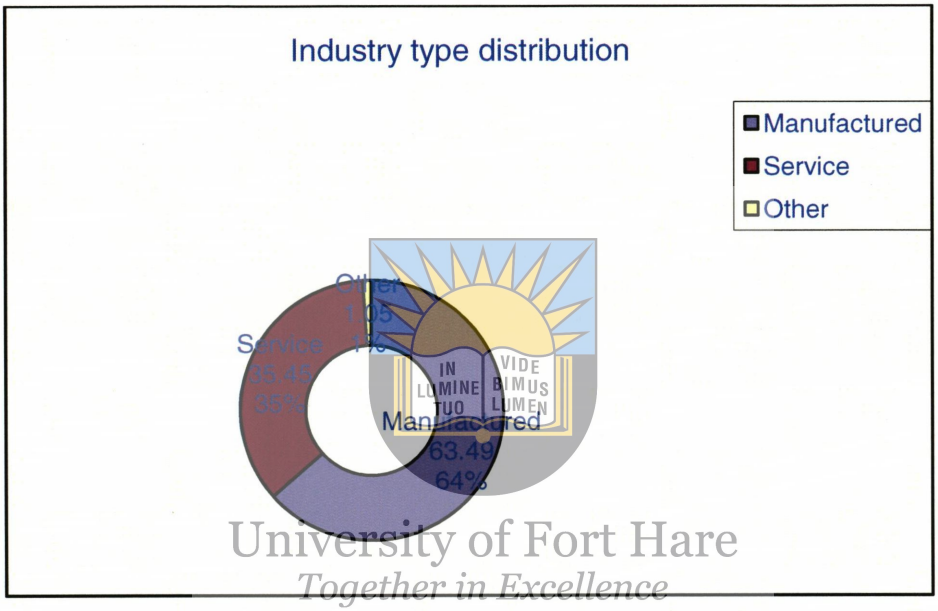
Table 7.2.4

With the above chart, it has been identified that the highest rate or percentage people who responded to the questionnaires were management with 64.02%, followed by supervisor with 25.40% and then administration staff with 10.05% and lastly with others with 0.53%, including general labour like drivers, sales representatives etc (see appendix B and C) .

The reason behind this response was that, initially the study basically targeted the management staff especially in senior position where there is a lower rate of women in such positions. In general, women used to choose careers like teachers, social work, nursing, which careers they don't make strategic decisions. So basically it was quite a turn around when the management showed interest in filling in the questionnaire, with this tremendous outcome response irrespective of their gender. This also shows the

effectiveness of the implementation of policies and the transformation of industries, to the new South Africa.

7.2.5 Industry type distribution of the sample



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Table 7.2.5

In analyzing the above table it is evident that the highest percentage response (64%) was from the manufacturing companies (industries). This means that all the industries involved in the study produce goods by changing them from their natural state (raw materials) into finished products for consumption. This includes motor cars, baby lotions, soft drinks etc. The response rate is followed by service companies like tertiary institutions or universities with 35%. These companies render services like lecturing or providing academic support programmes through administration or other technical related work but do produce any goods. The lowest percentage response was from "Others" (1%) see appendix B and C. In this section reference is made to contract work by contractors since women are also entering construction companies.

7. 3 Data analysis of the other sections

7.3. 1 Section two Analysis: Diversity

From this section the questionnaires were presented with a five point likert scale statement as seen in appendix B and D. From section two, the following three variables, that is cultural diversity, cultural impact and diverse workforce have been identified, which tried to define diversity as the key variable under which the other statements with identifiable variables will be explained.

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7.3.1.1 Cultural Diversity

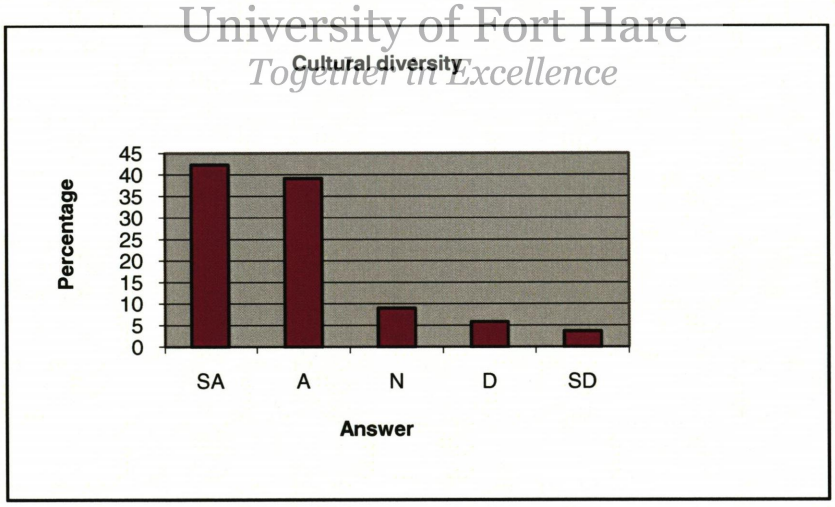
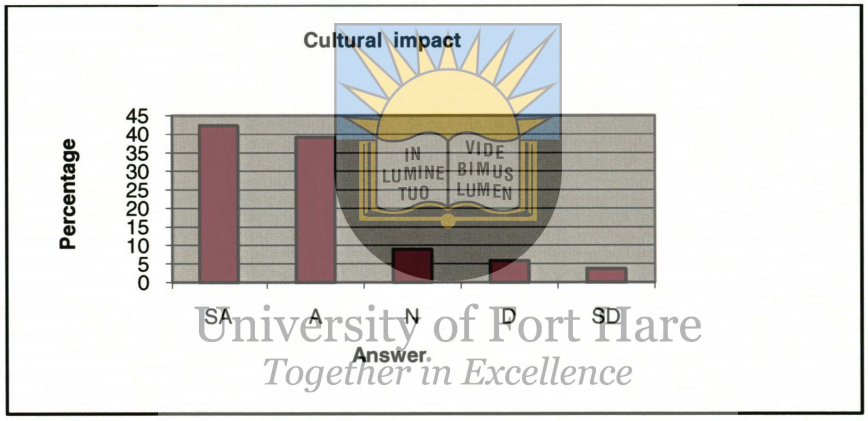


Table 7.3.1.1

With statement seven with a question: " I know what cultural diversity mean and entails" (see appendix B, D and the table above) 42.33% responded with strongly agree. This means that cultural diversity does exist in organisations and people are fully aware of what it is all about. Organisations have programs in place to try to address this diversity in the workplace, as industries can not run away from it, especially if industries in South

Africa are to ensure compliance of legislations. This country is so rich in diversity having different cultures and eleven languages. The above response rate is followed by 34.15% , people who agreed. This response rate shows knowledge about cultural diversity. As far as neutral is concerned only 8.99% responded. The rest was 5.825% for disagree and 3.70% strongly disagree. From this statement, it can be concluded that the highest percentage was response rate for people who strongly agree and agree with the statement.

7.3.1.2 Cultural impact



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Table 7.3.1.2

As far as statement eight (see appendix B and D) is concerned it is clear that 52.38% of respondents strongly agree, which indicates that cultural diversity has a real impact on women's role in industries especially in respect of stereotyped people who tend to resist change or transformation that takes place in industries. Thirty three point eighty six (33.86) agree, ten point five (10.05) were neutral, one point six (1.06) disagree) and two point sixty five (2.65) strongly disagree. The low response rate of the other responded showed that they either are not sure of whether cultural diversity has any impact in women role from industries.

7.3.1.3 Diverse workforce

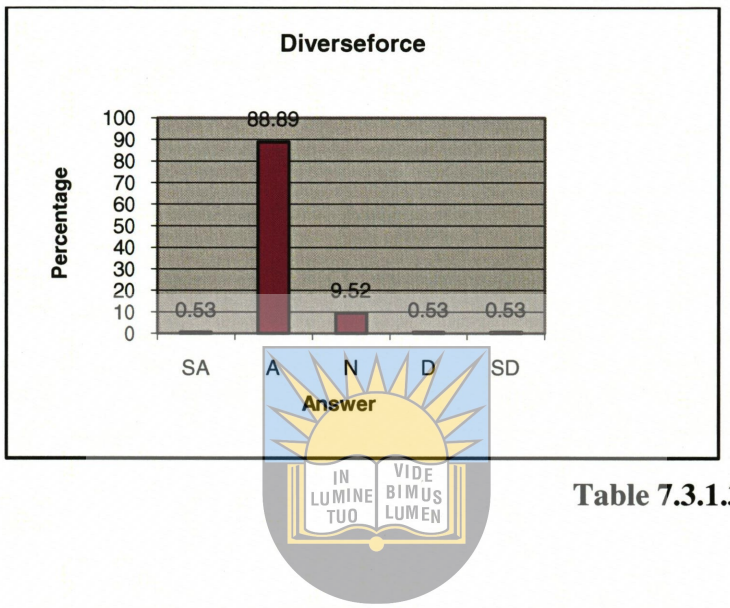


Table 7.3.1.3

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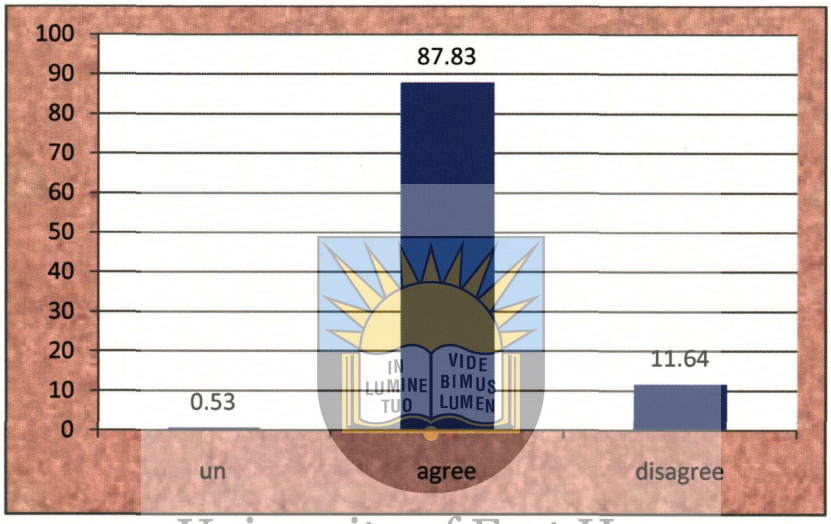
As far as statement statement nine is concerned, with a question:" Our organisation is a diverse workforce", see appendix B and D. The highest percentage (88.89%) agreed followed by neutral (9.52%), and the remaining (0.5%) disagreeing and strongly disagreeing. The other response of neutral had no response rate, meaning its either people they know or they don't know whether their company or industry is a diverse workforce, meaning having to know firstly what diverse workforce is.

7. 3. 2 Section three data analysis: Gender /Race Discrimination

From this section there were five statement questionnaires presented with a two point scale, ranging from agreed to disagree. These statements have been decoded into a spreadsheet in such a way that (agree) as the answer to be chosen be represented with one and disagree with two, in order for these statements to be analysed, since this is a quantitative study. In analyzing this study the researcher had used a frequency distribution presented in percentage (see Appendix B and E).

7.3.2.1 Gender discrimination

7.3.2.1 Gender discrimination

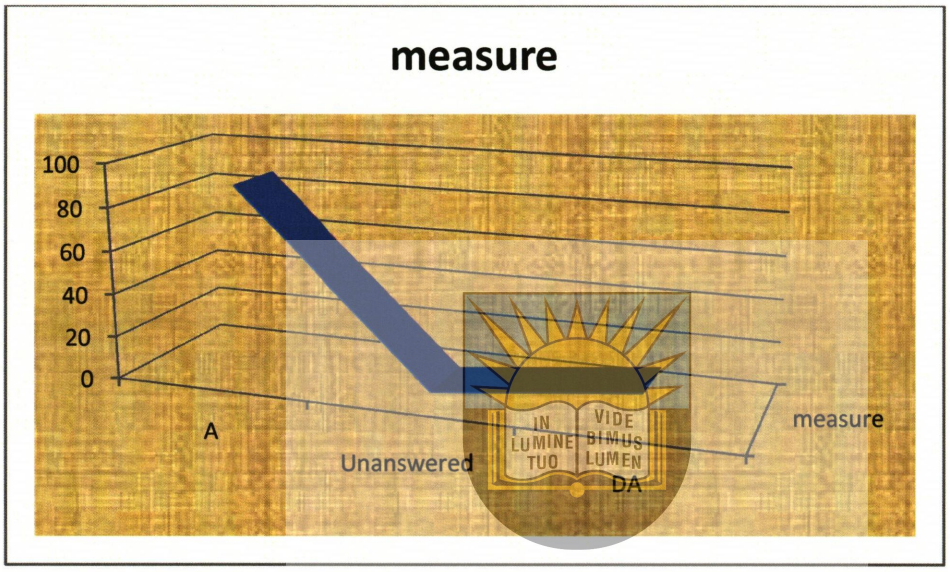


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Table 7.3.2.1.1

In statement ten (10) from Appendix B, variable coded was gender discrimination as identifiable or key variable, with the following response rate as per frequency number. Two people did not answer, fourty eight strongly agreed, fifty eight agreed, sixty four were neutral, two disagreed and fifteen strongly agreed with the statement, see appendix B and E. The figures and percentages from Appendix E, shows that almost all organizations are not tolerating gender discrimination in their industries. The policies in place to address this issue are working, through zero tolerance for this problem has not been achieved industries but at least industries are making progressing addressing it.

7.3.2.1.2 Measures



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Table 7.3.2.1.2

As far as statement eleven is concerned with a question; "There are measures put in place with regard to gender discrimination" (see appendix B and E). Eighty eight point six (88.36%) people responded agreed, eleven point eleven (11.11%) disagreed and zero point five three (0.53%) unanswered the statement. This shows that definitely industries are doing their best in coming up with programs in trying to combat race discrimination, which has developed as a result of apartheid regime. This analysis also shows that the programs that are in place within organization are playing their role and are effective and efficient since this gender discrimination ahs been problematic for a long time approximately ever since the arrest of our cheerful leader Nelson Mandela, up until his release.

7.3.2.1.3 Report

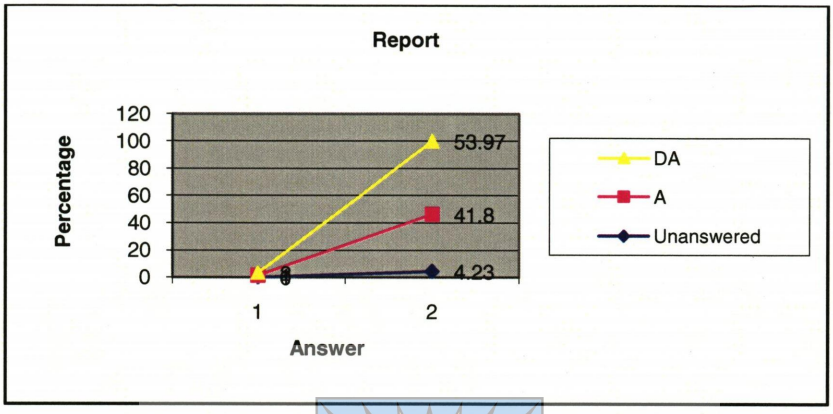


Table 7.3.2.1.3

As far as statement twelve is concerned, with the question: "Both male and female are free to report any form of discrimination". The response rate was 41.80% agreed in reporting any form of discrimination, and 53.97% disagreeing with reporting discrimination of any nature, see appendix E. The difference with this percentage may be that other people may feel there is no need to report it since it wont make any difference to them, or since they may think that they may jeorpardise their career within the working environment. Another factor may be fear of the unknown of what will happen to them after reporting it, and in that case organizations should take initiatives to try to break the silence and encourage people to report any act of such unlawful act so that industries will be a place of none discriminate, with zero tolerance.

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7.3.2.1.4 Existence

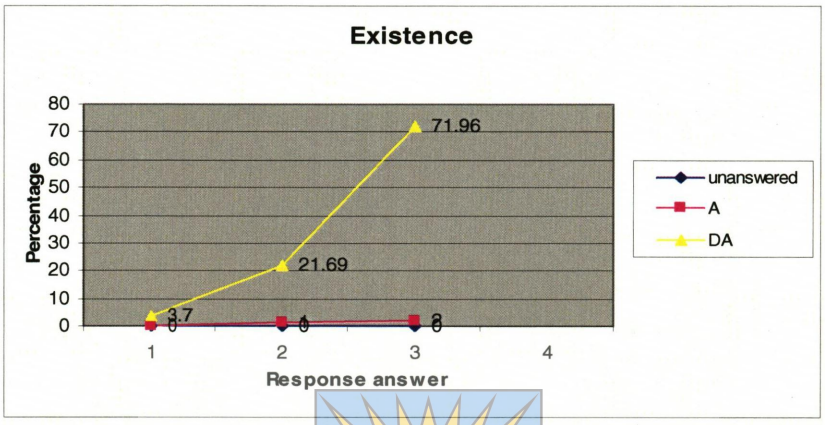


Table 7.3.2.1.4

Statement thirteen, with the question: "Gender discrimination does exist in my industry", this deals with whether people have knowledge of whether discrimination does exist in their industries. The response was, 21.69% agreed, and 71.96% disagreed with the statement, 3.70% did not answer. As concluded from the Appendix E, the highest percentage rate are those who disagree with the statement, and this may be as a result of not knowing what discrimination is all about, hence they don't know when they are being discriminated against.

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7.3.2.1.5 Discrimination

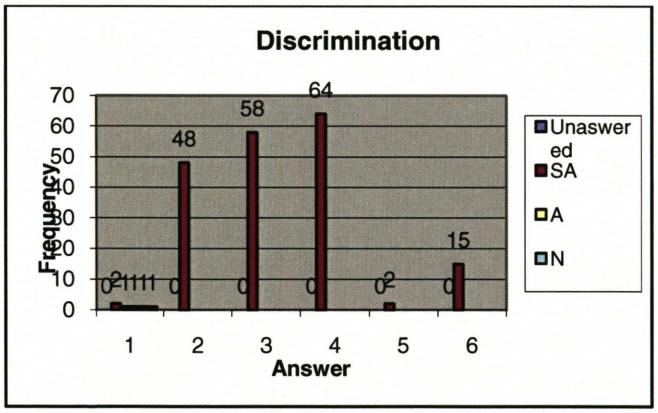


Table 7.3.2.1.5

With statement fourteen, with the question: "Women/Female managers discriminate against males, or vice versa", the highest number was that of people choosing neutral (64), followed by the one choosing agree (58), then strongly agree with 48, disagree with 15 people and strongly disagree with 2, see appendix E.

7.3.3 Section four analysis: Culture

This section was specifically asking questions based on culture and its understanding, with statements made in a five point scale response (see Appendix B and F). The researcher had analysed this section by using the numbers from the Appendix F which are under the frequency table. There were nine statements with coded variables. In this section the researcher had analysed the data by looking at the frequency in which the responded had answered the question statement. In a nutshell in this section the researcher had basically looked at the frequency not percentage from Appendix F.

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7.3.3.1 Programms

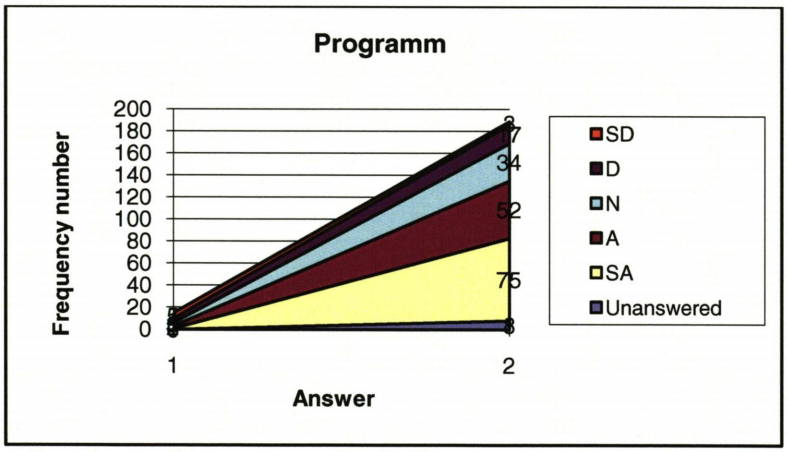
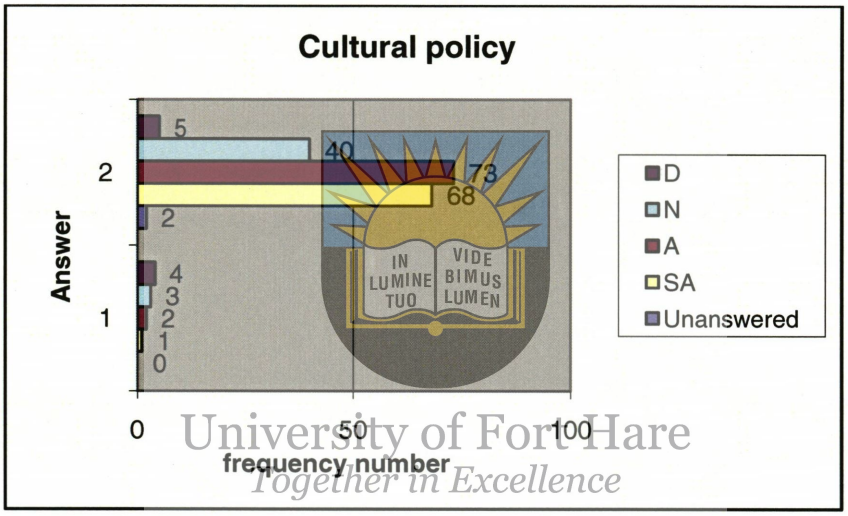


Table 7.3.3.1

In statement fifteen, with a question: "In my organisation there are programs designed to address cultural diversity" see Appendix F. The response was as follows 75 people strongly agreed with the statement, followed by 52 people who agreed, then 34 people

who were neutral, 17 who disagree with the statement and 3 who strongly disagree with the statement. Looking at the figures the researcher had reached a conclusion that since the highest numbers were of the strongly agreed and agreed, this shows availability of programs within industries to address cultural diversity.

7.3.3.2 Cultural policy



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Table 7.3.3.2

With statement sixteen with the question: "In my organisation cultural policy does exist", there the following figures (frequency) 68 people (strongly agreed), 73 people (agreed), 40 people (neutral), 5 people disagreed, 1 person disagreed and 2 people did not answer left the space blank. Still again the highest frequency were those of the first two column which are strongly agree and agree, which that reveals existence of cultural policy within industries.

7.3.3.3 Cultural Difference

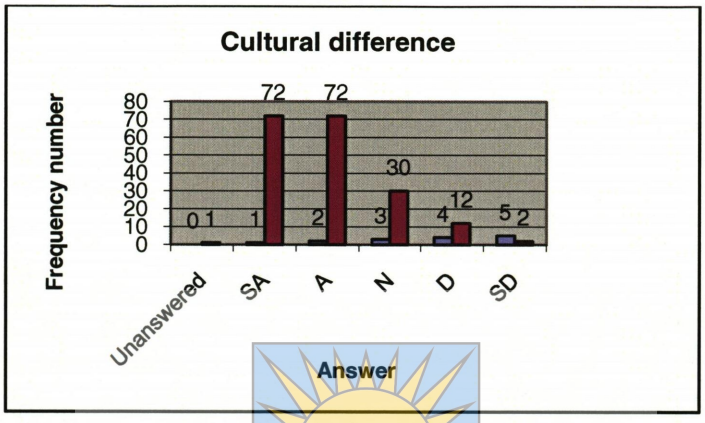


Table 7.3.3.3

In statement seventeen with the question: "In my organisation both men and women are treated the same irrespective of cultural differences", the researcher used five point scale and coded variables in analyzing. The response to the questionnaire was as follows, for the first two columns of the answer the frequency of people in answering the question was 72 people strongly agreed and agreed. The other response was, 30 people for neutral, 12 people disagreed and 2 people strongly disagreed, and that had left out one person not providing or choosing any answer. The highest frequency in the first two columns from this statement confirms the fairness treatment of both male and female equally, without having looked at gender issues that is feminine and masculine and also of cultural differences.

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7.3.3.4 Cultural

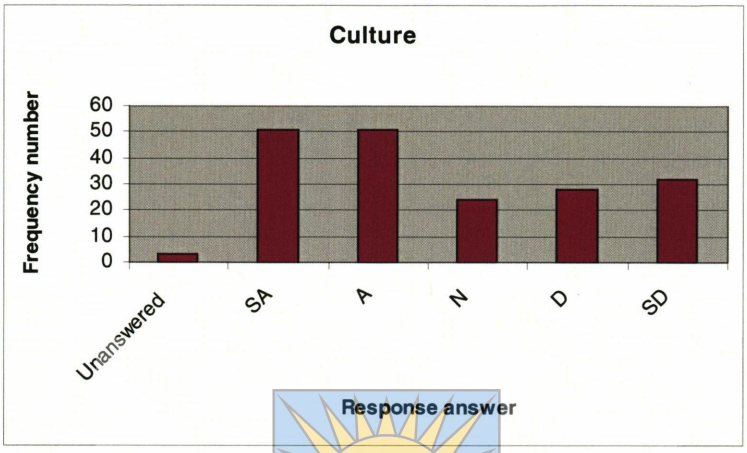


Table 7.3.3.4

In statement eighteen with the question: "In my culture women have a free will to work in industries", see appendix F. Using the same five point scale with coded variables, 51 people strongly agreed and agreed response. The rest of the people responded as follows, 24 people for neutral, in other words they are not sure whether to agree or to disagree with the statement, while 28 people disagreed and 32 strongly disagreed with the statement.

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Looking at the above figures, the highest figures for both of the first two columns (see Appendix F) confirms the transformation of people to the new country, and also the adaptation and willingness of the various cultures to transform within this country, hence the highest response figures of strongly agree and agree. Another factor is the reflection of willingness to learn other people's culture. This has also been revealed from the literature as it has been highlighted that, in almost all organisation in trying to accommodate other people culture the organization has come up with the development of organizational culture that will try to accommodate everyone's culture.

7.3.3.5 Equally

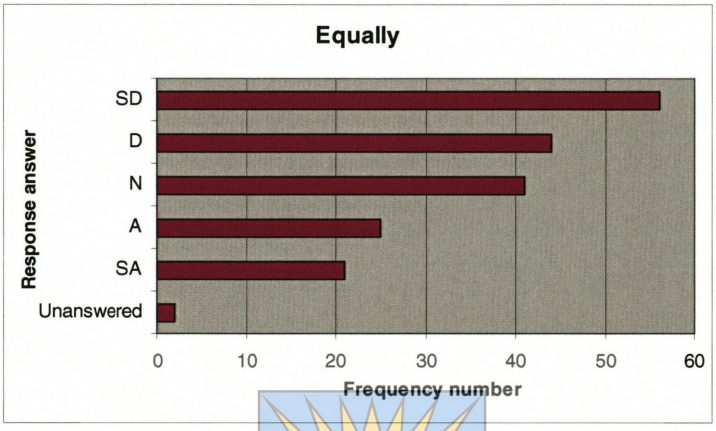


Table 7.3.3.5

With statement nineteen and with the question: "In my culture men and women are treated equally", 21 people strongly agreed, 25 people agreed, 41 people for neutral, 44 people disagreed, 56 strongly disagreed with the statement and 2 did not answer. As shown for the Appendix F, the highest figures were those of disagree and strongly disagree with the statement, meaning these people regard their culture as very important so that women should know their place in such cultures, forgetting that in the working environment, everyone should be treated equally as the law support this.

But in culture generally, some cultures really do not regard this equality and each gender should know their place and role in such cultures. Problem with such cultures is the stereotype that still exists in such cultures, and the resistance towards change, in respect of changing roles each gender plays in the family and in the community at large. These cultures have to try to change, not saying that they should do away with their cultural norms and values, by also try to give lieu with the changes that happen as we can not ignore that times have change.

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7.3.3.6 Levels

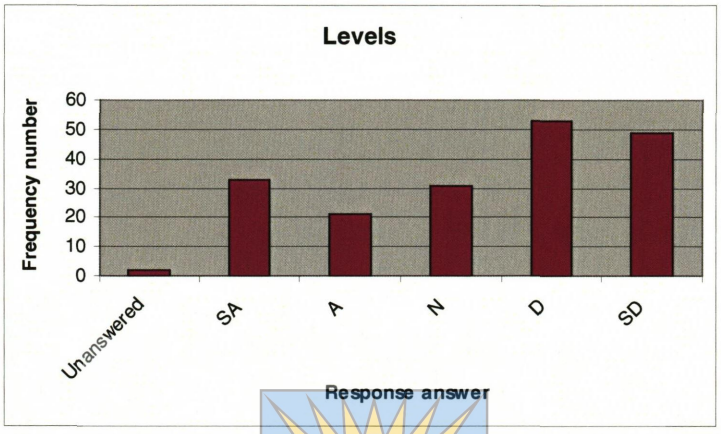


Table 7.3.3.6

With statement twenty which refers to the question: "According to my culture women are not allowed to work on the same level as males", the following response will be presented. Two (2) did not answer, thirty three (33) strongly agreed , twenty one (21) agreed, thirty one (31) disagreed and fourty nine (49) strongly disagreed with the statement. This shows allowance of women and men to work on the same level, see appendix B and F. The highest figures depicted in this statement was that of strongly disagree which still this shows the resistance towards change from within cultures, as mentioned and explained above.

Again, industries should take initiatives in showing their staff that, by adapting to change it is not to try and jeopardise their cultural norms, but to reveal the richness that the industries of South Africa are in based on the different culture in this country. This can also be shown by may be assigning a certain day like heritage day for everyone in the organisation to dress up with their cultural clothes in every organization on that day, so the day should be declared publicly, though it is a normal working day for all organisations in South Africa. Some people who don't adhere with this then can be fine certain money that can be used to charity organization.

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7.3.3.7 Manual work

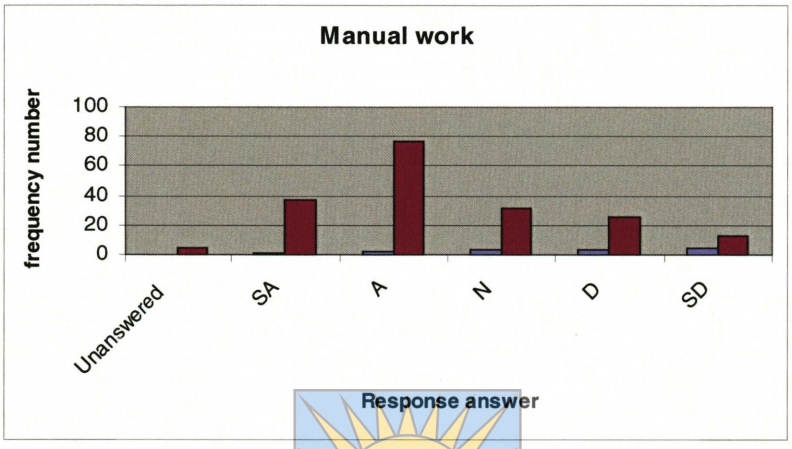


Table 7.3.3.7

With statement twenty one with the question: "According to my culture women are not allowed to perform manual labour" is concerned, the response was as follows, five people did not answer, 37 strongly agreed, 77 agreed, 31 neutral, 26 disagreed and 13 strongly disagreed with the statement (see appendix B and F). With the highest figure who agreed with the statement, that shows development and change and adaptation to new technology, as most things are being relied in technology.

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Just think of the many things that used to be done manually, like washing your clothes, writing letters with a pen, telegram, etc and compare those with what actually had been replace with nowadays, like washing machine, computers, e-mails, etc., even machine that are being used in industry are automatic not manual, thanks to change of technology in this world.

7.3.3.8 Accomodated

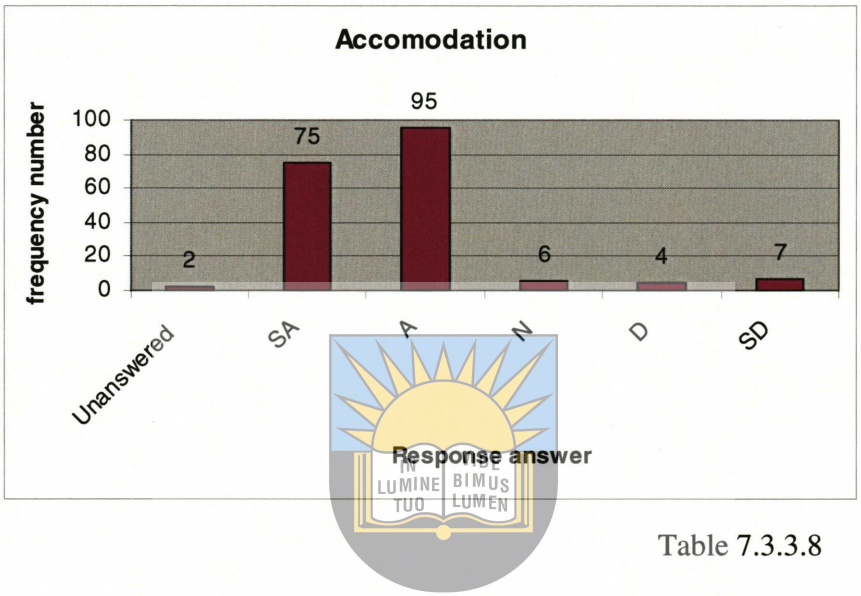


Table 7.3.3.8

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With statement twenty two with the question: "Everyone are being accommodated in the organisational culture ". This deals with accommodating everyone in the organisational culture, two people did not respond to the question, while 75 people strongly agreed, 95 agreed, 6 neutral, 4 disagreed and 7 strongly disagreed, see appendix F. Looking at the figures, the researcher had concluded the effectiveness and efficiency of the development of organizational culture in trying to accommodate everyone in the organization, hence the importance of organizational culture in industries.

7.3.3.9 Cultural policy

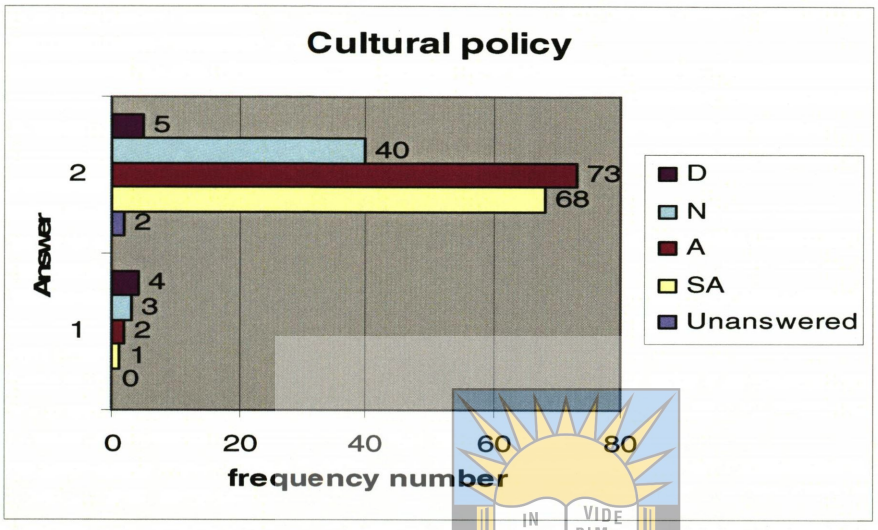


Table 7.3.3.9

With statement twenty three with the question: "Both the employer and employee should be engaged in the development of cultural policy" the response was as follows: 9 did not respond to the questionnaire. The other response was as follows: , 25 strongly agreed, 152 agreed, 1 neutral and 2 strongly disagreed. Since the highest figure is the agreed succeeded by the strongly agreed, that shows importance of the participation of both parties that is the employer and the employee in the development of organizational culture, that involving input fro both parties in developing organizational culture.

This also reveals the mutual understanding for the development of the transitional, organisational culture and its importance to the different cultures of this country, to accommodate everyone, and also its importance to the organizations of this country. Discrimination on the basis of race and gender is institutionalized in South African organizations, because of its history. Munetsi (1999) argues that apart from racial discrimination, due to discriminatory legislation off the apartheid era, which resulted in preferential treatment and job reservation, it was permissible to discriminate on the basis of gender as well.

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Thus, it is very important to get commitment to affirmative action from top management. Top management positions in South Africa where major decisions are made are still held mostly by males, as they as an elite group will, if thee s no commitment, continue to maintain their privileged position by closing off opportunities to women (Tsukudu, 1996). Thus implementation of affirmative action, which is still subject to the dominant, male value system (Jacobson, 1999; Fischer, 1995), not only resists changing the racial traditions but also create obstructions for women's employment and advancement.

7.3.4 Analysis of section five: Women and Perceptions

This section deals with the analysis of the data pertaining the women and perceptions. The data on Appendix B statement (24 to 32) had been coded with identifiable variables from these statements and also Appendix G. The data in these Appendixes had been compiled in such a way that the responded had to choose from the two point scale response which are true and false options.

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7.3.4.1 Incompetent

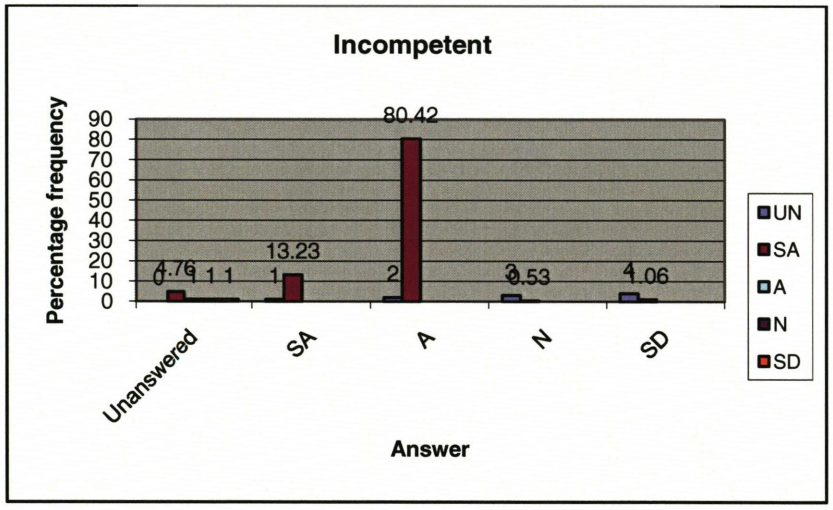


Table 7.3.4.1

From statement twenty four with the question: "Women are incompetent and not suppose to be appointed in managerial positions" the response was, 9 people did not answer the

question (4.76%), 25 people strongly agreed with the statement (13.23%), 152 people agreed (80%), 3 people strongly disagreed (0.53%), and 2 people disagreed with the statement (1.06%).

Looking at figures and percentages, the agree choice is the highest which that means or confirms with the view that most people do not consider women as incompetent, but since people are not used to the thought of women being able and capable to do the work that they have been deprive to from the olden days of apartheid. This also shows warm welcoming of women to industries by their counter parts, and also shows the tremendous role they play in this country industry, not underutilizing the skills women have.

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7.3.4.2 Approachable



Table 7.3.4.2

With statement twenty five with the question: "Women should be approached differently in entering labour market", there were 7 people (3.70%) who did not answer the question relating to the approach of women to industry. This is being followed by 133 people (70.37%) who agreed that women should be approached different in industries. There were 19 people response (10.05%) agreeing with the statement. Looking at the figures the highest is the agreeing response, of which the researcher concurs with this one, since the possible reason for this high difference is may be the transition period of the women they need, to adapt and adjust to the new working environment.

Remember women used to be told of what to do, not require making decisions, as these decisions were only made by men who were seen as the bread winner and head of the house. Since times have change, and now women are empowered to make decisions not only decision even strategically ones, they need to be helped in this transitional phase. They need to be welcomed with open arms, support and even with someone who will mentor them during this time. Though the researcher believe that the other counterparts should have faith in women in doing or conducting business worldwide and give them supporting programs that will enhance chances of women in excelling in what they are doing in industries. In doing so this country could develop tremendously since all the human capital will be fully utilized in this country.

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7.3.4.3 Working

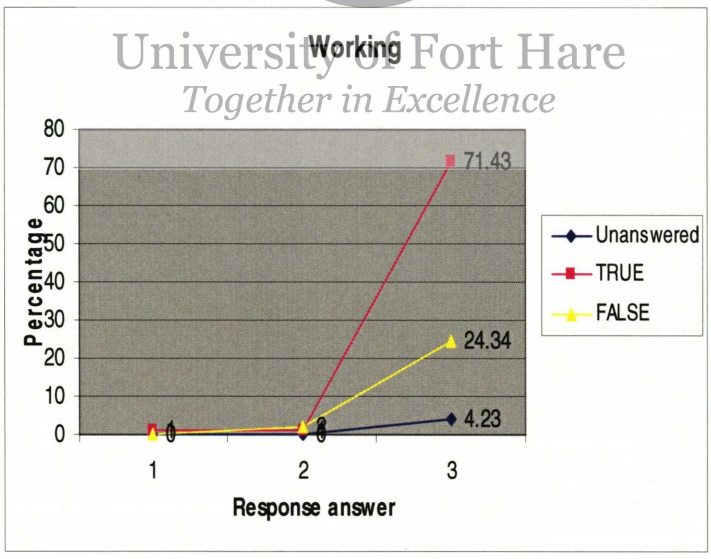
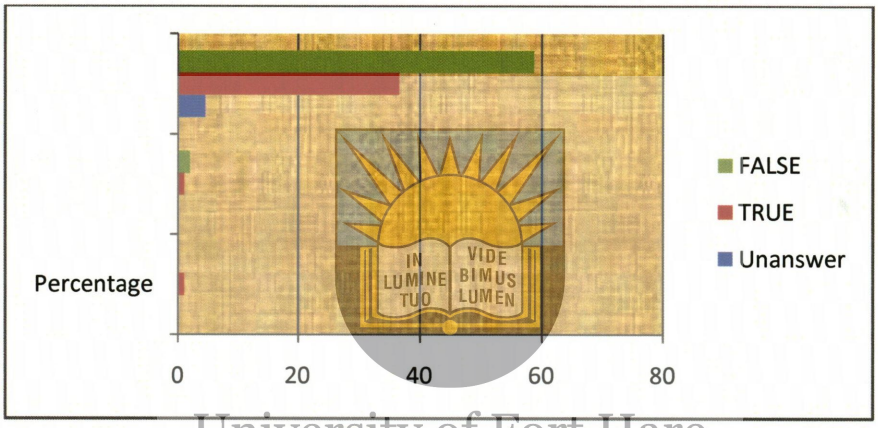


Table 7.3.4.3

Statement twenty six with the question: "I don't mind working for a female manager/supervisor ", shows the following response from analysed data. Eight (8) people (4.23%) with no response, 135 people (71.43%) with true response and 46 people (24.34%) with false response. Looking at the figures this shows a higher figure with a

response of true, which that means, people do not mind working under any gender as long as they respect each other 's work, and also as long as they are committed to their work. This shows that working is not all about working and reporting to a certain gender or person, is about committed, dedication and perseverance to the work.

7.3.4.4 Legislation empowerment



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Table 7.3.4.4

With statement twenty seven with the question: "New legislations are in support of empowering women" see appendix B and G. Thirteen people (6.88%) did not answer the question, while 157 people (83.07%) chose true and 19 (10.05%) people chose false. Having looked at the figures the highest is the true response rate, which that shows the tremendous role the new legislations played in supporting women in enhancing them, with its structures and framework. These legislations provide guidance to women to see the light that every one is capable and able to contribute to the human capital and to this country economically and to boost this country economy.

7.3.4.5 Gender discrimination

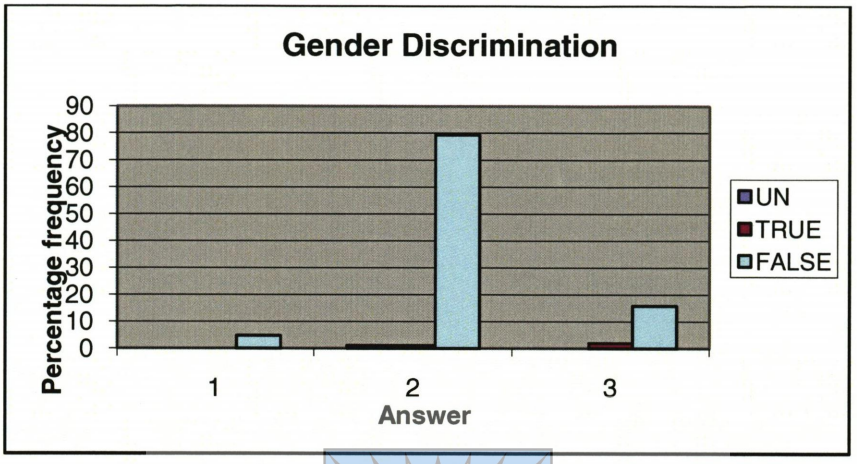


Table 7.3.4.5

Under statement twenty eight with the question: "In my organisation both men and women are treated the same irrespective of gender differences", there were nine (4.76 %) people who did not answer with one shown in the above chart, 150 (79.37%) who chose true with two shown in the chart and 30 (15.87%) who chose false with three shown in the chart, see appendix G. Looking at the figures, the highest response was that of two (true), which the researcher conclude of equal treatment of both men and female in organization and of compliance with new legislations.

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7.3.4.6 Training programmes

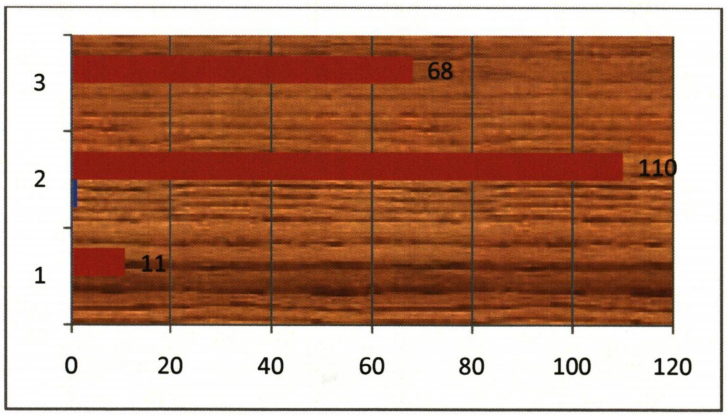
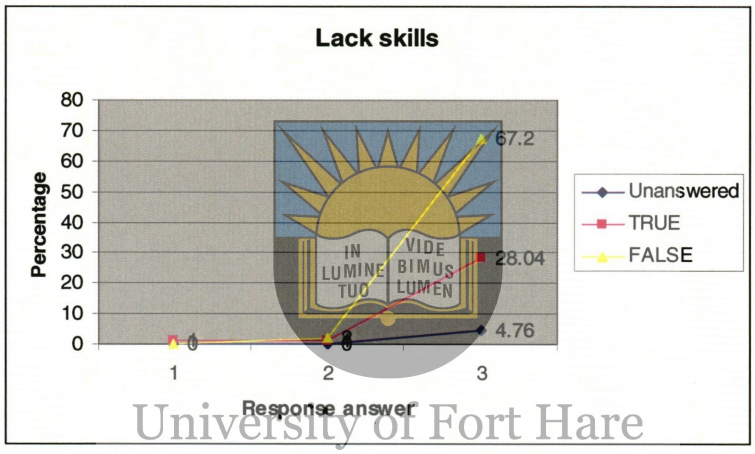


Table 7.3.4.6

With regard to statement twenty nine with the question; "There are training programs designed to help women to enhance their competencies and skills in my industry" the

response was as follows: 11 people(with 5.82%) did not answer the question, 110 people (with 58.20%) chose true and 68(with 35.98%) people chose false, see appendix G. The highest shows that industries are really supporting women with the training programs to enhance their skills and competencies which that is a positive attitude towards the employment of women in industry.

7.3.4.7 Lackskills



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Table 7.3.4.7

Statement thirty addresses the issue of lack of skills, and the response to this was as follows, nine people 9 with a 4.76% did not answer the question while 53 people response chose true with a 58.20 %, and the rest 127 chose false with a 35.98%, see appendix G. As it can be seen the highest percentage is for those people who had chosen false, which that means women do not lack any skills and should not be left doing manual work, as these women had proven that they are fast learner, adaptive, and flexible, just look at the deputy vice president of this country who had just adapted and adjusted well when she was appointed.

7.3.4.8 Reversal Gender discrimination

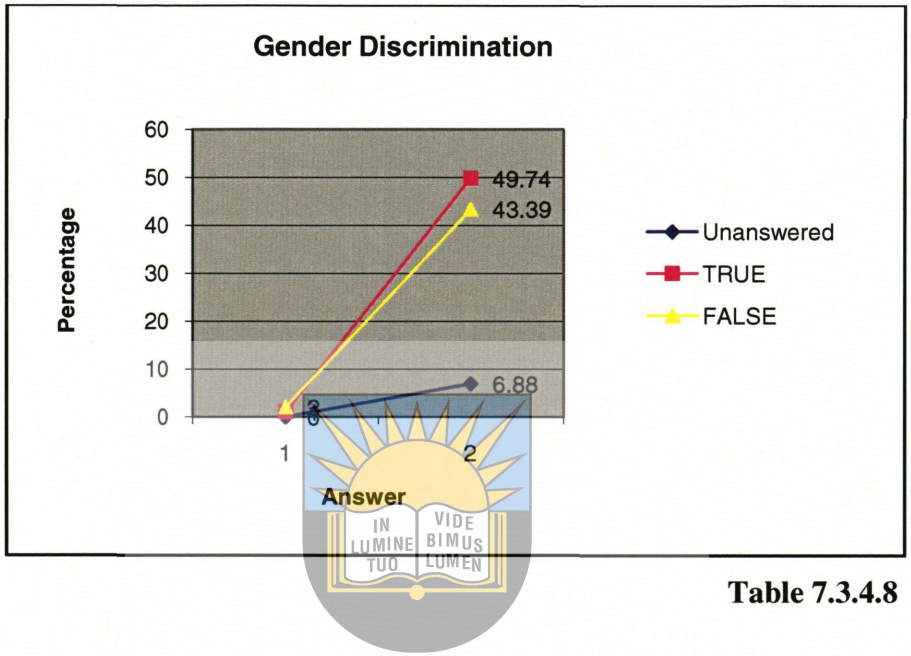


Table 7.3.4.8

With statement thirty one: "The new legislations are reversing gender discrimination", that explains gender discrimination in South African industries, the response for the question was as follows, there thirteen people without response that is 6.88%, nineteen four people said true that is 49.74% and eighty two people said false which makes 43.39%, see appendix G. The highest figure is that that sees new legislations as reversing discrimination, and that may be because they wanted to look at the legislations as something which can keep the balance between the previously disadvantage and the advantage one's. It may be as a result of may be not understanding of what actually the new legislations want to achieve, or may be because they were not part in the development of those legislations, hence they sees as reversing discrimination.

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7.3.4.9 Employment equity

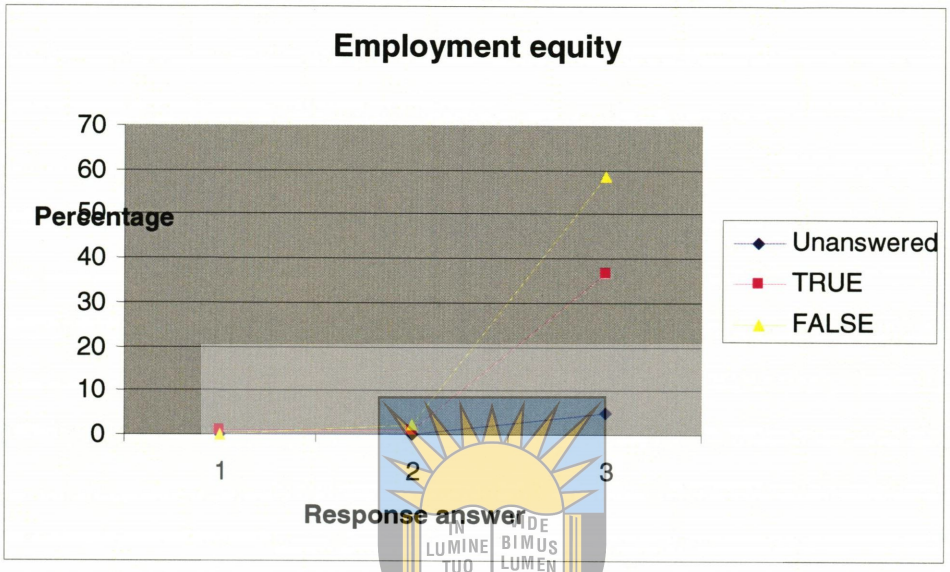


Table 7.3.4.9

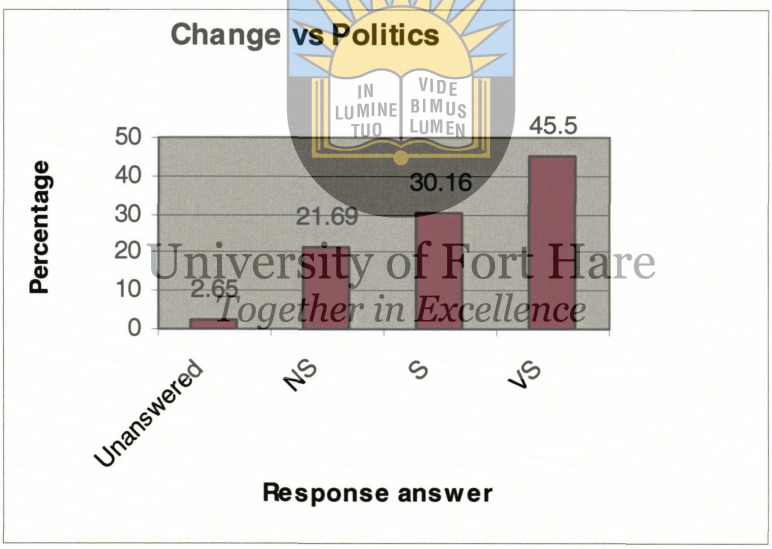
With statement thirty two with the statement question: "Women are employed in positions to justify employment equity", the response for the questionnaire with regard to employment equity was nine people with no response (4.76%), sixty nine people with true (36.51%) and hundred and one with false response (58.73%) see appendix G. Looking at the highest figure, the false response were the highest figures, which that justify that women are not only employed just to justify employment equity, but are employed to try redress the imbalance of the past, and also to give equal chance of employment to all South African citizen irrespective of their gender differences, culture differences. Having analysed this section the researcher had used both the numbers and percentages to analyse this data, which the researcher find it very simple and straight forward.

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7.3.5 Data analysis of section six: Change and transformation

Under this section, there were five statements, ranging from statement 33 to 37, trying to answer the significance of the identifiable different variables to change and transformation. The data was presented with a three point likert scale, ranging from not significant (1), significant (2) and very significant (3) see appendix B and H.

7.3.5.1 Change vs politics



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Table 7.3.5.1

With key identifiable variable "political versus change", statement thirty three with answers not significant, significant and very significant. The response with the question with regard to "Politicalfactors", was five people who did not answer, fourty one people chose not significant, fifty seven chose significant and eighty six chose very significant. Looking at the statement the highest was those of very significant, which that means, political factors are seen as playing a big and significant role in bring change in industries.

7.3.5.2 Change vs nationality

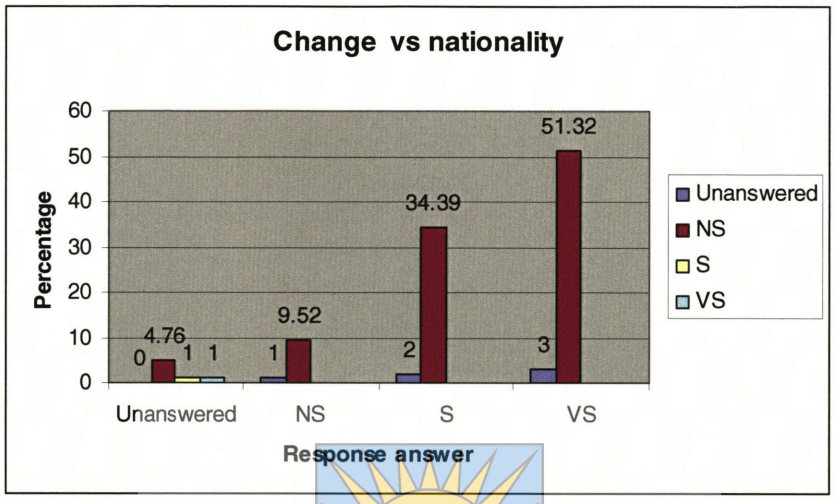


Table 7.3.5.2

Relating to statement thirty four, with the same above answers with key identifiable variable: "National identities", which try to find out if national identities have any significant role in bringing transformation in industries. The response was nine (9) people who did not answer, eighteen chose no significant, sixty five (65) chose significant and ninety seven (97) chose very significant role. Also, in this statement, the highest figure is for those who said it has a very significant role, which that shows that national identity, for any country plays a tremendous role in bringing change or transformation, especially if the identity of those people are the citizen of the country, who can make contributions in the development and amendment of existing policies, whether it is policies of the country or the industry per se.

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7.3.5.3 Change vs history

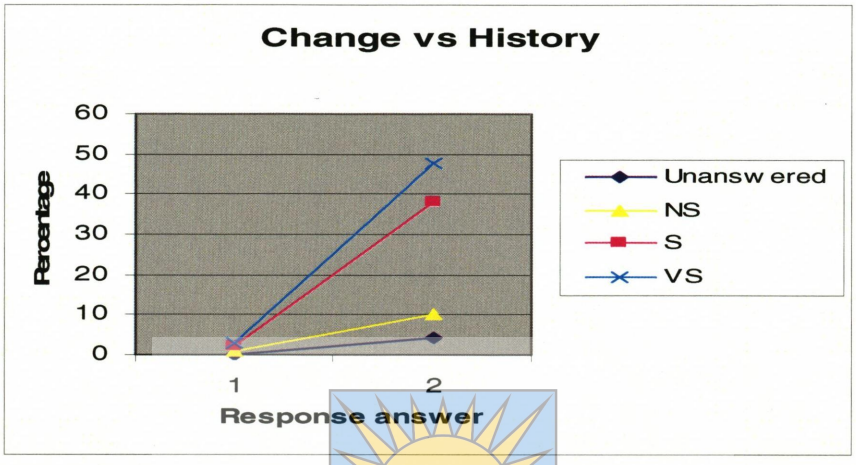


Table 7.3.5.3

In analysing statement thirty five with the above answers relating to this variable: "Past history", with an identifiable variable past history (see appendix B and H), the results were as follows: eight (8) people did not answer the question, nineteen people chose not significant, seventy two (72) chose significant and ninety (90) chose very significant.

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Again the researcher has notice that the highest figure is for the very significant, which that shows that past history is plying a very significant role in bringing change in industries. This is so due to the fact that, if anyone wants to bring any change whether himself, or a country, or even industry, firstly they need to look at the background which that include past history. By looking at it, one will be able detect what was being done, how were things being done, what went wrong that demanded change, and what can be done to correct it. In other words people should know where they are coming from, and where they are going to in order to bring change in industries.

7.3.5.4 Change vs religion

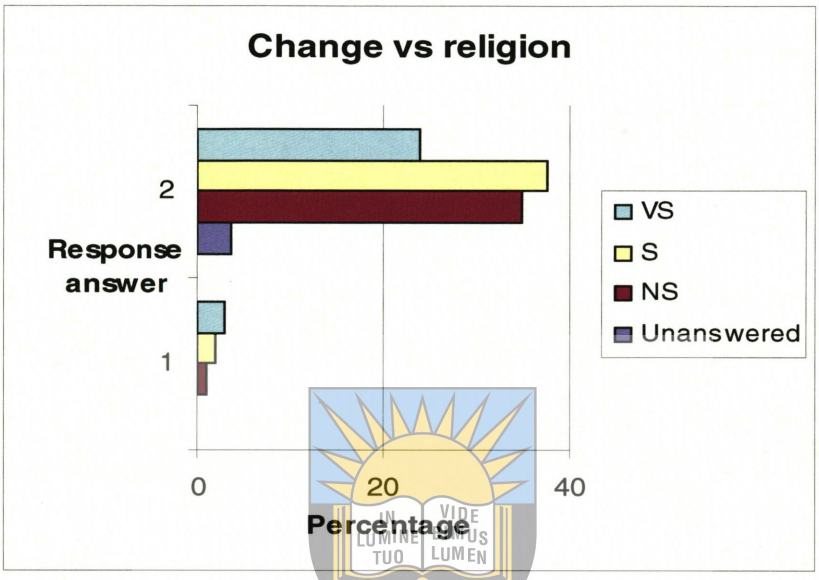


Table 7.3.5.4

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In this diagram the researcher analysed statement thirty six with the same and above answers: "Religious differences", with identifiable variable religion. To find out if this variable had any significance in bring change, the results were as follows, seven (7) people did not answer, sixty six (66) chose not significance, seventy one (71) chose significance, and ninety (90) chose very significance, see appendix H. Again here the highest figure is that of very significance, which that shows that in bringing change religion with its norms, values can not be excluded in bring change in industries. As every citizen in this country, rights of people are very much respected, so does the religious rights of other people whose belief rely on it. These should be taken in consideration when bring transformation in this country not try to invade other people's rights as the Bill of rights also stipulate that.

7.3.5.5 Change vs language

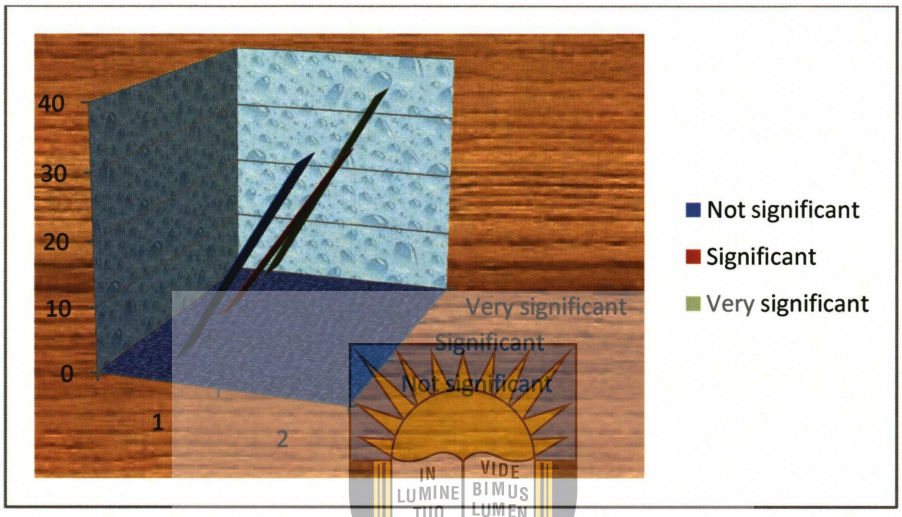


Table 7.3.5.5

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To analyse the last statement in the section which is number thirty seven, and taking into consideration the answers pertaining to these statements: ". Language barriers", with identifiable variable language, the results were as follows, six (6) people did not answer the question, with 3.17%, sixty one (61) chose not significance with 32.28%, fifty five (55) chose significance, with 29.10% and sixty seven (67) chose very significance with 35.45%, see appendix H.

In this statement, the highest figure was that of very significance, which that shows that, language really have a very significant role in bringing transformation in this country, especially in a country like South Africa having eleven languages. There should be languages that are determine as official one so that everyone know if he or she meet another people of different culture at least there is a language common to both of them, just like English, not saying that the other languages are less important than this one.

To conclude all of these identifiable variables in this section has a tremendous and very significance role in bringing change and transformation in industries. This also shows

that if any industry wants to bring any type of change, the industry should try to look at these identifiable variables to find out exactly how these variables correlate to the change the industry will want to bring.

7.3.6 Data analysis of section seven: Feelings about change /transformation in industry

In this section there are five asked statement questions, from number 38 to 42 with identifiable variables (see appendix B and I). These questions have been asked in such a way that they could bring or try to find out perceptions of people about change or transformation in industry. The questions have been asked in such a way that the individual will be in a position to choose either true or false to the statement, which means that it is a two point scale system.

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7.3.6.1 Change vs challenge

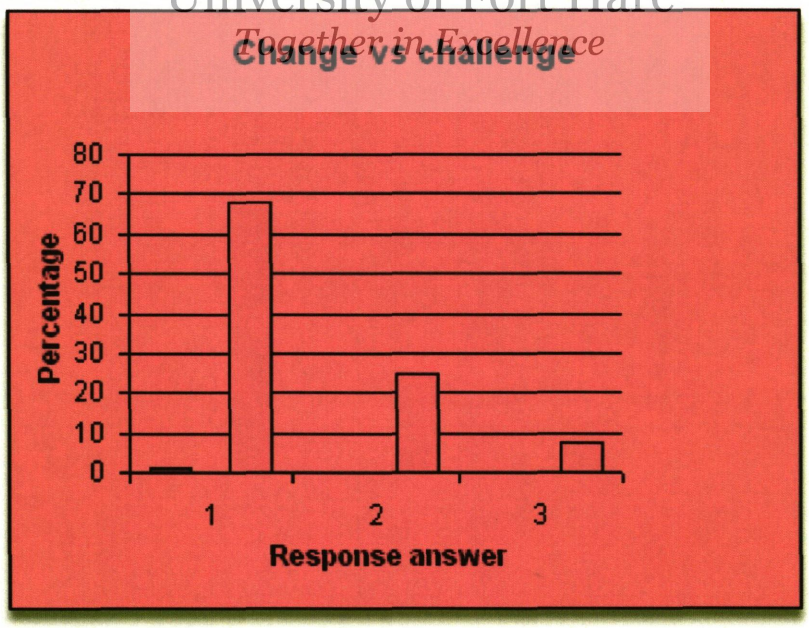


Table 7.3.6.1

With statement thirty eight with a question: "Change is regarded as a challenge that both the employer and employee need to face", the response was 128 people chose true, 47 chose false and 14 did not answer. Looking at this, the highest figure was that of true of which that confines that people sees change as a threat. This is so because people are fear of the unknown as moving from a status core to something new, that brings fear of how individuals will manage to cope with such change, and raises some questions as to whether was change a needed in this case.

Imagine people who have been for the industry for so many years and suddenly heard that there is a change that is going to take place due to the other highlighted factors mentioned above, that would see to people as a threat, as most people are used to the system that are in place, of which change will bring some other systems and processes, and still they still they have undergo all the various stages before change have to be implemented, which those are unfreezing, freesing and change implementation.

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7.3.6.2 Threat

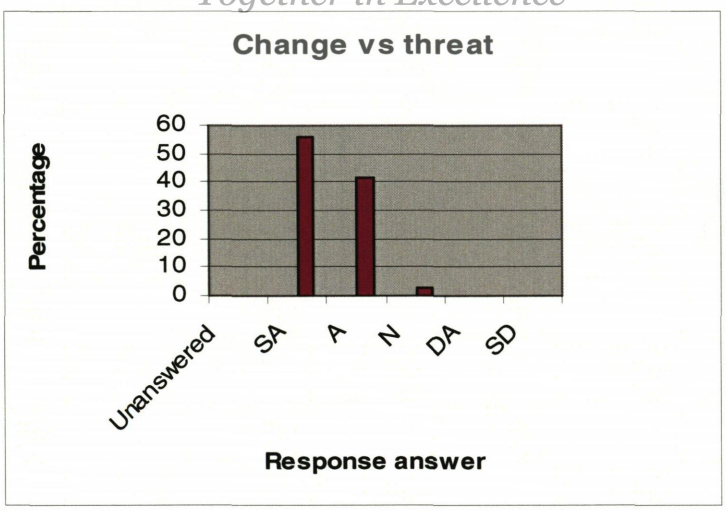


Table 7.3.6.2

In analyzing statement thirty nine with the question;" Change is likely to happen and is seen as a threat", with an identifiable variable change versus threat, there were five people who did not answer, which that make up 2.65%, most people have chosen true

(106) with 56.08%, and other have chosen false (78) with 41.27% see appendix I. Looking at the figures the highest is for those who had chosen true, meaning they agree in seeing change as a threat as change once implemented it will lead to a lot of things that will need to adapt to such change. Take for a example of the change for mergering of industries, that will lead to change in the appointment of new CEO for the newly merge company and then that will raise issues of what will happen to previous CEO who had merged with the new company. Another thing will be lines of reporting or accounting to the different levels of organizations, which that will end up of having a few and short organizational structure, not a tall one, since in most organizations they are likely to do away with middle management .

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7.3.6.3 Change vs safe

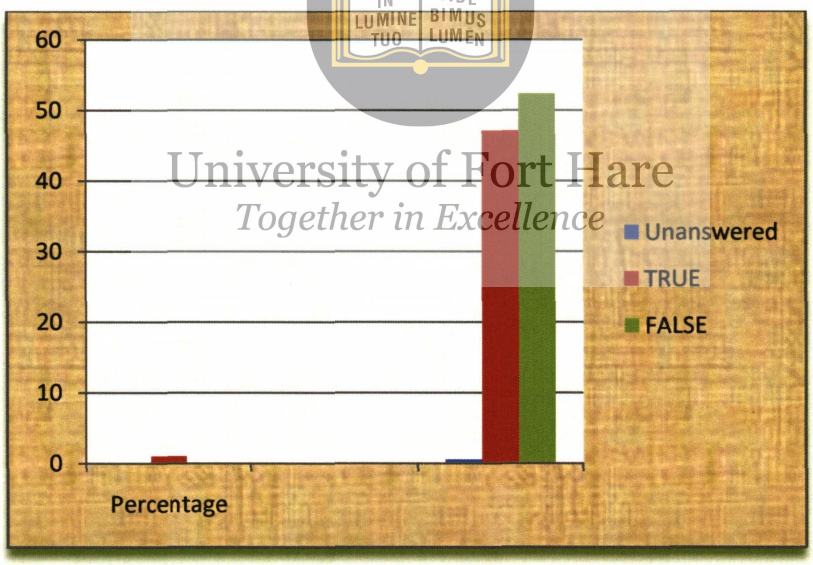


Table 7.3.6.3

In statement fourty with the question: " Change is safe to do in order for the industry to be competitive in the global village", which addresses the safeness of change, the response on this one was 1 person did not answer, 89 people chose true while 99 chose false. Having looked at this one will notice that the highest figure is for those people who chose false. This means that people do not consider change as a safe thing to do since there is no guarantee of what will happen to them in the future when the whole process is implemented. Also they fear of the unknown and the change the status core of their jobs,

as once change has been implemented there is no turning back but to abide to the changes that come with it and to adapt to such changes.

7.3.6.4 Change vs adaptation

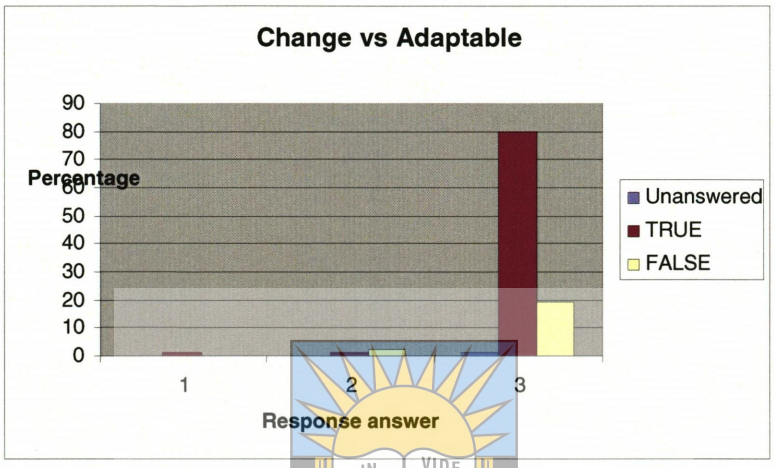


Table 7.3.6.4

In analysing statement fourty one with the question: "Change is important to adapt to it for the industry to survive from both local and international markets", with identifiable variable adaptable, there were two people who did not answer the question, 150 people had chosen true while 37 people chose false. As seen in this explanation, the highest figure is for those people who had chosen true, which that means it is important for people to adapt to change in order for them to not seeing it as a threat and to be able to overcome the fear of the unknown.

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7.3.6.5 Change vs implementation

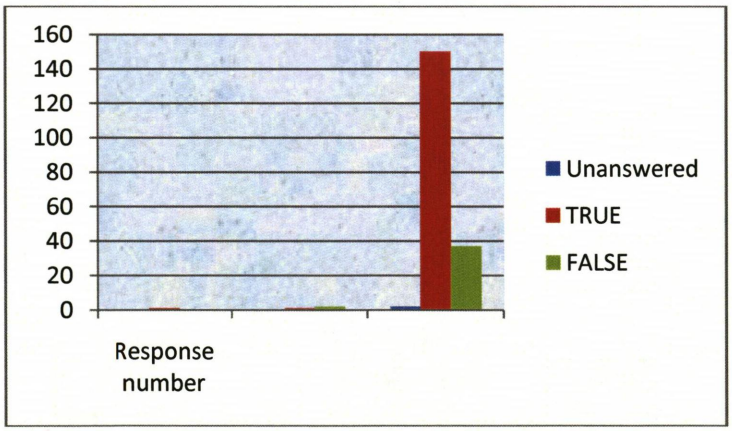


Table 7.3.6.5

In analysing statement fourty two with the question: " Change is easy to implement and evaluate to ensure its efficiency and effectiveness", with identifiable variable implementation of change, the response rate was as follows, there were two (2) people who did not answer the question, and 150 people answered true, while 37 people answered false. Having looked at the figures, the highest number is for those who chose true, seeing change as easy to implement.

This is so since people in the industry have to be included while planning change, it is easier in that way, since they will feel like part of change process, and also they will see that they have been taking part, or participating in the whole change process. It is very important to involve people and make them part of every thing that is happening in the industry, so that they feel like they are not left out, and they feel like their efforts and contribution to the company is valued most, since anything that will affect them have to be made aware to them, not them hearing from outside people, yet the employee do not have any clue of what is the future plans of the company with regard to change.

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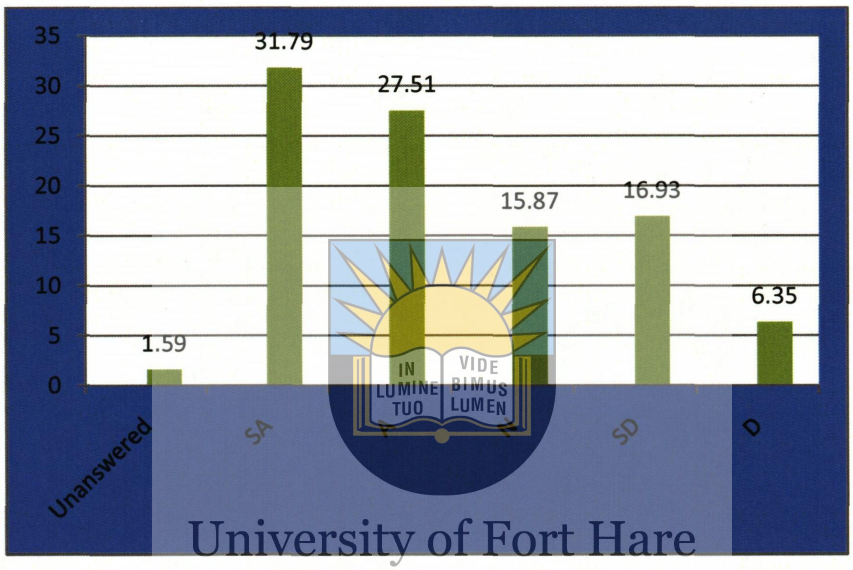
In conclusion in this section having looked at identifiable variables and with the statement (see appendix B and I), it can be concluded that as much as change is seen as threat, as a challenge, not safe to do, as its importance to adaptability to it, as easier to implement. The involvement of the people to whom the whole change process is going to be implemented to can not be taken for granted, hence the importance of the workshops to address staff of the strategic position of the future plans of the company for the efficient and effective implementation of change.

7.3.7 Data analysis of section eight: Change and government legislations

This section tries to addresses the issue of change in relation to the government legislations which are in support of change in industries. The questions have been presented in a statement form questions with a five point scale response of which people have been asked to choose from. The statement ranges from statement 43 to statement 47, see Appendix B and J, with five key identifiable variables. The questions try to highlight

whether people strongly agrees, agree, neutral, disagree or strongly disagree with the statements written about change and legislations.

7.3.7.1 Change vs threat



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Table 7.3.7.1

In statement fourty three with the question: "Change is a threat to some people and organizations", with the key identifiable variable of threat, the response rate was as follows: three people who did not answer the question, 60 people strongly agreeded with the statement, 52 agreed, 30 neutral, 32 strongly disagreed, and 12 strongly disagreed. Looking at the figures the highest is for those who had chosen strongly agree, meaning they show support in seeing change as a threat as change once implemented it will lead to a lot of things that will need to be change, like new legislations that need to be amended to be inline with change, government policies, labour policies.

For example past policies and laws deliberately favoured men, particularly white men. The socio –cultural stipulates of all groups' defined women to be inferior to men and as such assigned to them the position of minors in both the public and private spheres of life (national Gender Policy Framework, 2003). Present- day South Africa is trying hard to meet global needs by transforming rapidly to gain respect and disability (Constitution of

the republic of South Africa, 1996). Its new policies and strategies are aimed at implementing equal and unalienable rights of all women and men and at improving the status of women in the workplace.

7.3.7.2 Government

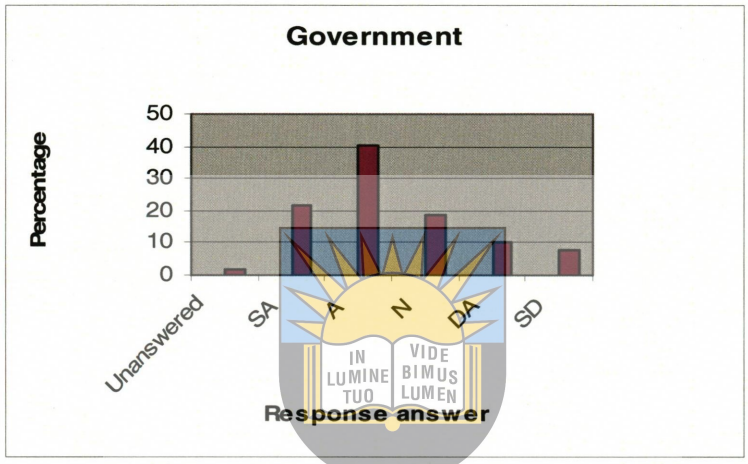


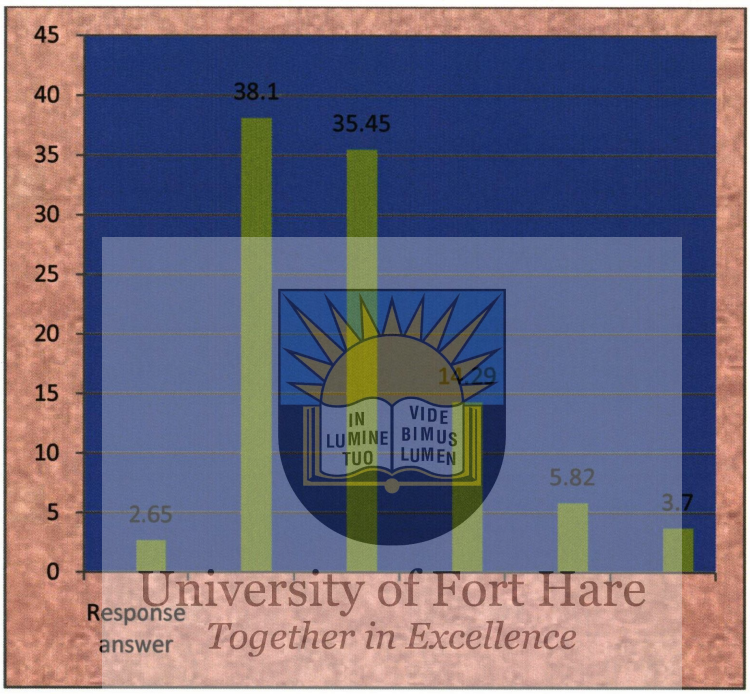
Table 7.3.7.2

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In statement fourty four with the question: "Government has done enough to assist industries in their transformation process", with an identifiable variable government, the response was as follows: three people did not answer the question, 41 strongly agreed, 76 agreed, 35 were neutral, 19 disagreed with the statement, and 15 strongly disagreed with the statement.

The statement was trying to find out whether government has done enough to assist industries in their transformation process. Having looked from the results, the highest was that of agreeing with the statement meaning that the legislations that government had come up, does play a tremendous role in assisting industries in transforming. The implementation of equal opportunity and affirmative action legislation with the demise of apartheid definitely brought in formal equality. Yet there are major barriers to the Government employment Equity Act. Apparently the environment of South African organisations is not women friendly.

7.3.7.3 New legislations



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Table 7.3.7.3

In analysing statement fourty five with the question: "New legislations are in favour of women", with identifiable variable new legislations, the results were as follows, 5 people did not answer (2.65%), 72 strongly agreed (38.10%), 67 agreed (35.45%), 27 neutral (14.29%), 11 disagreed (5.82%) and 7 strongly disagreed (3.70%). The question was trying to find out whether the new legislations are favouring women (see Appendix B and J). Having looked at the outcome of the results, the highest response rate was that of people having the opinion of strongly agreeing with the statement.

In 1999, when the employment Equity Act, 55 'of 1998 was implemented with the intention to encourage more women in employment (Mathur – Helm, 2004), due to greater equity in the workplace its outcome was successful, yet women still hold fewer jobs and hardly any leadership positions in the corporate world and very few women are

in top management and chief executive positions and three in four of all senior management positions being filled by men (Catalyst, 2004), leaving women with only 37 percent of all management at all levels) and professional jobs combined, including the teaching and nursing professions (Employment Equity Commission, 2001) with only 14. 7 percent of women occupying executive management positions. The parliamentary Joint Committee on the Quality of life and status of Women has seen through several important pieces of legislation on customary law, domestic violence and child maintenance, all of which have a direct bearing on the quality of women's lives (employment Equity Commission, 2001). Yet there are indications of violence, teenage parenthood, lack of education opportunities, unemployment and sexual harassment, and they continuously influence the work lives of South African women. Thus, while it is inspiring that at one level the political battle for gender equity has been partly won , the social and economic battles are far from over.

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7.3.7.4 Redressing Imbalance of Past

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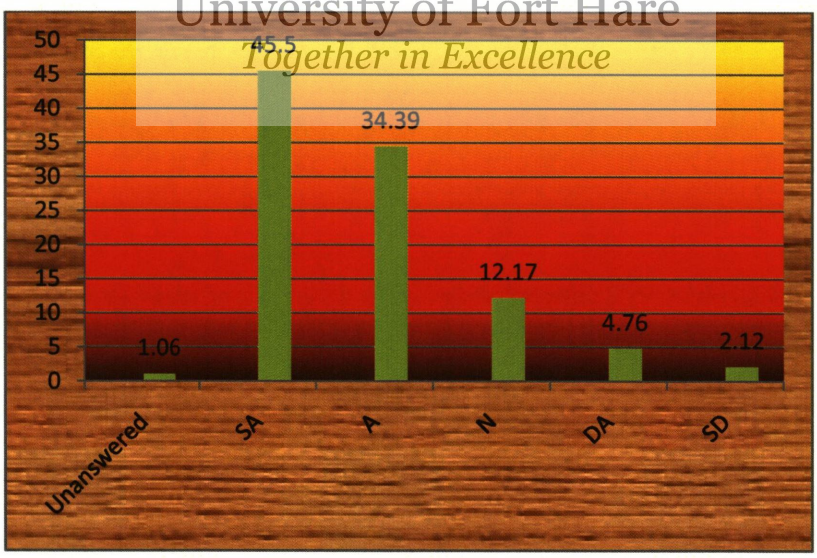


Table 7.3.7.4

Statement fourty six with the question: "Change is necessary to redress the imbalance of the past", analysis were as follows, relating to whether change importance in redressing the imbalance of the past, 2 people did not answer (1.06%), 86 strongly agreed (45.50%), 65 agreed (34.39%), 23 neutral (12.17%), 9 disagree (4.76%) and 4 strongly disagreed

(2.12%). Having looked at these figures the highest is that of strongly agreeing. Women are still regarded as secondary to men in South African business culture, and most women accept secondary roles without hesitation. Traditional South African organizations (in the apartheid days) essentially excluded women from their mainstream management jobs, based on the notion that "women are emotional, thus cannot shoulder responsibilities" (Johnson, 1999). With the departure of apartheid and the emergence of democracy, these organizations started transforming: women started gaining access to middle and a few senior level positions.

However with the focus on equity, affirmative action and government legislation to labour market, the focus shifted to racial imbalances, thus giving less focus to women's issues. Thus, many South African organizations are currently stuck here, and comprehending the contradiction between the expressed value of having racial balance and /or gender balance.

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7.3.7.5 Resistance

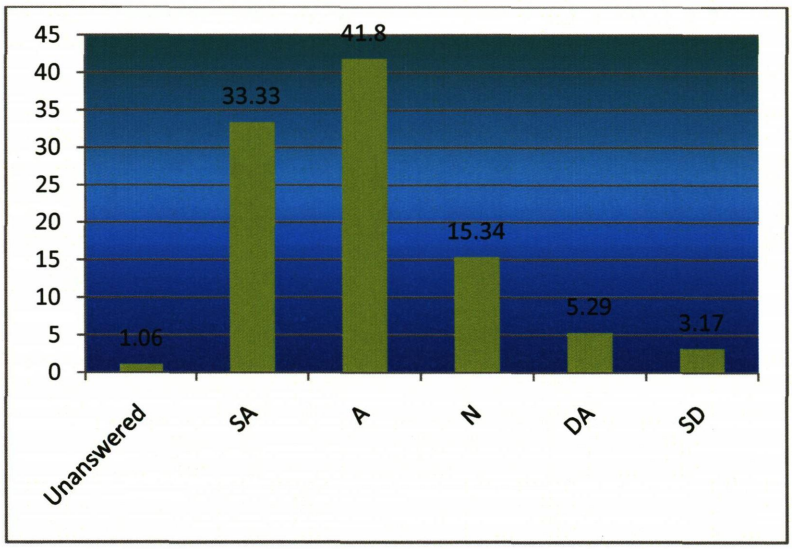


Table 7.3.7.5

In analysing statement fourty seven with the question: "Most people resist change and would rather prefer to stay as things are in their industries", the following results were

revealed, 2 people did not answer the question (1.06%), 63 people were strongly agree (33.33%), 79 people were agreeing (41.80%), 29 were neutral (15.34%), 10 were disagreeing (5.29%) and 6 were strongly agreeing (3.17%). The question asked was addressing the resistance to change. Having looked at the outcome of the results, the highest figure was that of agreeing with the statement. The reason behind this was that, most people are fear of the unknown when change is about to happen, and they would rather stay as things are not change, unless the change agent come out with the benefit that the change will bring to such people.

Historically, South Africa had no incentives to promote the jobs of its women, due to structural disadvantages caused by male-dominated attitudes and behaviours. The discriminatory legislation of apartheid era had not only afforded white people with racial priviledges, but simultaneously permitting discrimination on the basis of gender (Munetsi, 1999) as well. Present government initiatives such as a national Women's Empowerment policy, signing of a number of United nations Conventions on Women, Joint Standing committee on the Improvement of the Quality of Life and Status of Women, the Commission on gender Equality (Booysen, 1999), the passing of significant number of laws which touch upon central gender issues, such as: the rewriting of the tax tables in 1995, Liberation of Abortion Act in 1996, Customary Marriage and Domestic violence Acts in 1998, the maternity Provisions and Breast –feeding Code in 1997, to mention just a few.

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7. 4 Analysis of section nine : Open - ended questions

In this study only four (4) questions has been asked from section 9. These questions were related to the variables gender equity, religion, threat and gender, which these are the question number 32,36,43 and 2 from different sections, but from within section 9, these has been identified by numbers 48 to 51 respectively (see appendix 1).

With regard to question 48 (see Appendix 1)

Answer "Most of the response sees gender equity or women equity as the right and correct thing to try to redress the imbalance of the past, of which to correct the wrongfulness of the apartheid era"

With regard to question 49 (see Appendix 1)

Answer "Most response saw religion as having an influence especially to the stereotyped people and also for those people whose culture is mostly influence by the religion, as in most religion, no women are allowed to preach, and men are only regarded as the only people who are entitle to do that, so compare the situation where you will find in some organisations women as the CEO and having men to account to the women. Also this it may have an impact in the employment of women in industry".

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With regard to question 50 (see Appendix B)

Answer "A concluded response to this question was a big 'No' in most responded questionnaires, and maybe the reason for that may be because most people have not yet accepted the fact that women are capable and competent to do as much work as men are capable of doing, and also others have not yet adapted to the new democratic country (South Africa) as they resist change that is happening slowly but surely"

With regard to question 51 (see Appendix B)

Answer "Most response to the question was it would not matter at all as long as one will be doing his or her job effectively and efficiently, in contributing towards organisation aims, objectives, mission and vision of the organisation, not forgetting in meeting employee's aims, objectives, standards and their expectations.

7.5 Summary of the analysis

Having discussed the interpretation of the data that was collected now is the time to interlink the results of the data with the objectives of the study. Looking back to the first purpose of this study which has been outlined in chapter one, this purpose is interlinked with the questions that have been asked in section four (see Appendix B). Out of the nine questions which have been asked relating to this objective, seven of those questions their response indicated a higher percentage with strongly agree and agree answers, which that shows that cultural diversity has an impact on women in industry as the percentages reveal. There were only two response from which the response did not show the highest percentage of strongly agree and agree, which those are reflected from statement ninenteen and twenty (see Appendix B).

The response from these statement were high on the opposite of the other statement as highlighted above, which are strongly disagree and disagree. These statements show the impact into which culture has on women in not treating women and men equally, and also in not allowing women in working on the same levels as their counterparts, men in this instance. This shows resistance to change of people in not allowing the laws that have been amendment to try to redress the inequalities that exists in industries in relation to women and men, regardless of what position or level they are working in.

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In dealing with the second purpose of this study, (see Appendix B), the answers to this one were interlinked with the ones from section six to section eight (statement thirty two to fourty seven), which deals with change, perceptions and government legislations with regard to transformation and change. As from section six, the statements which were seen as having very significance in bring change and transformation were those from number thirty three, thirty four, thirty five and thirty seven. The one that had shown significant was statement number thirty six. This means that all of the factors with very significant response play a tremendous role in bringing change and transformation in industry and in this world. With regard to section seven, which deals with the perceptions about change and transformation, the statement ranges from number thirty eight to fourty one, five out

of six statements had a true response and the remainder was false. This shows that change and transformation is something that is exists in industries and people are being threaten by it and also the emphasis is on the adaptation to it, as it is not safe to do through competitive global economy.

With regard to section eight with questions relating change and government legislations interlinking with objective two (see chapter one), with statements ranging from fourty three to fourty seven the response were as follows, all of the statements had higher percentage with strongly agree and agree. This shows that people see change as something that exists in industries and as something that threatens them. Another thing since there is higher percentage in statement fourty seven, that also shows that resistance to change still exists in industries among counterparts especially in men, since the most dominant people in industries are them.

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Relating to objective three of the study, the response relating to this objective is found in section two of the questionnaire (see Appendix B). The questionnaires in that section deal with women and perceptions. The response was out of nine questions, five responded as true to the questions and the remainder responded as false to the questions. Since the highest number is the for the people who had chosen true that shows that it support the objective of approaching women differently when entering the labour market, since the environment is new to them, and they need to be given chance to prove themselves that they are as capable as any one else in the world irrespective of their feminist.

To relate objective three of the study, the researcher had looked to section two of the questionnaire (see Appendix B), which deals with questions associated with this objective. That section deals with diversity, not forgetting section three of the questions which deals with gender and race discrimination which also plays a role in addressing objective four of the study. The questions from section two ranges from seven to nine with the highest response rate of strongly agree and agree from al of the questions. This shows that as much as gender differences serve as a barrier in women in climbing corporate ladder, diversity in industries with various forms of it also serve as a barrier to

such women. This is seen as a challenge that most industries need to come up with strategies that will try to address this issue before it can be escalated. As for objective four that can be dealt with in the following chapter with what can industries do in approaching women to industries, under recommendations.

In relating objective five of the study, the researcher had looked to section nine of the questionnaire (see Appendix B). This section was basically asking open ended questions, and in relating to this objective n emphasis was placed on statement fifty one which the researcher believe it answers the objective. Having read the response of the participant of this research, the researcher summarized and concluded that the there is no relationship between gender and accountability as the responded had answered that it does not matter who is superior to the other, as long as each one is doing his job effectively and efficiently.

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7.6 Conclusion

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The aim of the current chapter was to present the results pertaining to the empirical study. As such, the chapter started by presenting the biographical information of the study, with bar charts or graphs. Then the chapter went on discussing the statistical analysis of the report results. From there, the researcher has identified the key variable from section five which have associations with the topic. These have been presented with tables, and from each table, there are identifiable variables from different sections of the questionnaire (see Appendix B). The other part of this analysis is the presentation of frequency distribution which that is also provided with tables. Each table consists of the identifiable variables, from the questionnaires asked and their frequency, percentage, accumulative frequency and cumulative percentages.

Chapter 8

Conclusions, Limitations and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to present the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of this study. By doing the previous statement, the conclusions the research findings of the literature review and phenomenological study will be evaluated against the research aims stated in chapter one. In other words, the findings of the research and its contribution to a deeper understanding of the experience and meaning of women in industry will be reviewed. The limitations of both the literature review and the phenomenological study will also be discussed in this chapter. Finally, the recommendations for future research and organizational application will be made.

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8.2 Conclusions

It is now known that women are working in industries. However, changes in the industries are occurring gradually. Furthermore, industries are busy implementing employment equity policies in order to bridge gender imbalance in the industry. It is also evident that the employers seem to have no problem regarding the employment of women in the industry, principally at all different levels. The skilled women seem to be courageous and committed to their work, albeit they are working in arduous, dangerous and demanding conditions. On the other hand, the semi skilled seem to be experiencing their working conditions as boring. To conclude, it is confidently believed that the results of this research project will assist in developing an understanding of women working in industries in South Africa. Conclusions are formulated in terms of the literature review and empirical study.

8.2.1 Conclusions: Literature review

Chapter two gave a brief historical overview of the women under apartheid that shaped the history of South Africa and had an effect on employment practices in South Africa. These development paradigms provide the pre and post setting of a reality –related context in which the principles of employment of women in industry have evolved and will continue to evolve in the 21st century in South Africa.

Sub – variables of women at work, an overview were discussed, namely agriculture, domestic works, white women at home, domestic workers self image. The concept of women after the democratic government was discussed in detail as it is a precursor to women and employment equity practice and legislation. Racism, discrimination and affirmative action are all embodied in employment equity practice and legislation. They are not exclusive components, but form a cohesive basis in the understanding and implementation of employment equity processes and legislation and also of employing women in industry.

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The other sub variables include topics such as South African women and their changing career patterns, which discuss the employment trends of this country, barriers to managerial advancement, cultural and societal problems, and psychological impact of cultural norms, employment legislations and employment policies. The other aspect that has been dealt with are the obstacles and opportunities women face in the employment, the challenges of drawing women into the work-force and the key to unlock Africa's economic development by employing women. Promotion of women in business, that is trying to open their own businesses or companies, was another area of emphasis, the role of women in NEPAD, and in other different industries like construction, financial sector,

Chapter three gave an explicit overview of the origin and development of culture and organizational culture and the legislation applicable to employment equity in South Africa, as from 1998. It may be concluded that the literature on this chapter is very specific, relevant and provides exacting processes for organizations to tailor their

employment practices and procedures to comply with legislation and to ensure that their demographics are morally acceptable in relation to the population demographics of their geographical location, hence the inclusion of women in industry. An emphasis has been placed on the different types of organisational culture and culture, research on organisational culture looking at the South African perspectives and the different frameworks for assessing cultural differences, such as Kluckhorn- Strodtbeck, Hofstede and Trompenaars framework.

Chapter four discusses diversity and managing cultural diversity in the South African workplace. The literature pointed out why men and women are treated so differently in the working environment. Pertinent literature dealt with dilemmas and myths that hold women back in the working place. The concept of diversity management with the required tools for managing diversity and the impact of workforce diversity in South Africa were also discussed. The literature also went on to discuss the strategic management approach in managing diversity, the different management programs and activities. It also went on discussing diversity training and its components, barriers to cultural diversity, dealing with diversity and managing it, the influence of cultural diversity on organizational behavior, the organizational goals for managing cultural diversity, and last but not least the advantages of managing it.

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Chapter five discusses change and change management with specific reference to the definition of each of these concepts. The different forms of change that take place within organisations, the scope of change, the seven deadly change management sins, the difference between individual and organizational change process. The other emphasis was the effects of change within organisations, triggers to organisational change, ringing the changes, the factors that influence successful change implementation.

8.3 Limitations of the study

The limitations of this research will focus on the literature review.

The literature review in chapter two, on women under apartheid relate to revealing development for the disadvantaged employees, with specific focused on the South African scenario. Literature on women in industry was generally of South African origin; however studies done on affirmative action were of American origin. It would have been more comprehensive to include studies on affirmative action conducted in South Africa.

In chapter three the literature on culture and organizational culture emanated from South Africa, which is of particular relevance. The cultural diversity model was an American model, whereas the systems approach to managing diversity model was a South African model. It would have been interesting to compare these models, if they had all emanated from the South African context.

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In chapter four the literature diversity and managing cultural diversity in South African workplace have been expanded dramatically from 1994 onwards with the promulgation of the South African Constitution Act, and from 1998 onwards with the passing of the Employment Equity Act. This implies that before the new democratic government came into power, the meaning of diversity had not been a buzz word in industries and the employers have not taken into consideration the value of it. The studies done on this topic of diversity, are South African based, which limit the findings to the South Africa context, as countries differs and also as South Africa is rich in diversity. The study has made use of the two diversity management models, which that limits it from other models. The models are the strategic management approach and the individual mindsets and organisational imperatives for successfully managing diversity.

In chapter five, the limitation for the literature was that, very little research has been done pertaining to change and change management. The other limitation was that even the few studies done were of international standards, not South African based.

8.3.1 Limitations: Empirical study

The empirical study was restricted to a few organizations in the Buffalo City Municipality, East London area of the Eastern Cape Province. Thus it would be very difficult to verify the results and interpretations against similar studies in other organizations. One would generally only be able to compare results against a similar study in other parastatal organizations. The study was conducted post implementation of the Employment Equity Act No 55 (1998). It was a cross-sectional design that gave the organization results at a single point only. As the process of employment equity is embedded into the functional running of the organization over time, employees could feel differently about the processes. Thus if a longitudinal study were conducted over time, or coincided with time lines as stipulated by the department of Labour on a yearly basis, employee's interpretation about employment equity and gender equity could be regularly monitored. This study has thus provided the organization with a starting point. Similar studies could form a basis for on going research on the topic of women in industry and also of employment equity and gender equity.

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8. 4 Recommendations

The feminization of employment and the assertion that women's work is "hidden" – in the home, in its undervaluation in the economy, in its absence in male-centred research, make this a significant study. Articulating these women's experiences and meaning of women in industry in a research context brings women's experiences and the meaning they ascribe to work, in the open. Locating experience, no matter how complex, within a paradigm, within research and theory, in a sense gives the experience credibility and credence. It transforms the experience from something unusual to something shared and unique. This is in itself an empowering act, and part of the process required to articulate

women's work as meaningful, valued, valuable and significant in women's experiences as a whole.

In order to continue this process, recommendations are made for

- Future research studies in the field of organisational and industrial psychology
- The application to organizations

Another factor that needs to be taken into consideration, is also to try to change the views with regard to women. The reason behind this is that, women know that employers are influenced by views that tend to classify jobs as being more " suitable " for women or men, hence women adapt subjects they study and the choice of profession accordingly. In many countries, efforts are being made to promote equal opportunity in education; attract more women students into tertiary education; broaden their educational choices by removing the inherent stereotyping of girls into " female " subjects; and raise both student and teacher awareness of educational choices. This will give opportunities for women to even be interested into conducting studies in areas which were previously being considered as studies for men, hence change of career direction and occupational choice for women.

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Although women students in tertiary education have begun penetrating non-conventional areas such as engineering, they are still concentrated in subjects with relatively weak connections to professional and managerial jobs. Women students also tend to have weaker aspirations for career advancement than male students and prioritize academic interest over practical career opportunities, for example, by studying literature or the arts rather than opting for professional training.

In some countries, women 'labour force participation might be seen to conflict with the traditional roles of women as carers, and regardless of their level of education women may have to prioritise academic interest over practical career opportunities, for example, by studying literature or the arts rather than opting for professional training.

In some countries, women's labour force participation might be seen to conflict with the traditional roles of women as carers, and regardless of their level of education women may have to prioritise their family responsibilities over employment. Traditional and cultural factors may also sometimes discourage women from taking certain types of jobs. This tends to restrict their access to the labour market and consequently influences their academic choices.

8.4.1 Recommendations on affirmative action and women

Affirmative action is a two step process, involving an analysis of the employer's work force to determine whether percentages of sex, race, or ethnic groups in individuals job classifications are substantially similar to the percentage of those groups available in the relevant job market who possess the basic job related qualifications. The organization needs to assess if the elements of the selection process have an exclusionary effect, and if so need to establish affirmative action steps to remedy the situation. These steps can be race conscious and include the following:

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- The establishment of long –term goal and short –range interim goals and timetables which take into account the availability of qualified persons in the relevant job market,
- A recruitment program to extract qualified members from the excluded groups, a systematic effort to organize work and redesign jobs in ways that provide opportunities for those lacking the knowledge or skills to enter and progress in a career field;
- Validation of selection instruments such as tests according to the guidelines regulations;
- Systematic efforts to include candidates from excluded groups in the selection pool;
- Systematic efforts to provide career advancement training for employees in dead end jobs. These recommendations are also supported by Greene (1989).

8.4.2 Recommendations on development

A few recommendations are as follows:

- The organization needs to develop a comprehensive skills development plan coupled with each employee's personal development profile. The areas where employees lack certain expertise should be documented and training provided systematically to augment the employee's skills profile.
- All types of courses should thus be offered to the employees in line with the organisation's long term goals and business requirements. As Greene (1989) points out this should not only be company specific but industry specific;
- The organization must continue to offer degree and technikon bursaries for all levels of staff;
- The organization has to date not sponsored bursaries for MBA's. This should be reconsidered, as many employees, even at senior levels, have found the cost of this tuition to be onerous and unaffordable.

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8.4.3 Recommendations on attitudes towards females: the gender gap

Ragins, Townsend and Mattis (1998:29) suggest strategies for women to follow in order to break the glass ceilings. These are very applicable and thirteen strategies are detailed below; women need to:

- Consistently exceed performance expectations;
- Develop a style that men are comfortable with;
- Seek difficult or high visibility assignments;
- Have influential colleagues;
- Network with influential colleague's
- Gain line management experience;
- Move from one functional area to another;
- Initiate discussions regarding career aspirations;

- Be able to relocate
- Upgrade educational credentials;
- Change companies;
- Develop leadership outside of the office;
- Gain international experience;

It is important to give women who are high performers stretch assignments to develop their abilities in their own functional areas and in disciplines outside of their functional expertise.

8.4.4 Development of women within organisation

A number of tactics could be used to speed up female development in the organization. These concepts are backed by Ragins, Townsend and Mattis (1998:33).

- The organization should assess the lack of significant management or line experience amongst the female grouping. This will give high-flying women coming through the managerial ranks an opportunity to do projects in other departments and let them desputise under close supervision. This will allow them the freedom to develop, with the safety net if they feel that they are scared that they will make mistakes;

- Women who have not been in the pipeline long enough should be encouraged to stay longer in the department /organization, either by way of monetary incentive or by way of motivational assignments;

- In order to address male stereotyping and preconceptions, the organization should develop bridging programmes to dispel old stereotypical viewpoints. This can also be done by way of cultural diversity workshops;

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- Females within the organization should be allowed to develop their own networks. This could be encouraged by formal committees or by way of sports committees, such as a female golf committee, sponsored by the organization;
- Male managers are often intimidated by or have difficulty in managing women. The organisation should develop programmes for them specifically to give them skills in dealing with their fears and /or stereotypes;

- Men and women should be treated exactly the same in the organization, irrespective of the type of work that they are doing.

8.4.5 Mentoring Programme

A mentoring programme should be introduced specifically for the women in the organization. The following guidelines are given on managing the process:

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- The CEO should be the champion of the mentoring programme;
- The organisation should consider having mentors from outside of the organization. These should be influential female icons in the business world;
- Female employees should be placed on accelerated development by way of courses, degree and one –year certificate programmes;
- Assignments should not only be organizational specific /industry specific, but should encompass other industrial disciplines;
- Female employees should be assessed by means of a development centre and their shortfalls in competencies and skills fast tracked in the mentoring programme;
- The resident industrial psychologist should facilitate the process.

8.5 Exploring the broad thematic concerns in greater depth through future research studies

The researcher recommends that future research studies be undertaken within the domains of organisational and career psychology to explore each thematic concern

identified in greater depth. The results of this study present a starting point in developing a detailed and holistic theory of the meaning women in industry ascribe to their work. It is suggested that future research further describes and articulates women's experiences, establish relationships and tests hypotheses formulated in the findings of this research study.

The researcher also recommends that further studies focus on assessing the changing sense of identity women are expressing as a key component of the meaning they derive from work. This represents seminal findings in this study, and one requiring detailed exposition. Similarly, the following areas represent possible future research topics:

- The impact of autonomy on the changing meaning of work for women
- The relationship between women's financial independence and the assertion of an independent, autonomous sense of self
- The importance of work for women asserting an autonomous sense of self
- Relationships between women at work
- Monitoring the performance of women in industry
- Comparing the performance of women and men in industry
- The components of work characterised as intrinsically satisfying for women
- The changing importance of serving and helping others in the meaning of work for women
- The value that women bring to the corporate world
- How women balance their working relationship and their personal lives
- The meaning of power and authority at work for women especially if women are superiors

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The richness and diversity of future research emanating from this research study alluded to in the quantity and variety of studies recommended above. A detailed and comprehensive understanding of the meaning of women in industry will be gained if future research focuses on these domains.

8.6 Using diverse samples in future research studies

A significant recommendation for future research to be undertaken is that the thematic concerns asserted are explored with diverse sample of women. There is little doubt about the richness of the results to be achieved from using samples with representatives of black African women. Certainly, in the South African context, issues of applicability will be improved in the construction of samples that reflect the racial demographics on the current work force. Further, women who are married or have children, and who work either full time or part time, would add depth to an understanding of the issues of work's primacy and the interrelationship between and other domains of the meaning of women in industry.

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8.7 Application of the findings to organisational practices

The findings of this research study have valuable implications for organisational and human resource practices. The feminization of the workplace has been articulated, and this study provides useful insights into women's experience and the meaning they derive from work. Organisational practices to attract, develop, retain and effectively manage women at work emerge from the study.

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Certainly this study asserts work as a vital component in defining women's sense of identity and self-worth, and by implication, women workers should not be viewed as less committed to their work than their male counterparts. That said, this study emphasizes the complexity of work and family in providing meaning for women, and the fact that women may require flexibility and family friendly practices within organizations to facilitate this. This study also provides input into career development practices, asserting that women expect their work to be meaningful , but that the primacy of this meaning may change, necessitating career development and management processes investigating the importance of meaning, and providing changing competency development to facilitate the fluidity of meaning .

The issue of equity in financial remuneration remains relevant, and this study emphasizes that women expect their work to both meet and transcend their instrumental requirements. The implication for organizations is that issues of remuneration equity are germane, and there is little suggestion that this will change.

The importance of work in establishing a sense of identity and self-worth has implications for organizations in their performance management, recognition and reward practices. Regular, objective and developmental feedback has been established as critical to women and should be built into organisational practices.

The study explored changing experience of "women in industry" and the declining importance of serving and helping, and increasing requirements for work that is challenging, strategic and enables problem solving and creativity. Attracting and retaining women requires organizations to provide women with access roles and on going development to facilitate intrinsic satisfaction. Career development practices need to encourage women to enter domains not traditionally defined as appropriate to women. This has implications for recruitment and selection practices, as well as training and development interventions. Within the South African context, this is interrelated to employment equity and skills development initiatives.

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Furthermore, the complexity of relationships between women and female subordinates and male managers, has organisational implications. Managing a diverse workforce, facilitating delivery through teams, and averting claims of discrimination based on gender requires organizations to take cognizance of these concerns. Organisational leadership should be taught how to manage diverse workforces and gender issues included in employment equity and transformational gendas.

Finally, the organizations need to equip themselves to ensure that they provide a forum for women to assert identities at work that are being redefined. Whilst this research study to some extent confirmed that women work in order to function as competent and productive members of the society (Chester & Grossman (1990:1-9)), the complexities

and intricacies cited in this study describe the difficulties involved. At the same time, this study asserts the significant growth and development emanating from this reconceptualisation of the meaning of the work of women in industry.

8.8 What companies can do to overcome such barriers

As mentioned from the previous chapters women encounter in climbing up the corporate ladder. Thus it is of very importance to note what industries can do to overcome such barriers. The following have been suggested by Ronel Erwee from his journal:

- **Companies should show social responsibilities**
  Organisations that adopted a positive policy of non discrimination against women can provide a constructive force for change.
- **Training managers**

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Human and Hofmeyer (12) have concluded that many South African companies are in a position to invest time , money , and effort in the development of potential black managers , and that the whole problem of women advancement needs further attention. In South Africa, however, many companies do not currently employ such strategies, but are gradually changing their training policies for all managers, regardless of race or sex.

- **Creating mentors**

Nasser (2) and Human and Hofmeyer(120 support the idea that a system in which potential managers are assigned to a mentor could be used in most South African organizations. Schmik(19)has noted that the male model of mentorship does not appear to be totally applicable to females, and that there is a dearth of female mentors in most (male –dominated) organizations in South Africa, mainly because of the small number of women in senior management positions. Male managers are reluctant to serve as mentors for women because such a role is

unfamiliar to them and, is often underrated as a personnel –development technique. The scarcity of mentors for female managers or women in general within organizations can, to some extent, be overcome by the issue of role models in the broader South African society. Several business and professional women's clubs have organized seminars on career guidance and advancement in which women of all races share strategies for advancement in organizations.

- **Career workshops**

Because of the interest of women in their careers, the Women's bureau of south Africa formed a Career Counseling Work Group, which develops

(a) training courses and workshops aimed at equipping women to meet the demands of higher –level professional and managerial jobs and to develop entrepreneurial and industrial skills,
(b) vocational and career counseling methods to meet the needs of women, and application of these methods within companies.

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Women attending career workshops can be classified according to three groups: young professional women, in exploration phase of their careers; older professional women aiming at higher –level management posts, and senior women who are contemplating a second career. Each of these groups has unique career development needs that are accommodated in the workshops.

- **Entrepreneurial managers**

With more women seeking avenues and opportunities for self –development, some are now following entreprenueship as a career. Makalipe (7) estimates that about 70 percent of small businesses owned by blacks are run by women, although many of them are family concerns that women manage while their husbands work elsewhere. More women are interested in managing their own shops

8.9 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of this study. The research findings of the literature review and phenomenological study were assessed against the research aims set out in chapter one. Furthermore the conclusions of the phenomenological study were presented, providing a deeper understanding of the experience and the meaning of women in industry. The limitations of both the literature review and the phenomenological study were explained in this context. Finally, recommendations were made for future research and organisational applications.

Many other changes in South African society, such as elimination of discriminatory clauses in labour legislation, changes in the legal status of women, and greater availability of educational opportunities, do support the advancement of women. There is a greater awareness in multinational and South African companies of the problems related to their advancement of women. There are still barriers to be overcome, such as unequal pay, but women are campaigning against these unfair practices. More women are taking the initiative in planning and managing their own career development and in managing their own small businesses thus creating new role models. Of equal importance is the growing readiness of women to support the career aspirations of other women and to assist in their realisation.

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APENDICES

APPENDIX A

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND ENTERPRISE

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY
PRIVATE BAG X 1314, ALICE 5700, SOUTH AFRICA
TEL: (040) 602 2607

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The Human Resource Manager
Address of Company
Date

Sir/Madam

Request on the granting of access to your company for conducting research

The University of Fort Hare together with the National Council of Research, with their main aim of providing qualitative research, request if you could grant one of our Masters Student, Nonkoliseko Alison Yozi Student Number 200101390 in the Department of Industrial Psychology at the University of Fort Hare permission and assistance to conduct research in your company as part of the fulfillment and completion of her Master's degree.

The research will be on **Woman in industry: Research on the resistance against change from the Eastern Cape industries**, and a proposal will be forwarded and discussed with the relative people included. It will be highly appreciated if upon granting permission you could provide us with the contact person and contact details (telephone number, cell- phone number, e-mail), should the student need some information pertaining this study.

Your assistance on the above mentioned matter will be highly appreciated. If you need any information pertaining the student, feel free to contact me at numbers and e-mail address as on letterhead.

Yours faithfully
Mr Andre Nel (Lecturer)
Department of Industrial Psychology

APPENDIX B

University Of Fort Hare
Private Bag X 1314
Alice
5200

Dear Participant

After the first democratic election of 1994 many changes had took place in industries. Transformation in industries occurred, irrespective of which form. Most policies and legislations have been developed and even amended; among those I can mention the Affirmative Action policy and Gender Equity.

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In light of the abovementioned I am doing research for masters degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of Fort Hare, the title being "Women in Industry: Resistance Against Change In Eastern Cape Industries". Although a great deal of attention has been focused on organizational culture and gender differences, diversity management and change, there has been no research pertaining to the above title, hence the necessity for this study.

In this study I will try to investigate whether culture and gender differences have any influence in the appointment of women in managerial positions. I will try to identify the problems with regard to culture and diversity, and through the analysis of the information gathered I will be in the position to try to come with effective ways solve those problems.

The research will be conducted in the different organisations with employee total of more than 100 employees. The information provided by this organisation will be useful for all levels of management and to the organisations/institutions that are involve in transformation and the implementation of affirmative action policy.

May I request you to return your completed questionnaire on the ..... for collection and data analysis. I would be most willing to answer any questions you may have. Please do not hesitate to call me anytime at 073 230 4233.
Thank you for your participation.

Kind regards

Alison Nonkoliseko Yozi

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

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I Nonkoliseko Alison Yozi, a Master student in the Department of Industrial Psychology conducting a research on "**Women in Industry: Resistance Against Change In Eastern Cape Industries.** The information received in this research will be used for research purpose only, and questionnaires to be collected on the.....for analysis.

QUESTIONNAIRE:

Instructions

The questions are divided into nine sections. Section 1 deals with Biographical information, Section 2 (Diversity), Section 3 (Gender / Race Discrimination), Section 4 (Culture), Section 5 (Women and Perceptions), Section 6 (Change and Transformation), Section 7 (Feelings about Change / Transformation), Section 8 (Change and Government legislations) and Section 9 (Open ended questions).

You are requested to complete the questionnaires as fully and objectively. The questionnaires will be processed by the researcher only and are therefore regarded and treated as confidential. The information you provide will be reported mainly in the form of statistical summaries and your individual identity will not be revealed in any way. For ease and speed in analysis, most items can be answered by circling a number, but

sometimes you are requested, where indicated, to express yourself more freely. Please work through the questionnaire quickly but accurately to every item. If you work continuously you should finish comfortably in 30 minutes

Section 1: Biographical information

Instructions

Please answer with a cross and fill in the gaps provided where necessary.

1. Department / section .....

2. Gender

Male		Female	

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3. Ethnicity/Race

African		White		Asian		Coloured	

4. Marital Status

Single		Married		Divorced		Widow/ed	

5. Designation

Management		Supervisor		Administration		Other (specify)	.....

6. Type of industry

Manufacturing		Service		Other	

				(specify)	.....

Section 2: Diversity

Mark with a cross from the appropriate boxes, ranging from **Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD).**

No	Statements	SA	A	N	D	SD
7.	I know what cultural diversity mean and entails.					
8.	Cultural diversity has an impact on employees in recognising the role women play in industries.					
9.	Our organization is a diverse workforce.					

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Section 3: Gender / Race Discrimination

This section addresses gender/race discrimination. Would you Agree (A) or Disagree (DA) with the following statements, please mark with an X, the appropriate box.

No	Statements	A	DA
10.	My industry does not tolerate gender discrimination in whatever form.		
11.	There are measures put in place with regard to gender discrimination.		
12.	Both male and female are free to report any form of		

	discrimination.		
13.	Gender discrimination does exist in my industry.		
14.	Women/Female managers discriminate against males, or vice versa.		

Section 4: Culture

Mark with a cross from the appropriate boxes, ranging from Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD), from the statements provided.

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No	Statements	SA	A	N	D	SD
15.	In my organisation there are programs designed to address cultural diversity.					
16.	In my organisation cultural policy does exist.					
17	In my organisation both men and women are treated the same irrespective of cultural differences.					
18.	In my culture women have a free will to work in industries.					
19.	In my culture men and women are treated equally.					
20.	According to my culture women are not allowed to work on the same level as males.					
21.	According to my culture women are not allowed to perform manual labour.					
22.	Everyone are being accommodated in the organisational culture					

23.	Both the employer and employee should be engaged in the development of cultural policy.					

Section 5: Women and Perceptions

The following statements address the ways in which one person may feel towards another person (female – male, female- female, male –male). Mark with an X in the appropriate boxes.

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No.	Statements	True	False
24.	Women are incompetent and not suppose to be appointed in managerial positions.		
25.	Women should be approached differently in entering labour market.		
26.	I don't mind working for a female manager/supervisor.		
27.	New legislations are in support of empowering women.		
28.	In my organisation both men and women are treated the same irrespective of gender differences.		
29.	There are training programs designed to help women to enhance their competencies and skills in my industry.		
30.	Women lack certain skills and potential and should remain in their menial and domestic work.		
31.	The new legislations are reversing gender		

	discrimination.		
32.	Women are employed in positions to justify employment equity.		

Section 6: Change and Transformation

Question 33 - 37 focuses on change/transformation, and please circle the number relating to, how significant would you rate the following factors in affecting transformation in your industry.

1 Not significant 1-2

2 Significant 3 – 4

3 Very Significant 5 –7

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	(1)Not Significant		(2) Significant			(3) Very Significant	
33. Political factors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. National identities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Past history	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Religious differences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Language barriers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 7: Feelings about change/transformation in industry

From question 38 to 42, choose true or false by marking with X, with regard to the below statement.

Transformation / change in my industry is:

N0.	Statements	True	False
38.	Regarded as a challenge that both the employer and employee need to face.		

39.	Likely to happen and is seen as a threat.		
40.	Safe to do in order for the industry to be competitive in the global village.		
41.	Important to adapt to it for the industry to survive from both local and international markets.		
42.	Easy to implement and evaluate to ensure its efficiency and effectiveness.		

Section 8: Change And Government Legislations

Choose Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) from the following statements, by marking with an X in the space provided

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No	Statements	SA	A	N	DA	SD
43.	Change is a threat to some people and organizations.					
44.	Government has done enough to assist industries in their transformation process.					
45.	New legislations are in favour of women.					
46.	Change is necessary to redress the imbalance of the past.					
47.	Most people resist change and would rather prefer to stay as things are in their industries.					

Section 9: Open ended questions

You need to fill in as much information as you can in the space provided below.

48. What is the opinion with regard to gender equity or women equity?

.....

.....

.....

49. As far as religion is concerned, would you consider religion as having any influence with regard to women entering labour market climbing the corporate ladder?

.....

.....

.....

50. Would you consider women as generally and widely accepted in managerial working positions by their counterparts, or would you regard women as seen as a threat?

.....

.....

.....

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51. Would you prefer to work with males or females on any level within the organisation? Elaborate on this. .....

.....

.....

.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO- OPERATION, CONTRIBUTIONS AND YOUR TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. YOUR HELP IS HIGHLY APPRECIATED!

The FREQ Procedure

Appendix C: Biographical information

7.2.1

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	61	32.28	61	32.28
2	128	67.72	189	100.00

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7.2.2

Ethnic	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	116	61.38	116	61.38
2	46	24.34	162	85.71
3	13	6.88	175	92.59
4	14	7.41	189	100.00

7.2.3

Marita	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	21	11.11	21	11.11
1	36	19.05	57	30.16
2	18	9.52	75	39.68
3	68	35.98	143	75.66
4	46	24.34	189	100.00

7.2.3

Desig	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	1	0.53	1	0.53
1	121	64.02	122	64.55
2	48	25.40	170	89.95
3	19	10.05	189	100.00

7.2.4

Indtyp	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	120	63.49	120	63.49
2	67	35.45	187	98.94

3	2	1.06	189	100.00

Appendix D: Diversity

7.3.1.1

Cultdiv	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	80	42.33	80	42.33
2	74	39.15	154	81.48
3	17	8.99	171	90.48
4	11	5.82	182	96.30
5	7	3.70	189	100.00

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The FREQ Procedure

7.3.1.2

Cultimp	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	99	52.38	99	52.38
2	64	33.86	163	86.24
3	19	10.05	182	96.30
4	2	1.06	184	97.35
5	5	2.65	189	100.00

7.3.1.3

Divforc	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	1	0.53	1	0.53
1	168	88.89	169	89.42
2	18	9.52	187	98.94
4	1	0.53	188	99.47
5	1	0.53	189	100.00

Appendix E: Gender /Race discrimination

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7.3.2.1.1

Gendisc	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	1	0.53	1	0.53
1	166	87.83	167	88.36
2	22	11.64	189	100.00

7.3.2.1.2

Measure	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	1	0.53	1	0.53
1	167	88.36	168	88.89
2	21	11.11	189	100.00

7.3.2.1.3

Report	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	8	4.23	8	4.23
1	79	41.80	87	46.03
2	102	53.97	189	100.00

7.3.2.1.4

Exist	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	7	3.70	7	3.70
1	41	21.69	48	25.40
2	136	71.96	184	97.35
5	5	2.65	189	100.00

The FREQ Procedure

7.3.2.1.5 Discrim	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	2	1.06	2	1.06
1	48	25.40	50	26.46
2	58	30.69	108	57.14
3	64	33.86	172	91.01
4	2	1.06	174	92.06
5	15	7.94	189	100.00

Appendix F: Culture

7.3.3.1 Trainpro	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	11	5.82	11	5.82
1	110	58.20	121	64.02
2	68	35.98	189	100.00

7.3.3.2 Cultpol	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	2	1.06	2	1.06
1	68	35.98	70	37.04
2	73	38.62	143	75.66
3	40	21.16	183	96.83
4	5	2.65	188	99.47
5	1	0.53	189	100.00

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7.3.3.3 Cultdiff	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	1	0.53	1	0.53
1	72	38.10	73	38.62
2	72	38.10	145	76.72
3	30	15.87	175	92.59
4	12	6.35	187	98.94
5	2	1.06	189	100.00

The FREQ Procedure

7.3.3.4 Culture	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	3	1.59	3	1.59
1	51	26.98	54	28.57
2	51	26.98	105	55.56
3	24	12.70	129	68.25
4	28	14.81	157	83.07
5	32	16.93	189	100.00

7.3.3.5 Equally	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent

0	2	1.06	2	1.06
1	21	11.11	23	12.17
2	25	13.23	48	25.40
3	41	21.69	89	47.09
4	44	23.28	133	70.37
5	56	29.63	189	100.00

7.3.3.6

Levels	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	2	1.06	2	1.06
1	33	17.46	35	18.52
2	21	11.11	56	29.63
3	31	16.40	87	46.03
4	53	28.04	140	74.07
5	49	25.93	189	100.00

7.3.3.7

Manwork	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	5	2.65	5	2.65
1	37	19.58	42	22.22
2	77	40.74	119	62.96
3	31	16.40	150	79.37
4	26	13.76	176	93.12
5	13	6.88	189	100.00

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7.3.3.8

Accom	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	2	1.06	2	1.06
1	75	39.68	77	40.74
2	95	50.26	172	91.01
3	6	3.17	178	94.18
4	4	2.12	182	96.30
5	7	3.70	189	100.00

Appendix G: Women and Perceptions

7.3.4.1

Incomp	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	9	4.76	9	4.76
1	25	13.23	34	17.99
2	152	80.42	186	98.41
3	1	0.53	187	98.94
4	2	1.06	189	100.00

7.3.4.2

Approac	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent

0	7	3.70	7	3.70
1	49	25.93	56	29.63
2	133	70.37	189	100.00

7.3.4.3

Workin	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	8	4.23	8	4.23
1	135	71.43	143	75.66
2	46	24.34	189	100.00

7.3.4.4

Legemp	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	13	6.88	13	6.88
1	157	83.07	170	89.95
2	19	10.05	189	100.00

7.3.4.5

Gendis	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	9	4.76	9	4.76
1	150	79.37	159	84.13
2	30	15.87	189	100.00

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The FREQ Procedure

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7.3.4.6

Program	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	8	4.23	8	4.23
1	75	39.68	83	43.92
2	52	27.51	135	71.43
3	34	17.99	169	89.42
4	17	8.99	186	98.41
5	3	1.59	189	100.00

7.3.4.7

Lackskil	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	9	4.76	9	4.76
1	53	28.04	62	32.80
2	127	67.20	189	100.00

7.3.4.8

Gedscr	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	13	6.88	13	6.88
1	94	49.74	107	56.61
2	82	43.39	189	100.00

7.3.4.9

Emequit	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	9	4.76	9	4.76
1	69	36.51	78	41.27
2	111	58.73	189	100.00

Appendix H: Change and Transformation

7.3.5.1

Chgevspo	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	5	2.65	5	2.65
1	41	21.69	46	24.34
2	57	30.16	103	54.50
3	86	45.50	189	100.00

7.3.5.2

Chgevsna	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	9	4.76	9	4.76
1	18	9.52	27	14.29
2	65	34.39	92	48.68
3	97	51.32	189	100.00

7.3.5.3

Chgevshi	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	8	4.23	8	4.23
1	19	10.05	27	14.29
2	72	38.10	99	52.38
3	90	47.62	189	100.00

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7.3.5.4

Chgevsre	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	7	3.70	7	3.70
1	66	34.92	73	38.62
2	71	37.57	144	76.19
3	45	23.81	189	100.00

7.3.5.5

Chgevsla	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	6	3.17	6	3.17
1	61	32.28	67	35.45
2	55	29.10	122	64.55
3	67	35.45	189	100.00

Appendix I: feelings about change /Transformation

7.3.6.1

Chgevsch	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	128	67.72	128	67.72
2	47	24.87	175	92.59
3	14	7.41	189	100.00

7.3.6.2

Chgevsth	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	106	56.08	106	56.08
2	78	41.27	184	97.35
3	5	2.65	189	100.00

The FREQ Procedure

7.3.6.3

Chgevssa	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	1	0.53	1	0.53
1	89	47.09	90	47.62
2	99	52.38	189	100.00

7.3.6.4

Chgevsad	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	2	1.06	2	1.06
1	151	79.89	153	80.95
2	36	19.05	189	100.00

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7.3.6.5

Chgevsim	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	2	1.06	2	1.06
1	150	79.37	152	80.42
2	37	19.58	189	100.00

Appendix J: Change and government legislations

7.3.7.1

Threat	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	3	1.59	3	1.59
1	60	31.75	63	33.33
2	52	27.51	115	60.85
3	30	15.87	145	76.72
4	32	16.93	177	93.65
5	12	6.35	189	100.00

7.3.7.2

Govt	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	3	1.59	3	1.59
1	41	21.69	44	23.28
2	76	40.21	120	63.49
3	35	18.52	155	82.01

4	19	10.05	174	92.06
5	15	7.94	189	100.00

The FREQ Procedure

7.3.7.3

Newleg	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	5	2.65	5	2.65
1	72	38.10	77	40.74
2	67	35.45	144	76.19
3	27	14.29	171	90.48
4	11	5.82	182	96.30
5	7	3.70	189	100.00

7.3.7.4

Redress	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	2	1.06	2	1.06
1	86	45.50	88	46.56
2	65	34.39	153	80.95
3	23	12.17	176	93.12
4	9	4.76	185	97.88
5	4	2.12	189	100.00

7.3.7.5

Resist	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	2	1.06	2	1.06
1	63	33.33	65	34.39
2	79	41.80	144	76.19
3	29	15.34	173	91.53
4	10	5.29	183	96.83
5	6	3.17	189	100.00

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