Developing a strategy for creating a sustainable pool of women leaders in the Mpumalanga Provincial Government

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23947314

Thesis submitted for the degree Doctor Philosophiae in Public Management and Governance at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University

Promoter: Prof HG van Dijk

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Maseke Pontšho Lydia Mabelane

Potchefstroom
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ABSTRACT

The study proposes a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the Mpumalanga Provincial Government. The theoretical bases for the study are the theoretical frameworks associated with Public Administration, Gender and Leadership within the context of the Public Service. The study is qualitative and has utilised a triangulation of methods that include literature review, self-administered semi-structured questionnaire and in-depth interviews for the collection of data. The unequal representation of women and men leaders in the Mpumalanga Provincial Government necessitated the need to conduct a study that could assist in ensuring that women leaders are sustainably available for higher leadership positions. The study identified that there is a supportive regulatory framework though not adequately implemented, reported upon, monitored or evaluated. Furthermore, the study identified challenges such as the non-supportive work environment, masculine organisational culture, culture and patriarchy, unequal identification and advancement of women leaders and compensation hampering the development of a sustainable pool of women leaders. The study proposes a strategy where focus is placed on implementing the regulatory framework adequately, establishing a supportive work environment, reviewing and creating synergy between human resource planning and human resource development and implementing both targeted training for women leaders as well as offering a mentoring and coaching programme in support of women’s leadership development. These focus areas are to be dealt with in collaboration of partners and in consultation with the relevant stakeholders to ensure the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

Key words: gender, women, leadership development, Mpumalanga Provincial Government, senior management service, middle management service, middle managers, senior managers.
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA: Affirmative Action
AGSA: Auditor General Southern Australia
AHRDP: Assessment of Human Resource Development practices
ANC: African National Congress
AMDP: Advanced Management Development Programme
BDPA: Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action
CEDAW: Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
CGE: Commission for Gender Equality
CGEA: Commission for Gender Equality Act
CEE: Commission for Employment Equity
CIMA: Chartered Institute of Management Accounts
CoGTA: Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
DARDLEA: Department of Agriculture, Rural Development, Land and Environmental Affairs
DCSR: Department of Culture, Sport and Recreation
DCSSL: Department of Community Safety, Security and Liaison
DEDT: Department of Economic Development and Tourism
DG: Director General
DHS: Department of Human Settlements
DoE: Department of Education
DoH: Department of Health
DPSA: Department of Public Service and Administration
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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>DSD:</td>
<td>Department of Social Development</td>
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<td>Department of Labour</td>
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<tr>
<td>EDD:</td>
<td>Economic Development Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDP:</td>
<td>Executive Development Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>EEA:</td>
<td>Employment Equity Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEAA:</td>
<td>Employment Equity Amendment Act</td>
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<tr>
<td>EEP:</td>
<td>Employment Equity Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPA:</td>
<td>Equal Pay Act</td>
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<tr>
<td>FFC:</td>
<td>Financial and Fiscal Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FME:</td>
<td>Free Management Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>GEAR:</td>
<td>Growth, Employment and Redistribution</td>
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<td>GESF:</td>
<td>Gender Equality Strategic Framework</td>
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<td>GFP:</td>
<td>Gender Focal Point</td>
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<td>GSAPS:</td>
<td>Graduate School of Asia and Pacific Studies</td>
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<td>HOD:</td>
<td>Head of Department</td>
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<td>HRD:</td>
<td>Human Resource Development</td>
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<td>HRDPS:</td>
<td>Human Resource Development in the Public Service</td>
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<td>HRDS:</td>
<td>Human Resource Development Strategy</td>
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<td>Human Resource Development Strategy South Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRM:</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
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<td>HRM&amp;D:</td>
<td>Human Resource Management and Development</td>
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<td>HRP:</td>
<td>Human Resource Planning</td>
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<td>HSMS:</td>
<td>Handbook on the Senior Management Service</td>
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ICPD: International Conference on Population Development

KPA: Key Performance Area

LRWC: Labour Rights Women Campaign

MDG: Millennium Development Goals

MEGDP: Mpumalanga Economic, Growth and Development Path

MHRDS: Mpumalanga Human Resource Development Strategy

MMDP: Middle Management Development Programme

MMS: Middle Management Service

MMSI: Middle Management Service Interview

MMSQ: Middle Management Service Questionnaire

MPG: Mpumalanga Provincial Government

MPGDS: Mpumalanga Growth and Development Strategy

MPBP: Mpumalanga Bursary Policy

MPPMDP: Mpumalanga Performance and Development Management Policy

MSG: Management Study Guide

NDP: National Development Plan

NGM: National Gender Machinery

NGP: New Growth Path

NPM: New Public Management

NQFA: National Qualifications Framework Act

NSA: National Skills Accord

NSG: National School of Government

OSW: Office on the Status of Women
OTP: Office of the Premier
PAMA: Public Administration and Management Act
PALAMA: Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy
PDP: Personal Development Plan
PEPUDA: Promotion of the Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act
PERSAL: Personnel Salary System
PESTEL: Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Environmental and Legal
PGM: Provincial Gender Machinery
PMC: Provincial management Committee
PMDS: Performance management System
POSDCORB: Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting
PSA: Public Service Act
PSC: Public Service Commission
PSCA: Public Service Commission Act
PSR: Public Service Regulations
PWG: Parliamentary Women’s Group
PWR&T: Public Works, Roads and Transport
SADC: Southern Africa Development Community
SADCPGD: Southern Africa Development Community Protocol on Gender and Development
SAHRC: South African Human Rights Commission
SASCWR: Sexual Assault Support Centre of Waterloo Region
SDA: Skills Development Act
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<td>Skills Development Levies Act</td>
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<td>Sector Education and Training Authority</td>
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<td>Senior Management Service Questionnaire</td>
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<td>State of the Public Service Report</td>
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<td>UNEGEEW</td>
<td>United Nations Entity on Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women</td>
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<td>UNW</td>
<td>United Nations Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USD</td>
<td>University of San Diego</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VISD</td>
<td>Vashon Island School District</td>
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<tr>
<td>WCHR</td>
<td>World Conference on Human Rights</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organisation</td>
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<td>WLF</td>
<td>Women in Leadership Forum</td>
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<td>WPTPS</td>
<td>White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service</td>
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<td>WSP</td>
<td>Workplace Skills Plan</td>
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1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Catalyst (2013:2) states that there is a correlation between the number of women serving as board members, as well as in senior leadership positions and the organisational performance. A study of Fortune 500 companies in the United States of America (USA) revealed that companies with three or more women as board members and executives tend to yield better organisational and financial performance, better corporate governance, less unethical behaviour, increased corporate social investment and improved corporate reputation (The Catalyst; 2013:3-9). A slow and noticeable increase of women leaders in work environments is acknowledged and regarded as an indication that women leaders are “distressingly unrepresented” (Sandler, 2014:61). Women are entering the paying work environment much later than men, because culture and patriarchy restricted them to childrearing, production of labour, support for their husbands and almost all the family responsibilities (Walby, 1990:29-30).

Progressive countries around the world have passed various legislative frameworks to improve the leadership development and advancement of women. However, an enabling and supportive legislative framework does not seem to translate into the expected results supported by the legislation.

The need arises to investigate the influences that impede women leaders from advancing into higher leadership positions, irrespective of the documented value that they bring to organisations. According to Eagly and Carli, (2003:825), there is an acknowledgement that women do not approach leadership the same way as men do. Further acknowledgement of the value of women leaders rests in the realisation that globalisation and national cultures dictate that male leadership preferences cannot continue to be as they were before. Work environments are becoming more diverse and women’s leadership styles are recognised as suitable in contemporary times.

Chapter One examines the equity-related regulatory framework that assists in realising that there is a disjuncture between what is mandatory and what is actually taking place in the Public Service. Thus, the equity-related regulatory framework
helps in identifying the problem of unequal representation and opportunities for women leaders in the Mpumalanga Provincial Government (MPG).

An overview discussion of the central theoretical statements ensues in Chapter One. The study is located in Public Administration Theory, with special emphasis upon how the Gender and Leadership Theories influence the function of public administration.

Chapter One also builds a case for the use of a qualitative approach in this study and outlines the research methods, research design, instruments used in the collection of primary data and the strategy used for the analysis of data. In observing the ethical protocol, a discussion on ethical considerations is also included.

The intention of the study is to contribute significantly to the current Public Administration body of knowledge and Chapter One discusses the related fields of study to which the study contributes. Furthermore, Chapter One illustrates how the chapters in the study are outlined, and concludes with a summary of the contents of the chapter.

The following section discusses the orientation and problem statement. This section explains the rationale behind the selection of the problem statement which the study addresses.

1.2 ORIENTATION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

Atkinson et al. (1993:223) support the perception that women in their majority are late comers to leadership positions in the Public Service and argue that women are South Africa’s “real gold that remains unmined”. To place emphasis upon women leaders in the Public Service, the South African Government drafted and passed an equity-related regulatory framework that must be implemented to protect and promote the rights of women. This regulatory framework, which focuses upon and promotes the development of women leaders, as well as establishes structures to protect equality, includes:

- the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 (hereinafter referred to as the Constitution, 1996) (South Africa, 1996a) Chapter 2, which includes the Bill of Rights promoting equality;
• the Public Service Act of 1994 (No. 103 of 1994) (hereinafter referred to as the PSA, 1994) as amended by the Public Service Amendment Act (No. 30 of 2007) with the Public Service Regulations (PSR), 2016, in which Sections 4 and 11 provide for, amongst others, the appointment of public servants that are mindful of equality and other democratic values (South Africa, 1994);

• the Commission for Gender Equality (CGE) established in terms of the CGE Act of 1996 (No. 39 of 1996) (hereinafter referred to as CGEA, 1996) Section 11, which makes provision for the monitoring and evaluation of gender and equity policies and practices in both the public and private sectors (South Africa, 1996b);

• the Employment Equity Act of 1998 (No. 55 of 1998) (hereinafter referred to as the EEA, 1998), in which Sections 5 and 6 stress the elimination and prohibition of unfair discrimination (South Africa, 1998a);

• the Skills Development Act of 1998 (No. 97 of 1998) (hereinafter referred to as the SDA, 1998)(South Africa, 1998b), in which Section 2(1)(c)-(e) makes provision for the creation of a workplace as an active learning environment, participation in leadership and training programmes and improving employability of previously disadvantaged persons, including women, through education, training and development;

• the Skills Development Levies Act of 1999 (No. 9 of 1999) (hereinafter referred to as the SDLA, 1999) (South Africa, 1999), in which Section 3 provides for the imposition of a minimum levy for employers to fund the training of its employees;

• the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act of 2000 (No. 4 of 2000) (hereinafter referred to as PEPUDA, 2000), which seeks to prevent, prohibit and eliminate unfair discrimination, hate speech and harassment, whilst also promoting equality (South Africa, 2000);

• the Gender Equality Strategic Framework, 2008 (hereinafter referred to as the GESF, 2008, (Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA), 2008a:1), which ensures that the empowerment of women through gender mainstreaming may remove barriers in the workplace and support women’s advancement; and

• the National Qualifications Framework Act of 2008 (No. 67 of 2008) (hereinafter referred to as the NQFA, 2008) (South Africa, 2008), in which
Sections 4 and 5 determine the approach to training and education which provides for allocation of minimal funding for training of all employees in an organisation, irrespective of gender and level. Depending upon an organisation’s focus and strategies, this funding becomes an enabling factor for women’s leadership development.

In promoting gender equality in the government and the legislature, structures are established to form the National Gender Machinery (NGM) comprising (PALAMA, 2009: 92-93; PSC, 2007:19-21; The Presidency, 2014):

- the national and provincial Offices on the Status of Women (OSWs) that are established in the Office of the Presidency and the Premiers respectively;
- the DPSA which led the development of the Gender Equality Strategic Framework, 2008 (GESF, 2008) and ensures its implementation in government;
- the Gender Focal Points (GFPs) and Women’s Forums in both national and provincial departments;
- the Parliamentary Women’s Group (PWG) and the Women’s Empowerment Units/Committees and the Committee on the Improvement of the Quality of Life of Women in Provincial Legislatures;
- civil society structures; and
- the Ministry of Women as established through the announcement of the members of the South African National Executive.

The following are independent statutory bodies which serve to enhance the development of women leaders by creating recourse and monitoring systems for aspects that are inclusive of women’s leadership development. The statutory bodies as established by Sections 182, 184, 187, 196 and 220 of the Constitution, 1996, and referred to in Section 11(e) of the CGEA, 1996, include the CGE, the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC), the Public Protector, the Public Service Commission (PSC) and the Financial and Fiscal Commission (FFC). The relevance of these statutory bodies in the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders lies in the respective responsibilities for the monitoring and evaluation of the equity-related regulatory framework, the protection of human rights that are inclusive of women rights, ensuring that the Public Service delivers services as per required standards, providing budgets to programmes that may have an impact upon
women's leadership development and advancing women with disabilities. Whilst the PSC ensures that the Public Service delivers services according to required standards, the standards most relevant to the development of women leaders are provided for in Section 195 (1) (h and i) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, which states that good human resource management and career development with the objective of maximising human potential, must be promoted and that public administration must be “...broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based upon ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation” (The Presidency, 2014; South Africa, 1996a; South Africa, 1996b).

The equity-related regulatory framework, the gender machinery and the statutory bodies mentioned above, are viewed as strategic initiatives for enhancing the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders. This is argued to be possible because these strategic initiatives are intended to increase women’s access to representation, participation and development into decision-making platforms, to eliminate barriers and to protect women’s rights and recourse in cases where the provisions of the legislative and regulatory framework are transgressed.

The South African Government furthers the development of women leaders’ access, participation and representation in decision-making, by being a signatory to international, continental and regional conventions, declarations and platforms of action that support the development of women leaders. They include:

- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948:6) (hereinafter referred to as the UDHR, 1948) Article 2, which entitles everyone to the right to basic human freedoms, such as equality, and Article 23, which protects the right to work, to free choice of employment and to equal pay for equal work without any kind discrimination or distinction.
- The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women of 1979 (hereinafter referred to as the CEDAW, 1979) Article 11, which promotes the right to equal job opportunities and equal remuneration and benefits for equal work (United Nations, 1979).
The World Conference on Human Rights of 1993 (hereinafter referred to as the WCHR, 1993) Article 18, which enshrines women’s rights as inalienable, integral and an indivisible part of universal human rights. Thus women have a right to full and equal participation in all aspects of life at all levels. Furthermore measures must be put in place to eradicate all forms of discrimination against them (United Nations, 1993).

The International Conference on Population and Development of 1994 (hereinafter referred to as the ICPD, 1994) Principle 4, which advances gender equality, equity and empowerment of women, whilst eliminating and eradicating all forms of violence and discrimination against women and enhancing their full and equal participation in all aspects of life.

The Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action of 1995 (hereinafter referred to as the BDPA, 1995) Strategic Objective G, on women in power and decision making, which provides for the resolution and expected actions by various entities (nations, governments and nongovernmental organisations) in ensuring the achievement of all forms of gender equality (United Nations, 1995:119).

The Sustainable Development Goals, 2015 (hereinafter referred to as the SDG, 2015) Goal 5, which promotes gender equality and empowerment of women (United Nations, 2016).

The Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA), 2004 (hereinafter referred to as the SDGEA, 2004) (African Union, 2004:2), which agrees to expand and promote the gender parity principle.

The Southern Africa Development Community Protocol on Gender and Development (SADCPGD), 2008 (hereinafter referred to as the SADCPGD, 2008), in which Articles 12, 13, 15, 17 and 19 expect that all signatory nations by 2015 should have adopted policies and enacted laws that enhance the effective representation and participation of women in decision-making through building capacity and ensuring equal access to employment opportunities and benefits (Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), 2008).

The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, 2011 (hereinafter referred to as the UNEGEEW, 2011), which provides that in all areas of life, women’s participation in decisions that affect
them is limited, and suggests that over and above quotas and creating more space for their participation, new skills are needed to enhance the realisation of their leadership potential (United Nations, 2011).

Seemingly, there is a gradual increase in women representation in parliaments, though the pace is slow (United Nations, 2012:24). The graph below represents a comparison between seats held by women in single or lower houses of parliament between 2000 and 2012.

![Graph showing women's representation in parliaments between 2000 and 2012.](image)

Figure 1.1: The United Nations comparison between seats held by women in single or lower houses of parliament between 2000 and 2012.


The MDG Report (United Nations, 2012:24) states that the increase represented graphically displays that by end-January 2012, women accounted for 19.7% of parliamentarians worldwide, which constituted a 44% increase compared to 2000. This shows that governments are generally slow in advancing and empowering women and this slow pace may have implications for their development. The study acknowledges that the advancement of women into senior management positions within the MPG also remains a challenge, as will be discussed in the following sections.

The national government has a 39.3% representation of women at the senior management service (SMS) level (Commission for Employment Equity (CEE), 2016:132), whilst the MPG has a 30.7% representation of women (MPG, 2016a).
The percentages in women leaders’ representation in all levels of the SMS is informed by the South African Cabinet Resolution of November 30, 2005, which determined that by March 31, 2009 there should be 50% representation of women at all the levels of the SMS (South Africa, 2008a:16). The argument is made that the advancement of women is not only achieved through representivity in order to comply with legislative provisions, but should be prioritised, since women bring their gender characteristics (Von Wahl, 2011:393), unique talents and business prowess (Anon, 2013:6) to the workplace, which emphasises the need to develop women leaders to occupy leadership positions.

The study focuses upon sustainable human development, with specific emphasis upon women’s development and the development of a strategy for creating a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. Sustainable human development is defined as “... development that promotes the integral human development of people today without compromising the integral human development of people tomorrow” (Gutiérrez, 2011). Gutiérrez (2011) explains that one dimension of sustainable human development is gender equality.

The creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders is the “act of bringing to existence” (BCA Concise Oxford Dictionary, 1991:272) a collective of women leaders that form a continuous critical mass of possible candidates for participation in leadership positions and representation at all levels of the SMS in the MPG. The inclusion of women in this group of leaders should be transparent, guided by pre-set criteria and enhanced by a clearly defined developmental plan for each woman leader.

In Table 1.1 below, a representation of women in the Middle Management Service (MMS) and the Senior Management Service (SMS) levels is provided. Only two departments, namely the Department of Health (DoH) and the Department of Social Development (DSD) have surpassed the target of 50% representation for women leaders in the MMS level while the DSD is the only Department that surpassed 50% representation of women leaders in the SMS level. The other 10 departments have not yet reached the target. The average representation of women in the 12 departments is 39.7% and 30.7% at MMS and SMS levels respectively, as at September 2016 (MPG, 2016a).
The analysis of the MPG 2016 September Employment Equity Statistics Report (MPG, 2016a) reveals that women make up 39.7% of the MMS levels and 30.7% of the SMS levels. SMS male managers are more than twice the number of SMS women managers, whereas MMS male managers are more than one and a half
times that of the MMS women managers in the MPG. The study thus develops a proposed strategy which addresses the current shortcomings in gender equality as evident in the MPG.

The study acknowledges that management development has been decentralised to provincial departments however, there is currently no provincially initiated management development programme targeting women. For instance, the Department of Agriculture, Rural Development, Land and Environmental Affairs had last invested in senior management development and training through the Executive Development Programme (EDP) during 2011 although without specifically targeting women (Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration, 2010:1).

Given the legislative framework, declarations, conventions and platforms of action, it can be argued that there is a political and legal will to develop women leaders. The GESF, 2008, Sections 2.1, 2.5-6 (DPSA, 2008a) identifies some possible barriers to women’s leadership development that include disrespect for the right to privacy and confidentiality, lack of advancement, lack of mentoring and training programmes and balancing family/ work expectations in a work environment fraught with sexual harassment. Furthermore, efforts to remove barriers experienced by women and to fast track their advancement are proposed (DPSA, 2008a). However, the will does not translate into the actual development and representation of female SMS leaders.

The purpose of the study is to develop a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in order to effect the necessary transformation.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study seeks to answer the following research questions:

- What are the leadership and gender theories underpinning the study?
- What are the political, economic and social environments and their influence upon the leadership development and advancement of women?
- What are the perceived impediments to the leadership development and advancement of women in the MPG?
- What strategy may be developed to create a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG?
1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives of the study are:

- to analyse the leadership and gender theories underpinning the study;
- to explore the political, economic and social environments and their influence upon the leadership development and advancement of women;
- to examine the perceived impediments to the leadership development and advancement of women in the MPG; and
- to develop a strategy that may be utilised to create a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

1.5 CENTRAL THEORETICAL STATEMENTS

Leadership development, and specifically women’s leadership development, is a human resource management and development (HRM&D) function, supported by a regulatory framework within the broader context of public administration. As a first theoretical departure point, Public Administration is defined as a field of study and is currently researched through a public governance paradigm or approach (as will be described in more detail in Chapter Two). Public governance is viewed as “... the complex matrix of relationships that exist, inter alia, between the Parliament and the Executive Government on the one hand, and ministers and the executive management of public sector agencies on the other hand, regarding responsibility and accountability for the management and control of public resources and the delivery of programmes and services. All parties have a responsibility to operate within the law and to manage public resources with prudence, probity and with due regard to economy, efficiency and effectiveness. They must also account for the way the resources have been used. As there exists an interrelationship amongst all of the parties, it is critical that responsibilities and accountabilities are clearly defined and acknowledged” (Auditor-General Southern Australia (AGSA), 2013).

Public governance is relevant to the study in as far as women leaders are supposed to be represented in the executive management of the Public Service. This representivity will enable them to contribute meaningfully to the management of public resources and the delivery of services, whilst operating within the law, with responsibilities and accountability being clearly defined and acknowledged.
The second theoretical departure point of the study relates to the Gender Theories. Gender Theories focus upon and attempt to understand the gender inequalities that exist in all interactions of women and men in all social settings (Lorber, 1997:9). Gender Theories are a departure point for the study, because the study focuses upon addressing the gender inequality that exists in the work and economic social setting. The gender inequality in the work and economic social setting manifests in the form of an unequal representation of women and men leaders in higher leadership positions. This unequal representation is influenced by aspects such as a lack of attention to leadership development and advancement of women, despite a supportive and mandatory equity related regulatory framework. In addition, the unequal representation of women leaders manifests in masculine organisational culture that perpetuates culture and patriarchy, and has a large gender wage gap (Hofstede, 2001:297). This also manifests through the preference of male leaders and is the main barrier to the advancement of women leaders (Lahti, 2013:40), it defines leadership in masculine terms, it values men leaders’ attributes, organises work to favour men leaders and puts men in charge to decide the fate of women leaders, and whether they progress or not into higher leadership positions (Vasquez, 2015).

The masculine organisational environment influences the development of a work environment that is not supportive of women leaders, to the extent that they may break their work service, discontinue their studies and choose not to compete for senior leadership positions, because they do not receive childcare support, amongst other factors. The sacrifices that women leaders make are influenced by the double burden syndrome that they face in relation to family responsibilities (Patel & Buiting, 2013:9). The Gender Theories as a departure point of the study are discussed in detail in Chapter Two and both the regulatory and organisational components that influence women’s leadership development and advancement are discussed from Chapter Three onward.

The following section discusses the methodology for the study. The study uses a qualitative approach in the research approach and design, the population and sampling, the instruments for data collection and the data analysis.
1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The methodology includes a literature review, the research design and the instrumentation used in the collection of data. The study uses a qualitative research case study design, with the data collection instruments including the documents, a semi-structured questionnaire and in-depth interviews that are discussed in detail below.

1.6.1 Research approach and design

The study utilises a qualitative research approach that employs qualitative research methods to both collect and analyse data. The sections below highlight the relevance of the choice of the research approach, research design and research methods, their advantages and disadvantages and the strategies used to mitigate the disadvantages.

The qualitative research approach is viewed as the most appropriate, since the study seeks to explore the women leaders’ views, perceptions and experiences regarding their leadership development, and to analyse the meaning and understanding thereof from their perspective for the purpose of developing a strategy. The qualitative research approach comprises the instrumentation that triangulates documents, a semi-structured questionnaire and in-depth interviews.

Silverman (2010:6,113-120) asserts that a qualitative research approach presents the following opportunities to a study:

- it emphasises in-depth knowledge whilst refining and elaborating on images and concepts that enhance the understanding of how the different parts or aspects of a case relate;
- it offers the respondents an opportunity to narrate their identities and ideas;
- it offers subjectivity and authenticity of human experience, because it represents the meaning and understanding of the respondents from their world view; and
- it gives the researcher an opportunity to listen to the respondents’ stories with a view to teasing out meaning and understanding of social phenomena from their perceptions.
De Vos et al. (2011:49) and Welman et al. (2005:34) are in agreement that a qualitative research approach provides an opportunity to apply inductive reasoning, where the study, through analysis of semi-structured questionnaires and transcripts from the in-depth interviews held with women, may contribute to an enhanced understanding of the challenges in the development of women for senior leadership positions. Creswell (2009:3,5) defines a research design as a plan, procedure and proposal for conducting a study which “…involves the interaction of philosophy, strategies of inquiry and specific methods …that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, data analysis and interpretation”. Mouton (1996:107) crystallises the concept of a research design by stating that it is a plan, procedure, proposal, route planner or “blue print” of the study, that is completed prior to the actual study, so that it may guide it like a map would guide a journey.

A single case study research design is utilised for data collection in the study. This is as a result of the emphasis laid upon generating in-depth knowledge (Ragin & Amoroso, 2011:112) that has to be induced from the respondents’ responses. Ragin and Amoroso (2011:114-115) further assert that the in-depth knowledge in qualitative research gives a unique voice (Silverman, 2010:6) to the respondents, helps in interpreting culturally or historically significant phenomena and advances theory. Detecting the relationships between various aspects of a phenomenon is enhanced by the in-depth knowledge collected on that particular phenomenon (Ragin & Amoroso, 2011:115).

Kumar (2011:126) defines a case as “...an individual, a group, a community, an instance, an episode, an event, a subgroup of a population, a town or a city”. Such a case thus becomes the focus of a thorough, holistic and in-depth exploration of the intended object of the study. In this study, the case is the MPG and the units of analysis of the study are the women leaders. The views and perceptions of a purposive sample of these women leaders about themselves and their leadership development for the development of a strategy is collected. These units of analysis comprise the women leaders currently serving at the MMS and the SMS levels.

The advantages of a single case study include the opportunity for an extensive exploration and the in-depth understanding of a phenomenon. The single case study as a qualitative research design involves emerging questions and procedures,
inductive analysis of data from general themes and the researcher interprets the data to produce research findings (Creswell, 2009:4).

However, its disadvantage is that findings cannot be generalised to “...a population beyond cases similar to those studied” (Terre Blanche et al., 2006:461; Kumar, 2011:127). The qualitative research design is viewed as appropriate, however, since it does not intend to make generalisations. The study seeks in-depth knowledge regarding women leaders and women’s leadership development within the MPG specifically, and the qualitative research design is appropriate to achieve comprehensive knowledge about a phenomenon.

The discussion on research approach and design leads to the discussion of the population and sampling choice, which in turn leads to the collection of the required data. The study followed a two level purposeful sampling of the units of analysis.

1.6.2 Population and sampling

The population of interest is the current employees in the twelve (12) departments of the MPG. Welman et al. (2005:51) contend that a population is the sum total of all the units of analysis of a study that the research aims to understand, regarding a phenomenon through their views and perceptions. Rubin and Babbie (2005:138) refer to units of analysis as people or things that social researchers study. Mouton (1996:91; 2001:51) agrees, by asserting that the unit of analysis is the object of the study or the “what” of the study. Units of analysis may be in the form of “…individuals, organisations, institutions, collectives, social objects, social actions or events and interventions” (Mouton, 1996:91).

The sampling occurs on two levels. The first level of sampling is according to gender (judgemental sampling) which includes all women who are in the MMS and SMS levels. The second level of sampling is also judgmental and includes the 40 women leaders who participated in the study.

In this study the population comprises a total of 71 927 employees. Of these employees 46 673 are women and 25 254 are men (MPG, 2016b). The units of analysis for the study are the women leaders appointed in MMS and SMS level positions in the twelve (12) departments of the MPG. The MMS and SMS levels cover salary levels 11 to 16.
The sample of the study is a non-probability judgemental or purposive sample, since not all of the 938 MMS and 204 SMS women leaders of the population of the MPG (MPG, 2016a) were required to have the opportunity to participate in the study. Judgemental sampling is dependent upon the researcher’s judgement in ensuring that the sample consists of the “… elements that contain the most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of a population that serve the purpose of the study best (De Vos et al., 2011:232).

A purposive sample is viewed as suitable for a qualitative study because it has the potential to provide “… complete and diverse information” (Kumar, 2011:213). The purposive sample is drawn in such a way that units of analysis from all of the 12 departments and the MMS and SMS leadership levels that cover salary levels 11-16 are included.

The advantage of utilising the purposive sample is that the respondents are believed to possess the knowledge sought (De Vos et al., 2011:342). One of the disadvantages of the purposive sample is the subjectivity in determining the saturation point in data collection (Kumar, 2011:213). The use of various data collection methods thus closes the gaps that exist between all the methods, which are inclusive of the documents, the questionnaire and the in-depth interview.

Through purposive sampling 32 women were selected to participate through the completion of the semi-structured questionnaire. Out of 32 questionnaires distributed, 23 were returned. The 23 respondents comprised 12 MMS level members and 11 SMS level members. Of the 22 in-depth interviewees selected, 17 consented to participate. The respondents in the in-depth interviews comprised 6 MMS level members and 11 SMS level members. Thus of the 40 respondents and interviewees, 18 were MMS level members and 22 were SMS level members.

The data collection through completion of semi-structured questionnaires and in-depth interviews was conducted from March to May 2016. The period was extended by the unavailability of the respondents that were sampled, since a purposive sample was utilised. Table 3.1 captures the distribution and return of unstructured questionnaires and the interviews planned and conducted.
Table 1.2: An illustration of the distribution of semi-structured questionnaires and in-depth interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Questionnaires issued</th>
<th>Questionnaires returned</th>
<th>In-depth interviews planned</th>
<th>In-depth interviews conducted</th>
<th>Total Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Office of the Premier</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Health</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial Treasury</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Economic Development and Tourism</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Agriculture, Rural Development, Land and Environmental Affairs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Culture, Sport and Recreation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Community Safety, Security and Liaison</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Social Development</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Human Settlements</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Public Works, Roads and Transport</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td><strong>23</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kumar (2011:213), Ragin and Amoroso (2011:117), Sarantakos (2000:156) and Welman et al. (2005:69) and argue that sampling in qualitative research is determined by the saturation point rather than representativeness, and the sample size is not statistically determined. The saturation point was reached when
responses for 15 questionnaires and 12 interviews were recorded, transcribed and analysed. From the above discussion of population and sampling, the study selects instruments suitable for a qualitative study and sampling. A discussion of the instruments in the collection of data follows in the next section. Documents, the semi-structured questionnaire and the in-depth interview were chosen as the data collection instruments.

1.6.3 Instruments in the collection of data

This section entails how the instruments discussed below are applied for data collection. The details of the women leaders in the MMS and SMS level were obtained from the MPG PERSAL System through the Office of the Premier (OTP) and the Provincial Treasury. The twelve (12) departments received the semi-structured questionnaires through the Heads of Departments (HODs), since all communication with the departments takes place through the HODs.

As stated earlier, the study utilises a triangulation of the documents, a semi-structured questionnaire and in-depth interviews as data collection methods. Triangulation is the process of utilising various sources and techniques, from prior to the decision of the research topic, right through research designs and methodology, to ethical considerations, data collection, analysis, interpretation, presentation, report writing and research publishing (Terre Blanche et al., 2006:380). In essence, to eliminate bias or possible design and methodological errors, where possible, the study utilises triangulation (Denzin, 1989:236). Yeasmin and Rahman (2012:154,156) further contend that triangulation enhances the validity and reliability of qualitative research. Thus this is proposed to be the reason for the study’s use of triangulation. The following sections describe the instruments mentioned above in more detail.

1.6.3.1 The literature review

The iterative nature between literature and all phases of research are critical to the study. Kumar (2011:31) and Mouton (2001: 86) suggest that the literature review is an integral part of the study and De Vos et al. (2011:133) agree by stating that the literature review “… is not completed at any one time in the research process”. The literature review of publications including academic books, academic journals, academic and government websites, government documents and reports is used to
inform the study. Mouton (2001:86) asserts that the literature review is the first phase of an empirical study that involves the review of existing knowledge on the intended research topic/problem. According to De Vos et al. (2011:134) the literature review manifests in demonstrating a thorough background knowledge of a phenomenon which constitutes a sufficient and necessary step towards understanding that phenomenon and also producing meaningful research to the relevant body of knowledge and practical application.

De Vos et al. (2011:87) and Welman et al. (2005:39) agree that some of the advantages of the literature review include giving perspective to a study whilst grounding it in a relevant larger body of knowledge, assisting in both the selection of a topic and the formulation of research questions, as well as the choice of both research design and research methodology.

De Vos et al. (2011:87) and Welman et al. (2005:39) further state that the literature review assists the researcher to avoid possible duplications and unnecessary repetitions of a study already done. In addition they state that the literature review may lead a researcher to concentrate on a particular different approach, using a different research design and research methodology, in order to conduct a similar study and, in so doing, save the resources that could have been wasted should the researcher not have performed it in that manner.

De Vos et al. (2011:144-145) contend that other advantages of a literature review include:

- exposing the researcher to challenges that a particular study of interest may have had and thus preparing the study to mitigate such challenges when they emerge;
- enhancing the researcher’s confidence in the research processes from a vantage point of knowledge, since cues and suggestions on how to better approach the study are provided;
- assisting in identifying differences between the existing body of knowledge, findings during data analysis and interpretation and also the checking of consistency between them; and
- providing the researcher with the necessary motivation to proceed with the study in the quest to contribute to the relevant body of knowledge.
Creswell (2009:180) and De Vos et al. (2011:379) maintain that the use of documents helps the study to attain the language and the words of the authors who may not necessarily be the women leaders participating in the study. Such documents would be easily accessible at a convenient time to the study, are likely to present data that was thought of thoroughly during compilation and may save the cost of transcribing.

Kumar (2011:31) claims that a literature review has the potential to be time consuming, daunting and frustrating. Similarly De Vos et al. (2011:238) assert that a literature review may frighten rather than encourage researchers, as a result of the volumes of literature that they may have to review. Creswell (2009:180) contends that people are not equally articulate and perceptive, some information is classified which would not be available for the purposes of research, some materials may be incomplete, or some documents may not be authentic or accurate. Furthermore, De Vos et al. (2011:135-141), Kumar (2011:31-42) and Mouton (2001:86-97) detail the aims, processes and sources of a literature review. The study argues that the disadvantages of the literature review could be embedded in the researcher’s inability to plan for the review, to find the relevant sources, to gain and apply the knowledge on how a literature review can assist the study and also to put aside resources necessary for conducting the literature review.

In order to mitigate these disadvantages, the study devises a process for executing the literature review, defines key words and information sources, consults various databases and develops a proper filing system that will be maintained, and develops a working bibliography (Terre Blanche et al., 2006:22-29, 316). These actions help to ensure that valuable data sources are separated from irrelevant ones and hence save time from reading possibly irrelevant information. The disadvantages regarding authenticity, accuracy and completeness of documents is mitigated through the utilisation of various forms of publications that are inclusive of academic books, both published and electronic, academic journals, both published and peer reviewed, as well as electronic, academic internet sites, government documents inclusive of MPG documents and conference papers and reports.

For this study, additional information was sourced from:

- The EBSCO database
• The SAePublications database
• The HSRC database
• The North-West University on-line library
• The MPG central on-line library

1.6.3.2  The semi-structured questionnaire

The primary data collection method for the study is the self-administered semi-structured questionnaire containing Section A detailing structured demographic questions and Section B comprising open-ended questions. Kumar (2011:145) contends that a questionnaire is a written list of questions that are read, interpreted and responded to by the respondents, by writing the responses directly onto it.

The open-ended questions are utilised so that the women leaders’ views, perceptions and experiences about women leaders and women’s leadership development, for the development of the strategy in question, may be gleaned from their responses. Open-ended questions are questions that are formulated without prompting the respondents to respond in a particular way, within a particular range of answers, or without providing possible responses (Babbie, 2016: 231; Kumar, 2011:151; Welman et al., 2005:174).

One of the advantages of open-ended questions is that the researcher or questionnaire is unable to influence the response of the participant. Open-ended questions further provide the respondents with an opportunity to express themselves freely (Kumar, 2011:151; Terre Blanche et al., 2006:486; Welman et al., 2005:175). Open-ended questions are utilised in both the semi-structured questionnaire and the in-depth interviews in this study.

The disadvantage for the open-ended questions is manifested in the difficulty with which the collected data is analysed. De Vos et al. (2011:403-418) claim that in mitigating the difficulty in analysis of the data collected through semi-structured questionnaires, the following maybe considered:

• timely and methodical steps in preparing the data for analysis, such as preparing and organising the data through planning for recording of data, data collection and preliminary analysis;
• managing and reading the data and writing memos;
• reduction of data through generating categories;
• coding the data, testing emerging understandings, searching for alternative explanations and interpretations; and
• developing typologies.

Kumar (2011:148) suggests that the advantage of utilising a questionnaire is that it is less expensive and that it offers greater anonymity. Since questionnaires are delivered to specific women leaders who will be respondents in the study (De Vos et al. 2011:195), after the purposive sampling takes place, it is argued that the response rate to the questionnaire will be increased (De Vos et al., 2011:195). The code on the questionnaire is as follows and is allocated when the questionnaire is received: the respondents are coded according to their participation in the semi-structured questionnaires as MMSQ (middle management service questionnaire) or SMSQ (senior management service questionnaire). MMSI and SMSI will denote the members of the MMS and SMS respectively who participated in the in-depth interviews. The numbers following the MMSQ or SMSQ, MMSI or SMSI identifiers are used for further differentiating the respondents. For instance, MMSQ5 denotes the fifth MMS respondent out of the total of 23 respondents from both MMS and SMS levels.

De Vos et al., (2011:195-196), Kumar (2011:149) and Neuman (2006:298) assert that some of the disadvantages of the questionnaire are low response rates and self-selecting bias, where the women leaders may choose not to return the questionnaire. Babbie (2016:258) asserts that a combination of techniques in the distribution and return of the self-administered semi-questionnaires increases the response rate. The mitigation in the study was the sending of questionnaires to specific women leaders (since the sample is purposeful), timing the sending of questionnaires so that this will not coincide with major holidays and presenting a neatly arranged questionnaire of reasonable length, simple language and clear instructions. Follow-ups were undertaken when the questionnaires were not returned.

Kumar (2011:149) further states that other disadvantages of a questionnaire are the lack of opportunity to clarify issues, the lack of spontaneous answers, the influence of the response of one of the questions in the questionnaire, the possibility of consulting other respondents and the lack of supplementing the response with other
information. The study mitigates the disadvantages by utilising the triangulation of methods where the in-depth interviews will be utilised, since the interview offers an opportunity to clarify issues. As already alluded to above, 23 respondents completed the semi-structured questionnaire. A copy of the semi-structured questionnaire is included as Annexure A.

1.6.3.3 The in-depth interview

In-depth interviews are also called unstructured interviews (De Vos et al., 2011:347,348; Welman et al., 2005:166). These interviews are defined as informal interviews that are used to explore a phenomenon of interest in depth and do not use an interview schedule (Welman et al., 2005:166,197). In-depth interviews are used to understand the views, perceptions and experiences of respondents and the meaning they attach thereto (De Vos et al., 2011:348).

The in-depth interviews present to the study an opportunity to ask about sensitive and highly emotional issues and allow room for the women leaders to reveal their feelings and beliefs regarding women’s leadership development (Welman et al., 2005:166,197). In-depth interviews are regarded as effective in helping with the collection of large amounts of data effectively and fast, since one participant is involved at a time and has sufficient time to share experiences, creating an opportunity to ask probing questions and allow interesting and relevant issues to emerge, whilst the participant is also able to ask clarity-seeking questions during the interview (De Vos et al., 2011:349-350, 360). The in-depth interviews conducted through face-to-face meetings comprised a structured demographic Section A and an unstructured open ended Section B.

The in-depth interviews involved 17 respondents of whom 6 are from the MMS and 11 are from the SMS management levels as previously mentioned. To assist with the capturing of the data in the in-depth interviews, notes are taken and an audio tape is utilised with the informed consent of the participants (Terre Blanche et al., 2006:298; De Vos et al., 2011:359).

A disadvantage of the in-depth interview is viewed as the fact that it tends to be lengthy, repetitive and expensive (Welman et al., 2005:201). In mitigating this disadvantage, the study utilises a qualitative research approach that does not
demand huge numbers of respondents to be interviewed. Thus, a manageable number of 17 women leaders were interviewed.

Furthermore, De Vos et al. (2011:360) assert that in-depth interviews would not be helpful in data collection if the women leaders were not willing to open up and share their views, perceptions and experiences freely. Furthermore, they would not be useful if the researcher's questions failed to elicit the desired responses, the responses were misconstrued or untruthful and the potential for intimacy to develop affected the flow of the in-depth interview adversely. The creation of an atmosphere conducive for in-depth interviewing and a good rapport with the women leaders, the structuring of the questions clearly and utilising simple and plain language, might enhance the likelihood of questions being interpreted the same way by all the participants (De Vos et al. 2011:360; Terre Blanche et al., 2006:317; Welman et al., 2005:199). A copy of the interview guide used during the interviews is included as Annexure B.

The following section discusses the data analysis processes in the study. Triangulation of methods is utilised to ensure credibility and transferability.

1.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Babbie (2007:378) reasons that data analysis involves the inductive reasoning based upon the non-numerical examination and interpretation of views and perceptions of the women leaders, in this instance, as contained in the semi-structured questionnaire and the in-depth interview transcripts, with the objective of deriving underlying meaning and patterns of relationships between the portions of data. Creswell (2009:184) contends that data analysis is an on-going process that will involve continual reflection about the data, which takes place concurrently with data capturing, making interpretations and writing reports.

Creswell (2009:185-189) and Kumar (2011:278) claim that the steps to be followed in the data analysis process will be to organise and prepare data, to begin detailed analysis with coding a process to generate the description of categories or themes, to indicate how the categories and emergent themes will be represented in qualitative narrative and to interpret the meaning of the data. Coding refers to a process in which data is organised into chunks or segments before meaning is brought to it (Rossman & Rallis, 1998:171). The literature review yielded broad
themes under which questions were developed for data collection. Findings, as presented in Chapter four, are thematically categorised and discussed.

The study determines its quality by assessing its credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (De Vos et al., 2011:420-421; Kumar, 2011:185) and the criteria for assessing quality is further explained as follows:

- Credibility or authenticity is evident when a study has clear parameters and the primary data is derived from the units of analysis utilising qualitative methods. In increasing the credibility of the study, a triangulation of methods and member checks are utilised. Thus, the study has current women leaders from salary levels 11-16 as a parameter, and also uses a triangulation of methods in collecting primary data, wherein the single case study, the documents, the semi-structured questionnaires and in-depth interviews are utilised. De Vos et al. (2011:420) contend that transferability is a criterion of quality assessment wherein the research findings of one study are transferable to another study. The challenge is that another researcher may not be able to discern whether the findings of the study are transferable or not. The original study needs to assist transferability by unambiguously stating the research design, methods, data collection, analysis and interpretation processes. De Vos et al. (2011:420) further claim that the triangulation of sources of data is regarded as another aspect that may enhance the transferability of the study. Thus this study states explicitly the research design, methods and data collection, analysis and interpretation processes to assist the transferability of the study.

- De Vos et al. (2011:420) assert that transferability may be enhanced by an extensive description of the phenomenon on which the study focuses. The study utilises purposive sampling and, in writing up the research report, an extensive description of the findings is made, thus increasing the transferability of the study. Kumar (2011:185) suggests that increasing transferability entails the researcher detailing the research methodology, which this study has done.

- Dependability is a total measure of the diligence in documenting and auditing the study in a logical manner (De Vos et al., 2011:420). A reference list of all documents utilised is kept, all received completed questions are marked with
the relevant codes and the in-depth interviews are recorded, transcribed and
coded accordingly. Themes were teased out of similar responses that were
further divided into sub-themes.

- Confirmability seeks to verify whether the findings of the study could be
  confirmed by another researcher (Kumar, 2011:185). Furthermore, De Vos et
  al. (2011:421) contend that in confirmability, the study is expected to provide
  “...evidence that corroborates the findings and interpretation” when auditing
takes place. The study has well-kept records for the purposes of any auditing
that may need to take place.

The following section discusses the limitations and delimitations of the study.
Limitations and delimitations of the study are necessitated by the fact that the
practicality of conducting the study within reasonable time is a critical element in
finalising the study.

1.8 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

The study is delimitated to the boundaries of the MPG, since the MPG is the single
case of the study. The respondents are delimitated to the women leaders that are
currently serving the MPG, at the MMS and SMS levels. This choice of respondents
excludes other possible respondents in other levels that are both male and female,
and those that may have left the Public Service, and especially the MPG, for various
reasons and may have considerable knowledge and expertise around the
development and advancement of women leaders in the MPG.

The qualitative research approach that utilises a single case study, semi-structured
questionnaire and in-depth interviews is not aimed at making generalisations to other
populations which could have been provided by a choice of another research
approach, design and methodology. In addition, the chosen research approach,
design and triangulation of methods is viewed as appropriate for the development of
a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The
fact that the research approach, design and methods will not lead to a generalisation
is a limitation in itself.

Ethical considerations are discussed in the next section. This is necessary because
collecting data, whether from the respondents or from the literature review, is done
within an ethical protocol to ensure that the study is credible.
1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Mouton (2001:238), ethical considerations encompass the aspects that are considered to be wrong or right in the various processes of conducting research. Taking ethical considerations into account, the study refrains from abusing the respondents verbally, physically, psychologically or emotionally (Mouton, 2001:243,245; Ragin & Amoroso, 2011:79). The nature of the data collection methods is such that there is no opportunity to abuse the respondents. The researcher guards against any possible verbal abuse when the in-depth interviews are conducted.

The respondents sign an informed consent form prior to the interview and they are informed that, should they become uncomfortable as a result of the interview, they may request to be excused. Furthermore, the privacy of the respondents is respected through consultations on appropriate venues and times (Mouton, 2001:243; De Vos et al., 2011:117). To protect confidentiality and the anonymity of the respondents, they are coded when quotations from the responses are utilised in the write-up of the thesis. Respondents are informed that their responses are only utilised for academic purposes. The introductory part of the semi-structured questionnaire and the in-depth interview guide consent form captures this aptly in Annexures A and B respectively.

The study does not fabricate nor falsify data, plagiarise other scholars’ work or ideas, take credit for others’ work, give credit to someone who has not contributed, or not recognise scholars that have contributed and does not deceive the respondents with regard to either the research process or the results (Mouton, 2001:240-241; Ragin & Amoroso, 2011:81).

The section on the significance of the study discusses the value that the study contributes to the existing body of knowledge. The study aims to contribute to Gender Theory, Leadership Theory and Public Administration Theory.

1.10 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study seeks to make a contribution in the fields of women’s leadership, public governance and management, human resource management and development and strategy development. The study has an influence upon gender mainstreaming and
leadership development programmes, in that it may assist in the development of such programmes.

The sustainable leadership development of women leaders is likely to have an added advantage in the MPG because the study transcends the notion of appointing women leaders for compliance purposes, and aims for appreciation of the fact that they add diversity through their leadership styles. Thus the study focuses upon the contribution that women leaders are capable of bringing into leadership positions, when given an opportunity to participate in such positions. The value added by women leaders in the Public Service contributes to the discussion of public governance in the context of Public Administration.

The study further espouses a value for diversity that manifests in the equal representation of women leaders and their participation in higher leadership positions. This value ensures that diverse perspectives would influence the decision making processes and the way organisations are governed.

The study is based upon a single case study research design, which does not generalise findings to other similar populations. There is the potential though, that other researchers and other provinces may utilise the study for further research purposes, or to inform strategies developed for women’s leadership that would be customised to the needs of the provinces that may commission such research.

The study captures the value of the Leadership, Gender and Public Administration Theories in presenting women’s leadership as leadership better suited for global, contemporary and turbulent times in 21st Century organisations. Public Administration Theory benefits from the fact that leadership development and advancement of women leads to the optimal utilisation of the talent that the Public Service contains. The existence of the women leaders in the Public Service necessitates a change in the current masculine organisational culture.

The following section discusses the chapter layout of the six chapters that constitute the study. The chapters seek to address the research objectives that are mentioned above.
Chapter One contains the orientation to the study, the problem statement and the theoretical statements. These are then followed by the research questions, the research objectives and the research methodology. The research methodology is inclusive of the research approach, the research design, the data analysis, the data collection and the sampling methodology, instrumentation and unit of analysis. Furthermore, Chapter One includes the terminological aspects, limitations and delimitations of the study (challenges to the study and to the researcher), ethical considerations, significance of the study and chapter layout.

Chapter Two contains the literature review on the Leadership Theory and the Gender Theory underpinning the study. This chapter addresses the objective of analysing the Leadership and Gender Theories underpinning the study. These theories form the point of departure for the study.

Chapter Three analyses the political, economic and social environments and their influence upon the development of women leaders. These environments are critical to the study because there are a number of aspects of women’s leadership that are influenced by these environments and are discussed in detail in this chapter.

Chapter Four examines the challenges in the MPG in relation to women’s leadership development. This chapter addresses the objective of the study that explores the perceived impediments to the development of women leaders in the MPG. These impediments are critical to the study because they provide some clarity surrounding the development and advancement of women leaders and indicate areas that need focused attention in order to address the impediments.

Chapter Five proposes the development of a strategy for creating a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The basis for the strategy is the literature review and the analysed findings of the study. As such, the chapter will incorporate the findings in the development of the strategy.

Chapter Six comprises the conclusions and recommendations emanating from the study. The recommendations are the conceptual proposed strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.
1.12 CONCLUSION

The development and advancement of women leaders is not only for compliance purposes, but is mandatory as per the provisions of the enabling and supportive equity-related regulatory framework. The study develops a proposed strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG which is viewed as a vehicle for the MPG to be able to satisfy its women's leadership needs.

Women’s leadership development and advancement taps into gender and Public Administration as theoretical departure points. The study is qualitative in nature and utilises qualitative research methodology to carry out the research, using the MPG as the case study.

Chapter One outlines the orientation and theoretical statements and the qualitative methodology chosen for the study to present its problem statement and distinguish its research approach. Limitations and delimitations, ethical considerations and the significance of the study are encompassed, to establish parameters, express the challenges to the study, observe ethical protocols and highlight the contribution that the study seeks to make. The study contributes to the fields of study of leadership, gender and Public Administration. The chapter ends with an outline of all the chapters, which streamlines how the various chapters address the research objectives.

Following on from Chapter One is the discussion of Chapter Two which contextualises the study within the theories of Leadership, Gender and Public Administration. Chapter Two supports the need for the development and advancement of women leaders and thus forms a foundation for the creation of a sustainable group of women leaders in the MPG.
CHAPTER 2: A THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP AND GENDER THEORIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The study seeks to develop a proposed strategy for creating a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The study is embedded in the Public Administration Discipline where women and men as public servants employed by the State deliver services to the citizens as clients of that State, through the application of public administration functions. The clients of the State also constitute a heterogeneous community comprising women and men of different ages, races and different backgrounds.

This chapter provides a theoretical discussion and analysis of the concepts and theories associated with public administration, leadership and gender. Since public servants operate within a public administrative environment, both the discipline and function of public administration will now be described.

2.2 DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

There is a need to differentiate between Public Administration as a discipline and public administration as a practice. Thornhill and Van Dijk (2010:95) state that Public Administration relies upon related disciplines to explain, direct and inform its research and practice. Public Administration entails the study of human beings who perform administrative and managerial duties in the context of organs of state. Naidoo (2005:68) and Smith (2014:1) contend that Public Administration is what higher education institutions offer as an academic discipline, whilst public administration practice is what government agencies do.

The study argues that Public Administration studies the behaviours and actions of human beings in any organ of state; comprising the public servants, including women, in senior management positions, who deliver services. Considering the fact that women and men may demonstrate different behaviours, the study argues that conceptualising the contribution that women leaders make to service delivery is necessary. Thus, the different behaviours that are contributed by women to the delivery or practice of public services through public administration become essential to enhance public services.
Thornhill *et al.* (2014:15) maintain that “Public Administration in essence concerns the study of the system required to ensure that a policy framework exists; that a system is established to acquire human resources to perform the function assigned to the institution; that an organisational structure is constructed to enable every employee to have certainty regarding his or her duties and that procedures are in place to call every official to account if he or she has not performed the assigned duties”. The definition reveals the vastness of the discipline, how the activities in public administration are practised and also how public servants are acquired, placed in various positions and regulated.

Public administration entails the management and administration of public institutions, interactions of public institutions with their stakeholders and the dynamic process that leads to delivery of services to the citizens. Public administration evolved from engaging in the activities of planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting (POSDCORB) which are both strategic and operational to more contemporary approaches such as New Public Management (NPM) and Public Governance (Gulick & Urwick, 1937:13; Basheka, 2012:42; Thornhill *et al.*, 2014:7-23).

Fox *et al.* (2004:2), Naidoo (2005:68), Mfene, (2009:210-211) and Louw (2012:90) define public administration as a system of structures and processes that operate in a certain context for facilitating the development and efficient execution of government policy. The context of operation alludes to the changing environments within which public administration is practised. The study argues that for example, public administration in the era where leadership is dominated by male leaders would not be the same as when the leadership is equally representative of women and men leaders. The nature of the structures and processes is bound to respond to the presence of women in leadership positions.

Du Toit and Van der Waldt (1999:9-10) claim that public administration embodies the work of public servants in the total spectrum of government institutions which contribute to the achievement of predetermined goals in the three spheres of government. Theletsane (2013:175) asserts that the public servants should display more professionalism in their quest to execute policy making and analysis and public service delivery, in contributing to the achievement of the government’s goals.
Professionalism in the Public Service introduces the angle of the quality, standards and ethics in the delivery of services.

The study suggests that the practice of public administration demands public servants, irrespective of their gender, to be experts in their fields. Over and above women leaders being professionals themselves, it becomes imperative for them to also have skills on how to lead their followers who are supposed to be professionals. Thus, the study conceptualises leadership and gender as important elements in public administration. The subsections that follow discuss the development of Public Administration, including leadership and gender, in the context of the discipline.

2.2.1 The Paradigmatic development of Public Administration

Thornhill and Van Dijk (2010:99) state that from the 16th Century, the model for the administrative organisation in Western Europe was the State. The State needed an organisation that would implement law and order and also set up a defensive structure. This type of organisation necessitated an increasing need for public servants with expertise in taxes, statistics, administration and the military.

This need for public servants with expertise marked the early stages of the development of the discipline of Public Administration. This section covers the development of the discipline and the practice of public administration, so as to outline the context within which women’s leadership development is taking place. The development of Public Administration will be illustrated through the discussion of the various paradigms through which it evolved.

These paradigms are the politics/administrative dichotomy, the bureaucratic approach, public administration as management or public administration as politics (identity crisis), the NPM Paradigm and currently the Public Governance Paradigm (Henry, 1975:379-385; Naidoo, 2005:67-74; Vyas-Doorgaspersad & Simmonds, 2009:7-19; Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010:99-95; Basheka, 2012:34-63; Thornhill, 2014: 4-23). A paradigm is an overarching, intellectual perspective or view that serves as an example, model or pattern that drives the field of study (Smith, 2014; Business Dictionary, 2014). The discussion of these paradigms follows in the next section.
2.2.1.1 The Politics/Administrative Dichotomy in Public Administration

This paradigm emerged from Woodrow Wilson’s argument of major distinctions between politics and administration, where politics expresses the will of the State and administration executes the will of the State (Wilson, 1887:210; Henry, 1975:379; Graduate School of Asia and Pacific Studies (Basheka, 2012:36; Graduate School of Asia and Pacific Studies (GSAPS), 2008;). The paradigm places public administration at the centre of government bureaucracy. The attention to Public Administration as a separate discipline came about as a result of the notion of it being a subfield of Political Science, where Political Science departments at universities were expected to train public administrators (Henry, 1975:379). A key assumption and strategy in the paradigm is the separation of politics and the administration functions of government to promote efficiency and effectiveness. There is furthermore a belief that there is a difference between administration in the public and the private sectors (Basheka, 2012:33).

While the paradigm acknowledges public administration as the execution of public policies decided upon within the political environment, no specific attention is provided for a gender focus. The paradigm argues for public servants to be trained in order to fulfil their function, and as such, from the origin of the discipline a specific focus has been placed upon human resource development (HRD). This emphasis upon development through training gained much attention in the subsequent paradigm, as discussed in the next section.

2.2.1.2 The Bureaucratic Approach

The end of the Second World War and the change from a rural agricultural society to an urban industrialised society in both the USA and Western Europe influenced a change in public administration as a result of new functions and programmes that it had become necessary to establish. Urbanisation necessitated the expansion of public works, public wealth and public safety (GSAPS, 2008).

The paradigm introduced a new thrust within public administration focused upon the existence of specific administrative principles. A non-exhaustive list of these administrative principles includes unity of command, a pyramid of prescribed controls, unity of direction, scalar chain, specialisation of tasks and subordination of
individual interests to the general organisational interest (A Dictionary of Sociology, 1998).

Public administrators’ expertise is expected to be enhanced through training and learning the application of the principles. By virtue of administrators having contributed a lot to the development of the principles, they were then expected to lead in the application of the principles in real world organisations. The principles were viewed as being applicable across the board to both public and private organisations (Henry, 1975:379).

The study argues that Public Administration studies the behaviour of public servants, and that such behaviour should be managed. Thus, the principles seek to ensure that expected behaviour from different public servants is aligned to the set principles. These principles enhance the professionalism that is expected from the public servants, and are implemented within a bureaucratic approach to Public Administration. Bureaucracy refers to “... a system characterised by a division of labour, a clearly defined hierarchy, a formal selection, formal rules and regulations, impersonality and career orientation” (Basheka, 2012:44).

According to the definition of bureaucracy, the more the public services become complex, the more it becomes necessary for structuring of the delivery of public services, with the concomitant emphasis upon providing public servants capable of delivery of these services. All public servants need to have a clear understanding of the scope of their work and be properly trained, appropriate to the level that they occupy in the hierarchy. This paradigm emphasises the importance of training. Thus, the current emphasis upon HRD emerged from early on in the evolution of the discipline, while the specific emphasis upon gender within human resource development has only recently been emphasised.

The level at which a public servant enters the Public Service is a building block in the career orientation of the public servant. Academic qualifications and experience are also important elements that affect the possible rise into higher leadership positions (DPSA, 2015a:8; Statistics SA, 2015:3).

The study argues that as Public Administration evolved, the need for a clearly defined hierarchy in the placement and development of public servants, formal selection and career orientation arose. A clearly defined hierarchy is informed by the
fact that public servants at different levels perform different public administration functions. The higher a public servant is placed in the echelons of the hierarchy, the more influential is the public servant on policy formulation and decision making. The fact that the study questions the gender of the public servants in higher leadership positions is informed by the need for the hierarchy to display the demographics of the public servants in respect of gender too.

The study further maintains that formal selection seeks to ensure that public servants with the correct expertise are appointed to enhance the delivery of public services. The study also suggests that for women leaders to move from the entry level to the higher echelons of the clearly defined hierarchy, the need arises for a career orientation, necessary leadership development programmes and an enabling supportive organisational environment.

The discussion of the paradigm of Public Administration as a Political Science or Business Management follows. This paradigm contends that the principles of Public Administration are insufficient for dealing with the complexities of public administration of the relevant era.

2.2.1.3 Public Administration as Business Management or Public Administration as Political Science

While the previous paradigm focused upon the content of what should be taught as part of the Public Administration Paradigm, this paradigm is locus centred. The debate arose that since Public Administration did not develop from a specific theoretical context, it should not really be categorised as a separate discipline. The question then became one of should it be incorporated into its mother discipline, Political Science, or should it be integrated into Business Management, since the focus of the discipline is upon administrative functions. This identity crisis means that within the discipline, not much emphasis is placed upon furthering its own theoretical basis.

Smith (2014:3) claims that politics matter and that there cannot be a complete separation of politics from administration. Through this paradigm politics and administration may be viewed as two sides of the same coin. The study argues that the inseparableness of politics and administration sets the platform for delivery of public services, since the public servants would appreciate that their performance is
within a political context. Hence administration in a political context is meant to enhance rather than hinder the delivery of services.

The growth in public service delivery complexity necessitated a renewed emphasis upon the focus and content of Public Administration as a discipline. Thus, the following section discusses NPM.

2.2.1.4 The New Public Management Paradigm

The wave of NPM was felt between 1980 and 2005 (Margetts & Dunleavy, 2013). NPM is a paradigm that promotes principles of decentralised, democratic and free-market oriented Public Service, which embraces values of professionalism, increased accountability, performance orientation, responsiveness, and a focused sense of maximum efficiency (Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010:104; Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2011:239). Naidoo (2005:73) maintains that NPM is outcome-based and citizen oriented. It focuses upon empowering the leaders whilst holding them accountable and ensuring that performance appraisal against set standards and public service efficiency are achieved.

The necessity arose to reconceptualise and to rethink public administration and management with regard to area of operation. Political changes and the need to respond to increasing needs and demands from society further warranted a new approach to the study of Public Administration. NPM is an administrative agenda inclusive of privatisation, deregulation and reconceptualisation of the appropriate role of the government in both the economy and society (Louw, 2012:93).

Embracing NPM is the appreciation of its ability to go beyond the limits of separating politics from administration. NPM utilises economic market forces for both political and administrative relationships. It satisfies the demands of the public through rational inputs and outputs that have little or no consideration for common good. NPM, through exposing organisations to economic market forces, encourages a competitive spirit and influences the replacement of the language of politics that embodies equity, fairness and common good with the language of contracts (Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010:104). The essence of NPM is the desire to apply private sector and business principles in the delivery of public services, “… to run government like a business” (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000:550).
The private sector was viewed as having solutions to the failing public sector and thus government was to be injected with an entrepreneurial spirit. The entrepreneurial spirit is displayed by “someone who dares to dream, to succeed in a business venture without or with very little start-up capital, knowledge, systems and structures positioned to support such a venture, but still engages in that venture anyway” (Atah, 2016). The paradigm recommended the implementation of business-like approaches and techniques from the private sector to deal with public service inefficiencies. In this era the Public Service was viewed as failing to implement the national development plans (Basheka, 2012:51-52).

NPM is regarded to have challenged and gradually supplanted the traditional practices of public administration because of the high degree of efficiency, effectiveness and promptness in governing processes that are encompassed. NPM stipulates that the success of the governing process is premised upon the comprehensive understanding of the perceptions of the public about the Public Service and the extent to which public institutions are able to anticipate and are aware of public needs. Furthermore, NPM seeks to transport the entrepreneurial model that is viewed as being able to improve efficiency and reduce costs from the private sector to the public sector. NPM is advantageous to public managers through the provision of a variety of options of service to the public from which they can make choices, rather than providing one type of service with the pretence that it will satisfy a variety of citizens (Pillay, 2002:116).

The study acknowledges that through NPM a renewed focus has been placed not only upon ensuring appropriate HRD, but placing this within the context of both organisational and individual performance management.

The results oriented nature of NPM led to production of numbers being a justification for existence. Numbers became more important than the welfare of the society served. Thus the criticism of NPM was that it was obsessed with outcomes. However, ensuring responsiveness through the use of the effective management tools and techniques is a positive from the NPM that may not be discarded (Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010:104).

The study argues that the paradigm aligns itself to, amongst others, the democratic principles of accountability, transparency and responsiveness. In promoting
effectiveness and efficiency, a focus for making sure that public servants are appropriately selected, trained and developed becomes imperative. While NPM as a paradigm is evident in many features found in the Public Service today (i.e. in performance management), the discipline itself has evolved further through a new paradigm, namely Public Governance.

2.2.1.5 The Public Governance Paradigm

Africa’s development problems were blamed upon a crisis in governance where governance is referred to as “...the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country’s affairs....comprises the complex mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, mediate their differences and exercise their legal rights and obligations” (Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010:105). Basheka (2012:57-58) shares a similar perspective by defining governance as “the exercise of power in managing the affairs of the nation”. Pillay (2002:112) asserts that good governance is inclusive of transparent, accountable, efficient and equitable public services that ensure that the priorities of the public service are achieved through broad consensus with society. The paradigm constitutes a multi-dimensional approach to thinking of governance as a deserved appreciation of links between public agencies and broader society.

Globalisation and the changes in both technology and communication influence the perception of a decline in the role of the Public Service in delivering services. A distinction was made between private sector, public sector and non-state actors whose role in the delivery of public services had to be defined. Apart from non-state actors beginning to have a role in delivering public services, they too were expected to be actively involved in the good governance machinery to increase the spectrum of citizen participation (Basheka, 2012:59-60; Thornhill, 2014:21-22).

The fundamentals for good public governance include public sector accountability, government performance, citizen engagement in political accountability systems and both strategic leadership and management. Public sector accountability is a control and directive measure for administrative behaviour to be answerable to the public that expects particular performance in delivering services to them. This performance is evaluated in terms of the public who anticipate performance in delivering services to them and also the public officials’ faithfulness to the obedience of the law, ethical
behaviour and the balancing of efficiency, effectiveness and the economic use of resources. Government performance is an inherent and indispensable measurement of public sector performance in line with set objectives, appropriate allocation of resources, benchmarking, inspiring managerial thinking to improve public sector performance and to ensure that the needs of the public are met (Seemela & Mkhonto, 2007:202-206).

Strategic leadership and management is another foundation for good governance. Through strategic leadership and management the leadership is able to articulate the reality they wish to obtain in the organisation being led. This articulation helps the leadership to keep abreast of developments that may change the reality to a desired state. The leadership is further required to build a value adding organisation that maintains high standards of professional ethics and promotes good performance in organisations. The leadership is expected to understand the politics of the organisation, whilst mindful of the fact that the extent to which the clients are treated with respect and courtesy when seeking and receiving services influences the perceptions about the quality of the strategic leadership and management (Seemela & Mkhonto, 2007:205-206). Thus the study argues that the Public Governance Paradigm has the potential to be advantageous to women leaders. Wood (2009:397) states that the role of caring for others allows women an opportunity to understand the needs of others and also how to meet these needs. The study therefore argues that women leaders would add value to service delivery through their nurturing qualities as displayed in their leadership styles since The Catalyst (2013:3) asserts that organisations with a greater number of women in management and leadership positions influence the organisation to perform more effectively. The nurturing qualities of women would enhance the consultations and opportunities for participation by other stakeholders that are necessary in the delivery of public services. The need for public sector, private sector and non-governmental organisations’ partnership becomes important, as they all have expertise that they contribute.

Noted challenges to good governance include lack of management capacity, lack of accountability, as well as the inconsistency of leadership and reform policy (Seemela & Mkhonto, 2002:206-208) and corruption (Wessels, 2002:3). Citizen engagement in political accountability systems embraces the notion that empowered and
encouraged citizens will be able to decide on the rule of law, will eventually be able to trust the public servants, and will become better informed citizens who will actively and constructively influence decision making, regulating requirements and service standards. Good governance thus becomes an important ingredient to consider in the development of the strategy to create a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. Without good governance, the transformation of the Public Service would be difficult to achieve. Women leaders with their tendency to be collaborative encourage participation of followers in decision making (Carli & Eagly, 2012:442), and would place appropriate emphasis upon consultations with the citizens about the delivery of services.

The discussion on the development of Public Administration as a discipline is relevant to the study because it is the theoretical context in which the development of the proposed strategy takes place. The various paradigms that evolved with time assist with the appreciation and understanding of both the discipline and its practice. The discussion has shown that throughout the development of the discipline, specific emphasis has been placed upon ensuring that the appropriately trained and developed public servant is placed where he or she is most needed. Even though gender is not a specific focus within HRD, the discussion has shown that women leaders may display leadership capabilities which are required within the complex public environment, which will be further elaborated upon in subsequent sections.

The following section discusses the Leadership Theory and the Gender Theory as applicable within a public administration context. The discussion takes cognisance of the fact that the gender of the leader is an important aspect of the study.

2.3 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

The York College of Pennsylvania (2015:1) states that: “A theory is a general account of how a range of phenomena are systematically connected; by placing individual items in a larger context, it increases our understanding both of the whole and of the parts constituting the whole. Theory is a systematic, analytical approach to everyday experience...”. Leadership is defined as “an interpersonal influence, exercised in situations and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals” (Tannenbaum et al., 1961:24). Leadership in public administration as a practice is needed to ensure that policy is implemented in
the spirit of its formulation and that public services are executed efficiently, effectively and responsively. Leadership is viewed as having the capability to transform public administration and achieve improved public service (Naidoo, 2005:73).

Jogulu and Wood (2006:237) state that although women were involved in paid work from the 1900s, only 4% of management positions were occupied by women leaders in 1940. This emergence of women leaders contributed to the evolvement of leadership theories from the Trait Theory to the Behavioural Theories.

In the following sections, the development of the Great Man Theory, The Trait Theory, the Behavioural, Situational or Contingency Theory, leadership styles, gender differences and the Contemporary Leadership Theories are outlined. The various leadership theories are described to address the specific research objective dealing with the analysis of the Leadership and Gender Theories underpinning the study. The Leadership Theories thus contribute to the development of a strategy to create a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

2.3.1 The Great Man Theory

Thomas Carlyle, a writer and a teacher, is regarded as having popularised the Great Man Theory during the 18th and 19th Centuries (Leadership-central, 2010; Jogulu & Wood, 2006:237). The premise for the Great Man Theory was that very few people possess the innate abilities to become leaders and the Great Man as a leader has unique and exceptional features and qualities (Jogulu & Wood, 2006:237). Leadership-central (2010) contends that there is no scientifically determined list of characteristics that a leader should possess in line with the Great Man Theory. However, in that era, leaders were men, which suggests that the observable leadership characteristics would most likely be masculine in nature.

The innate abilities associated with the Great Man are intelligence, masculinity and dominance (Eckmann, 2005). These abilities are also believed to be inclusive of “charm, persuasiveness, a commanding personality, a high degree of intuition, judgment, courage, aggressiveness and an action orientation” (Chand, 2015).

Chand (2015) contends that apart from fact that the Great Man Theory is speculative and does not have scientific basis and empirical validity, it also has the notion that leaders are great and successful, independent of the environment in which they
operate. Furthermore criticism levelled against the Great Man Theory is that it discounts the influence of training on acquisition of leadership skills.

The study argues that where the Great Man Theory is accepted, no room is created for women as leaders, since no women would even be considered as an option to lead an organisation (Chand, 2015). Given that the Great Man Theory asserts that leadership skills cannot be acquired through training and development, this is a further indication that it contradicts the argument that leaders can be developed or made.

The criticism of the Great Man Theory led to the development of the Trait Theory. The Trait Theory is regarded as a modification of the Great Man Theory, since it is still based upon the male as a leader, but it acknowledges that traits are either inborn or acquired.

2.3.2 Trait Theory

In 1860, Herbert Spencer proposed the Trait Theory. He emphasised that societies produce leaders whose actions are influenced by the social conditions prior to their times (Leadership-central, 2010). Gordon Allport, an American psychologist, is credited as one of the early contributors to the Trait Theory. Allport is said to have identified the personality characteristics that were utilised in the development of the Trait Theory (Leadership-central, 2010).

From 1904-1947 the Trait Theory of Leadership claimed that leaders have unique and exceptional traits such as intelligence, a sense of responsibility and creativity (Jogulu & Wood, 2006:237; Leadership-central, 2010). The Trait Theory presents a “one best way” (Rowley et al., 2010:82) of leadership that is premised upon the assumption that there are born leaders who have innate abilities (Mullins, 1996:251).

In support of this premise, Drucker (1989:156) theorises that: “leadership is of utmost importance. Indeed there is no substitute for it. But leadership cannot be created or promoted. It cannot be taught or learned”. Thus, this premise leads to a focus upon the selection of leaders rather than the development of leaders.

Some of the traits considered to be important in born leaders are intelligence, scholarship, dependability in exercising responsibility, originality, social participation and socio-economic status (Mullins, 1996:252; Robbins, 1998:348). The traits list
was further distilled to include self-confidence, a need for achievement, the ability to have motivation to carry out an action and self-monitoring (Jogulu & Wood, 2006:237). Robbins (1998:348) maintains that the traits include ambition and energy, the desire to lead, honesty and integrity and job relevant knowledge. Universal applicability of the Trait Theory is weakened by its reliance upon the one best approach, assuming that a set of universal leadership traits can be applied in all situations and the research inconsistencies that failed to formulate a definitive leadership traits list (Rowley et al., 2010:82).

Leadership traits are not culturally universal and thus impact upon both the perception of women and men as leaders and their potential access to leadership positions. Current competency modelling selection tools for leaders will not assist in increasing women leaders’ access to leadership positions, because they are based upon inferences of effective leadership traits and skills assumed to be functioning similarly for leaders, regardless of their culture and gender (Ayman & Korabik, 2010:162).

Roberts (2012) criticises the Trait Theory for focusing upon the leader rather than focusing upon the relationship of the leader and the followers, the situation in which leadership is being displayed and the effectiveness of the leader. Furthermore, the Trait Theory is criticised for not having a definite list of traits and that it discounts the influence of training upon acquisition of leadership skills. The criticisms also include that the Trait Theory concentrates upon what the leaders are, as opposed to how to become a leader (Maslanka, 2004:7).

The following section discusses the Behavioural Theories. Behavioural Theories extend the focus to the behaviour of the leader, which is displayed in the influencing of followers to achieve the organisational goals.

2.3.3 Behavioural Theories

Lewin, Lippitt, Stogill, Coons, Maccoby, Gurin, Floor, Blake and Mouton are the founders of the Behavioural Theories. Between 1938 and 1964 they conducted various studies that shaped the Behavioural Theories (Leadership-central, 2010). Women were starting to join organisations and it emerged that the theory of leaders being born and not made could no longer hold water, because leaders could learn or acquire what enables them to lead effectively. The first Behavioural Theory studies
were those conducted by the University of Iowa that isolated the dimensions of leadership as democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles (Jogulu & Wood, 2006:237). A leadership style is defined as a combination of the manner in which a leader performs duties and the behaviours displayed in leading the followers (Mullins, 1996:259).

The Kurt Lewin Leadership Style Theory that resulted from leadership decision experiments in 1939 also entails the democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles (Morgan, 2013:1-2; Team-FME, 2015:33-35; Changing Minds, 2016). Democratic leadership style is defined as a style in which power rests with the whole group in that the leader is a team member who ensures greater interaction within the team, and the team participates actively in decision making, formulation and implementation of policies, procedures and systems. The leader gives them the freedom to perform their duties without interference, with the knowledge that in times of need, the leader is readily available to assist (Mullins, 1996:260,267). Democratic leadership style is claimed to be applied when an open door policy is practised and leadership is based upon both trusting the followers and having their welfare at heart. Democratic leaders encourage followers to participate in policy making, and explain policies and procedures for achieving organisational goals, giving the followers the space to perform and rewarding them for good performance. Democratic leaders were viewed as caring, considerate, striving to reach consensus and having a sense of both responsibility and attachment to the followers. Democratic leadership is more favourably aligned to women’s characteristics than to men’s characteristics, even though during the time of prominence, women occupied very few leadership positions (Jogulu & Wood, 2006:239).

The study suggests that the description of the democratic leader appreciates attributes inherent to women. Since democratic leadership is applicable in situations that can be better resolved through democracy, democratic leadership expresses the importance of advancing women into higher leadership positions.

The autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles are associated with a masculine leadership style. The autocratic leadership style is defined as a style in which the power rests with the leaders where they have total authority and control in decision making. They use their position and job responsibilities to both control the efforts of the followers and monitor them closely (Leadership Toolbox, 2016). The autocratic
leadership style benefits from the male leaders’ ability to be forceful (Eagly & Johnson, 1990:236) and the study recognises that the different leadership styles are applicable in different situations. Thus, the associations of particular attributes to leadership styles do not mean that men or women cannot learn to use leadership styles that are not associated with their gender.

Laissez-faire style is a leadership style in which the power rests with the followers. This style is tantamount to abdication of leadership or no leadership at all. The leader avoids taking a position or making a decision. Laissez-faire leadership is an inactive form of leadership (Antonakis, 2012:268-269).

In advancing the Behavioural Theories of Leadership, the second studies were conducted during the 1940s by the Ohio State University, which defined two dimensions of leadership, namely consideration and initiating structure. Consideration refers to the ability of the leader to establish trust, mutual respect and rapport with the followers, whilst at the same time displaying concern, warmth and support for their needs, ideals and feelings. The initiating structure refers to the structuring of relationships and clarifying roles between the leader and the followers, with a view to achieving organisational goals (Eagly et al., 1992:6; Mullins, 1996:257; Rowley et al., 2010:82).

The study argues that leadership is now redefined in terms of characteristics attributed to both women and men leaders. This redefinition also means that more women are accepted in leadership positions. Evidence thereof is apparent from the gradually increasing number of women advancing into higher leadership positions (Eagly & Carli, 2003:827-828; Jogulu & Wood, 2006:242).

The third Behavioural Theories studies were conducted by the University of Michigan where leadership was defined in terms of two dimensions: employee-oriented and production-oriented dimensions. The employee-oriented dimension was defined as leadership which values interpersonal relationships between the leader and the followers, while the production-oriented dimension was defined as leadership focusing upon technical and/or task aspects of the job. The University of Michigan studies concluded that when leaders choose to behave in an employee-oriented manner, they tend to enjoy high productivity and job satisfaction amongst their followers (Robbins, 1998: 351).
The fourth studies were conducted by Blake and Mouton who introduced a managerial grid that proposed the behavioural dimensions of “concern for people” and “concern for production”. While the studies were conducted in the 1930s, they only achieved prominence in the 1960s. The managerial grid dimensions of “concern for people” and “concern for production” are representations of those of the Ohio State University’s dimensions as well as the University of Michigan’s dimensions. The studies introduced the dimension of concern for people which is typically a more feminine characteristic and is recognised as an effective leadership characteristic (Jogulu & Wood, 2006:238).

While Leadership Theories developed into considering different dimensions associated with leaders, a specific emphasis upon gender was still not evident. The assertion is made specifically because an insignificant number of women occupied leadership positions at the time (Rowley et al., 2010:83).

The Behavioural Theories of leadership are relevant to the study because of the focus they place upon the behaviour of the leader. However, the study argues that, should leadership development programmes only offer behavioural perspectives on leadership, the value derived from also focusing upon the influence of gender on leadership would be negated.

The four studies mentioned above have a common thread. The common thread is that leadership has an element of both nurturing followers and also ensuring that the organisational goals are achieved. There is an emphasis upon the need to treat followers in a humane manner. These studies caution leaders to consider how their behaviour influences both people and productivity.

The following section discusses Situational or Contingency Theories. This section is viewed as a natural progression from the Behavioural Theories, because effective leaders choose to display behaviours that will make them succeed in influencing followers in a particular situation.

2.3.4 Situational or Contingency Theories

During the 1930s, the Situational or Contingency Theories of leadership emerged, although they only became prominent in the 1970s. At the time of the Situational Theories’ prominence, women were still mostly in low profile jobs and very few were in leadership positions. Thus in this era, leadership was still defined in masculine

Fred Fieldler’s Contingency Theory was developed in the 1960s, where aspects of a leader’s positional power, task structure and leader-member relations were viewed as determinants of an effective leadership style. Whether a leader’s positional power is strong or weak, the task is structured or unstructured and the relations are strong or weak, all have a bearing on the leadership style that the leaders display (Bolden et al., 2003:8; Team-FME, 2015:17-19).

Contingency Theories are premised upon the claim that effective leadership attributes are dependent upon how the leader navigates within the situation in which he/she operates, i.e. different situations dictate particular leadership styles and thus provide multiple ways of dealing with situations. Therefore in Contingency Theories the situation is central to leadership decision making. Since situations are perceived differently by different leaders, the Contingency Theories provide leaders with multiple options of dealing with various leadership situations. These multiple ways of dealing with situations are as a result of leaders with different experiences and abilities responding differently to the same situation. Leaders applying Situational Theory in their leadership are risk takers who inspire subordinates (Rowley et al., 2010:84).

Although Contingency Theories do not have specific attributes that are universally accepted for leadership effectiveness, traits such as confidence, awareness and adaptability have been observed to be attributes displayed by effective leaders. Determination is mentioned as being imperative, particularly for women leaders to assist them to face gender inequalities in leadership. Furthermore, the women leaders’ contribution to leadership is necessary, since well-resourced environments need women leaders’ problem solving skills. Dynamic and unstable environments require women’s stereotypical ability to reduce the stress of subordinates, to resolve conflicts and to adapt to change. In complex environments women display their ability to share both information and power (Rowley et al., 2010:84). Thus women leaders have the potential to be effective in a variety of situations.
The study contends that Contingency Theories acknowledge that leaders should display different leadership styles in different situations. This type of flexibility or adaptability embraced by the Contingency Theories is more associated with women than with men. Such flexibility is possible because a variety of opportunities for implementing different leadership skills and techniques exist in resolving situations.

2.3.5 Gender Difference Leadership Theories

In the 1970s the Gender Difference Leadership Theories emerged. These theories were intended to illustrate that as a result of biological determination and socialisation, differences will be evident between women and men. A meta-analysis of 162 studies on gender and leadership concluded that some similarities and differences in women’s and men’s leadership do exist (Jogulu & Wood, 2006:241).

There are similarities between women and men leaders associated with establishing interpersonal relationships with followers and being task oriented. Women leaders are capable of leading in a task-oriented manner and men leaders are able to lead in an interpersonal manner. Women leaders have a tendency to be more participative or democratic in style, compared to men leaders who tend to be more directive and autocratic in style. Thus in the 1990s it was recognised that some leadership styles may be aligned with women’s gender stereotypical behaviours and characteristics (Eagly & Johnson, 1990:249; Rosener 1990:124).

Patel and Buiting (2013:14) claim that differences between women’s and men’s leadership are manifested in confidence, social risk taking, emotional and facial recognition and emotion and actions. Men are viewed as displaying more confidence when compared to women. Contrary to common belief, women are more likely than men to take social risks. Furthermore, women tend to respond with greater emotional intensity to particularly negative situations. Women are capable of picking up subtle emotional and facial expressions that assist in the interpersonal relations arena.

The study argues that the Gender Difference Leadership Theories are of the view that women leaders are inappropriate to occupy leadership positions. Appelbaum et al. (2003:43-51) put forth the following four departure points for the Gender Difference Leadership Theories:
• the biological and sex departure point views leadership as being biologically
determined, and is demonstrated through behaviour that is innate in men
leaders. This departure point suggests that only men can assume leadership
positions and hence men only should participate in research studies;
• the gender role departure point views the gender role as a determinant for
leadership emergence rather than sex. The masculine and androgynous
behaviours are viewed as being those of an effective leader, as compared to
the feminine behaviours;
• the causal factors departure point identifies causal factors such as women’s
attitude, self-confidence and prior work experience, the corporate environment
and the old boy’s network. As already alluded to in Chapter Three, through
socialisation (Eagly & Karau, 2002:235) women leaders learn that leadership
is for men leaders and that women leaders are second class leaders. The
second class mentality influences women leaders to have diminished self-
confidence in their abilities as leaders;
• the attitudinal departure point describes men leaders as having structure,
being transactional, autocratic, instruction giving and business oriented, whilst
women leaders are viewed as having consideration, being transformational,
socio-expressive and people oriented.

Some of the female characteristics viewed as advantageous to the women leader
are a) being a good listener which influences effective communication, b) having
intermediary skills, which promote negotiation, c) having conflict resolution and
interpersonal skills, that influence the soft empathetic approach, and d) being people
oriented. These characteristics are more suited for transformational leadership

However, the fact that there are both similarities and differences between female and
male leadership is viewed as an indication that women leaders too are capable of
being leaders and that the difference they bring contributes to diversity in leadership.
The study further argues that the Gender Difference Leadership Theories present a
new perspective to leadership that recognises women leaders as exhibiting different
leadership styles to male leaders. The theories further suggest that women leaders
possess qualities that are bound to increase the organisational competitive edge in

2.3.6 Contemporary Theories

In the late 1970s the Contemporary Theories utilised the Gender Difference Leadership Theories as a basis to establish two types of leadership theories termed Transactional and Transformational Leadership Theories. Transactional Leadership is defined as leadership that focuses upon work standards, assignments and also displays task-oriented behaviours. Transformational Leadership is defined as leadership that focuses upon identifying the potential of followers, basing leadership upon cooperation, collaboration, lower control from the leader and utilising intuition and rationality for problem solving (Jogulu & Wood, 2006:242). Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013:356) maintain that in 1978, James MacGregor Burns introduced the concept of Transformational Leadership. Management Study Guide (2016) posits that the description of the transactional style of leadership was first described by Max Weber in 1947. Max Weber was later supported in this theory by Bernard Bass in 1981.

Aldoory and Toth (2002:158-159) argue that Transactional Leadership also refers to Authoritative Leadership that focuses merely upon positions held by the leader (i.e. a deterministic or patriarchal worldview). Transactional Leadership incorporates a series of transactions with subordinates where an exchange takes place through rewards for services rendered or punishment for inadequate performance. Bass (1999:10) and Rosener (1990:120) refer to Transactional Leadership as an exchange relationship where performance is rewarded so that the followers may meet their self-interests. Transactional Leadership characterises strong masculine qualities inclusive of analytical problem solving skills, competitiveness, strict adherence to hierarchical authority and high control by the leader, thus maintaining the status quo (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013: 358-359).

Transactional Leadership is evaluated as effective in stable and predictable environments, when it rewards quality work performance and also when it is combined with other leadership styles. Transactional Leadership is found not to be able to increase followers’ job satisfaction or performance, whilst transactional leaders are also found to be the least supportive of intentional change (Aldoory & Toth, 2002:159).
A criticism of Transactional Leadership is that it is responsive rather than proactive, and it utilises rewards and punishment rather than outlining the vision and mission of an organisation. If the followers understand how their contributions influence the achievement of the goals of the organisation, this may increase their commitment to their work. Furthermore, Transactional Leadership maintains the status quo and does not appreciate innovation (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013: 356).

Sendjaya et al. (2008:403) and Rowley et al. (2010:83) argue that Transformational Leadership seeks to empower and elevate followers, rather than keep them weak and dependent. Some identified traits for successful transformational leaders include charisma, inspiration, effective communication skills and capacity for intellectual stimulation. Also, these traits are displayed within professional relationships that are founded upon both trust and individualised consideration (Bass, 1999:11).

Transformational Leadership is also called Charismatic Leadership, where the leader utilises charisma to influence and inspire followers to want to do more and better (Aldoory & Toth, 2002:159; Schwartz, 2007:100-125; Bass, 1985:20). The transformational leader’s vision assists in creating meaning and symbols for followers to guide their contributions. The transformational leader further utilises communication through expressive language to popularise the vision about the organisation (Aldoory & Toth, 2002:159).

Transformational leaders are believed to be motivating, inspiring and supportive of the creativity of followers through the display of a high degree of individualised consideration: the extent to which the leader mentors the followers as individuals and both listens and attends to their specific concerns and needs (Powell, 2011:138). Transformational Leadership is suitable for realigning the values and norms that are critical in an organisation to propel changes, address severe crisis of motivation of followers and/or pursue creative problem solving methods. Leaders that apply Transformational Leadership create awareness of goals and missions of organisations to achieve organisational change (Eagly et al., 2003:570).).

Transformational Leadership embodies cooperation, lower levels of control, collaborative and collective problem solving and decision making (Valerio, 2009:34). Eagly and Johnson (1990:235) found that women leaders as a collective tend to display Transformational Leadership by being friendly, pleasant, having the welfare
of followers at heart, and being expressive and socially sensitive, which is based upon their personal style of social interaction. Furthermore, transformational leaders assist followers to perform beyond compliance or probable exchange of rewards, to transcend self-interest and focus upon achieving organisational goals that may result in exceeding performance expectations and to challenge the status quo (Bass, 1985:20; Fields, 2008:274; Kelly & Kelloway, 2008:286).

Such a personal style is said to create a conducive and supportive environment for the achievement of organisational goals. The created environment will be likely to contribute to boosting the morale of the followers, their motivation, their ownership of their own work and higher job satisfaction that manifests in better attendance at work, less labour turnover and minimal grievances (Oduemuru & Ifeanyi, 2013: 356).

The women leaders’ qualities are viewed as qualities necessary for the success of today’s organisations that are flatter, less hierarchical and require more teamwork, participation and collaboration (Appelbaum et al., 2003:49). Based upon the Transformational Leadership qualities of support, caring, concern for others and nurturing that are imperative for the success of contemporary organisations, and are predominantly displayed by women leaders, they are viewed as better suited to lead in the ways required in the global economy than men leaders (Eagly et al., 2003:573). Since Transformational Leadership is aligned to leadership effectiveness, women leaders too may employ it to enhance their leadership effectiveness.

Rosener (1990:125) asserts that women’s leadership is effective in times of turmoil. Support for this assertion is evident in that it is in organisational turmoil that opportunities arise for followers to prove themselves. Evidence is derived from women leaders who state that some of their first breaks into leadership positions were at times of turmoil in the organisation. Also, it is in times of turmoil that obsolete organisational traditions are reviewed to ensure achievement of organisational goals. Times of turmoil place less importance upon whether leaders came through the ranks or belonged to established networks and place more emphasis upon performance towards achieving organisational goals. Since women leaders are more likely to employ the Transformational Leadership style, women’s leadership development has to instil transformational leadership behaviour. By instilling this behaviour in women leaders, the leadership development programmes will enhance the emergence of effective women leaders (Collins & Singh, 2006:11).
Bass (1985:29) and Eagly et al. (2003:570) claim that transformational leaders establish themselves by becoming role models through applying strategies that seek to gain both the trust and confidence of followers. These leaders also tend to state future goals that are achieved through developed plans, they are innovative and they challenge the status quo, irrespective of whether the organisations they are leading are doing well or not, and they are actually in continuous improvement mode (Eagly et al., 2003:570-571).

The following section discusses the Servant Leadership Theory. The theory focuses upon the leader’s commitment to service and the ability to be selfless.

### 2.3.7 Servant Leadership Theory

Valerio (2007:6) and Koganti (2014) suggest that Robert K. Greenleaf is credited as having given Servant Leadership the form and definition that popularised it since the 1970s. Reinke (2004:32-33) contends that a working definition for Servant Leadership is that a servant leader is one whose behaviour is grounded upon a self-concept of stewardship, growing both the organisation and its people and the building of a community within the organisation. Sun (2013:544) supports the notion of growth by arguing that the focus for Servant Leadership is the growth of those who are being simultaneously led and served. Thus, the servant leader holds the organisation in trust for the public it serves through ensuring that whilst being sincerely committed to empowering followers professionally and personally there is also a continuous intimate attuning to their needs and situations in the organisation (Reinke, 2004:33).

In leading followers for their ultimate good, servant leaders focus upon their followers’ needs first, the organisation’s second and their own last, in recognition of the fact that the role of the leader is to serve followers. They also portray a resolute conviction and stronger character by taking on the nature of a servant in their total commitment to being of service to other people (Sendjaya et al., 2008:403,408). Furthermore, “Servant leadership takes place when leaders assume the position of servant in their relationships with fellow workers. Self-interest should not motivate servant leadership; rather it should ascend to a higher plane of motivation that focuses upon the needs of others” (Russell & Stone, 2002:145). Thus, the motivation
to serve is what inspires leaders to opt for Servant Leadership (Russell & Stone, 2002:146).

Russell and Stone (2002:146) maintain that contemporary thinking about leadership is dominated by power instead of service, and that this dominance deprives people of a higher standard of leadership. They further suggest that service must be placed at the core of leadership and that the continuous association of power with leadership should be that of recognition that the only legitimate use of power is service.

Larry Spears, CEO of the Greenleaf Centre, contends that Robert Greenleaf's writings incorporate the non-exhaustive ten major attributes of servant leadership. These include: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people and building community. Subsequent writers were able to identify 20 distinguishable non-exhaustive servant leadership attributes that were still consistent with Greenleaf's attributes. These were then classified into functional and accompanying or complementary attributes. The functional attributes encompass: vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modelling, pioneering, appreciation of others and empowerment, whilst the accompanying or complementary attributes are inclusive of: communication, credibility, competence, stewardship, visibility, difference, persuasion, listening, encouragement, teaching and delegation (Russell & Stone, 2002:146).

According to Van Dierendonck et al. (2013:1-4) Servant Leadership manifests in some of the following ways:

- it seems oriented to preserving the status quo and hence it is more effective in times of stability;
- it focuses upon individual followers to develop them to their fullest potential in areas of task effectiveness, community stewardship, self-motivation and future leadership capacity;
- it focuses upon the desire to serve and prepare others to serve as well, i.e. the focus is upon followers;
- it emphasises the humility and the spirituality of leaders and mutual power, the emulation of the leaders’ service orientation and the autonomy and moral
development of followers, where shared vision is a way of life for both the leader and the followers;

- it encourages followers to base their reasoning upon universal principles and justice;
- it affects outcomes through processes related to follower satisfaction through primarily meeting the needs of others;
- the servant leader through one-on-one communication understands the duties, needs, desires, goals and potential of followers and encourages them to generate their best performance;
- the servant leader utilises the knowledge of individual followers’ unique characteristics and interests, and this is used to assist followers to achieve their potential;
- the servant leader provides vision and gains credibility and trust from followers;
- servant leadership’s dimensions of altruistic calling, standing back and humility motivate the leaders to place others’ needs and interests ahead of their own;
- organisational stewardship is displayed through orienting others toward benefiting and serving the community;
- the influence and leadership processes allow the leader to be more in the background; and
- success is attributed to followers rather than the leaders themselves.

The study argues that what the above illustrates is that as a servant leader, the emphasis is placed upon empowering and serving others. Recognising the importance of servant leadership means that women in senior leadership positions should serve and empower other women to obtain the same level of leadership. Women are considered to be caring and concerned about others, and as such, the Servant Leadership Theory is argued to be more relevant to women than to men.

The study maintains that an understanding of different leadership theories provides a solid foundation for dealing with and clarifying various leadership situations. Furthermore, the study suggests that while earlier leadership theories emerged during times when women were not represented in leadership positions, the value of understanding the characteristics, attributes, styles and situations associated with
leadership is important. Respondents participating during the empirical data collection were also given the opportunity to identify and contribute to understanding the nature of attributes and styles associated with women leaders.

The following section analyses different Gender Theories. Gender Theories are important to the study because the discussion of leadership is approached from an angle of gender representation, women’s leadership development and barriers impeding this development.

2.4 GENDER THEORIES

The World Health Organisation (WHO) (2016) defines gender as socially constructed characteristics of women and men. These characteristics could be norms, roles and relationships that may exist between individuals and groups of women and men. These characteristics differ from one society to another. Lorber (1997:8) defines gender as a social status, a personal identity and a set of relationships displayed in the interactions between women and men, whilst gender inequality is a pervasive phenomenon that is deeply ingrained in the structure of societies and is linked to the organisation of marriage and families, work and economy, politics, religion, the arts, other cultural productions and language. Gender inequality, which is defined as pervasive and interwoven into work, economy and politics (Lorber, 1997:8) is particularly relevant to the study.

Gender Theories were developed to highlight gender inequality and its manifestation in the lives of women. With regard to relevance to the study, gender inequality manifests in the daily lives of women leaders. The study argues that such relevance is derived from the fact that unequal representation in all the levels of the SMS denies women leaders opportunities to lead and further develop their leadership skills. Furthermore, the SMS levels give incumbents opportunities to influence policies on the delivery of services. This thus deprives women leaders of the opportunities to lead in influencing the politics around delivery of services through the formulation of policies.

Feminist Theories are Gender Theories that challenge the gender inequality between women and men that are deeply ingrained in the structures of society. The Feminist Theories challenge the unequal status of women in society (Sexual Assault Support Centre of Waterloo Region (SASCWR), 2004:1) and define feminism as a theory that
espouses that women and men should be politically, economically and socially equal. Offen (1998:151) supports the definition by asserting that feminism embodies a movement for socio-political change whose basis is the critical analysis of the subordination of women and the male privileges within any given society.

Feminist Theories are also defined as providing a comprehensive account of women’s subordination that includes its essence and origin. Feminist Theories are a prerequisite for the development of strategies that seek to liberate women and also identify the underlying causes of the subordination of women. Feminist Theories attempt to describe the oppression of women whilst providing an explanation of the causes and consequences of their oppression, whilst also prescribing the strategies that may realise the achievement of the liberation of women (York College of Pennsylvania, 2015:1).

In emphasising the extent of gender inequality, the United Nations (1980:8) and Exley (1993:13) state that “women represent 50 per cent of the world’s adult population and one third of the official labour force, they perform nearly two thirds of all working hours, receive only one tenth of the world income and own less than one percent of world property”. In capturing the different approaches to dealing with gender inequality, the study will analyse the following:

- Gender Reform Feminism through Liberal Feminism, Marxist and Socialist Feminism and Developmental Feminism;
- Gender Resistant Feminism through Radical Feminism; and
- Standpoint Feminism.

2.4.1 Gender Reform Feminism

Gender Reform Feminism developed between the 1960s and 1970s and is based upon the idea of individual rights that is rooted in the 17th and 18th Century liberal political philosophy, the Marxist philosophy on capitalism and class consciousness and the 20th Century anti-colonial politics and ideas of national development. Gender Reform Feminism encompasses aspects of equal treatment in the application of the laws of the nations, the classification of people in relation to their economic status and advocacy for observance of universal human rights versus the patriarchal and cultural practices that disadvantage women (Lorber, 1997:9). Gender
Reform Feminism is composed of Liberal Feminism, Radical Feminism and Developmental Feminism which are discussed below.

### 2.4.1.1 Liberal Feminism

The liberal feminists argue that biological differences cannot and should not be the basis for treating women differently. They advocate that women should be treated the same as men under the law, should have the same rights as men, the same educational and work opportunities and an equal chance to advance their careers (Lorber, 1997:9). Vashon Island School District (VISD) (2015) asserts that in Liberal Feminism, equality for women is achievable through legal means and social reform, and that it is a proponent of equality or the sameness argument between women and men.

Liberal Feminism is about the creation of a just and compassionate society that is conducive for freedom to flourish. Such a society will promote the attainment of sexual equality or gender justice through the provision of the same political rights, economic opportunities and the same education for women as that which men enjoy (Tong, 2009:13,16).

The goal of liberal feminists is to free women from oppressive gender roles expected of them. Liberal Feminism views feminism through the lens of gender and gender equality, where emphasis is placed upon the traditional understanding of humanity and personhood depicting characteristics that are possessed by all: rationality, individual autonomy and self-fulfilment (York College of Pennsylvania, 2015:6).

Liberal Feminism focuses upon the contributors to gender discrimination, examples of which are gendered job markets, inequality in wages and in the placement of women into leadership positions in the professions, government and cultural institutions. Liberal Feminism further tackles gender inequality in the job market by involving civil rights movements, anti-discrimination legislation and affirmative action programmes (Lorber, 1997:9).

Liberal Feminism advocates for fairness that results in everyone being able to access the greatest possible number of options that may lead to the best chances of self-actualisation. Such fairness is viewed as being attainable through formal equality under the law. Liberal Feminism does not prescribe what women and men should want, or even whether they should want the same things; it is more interested in the
satisfaction of the wants of both women and men. Women’s wants are varied and different women want different things. Liberal Feminism acknowledges that women are worse off to get things that they want, and if they do get them, they are more likely to pay a higher price for getting them (University of San Diego (USD), 2015).

Lack of social power and political influence was viewed as contributing to the American middle class women’s discontentment. Liberal feminists believed that when women were denied the right to vote which is inherent in full citizenship status for men, it is tantamount to denying women full citizenship. Amongst others, representation of women in public institutions was viewed as part of the solution to the discontent of the middle class women in the USA (Krolokke & Sorensen, 2006:11).

Liberal Feminism exposes the extent to which modern societies globally discriminate against women. In the USA, Liberal Feminism eliminated many barriers that were facing women when entering formerly male-dominated jobs and professions and assisted in achieving equal pay for equal work or work of equal worth. Liberal Feminism is critiqued as not having been able to overcome the prevailing belief that women and men are intrinsically different (Lorber,1997:9). The York College of Pennsylvania (2015:6) asserts that its weakness is the tendency to embrace masculine values as universal values, and also that an analysis of class or sexuality (the sex/gender system) is excluded.

Liberal Feminism is relevant to the development of a strategy to create a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG because it seeks to address equality issues between women and men. Relevant to this study, such equality translates to equal access to employment opportunities, equal access to employment benefits, equal treatment in the workplace, equal access to leadership development programmes, equal value to the organisation and equal representation of women and men leaders on all the levels of the SMS. Equality of women and men leaders in all the levels of the SMS also touches on equal economic opportunities for both women and men, which is the focus of Liberal Feminism. The study argues that there is synergy between Liberal Feminism and the equal opportunities regulatory framework of South Africa. As such, respondents were asked to contribute their understanding of equality between women and men when it comes to employment, development and advancement.
Flowing from the different forms of Gender Reform Feminism is the discussion of Marxist and Socialist Feminism. This theory categorises people in relation to a particular social structure.

### 2.4.1.2 Marxist and Socialist Feminism

Marxist and Socialist Feminism is based upon the Marxist Class Theory where the analysis of the capitalist social structure would apply to people of any social characteristic being classified, dependent upon whether they own the means of production or whether they sell their labour. The Marxist Theory is defined as categorising people as falling either into the capitalist class, when they own the means of production, or as falling into the proletariat class, when they exchange their labour for a wage. The analysis of the social structure of capitalism would have been true for women too, except that up until the end of the 19th Century, in capitalist countries women were not eligible for property ownership, whilst profits they made from business transactions and their wages belonged to their husbands (Lorber, 1997:10).

Marxist and Socialist feminists view gender inequality as emanating from the fact that in the first place, the family is a source of the oppression and exploitation of women. Secondly, women doing full time domestic work in their homes are being made to depend economically upon their husbands, as their children do. Lastly, employed women are still expected to perform their household duties with the impact that women work twice as hard as men, whilst often being paid a lot less (Lorber, 1997:11). Freedman (2001:5) finds linkages between the capitalist system of production and division of labour with both gender inequality and the oppression of women, because these are consistent with the capitalist system.

The Marxist and Socialist feminists argue that a solution to gender inequality, as presented by capitalism, is to base waged work upon comparable worth and not on whether it is done by a woman or a man. The Marxist and Socialist feminists view this solution as reducing the women’s economic dependence upon marriage or state benefits as a means of survival (Lorber, 1997:10; York College of Pennsylvania, 2015:7). Krolokke and Sorensen (2006:10) maintain that the destruction of capitalism and the rise of socialism would free women from depending upon men and family
and provide access to an opportunity to engage in productive labour, which would be advantageous for the emancipation of women.

The study argues that access to employment and parity in employment between genders should be accepted if a sustainable pool of women is to be identified. Parity in access should be accepted as a given, irrespective of gender, when persons apply for SMS positions.

Respondents participating in the empirical data collection were asked to contribute their understanding of the different aspects which lead to inequality, whether in employment opportunities or development. The next section discusses Developmental Feminism.

2.4.1.3 Developmental Feminism

Developmental Feminism equates the status of women with the extent to which they control economic resources and also seeks to discourage their economic exploitation. Developmental Feminism maintains that since patriarchal family structures dictate that everything that women produce belongs to their husbands, then women have low value in such families. The developmental feminists seek to raise women’s rights as inherent to national and cultural rights, which the United Nations advocated for during the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995. The popular slogan of this conference was: “human rights are women’s rights and women’s rights are human rights” (Lorber, 1997:13-14).

The developmental feminists propose the observance of universal human rights with special emphasis upon education of girls, as well as economic resources for women as a solution to dealing with gender equality that is based upon control of economic resources. The control of economic resources by women will enable them to contribute to the financial needs of the family and, most importantly, assist women not to be economically dependent upon their husbands (Lorber, 1997:14).

Developmental Feminism is relevant to the study, since it emphasises the importance of economic power and specifically the development of such power for women. During the empirical data collection respondents could contribute their understanding of the manner in which economic inequality has led to inequality in accessing employment and development opportunities.
The next section discusses Gender Resistant Feminism which focuses upon the elimination of gender inequalities. As more women entered the workplace the gender inequalities became far more evident.

2.4.2 Gender Resistant Feminism

Gender Resistant Feminism emerged in the 1970s, when women increasingly started entering the originally all-male workplaces and schools. Women became consistently aware of the gender inequalities that manifested in the form of constant humiliation by colleagues, bosses, professors and students in classrooms, fellow organisers in political movements, and worst of all, from boyfriends and husbands at home. The humiliation took the form of being ignored, being interrupted whilst speaking, not being credited for competence or good performance, and being passed over for promotion or jobs that involve taking charge. The experience of this constant humiliation gave birth to the gender resistant feminists: Radical Feminism, Lesbian Feminism, Psychoanalytic Feminism and Standpoint Feminism (Lorber, 1997:15-16), as described below. For the purposes of the study, only Radical Feminism and Standpoint Feminism are discussed.

2.4.2.1 Radical Feminism

The everyday experiences of women led to the emergence of a gender inequality theory that incorporated discrimination, oppression, gender politics of resistance and the dominant gender order. The premise of Radical Feminism is patriarchy which is defined as “the men’s pervasive oppression and exploitation of women, which can be found wherever women and men are in contact with each other, in private as well as in public” (Lorber, 1997:16). Randall (2002:7, 110-111) claims that the private sphere is the terrain for women’s oppression. Such oppression takes the form of rape, domestic violence, sexual abuse and pornography. Sociology.org (2005) supports the view of the private sphere as a terrain for the exploitation of women. However it also argues that the public sphere is such a terrain as well. Thus the combination of both the private and the public spheres as terrains for women’s oppression results in a dual form of this oppression.

The radical feminists contend that the root of patriarchy is a belief embedded in most men’s consciousness that women are different and inferior or subordinate. Patriarchy is viewed as employing the threat of violence and rape to gain control over women.
The radical feminists further considered heterosexual relationships between women and men as inherently unequal in that men have dominant social status from which they derive power (Lorber, 1997:18). Thus patriarchy is a basic system of power for men that oppress women. It is the root cause for the oppression of women. Challenging patriarchy results in rejecting the standard gender roles and men’s oppression of women (Tong, 2009:4; VISD, 2015).

A manifestation of patriarchy is observed where even working class women are slaves to their husbands and are also blamed for being less capable parents for the social problems that their children may exhibit. Working class women are expected to feel guilty about their children’s social problems. It is a myth that there is equality in marriage and that there is negotiation in marriage (Bridgeman, 2011:289-290). Furthermore, patriarchy is independent from all other social structures and is definitely not a product of capitalism, though its manifestation is the male domination of women (Freedman, 2001:5).

Therefore women began to engage in remedies which contributed to programmes for the protection of rape victims and battered women and the condemnation of prostitution, pornography, sexual harassment and sexual coercion through establishing women-only consciousness-raising groups and alternative organisations. These programmes assist in considering the women’s view when (Lorber, 1997:18):

- formulating theories on gender inequality;
- developing women’s study programmes in colleges and universities; and
- producing knowledge, culture, religion, ethics and health care supportive of women fighting against patriarchy.

In further analysing Radical Feminism, Bridgeman (2011:290-291) suggests that women utilise their inner qualities, their wisdom and their shared experiences to discuss the power and politics behind patriarchy. Randall (2002:111) suggests that advocacy for Radical Feminism takes the form of celebrating the differences between women and men or women’s distinctive nature, especially their maternal caring qualities that are manifested in child-bearing and child-rearing.

Criticism against Radical Feminism includes the possibility that the celebration of womanhood could be based upon what has been defined as feminine by a
patriarchal system. The other weakness is regarded as the obscuring of differences amongst women (York College of Pennsylvania, 2015:7-8). This is viewed as a weakness because women are different in various ways, and thus their challenges and needs differ according to various aspects of their lives.

Radical Feminism is relevant to the study because patriarchy is embedded in the cultural practices of most of the women that are likely to be part of the strategy for the development of a sustainable pool of women leaders. Radical Feminism highlights the likely challenges that women leaders may face from both their male counterparts and male supervisors as they pursue higher leadership levels.

The study includes in both the semi-structured questionnaire and the in-depth interview schedule questions around the perceived influence of patriarchy upon women’s leadership. Responses to the questions help to induce whether patriarchy is a challenge to the development of women leaders in the MPG. Responses to the questions influence the type and content of interventions in the development of women leaders.

The following section discusses the Standpoint Feminist Theory. This theory maintains that different people perceive things differently, due to the influence of their standpoint in relation to the aspects under consideration.

2.4.2.2 Standpoint Feminist Theory

According to Jaggar (2004:63) women have in common social relations that are organised in a manner that accomplish their oppression. Women suffer a special form of both exploitation and oppression. Their condition is dimly visible to their oppressors. As the oppressed they are able to understand more clearly the ruled and the rulers, and the relationship between them, because the standpoint of the oppressed includes and is able to explain the standpoint of the ruling class (Jaggar, 2004:57).

An individual’s knowledge is influenced by where the individual stands in a society. The standpoint from which a person speaks should not be taken for granted, and situated in everyday experiences is an entry point for the production of knowledge (Appelrouth & Edles, 2007:319; Smith, 2005:10). In other words, Smith’s Standpoint Feminist Theory explicitly reformulates sociological theory through ensuring that the standpoint of gender and its impact upon women’s experience of reality is accounted
for. Thus Smith’s theory advocates for considering where women are situated, and where the particularities of their actual experience of the everyday world would be taken into account in the production of knowledge (Appelrouth & Edles, 2007:313,319; Smith, 1987:109). Hooks (2000:5) in support for the Standpoint Feminist Theory, also states that all women are oppressed and thus they have no choices.

The fact that the oppression of women is a reality was even expressed at the first opening of a democratic Parliament in South Africa as follows; “...it is vitally important that all structures of Government, including the President himself, should understand this fully: freedom cannot be achieved unless women have been emancipated from all forms of oppression” (The Presidency, 1994).

The reality is that the women in the feminine mystique picture were trapped and not content. Everything revolves around their husbands and children and never about themselves. They want more than just their husbands, children and homes. Like men, they want to exercise their power to choose and make their own heaven or hell (Friedan, 1963:12,15,29).

The works of analysts inclusive of Dorothy E. Smith, Nancy Chorodow, Simone de Beauvoir, Raywean Connell, Patricia Collins, Betty Friedan and Sandra Harding influenced the Standpoint Feminist Theory. The theory is viewed as the convergence of the Radical, Lesbian and Psychoanalytic Feminist Theories that move from resistance to confrontation of the dominant sources of knowledge and values. The theory is premised upon the belief that knowledge cannot only be produced from the perspective of men, since there are other perspectives such as those of women. The Standpoint Feminist Theory declares that women’s voices differ from those of men and that these women’s voices too must be heard during the production of knowledge, with the intention of changing the society’s unquestioned values (Lorber, 1997:21).

The standpoint of women was designed as a result of their exclusion from the creation of both intellectual and cultural discourse. The exclusion led to women resorting to the strategies of ensuring that their experiences became a ground for a new knowledge and a new culture. Thus, the standpoint of women suggests a change regarding the research respondents who should be “…actual individuals
located in an everyday world” (Smith, 1987:98). This change will lead to the inclusion of women in research studies as both knowers and actors (Smith, 1987: 18,105,107; Smith, 1990a: 1-2,6).

Women have an insider’s experience that is unique, though it is not necessarily representative of all women’s experiences. Venturing into exploring the women’s experiences which are repressed social realities previously not available to researchers, provides access to a world of knowledge that one could not otherwise obtain. Thus, Public Administration approached from the women’s experiences cannot become an addendum to that originally approached from the experiences of men (Smith, 1990b:12-13).

The challenges demand of women to “think about their world in the concepts and terms in which men think about theirs. The thinking of men is the basis for established social forms of consciousness, and to expect women to think about their world in terms of how men think of theirs is to expect them to alienate themselves from their own experiences” (Smith, 1990b:13).

The study argues that the women leaders have a right to think for themselves and act accordingly. The thinking of women should influence the establishment of social forms of consciousness. Women leaders’ lives should not be limited to family responsibilities and the home.

Another standpoint feminist is Patricia Hill Collins, whose concept of Black Standpoint Feminist Theory contends that black women have a different standpoint that needs consideration too. The theory encourages black women to speak out and break the silence of oppression, through drawing from their own experiences, black communities and black women’s communities. The Black Standpoint Feminist Theory assisted black women with conceptual tools to resist oppression at individual, community and institutional levels (Appelrouth & Edles, 2007:314-5).

Randall (2002:115) criticises the Standpoint Feminist Theory, by highlighting that it suggests that experience is not innocent and thus needs to be interpreted without adequately outlining how such an interpretation should be conducted. Furthermore, the Standpoint Feminist Theory fails to recognise the substantial differences in the lives of women. “Substantial differences” refers to the fact that even the women leaders themselves are not a homogenous group because they come from different
cultural backgrounds and experience and they have acquired different levels of education. Women are not the same and they also experience gender inequality differently.

The study argues that the Standpoint Feminist Theory is relevant to the study because the fact that women leaders experience issues from their standpoint suggests that women experience public services from their standpoint. Given that women present the biggest economic opportunity and that they control at least 64% of consumer spending (Patel & Buiting, 2013:6), the study suggests that it makes business sense to have women participating in the decisions that affect the delivery of public services. Women, as the ones that have the bulk of family responsibilities, are bound to experience public services more than men. Thus, the view of public services from their standpoint is imperative. Their family responsibilities make the experience of public services different from that of men. Thus, their perspectives on public services can add value to the leadership provided for the delivery of services. They are better placed to make decisions on the nature, form and delivery methods of the public services.

Equal representation of women’s insight into the conceptualisation and delivery of public services is imperative. The one platform from which women leaders could have an influence upon the delivery of public services, is their equal placement to male leaders in all the levels of the SMS in government institutions. The Gender Theories succinctly illustrate the various manifestations of gender inequality. In support of gender equality, Exley (1993:10-11) states in a quotation by Charlotte Wolff (1904-1986) that: “women have always been the guardians of wisdom and humanity which makes them natural, but secret, rulers. The time has come for them to rule openly, but together with and not against men”. This quotation gives the study the impetus for the quest of developing a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. These women leaders will be confirming that their exclusion had nothing to do with their capabilities, but rather had a lot to do with the social order that prevailed at the time of their exclusion.

The study deliberately utilises women leaders as a purposive sample to establish their perceptions about women’s leadership development, factors that influence women’s leadership development and challenges that impede their development and advancement. These aspects are covered in both the semi-structured questionnaire
and the in-depth interview schedule questions around the perceived impact of patriarchy upon women’s leadership. Responses to the questions help induce the challenges to the development of women leaders in the MPG. These responses will also influence the type and content of interventions in the development of the women leaders.

2.5 CONCLUSION

The study is concerned with the development of a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The women leaders practice their leadership in the Public Service within a political environment in the three spheres of government.

Public Administration is the discipline which studies the behaviours of public servants. Public administration encompasses the activities that public servants engage in, in order that the citizens may experience a better life through public services. Public Administration evolved through time, and various paradigms illustrate the evolution.

The study focuses upon leadership and gender in the context of public administration. Except for the Leadership Theories that were developed in the latter years, leadership was initially based upon the ‘Great Man’ as a Leader Theory. It seemed impossible during that time that women could be leaders. The Situational or Contingency Theories, the Gender Difference Theories and the Contemporary Leadership Theories have since reiterated that women and men are equally capable of being effective leaders. Even though a trend exists where women leaders are more likely to employ transformational leadership and men to employ transactional leadership, the bottom line is that women and men leaders are equally able to lead effectively.

Leadership Theories have set the foundation for advantaging women into leadership positions. Strategies and plans need to be crafted to ensure that the theoretical foundation is put to good use, particularly in the decisions to appoint women in senior leadership positions and in the support programmes to enhance their effectiveness. At the same time, men too should realise that women leaders are equally capable of leading various types of organisations, particularly organisations in times of turmoil. The benefit to the development of women’s leadership is that,
given that the current environment in which women leaders are being developed is turbulent, development programmes should focus more upon developing transformational leadership and those aspects of servant leadership that are common to those of transformational leadership. Training in situational leadership too is viewed as having the potential to increase the effectiveness of women leaders, because of its ability to present multiple ways of dealing with situations.

Gender Theories are explored to better understand the issues underlying gender inequality. The gender theories further assist in the crafting of interventions to ensure that organisations place women leaders in leadership positions. The MPG will also be able to achieve gender equity, particularly at all the levels of the SMS of leadership, and will be able to sustain such an achievement when the content of developmental interventions includes gender theories.

Whilst this chapter addresses the research objective on the analysis of the leadership and gender theories underpinning the study, Chapter Three analyses the political, economic and social environments and their influence upon the leadership development of women. The political, economic and social environments are regarded as constituting a critical influence in women’s leadership development and advancement.
CHAPTER 3: THE ANALYSIS OF THE POLITICAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL ENVIRONMENTS AND THEIR INFLUENCE UPON THE DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN LEADERS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The leadership development and advancement of women takes place in political, economic and social environments. Continuous environmental scanning ensures that changes in the environments are correctly anticipated, since such changes have the potential to influence the processes in the development and advancement of women leaders.

This chapter contextualises the environment in which the development and advancement of leaders takes place and further analyses how the political, economic and social environments particularly influence the development of women leaders. In analysing the influence of the political environment upon the development of women leaders, the national and the MPG regulatory framework is reviewed. Special focus is placed upon the provisions of the regulatory framework, compliance with the regulatory framework during the implementation of action plans and achievements relating to the development of women leaders.

3.2 CONTEXUALISING THE ENVIRONMENT

An environment in which an organisation operates is defined as a combination of both the internal and external forces that may contribute to the continuous and successful existence of the organisation (Smit et al., 2007:60). Various environments are characterised by variables which may be defined as characteristics or attributes of a social phenomenon or a unit of analysis to be studied and may vary through time or within the units of analysis (as was conceptualised in Chapter One).

A distinction between an internal (micro), external (macro) and task or market environment exists in the development and advancement of women leaders. The internal environment consists of variables such as the vision, mission, values, goals, leadership and resources inclusive of existing and aspirant women leaders and organisational culture. An external environment encompasses variables such as political, economic, social, technological, environmental and legal (PESTEL) factors. The market or task environment comprises variables such as competitors (in the form of local government in all provinces, other provinces and national departments
and the private sector), suppliers (in the form of local government in all provinces, other provinces and national departments, the private sector and institutions of higher learning), citizens (consumers of the services delivered by the MPG) and labour unions (Pearce & Robinson, 2003:57, Smit et al., 2007:60; Tiduko, 2016). When a variable in an environment changes, there is a likelihood that it contributes to changes in the leadership environment as well.

Although literature differentiates between internal and external environments, the study will combine the environments in its discussion of the political (inclusive of external and internal policies and legislation), economic (inclusive of external and internal economic factors such as compensation) and social (inclusive of external and internal factors dealing with culture and discrimination) environments. The chapter further analyses the influence of these environments upon the development and advancement of women leaders.

Flowing from the contextualisation of the environment, the political, economic and social environments and their influence upon leadership development are discussed. The United Nations (1980:7) asserts that the sources of inequality for women are evident in these environments through variable conditions in the world. The discussion commences with an examination of the political environment and its influence upon women’s leadership development and advancement.

3.3 THE POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT AND ITS INFLUENCE UPON WOMEN’S LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND ADVANCEMENT

The political environment constitutes the regulatory framework within which an organisation aligns its operations. The political environment entails the direction and stability of political forces that influence the development of organisational strategies (Pearce & Robinson, 2003: 59). The development of women leaders takes place within the regulatory framework designed for the advancement of women. The regulatory framework provides guidelines on how to achieve the targeted representation of women, the removal of barriers that may impede an increased representation of women in all the levels of the SMS and provision of support, to ensure that women that access SMS positions are enabled to be effective in their leadership roles.
The State of the Public Service Report, 2010, (hereinafter referred to as SPSR, 2010) (PSC, 2010:69-70) categorically identifies the failure of the Public Service to reach the 50% representation of women leaders in SMS positions by 31 March 2009, even though the 75% of black representation in SMS levels to be reached by 2005 was realised. The SPSR, 2010, (PSC, 2010:73) further identifies some barriers to women leaders’ advancement, including the lack of credible human resource plans, poor alignment between employment equity plans (EEP) and the implementation thereof and a limited pool of skills and training not targeting women leaders.

The PSC (2010:69) further proposes an integrated and multi-pronged approach to improving women leaders’ representivity in the Public Service. Such an approach will discourage departments from poaching women leaders from one another, since that will not have an impact upon the overall representation of women. Poaching results in target-chasing. The approach does not focus upon only one way of dealing with the challenge of representivity at all the levels of the SMS. Instead it focuses upon the removal of all forms of barriers, the creation of an enabling organisational culture and supportive environment and the introduction of creative recruitment strategies to enhance women leaders’ advancement to higher leadership positions.

In relation to the study, the political environment consists of the acts, regulations and policies that are approved in Parliament, in the relevant national government departments, in the relevant statutory bodies, in the Mpumalanga Provincial Legislature, the Office of the Premier and the MPG Departments. A discussion of a number of the key acts and policies follows, which when adequately implemented, would facilitate the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

3.3.1 Constitutional and national obligations towards enabling women’s leadership development and advancement

The Constitution, 1996, dedicated its Chapter 10 to enshrine basic values, principles and structures to uphold and to define public administration. The values and principles enshrined in Section 195 include the promotion of high standards of professional ethics, efficient, economic and effective use of resources, a public administration that is development oriented, which addresses the needs of the people, encourages people to participate in policy making processes, and is
accountable and transparent in the provision of timely, accessible and accurate information (South Africa, 1996a).

Furthermore, the Constitution, 1996, requires that public administration must be impartial, fair, equitable and without bias (Section 195(1)(d)), whilst it should also be characterised by good human resource management and career development practices (Section 195(1)(h)) that ensure that the human capital potential is maximised, and is also representative of the South African people (Section 195(1)(i)) through the implementation of employment and management practices that are based upon ability, objectivity, fairness and the need to redress the past imbalances to achieve broad representation (South Africa, 1996a). It also stipulates that these values and principles are applicable in all spheres of government, organs of state and public enterprises (South Africa, 1996a).

Recognising the importance of realising the abovementioned constitutional obligations, government formulated its vision for South Africa through the National Development Plan (hereinafter referred to as the NDP). The NDP (The Presidency, 2012:296) reiterates the importance of investment in people by identifying it as the single most important investment a country can make. The identification is supported by the notion of the education system being viewed as an instrument for the creation of an inclusive society that affords all the South African citizens equal opportunities. The NDP (The Presidency, 2012:296) further enables South Africa to develop the potential of all its citizens, particularly those who were previously disadvantaged: black people, women and people with disabilities.

The Presidency (2012:297,319), states that South Africa needs to expand its pool of researchers, to train more engineers, as well as enough doctors, nurses and other health professional staff. The NDP (The Presidency, 2012:297,319) furthermore expresses a need to double the number of graduates and postgraduate scientists, increase the number of African and women postgraduates, especially PhDs, and ensure appropriate women’s representation in, for instance, the higher education sector.

The study argues that the development of women leaders in the Public Service, and particularly in the MPG, needs to be specific, taking into consideration the prominence it is given through the NDP and its emphasis upon suitably qualified
women employees. The study argues that as the development of women has not been specified with a view to their placement in all levels of the SMS, this suggests that the issue is not prioritised. When the development of women is not prioritised, there is less effort by implementing structures such as the Public Service to address it. This situation could be a reason for both the Parliament and SADC targets on representation of women leaders not having been reached, as was highlighted in Chapter One of the study.

Recognition is given in the NDP (The Presidency, 2012:109,115,132) to the EEA, 1998a, that seeks to bring economic transformation into the workplace. Economic transformation encompasses the reforms in the regulatory framework that govern employment opportunities, and focus upon training programmes for critical and scarce skills, compensation issues and access to higher leadership positions (The Presidency, 2012 99-100). In addition, the improvement in skills development and reduction of inequality are recognised as being possible through labour market reforms targeting the promotion of employment of young people coupled with improved access to lifelong learning and career advancement (The Presidency, 2012 99-100). With the emphasis placed upon lifelong learning, the argument is made that women should be targeted from an early age (Patel & Buiting, 2013:29) to encourage their career development, thereby ensuring the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders capable of serving in SMS positions.

The study claims that from a Constitutional and NDP perspective, much emphasis is placed upon the development of people for the creation of a capable State. The study acknowledges that by emphasising the development of public servants in general, space is created for government institutions through their own EEPs to ensure that appropriate focus is placed upon ensuring gender representivity. The following discussion will focus specifically upon national legislation, promulgated to ensure appropriate gender representation in government structures.

3.3.2 The national regulatory framework supporting equal representation

The PSA, 1994, in Sections 4 and 11, read with the Public Service Regulations, 2016, Part 4, provides for, amongst others, the appointment of public servants that are mindful of equality and other democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution, 1996. Section 11(2)(b) provides for ensuring that when the evaluation
of applications are done, representivity in terms of race, gender and disability must be taken into consideration (South Africa, 1994). Thus, the PSA, 1994, also advocates for the development of women leaders. It provides for the organisation and administration of the Public Service of the Republic by regulating the conditions of employment (Sections 1-44), determining terms of office (Section 12), outlining the code of conduct for employees (Section 41(d)(ii)), regulating the process and procedures for retirement (Section 16), and stipulating corrective measures for misconduct and all other matters related to it as specified in Sections 41(d)(ii) and 42 (South Africa, 1994). Thus, while the Constitution, 1996, provides a basis for the development of women leaders through Sections 9 and 195 that enshrine the rights to equality and the intention to ensure a Public Service that is broadly representative of the people of South Africa, the PSA, 1994, too provides in Section 11 for the appointment of a broadly representative Public Service that is further representative on the grounds of race, gender and disability. Given that appointments in Section 11 (South Africa, 1994) also require that candidates must have undergone relevant training, possess relevant skills, competence and knowledge, to be able to redress the unequal representation of women leaders at SMS level, there could be a need for implementation of skills development interventions. Thus, by striving to achieve representivity of both women and men in the SMS level, development of women is being promoted.

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995, (hereinafter referred to as the WPTPS, 1995), regards the exclusion of women from positions of influence as tantamount to an enormous waste of human potential. The WPTPS, 1995, Section 10.2 recognises measures to improve representivity in the Public Service that include the introduction of laws prohibiting discrimination upon the basis of gender, the introduction of reforms in recruitment, selection and promotion of staff procedures and the promotion of attitudinal changes, particularly at the management level, so that adequate commitment to make necessary changes is realised (DPSA, 1995).

The WPTPS, 1995, introduces Affirmative Action (AA) measures to assist with the achievement of representivity in the Public Service. In addition, the WPTPS, 1995, in Section 10.3 defines AA measures as “laws, programmes or activities designed to redress past imbalances and to ameliorate the conditions of individuals and groups
who have been disadvantaged on the grounds of race, colour, gender or disability” (South Africa, 1995).

The study argues that creating a sustainable pool of women leaders should assist in realising the appropriate representation of women within the Public Service. The study argues that there is a need for a comprehensive, integrated multi-pronged framework to deal with the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders. Such a framework will include AA as a tool to enhance representivity. Substantial measures are developed in the regulatory framework. However, at provincial and departmental level, there is a need to either adopt or customise these measures, and to translate the regulatory framework into implementation plans that produce the desired outcomes. Furthermore, there is a need to implement, monitor, evaluate and report on achievement against plans. The fact that to date, representivity targets have not been reached, exposes the level of weakness at the provincial and departmental implementation levels, coupled with a lack of consequences for non-achievement of these targets.

As indicated in Chapter One, Section 181 of the Constitution, 1996, and the CGEA, 1996, establish the CGE. The CGE is an independent and impartial body that reports to Parliament regarding gender issues. Section 187 of the Constitution, 1996, and Section 11 of the CGEA, 1996, mandate the CGE to engage in the following functions (South Africa; 1996a; 1996b):

- promotion of respect for gender equality;
- protection, development and attainment of gender equality;
- monitoring and evaluation of policies and practices of both the public and the private entities in the country;
- monitoring compliance with international conventions, international covenants and international charters that are relevant to the promotion of gender equality to which South Africa is a signatory;
- making recommendations deemed necessary for the promotion of gender equality inclusive of new legislation that promotes both gender equality and the status of women;
- developing, conducting or managing both informational and educational programmes;
• investigating gender-related issues either of its own accord or upon receipt of complaints, and the resulting endeavours to resolve disputes or rectify an act or an omission;
• referring cases to the SAHRC, the Public Protector or any other authority as per the stipulations of both the Constitution, 1996 and the CGEA, 1996;
• promoting of alliances, interaction and forming of partnerships with institutions that have similar objectives as the CGE;
• preparing and submitting all forms of reports on compliance to acts, polices, international conventions, international covenants, international charters and any other matter pertaining to the promotion of gender equality;
• conducting research carried out to further the promotion of gender equality; and considering all suggestions, recommendations and requests from any source that are made to promote gender equality.

The study argues that the CGEA, 1996, has established the CGE as a structure that provides oversight for the attainment of gender equality. The mandate of the CGE promotes gender equality and thus advocates for women’s leadership development, advancement and gender representivity.

To ensure that public administration is implemented in the spirit and to the letter of the Constitution, 1996, the PSC, the DPSA and the Public Service Commission Act (PSCA), 1997 (No. 46 of 1997) (hereafter referred to as PSCA, 1997) were established to promote equal opportunities. Section 197 of the Constitution, 1996, states that public services are achieved through public administration. Within public administration there is a Public Service that functions and is structured according to national legislation that also determines the terms and conditions thereof (South Africa, 1996a).

The PSCA, 1997, mandates the PSC to promote governance within the Public Service. The PSCA, 1997, also enables the Public Service to promote the values and principles of public administration as enshrined in Section 195 of the Constitution, 1996, and further to investigate, monitor and evaluate the organisation and propose best practice in ensuring efficient, economic and effective performance by the Public Service (South Africa, 1996a, 1997). The EEA, 1998, in its preamble, aptly captures that it provides for employment equity through promoting the constitutional right to equality, elimination of unfair discrimination in employment and
the achievement of a diverse workforce, broadly representative of the demographics in South Africa (South Africa, 1998a).

Section 2 of the EEA, 1998, states that the purpose of the Act is to achieve equity in the workplace. Achieving equity ensures that suitably qualified people from the designated groups are equitably represented in all occupational categories at all levels. Designated groups are blacks, women and people with disabilities. Such equity is achieved as per Section 2 of the EEA, 1998 (South Africa, 1998a) through:

- the promotion of equal opportunity;
- the promotion of and fair treatment in employment;
- the elimination of unfair discrimination;
- the implementation of Affirmative Action (AA) measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups; and
- ensuring equitable representation of suitably qualified people from designated groups in all occupational categories at all levels.

As alluded to in Chapter One, Sections 5 and 6 of the EEA, 1998, stress the elimination and prohibition of unfair discrimination. Sections 15, 16 and 20 further guide organisations to implement AA measures through consultation with organised labour, workplace forums and the crafting of credible employment equity plans and respective reports (South Africa, 1998a).

The PEPUDA, 2000, in its preamble, indicates that eradication of social and economic inequalities is the basis for the consolidation of democracy in South Africa. It also acknowledges that some progress has been made in the restructuring and transformation of society and institutions and points out that there are deeply rooted systemic inequalities and unfair discrimination in social structures, practices and attitudes that impede the enjoyment of constitutional democracy by all (South Africa, 2000).

Section 2 of the PEPUDA, 2000, seeks to prevent, prohibit and eliminate unfair discrimination, hate speech and harassment, whilst also promoting equality. Section 8 of the PEPUDA, 2000, specifically prohibits unfair discrimination on the grounds of gender and forbids the continued use of sexual division of labour to perpetuate the systematic inequality of access to opportunities by women. It further endeavours to facilitate the transition towards a truly democratic society that is leveraging upon
unity in its diversity. The preamble of the PEPUDA, 2000, states that human relations are supposed to be “…caring, compassionate and guided by principles of fairness, equality, social progress, justice, human dignity and freedom” (South Africa, 2000).

The GESF, 2008, (DPSA, 2008a) supports the ideals of the PEPUDA, 2000, since it ensures that the empowerment of women through gender mainstreaming will remove barriers in the workplace and support women’s advancement through the empowerment of women. The GESF, 2008, in Section 1.3 identifies the barriers as unequal gender relations, violence against women, limited access to employment and economic empowerment, limited access to science and technology, lack of women’s representation and their mobility in the workplace, with particular reference to access to both management and decision making positions and non-creation of an enabling environment (DPSA, 2008a).

The GESF, 2008, intends that the Public Service should create an effective enabling environment for the development of women leaders. In its objectives and in Section 1.1, it proposes the formulation of engendered progressive polices and guidelines that are pro-women empowerment and women’s leadership development (DPSA, 2008a). Furthermore, the objectives and Section 1.2 allude to the establishment of appropriate and sustainable institutional mechanisms and the development of strategies, interventions and operational processes to realise these mechanisms. The mechanisms and processes are the means to achieve an enabling environment for a transformed, non-discriminatory and fully inclusive Public Service. Such a Public Service embraces the constitutional values of non-sexism to advance an effective enabling environment for women empowerment and gender equity. Furthermore, the creation of equal opportunities, mainstreaming gender equality and a barrier-free workplace will all be illustrative of a transformed Public Service (DPSA, 2008a).

The GESF, 2008, in Section 1.1 aims at the attainment of women’s empowerment that is coupled with both gender equality and a fully representative demographic profile for the Public Service. Further emphasis is placed upon the belief that the achievement of gender equality is dependent upon the empowerment of women. Section 1.1 further focuses upon the promotion and protection of both human dignity and the human rights of women. Section 1.1 also recognises that institutions have a
role to play in the promotion of non-sexism and non-racialism. Issues of particular interest are the organisational transformation, change and management of resultant changes, in the context of transformation and development (DPSA, 2008a).

The study claims that South Africa is endowed with a sound equity-related regulatory framework. The regulatory framework advocates for equal representation of women and men in all job categories, particularly in management and decision making positions. The framework further promotes the need to change the mind-set of both women and men in gender relations, through the empowerment of women. As per GESF, 2008, Section 1.3, barriers that need to be addressed are identified and institutions are created to oversee and report on progress through gender mainstreaming (DPSA, 2008a). The regulatory framework provides an enabling environment through valuable guidelines which should be followed in developing and empowering women. While the study acknowledges that the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders necessitates a comprehensive and integrated framework, the fact that the equity target of 50% representation of women in all the levels of the SMS has not yet been reached is indicative of a general lack of attention being given to the development of women leaders. Respondents were given the opportunity to express their understanding as to the extent to which the regulatory framework supports their access to senior management positions.

The following section focuses upon the national legislation that enables the development of women leaders. The national legislation incorporates both the public and private sectors, unless it is specifically stated that it regulates the Public Service only.

3.3.3 The national legislation enabling the development of women leaders

In line with Chapter One, the SDA, 1998, has as its purpose in Section 2(1)(a) the development of South African workforce skills, the increase in levels of investment and quality in education and training (Section 2(1)(b)), the encouragement of workers to participate in leadership and other training programmes (Section 2(1)(d)) and also to improve the employment of persons that were previously disadvantaged (South Africa, 1998b). Sections 2(1)(a)(i-iv) of the SDA, 1998, emphasise that the purpose is to seek to improve the quality of the lives of the workers, to improve the workers’ competitiveness, to improve productivity in the workplace, to improve
delivery of social services and that the workplace may be utilised as an active learning environment (South Africa, 1998b). While the development of women leaders is not specifically emphasised in the SDA, 1998, it nonetheless advocates for workforce development where women are also included. The study argues that as part of the workforce, women will also gain access to both leadership and other training programmes, will participate in the leadership echelons of the Public Service and, by doing so, will have an increased competitive edge when they are trained and developed. Furthermore, the SDA, 1998, demands that all workplaces should be active learning environments. Thus, the study suggests that by emphasising the MPG as a learning environment, the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders will be given attention, which will be to the benefit of women leaders and their development.

The SDLA, 1999, in Section 3, provides for the imposition of a minimum levy to employers to fund the training of its employees. Such funding should be utilised with a deliberate and conscious awareness that seeks to implement training and development plans to facilitate the development of women leaders, for instance (South Africa, 1999).

The Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), 2007, macroeconomic strategy (although replaced by the NDP) states that human resource development in South Africa is inadequate. GEAR, 2007, further indicates the need to improve skills that will enhance productivity. In addition, improved management training is mentioned as one of the key aspects that might enhance public service efficiency (Department of Finance, 2007:20). Though improved management training is mentioned, the study argues that, by not specifying the leadership development of women specifically, the realisation of the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders may be unattainable.

The NQFA, 2008, in Sections 4 and 5, provides for the approach to training and education which stipulates the allocation of minimum funding for training of all employees in an organisation, irrespective of gender and level. Depending upon an organisation’s focus and strategies, this funding becomes an enabling factor for women’s leadership development (South Africa, 2008).
The study argues that the NQFA, 2008, supports women’s leadership development, since it demands of all workplaces to put aside targeted funding for training purposes. Thus, although it might be insufficient, women’s leadership development will be achieved when the leadership at workplaces chooses to target women specifically.

The HRD Strategy of South Africa 2010-2030 (hereinafter referred to as HRDS-SA 2010-2030) recognises the failure of the following strategies: the Human Resource Development Strategy for the Public Service, 2008 (hereinafter referred to as the HRDPS, 2008) and the Human Resource Development Strategy of South Africa (hereinafter referred to as the HRDS-SA, 2009), to deal with the ineffectiveness in confronting the conditions and barriers for women and identifies it as one of the factors that necessitated the review of previous (HRD) strategies (Department of Education (DoE), 2009:14). The national goals from the HRDS-SA 2010-2030, are (DoE, 2009:14,18-19):

- to promote justice and social cohesion through improved equity in the provision and outcomes of education and skills development programmes;
- to ensure that education and training outcomes are equitable in terms of gender;
- to ensure that South Africa is ranked in the top 10% of comparable countries in terms of the Human Development Index;
- to ensure that the public sector has the capacity to meet the strategic priorities of the South African developmental state; improving the credibility and impact of training through improvement of service delivery and leveraging of the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) to contribute optimally to capacity development in the public sector; and
- to implement public service training for senior managers in critical generic and functional management learning areas.

The study argues that the HRDPS, 2008, identified that managers are unable to implement their HRD responsibilities, which means that they fail to understand the relationship between development and performance maximisation. The failure by management to understand that proper HRD management improves employee performance hampers the delivery of public services (DPSA, 2008b:57,71). Due to the failures of the HRDPS, 2008, leadership development initiatives should pay
attention to the HRD responsibilities issue, as it influences the development and advancement of women leaders. Chapter Four and Five will also pay further attention to this matter.

The study maintains that the national goals of the HRDS-SA, 2010-2030 consider, in particular, gender equity in the outcomes of education and training. Furthermore, the HRDS-SA, 2010-2030 targets the training of the SMS members. The training prioritises the senior management core competencies which are Project Management, Strategic Planning, Financial Management, Monitoring and Evaluation of Policy Implementation, Human Resource Management (including Performance Management), Supervisory Skills and Industrial Relations, Leadership Development and Team Building (DoE & DOL, 2009:41). The Handbook on the SMS, 2003 (hereinafter referred to as the HSMS, 2003) also identifies the 11 SMS core competencies which are generic and specific, dependent upon the job content of a SMS member. These competencies are: Strategic Capability and Leadership, Programme and Project Management, Financial Management, Change Management, Knowledge Management, Service Delivery Innovation (SDI), Problem Solving and Analysis, People Management and Empowerment, Client Orientation and Customer Focus, Communication, Honesty and Integrity (DPSA, 2003b:13).

Proper implementation of plans regarding the gender equity and the training of all the levels of the SMS benefit the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The implementation will support the equitable leadership development and advancement of women.

Commitment Seven of the HRDS-SA, 2010-2030, which builds upon the HRDS-SA, 2009, identifies training and development programmes as it focuses upon public sector delivery skills. Commitment Seven further recognises the importance of enhancing the skills and capacity of the employees through leveraging the SETAs (DoE, 2009:22).

The study recommends that since leadership development is being identified as a prioritised training need for the Public Service, then the implementation plans should also reflect such training. When the plans include leadership development training and are implemented as such, then the Public Service is deliberately attending to leadership development. These leadership development programmes benefit the
creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG, since they serve as the requisite support in the development of women leaders.

The Assessment of HRD Practices, 2011 (hereinafter referred to as the AHRDP, 2011) (PSC, 2011: 17-18,27), focuses upon the assessment of compliance with the regulatory framework governing skills development, the identification of departmental core competencies, the development, implementation and monitoring of the workplace skills plans (WSPs) and the conducting of the skills audits that will inform the WSPs. Furthermore, an assessment on the use of the training and development budget was carried out. Whilst it is acknowledged that the development and representation of women leaders would be accommodated in compliance with the regulatory framework, the training of women leaders did not emerge as a specific issue that needs explicit attention, such as for example, the training of youth for which there is specific motivation (PSC, 2011: 17-18,27).

The National Skills Accord, 2011 (hereinafter referred to as the NSA, 2011), states that organised labour, organised business, community constituencies and government made commitments to training and skills development, captured in eight (8) key areas. According to the Economic Development Department (EDD) (2011:4-5) the eight (8) key areas are identified as:

- the expansion of the level of training through the optimal utilisation of the existing facilities;
- the creation of both internship and placement opportunities within workplaces;
- the improvement of the levels of training through setting guidelines or ratios for trainees: prioritising artisans as well as paying attention to the technical vocations;
- the improvement of the funding for training, encouraging the prudent use of funds available for training and providing incentives for organisations to train;
- the setting of annual targets for training in state-owned enterprises;
- the focus upon improving SETA governance and financial management; as well as
- the stakeholder involvement in the training of the citizens of South Africa;
- the alignment of training to the New Growth Path (NGP), 2010, and improving sector skills plans; and
• the improvement of the role and performance of further education and training colleges.

The study argues that the NSA, 2011 promotes the development of employees, ensuring representivity in the attendance of training programmes, ensuring that funding for training programmes exists and prudently managing the implementation of training interventions. Thus, the NSA, 2011, also supports women leaders in order to allow them to benefit from training programmes.

Section 10 of the Public Administration and Management Act, 2014 (Act no. 11 of 2014) (hereinafter referred to as PAMA, 2014) mandates organisations to implement education and training programmes to develop their human resource capacity to the extent that the employees will be enabled to perform duties in an efficient, quality, collaborative and accountable manner. The section further mandates the organisations to budget for education and training programmes and to liaise with relevant SETAs for more education and training programme funding. The study maintains that targeted women’s leadership development should be included in the legislation and policies making provision for education and training programmes.

Section 11 of the PAMA, 2014, provides for the establishment of the National School of Government (NSG) that will focus upon human resource capacity development (South Africa, 2014). Section 11 of the PAMA, 2014, further provides for the NSG to consult with the Minister of Higher Education and Training in pursuance of its powers. The NSG has the duty to promote the realisation of values and principles governing public administration, as outlined in Section 195 of the Constitution, 1996, and Section 4 of the PAMA, 2014. It is also the duty of the NSG to contribute to the improvement of the quality, extent and impact of the development of human resource capacity in institutions. The NSG should further foster collaboration amongst training institutions and private sector training providers to enhance the success of education and training initiatives and programmes (South Africa, 2014).

The study argues that the NSG is also critical to the development of women leaders, because it is mandated to coordinate education and training for the Public Service. The NSG is thus enabled to review its education and training interventions in favour of the development of the women leaders. Such a review would be within the NSG’s mandate, because it would assist in supporting two of the values governing public
administration, namely ensuring career development practices that maximise the human resource potential and creating a Public Service that is broadly representative of the demographics of South Africa. The study suggests that it is within the mandate of the NSG to craft specific leadership education and training interventions for women.

The study also contends that the equity-related regulatory framework, the gender machinery and the statutory bodies described above, are strategic initiatives for enhancing the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders. This is deemed possible because these strategic initiatives are intended to increase women’s access to representation, participation and development into decision-making levels, the elimination of barriers and the protection of women’s rights and recourse in cases where the provisions of the legislative and regulatory framework are transgressed, as per Section 11 of the CGEA, 1996, (South Africa, 1996b), Sections 5,6 and 11 of the EEA, 1998 (South Africa, 1998a) and the DPSA, (2008a:29,34).

In the implementation of the regulatory framework, the NGM in government, the legislature and the independent statutory bodies, as already mentioned in Chapter One, collaborate and serve to enhance the development of women leaders by creating recourse and monitoring systems for aspects that are inclusive of women’s leadership development. The relevance of the NGM in the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders is evident in its respective responsibilities. The NGM monitors and evaluates the equity-related regulatory framework, protects human rights that are inclusive of women’s rights, ensures that the Public Service delivers services as per required standards and provides budgets to programmes that may have an impact upon women’s leadership development and advancing women with disabilities. Whilst the PSC ensures that the Public Service delivers services according to required standards, the standards most relevant to the development of women leaders are provided for in Section 195 (1) (h and i) of the Constitution, 1996 (South Africa, 1996a).

The study argues that even though the national legislation on training and development may not have been explicit in relation to the development of women leaders, it still provides for an enabling environment supportive of development, education and training. However, recognition should be given that national legislation on training and development is not implemented in isolation from the gender related
framework and the Constitution, 1996. The various statutory bodies that have a role to play in gender related matters also have a contribution to make towards the development of women leaders.

This section concentrated on the national regulatory framework that provides guidelines in approaching development priorities and programmes. The following section covers the regulatory framework for the MPG, developed in line with national training and development initiatives. Such customised training and development initiatives are bound to influence the development of women leaders, because targeted groups for training programmes are inclusive of women.

3.3.4 The Mpumalanga Provincial Government regulatory framework

The MPG regulatory framework is derived from the national regulatory framework, and will now be discussed. In cases of inconsistencies, the national regulatory framework takes precedence.

The Mpumalanga Provincial Bursary Policy, 2010 (hereinafter referred to as MPBP, 2010) captures as one of its principles for awarding bursaries the consideration of EEPs (MPG, 2010:7). When this principle is followed through, the representation of women leaders improves. The study argues that with awarding of bursaries being one of the interventions for improving the skills base, more women leaders who would need leadership development may be specifically advantaged (MPG, 2012:12,20). Thus, improvement in the development of women leaders is eminent. Since representation has not yet reached the required 50%, a specific strategy that seeks to create a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG is a necessity.

The Mpumalanga Economic Growth and Development Path, 2011 (hereinafter referred to as MEGDP, 2011) replaces the Mpumalanga Development and Growth Strategy (MPDGS), 2004 (hereinafter referred to as the MPDGS, 2004). The MPDGS, 2004 acknowledges that HRD is one of the priorities for growth and development. Furthermore, it considers people to be at the centre of development and long term sustainable growth for the province (MPG, 2004:10, 53).

The strategic thrusts of the MPDGS, 2004, were investing in people skills for the promotion of service delivery, economic growth and development. The strategic thrusts further ensured that higher education institutions met the skills demand of the province by improving access to and ensuring quality education (MPG, 2004:54).
From the above, however, the study acknowledges that women are again not prioritised for targeted development. The development of women leaders is not one of the explicit priorities, and this limits the measurement of the influence that the implementation of the strategic thrusts would have upon the development of women leaders. The study argues that there is a need to prioritise the development of women leaders, so that proper attention could be paid to developing a sustainable pool of women leaders capable of accessing SMS positions. The lack of women’s development prioritisation leads to the view that the MPGDS is gender blind. Gender blind refers to a failure to embrace gender as an influential factor in the implementation of projects, programmes and policies (World Bank, 2016). Being gender blind implies a lack of recognition that to achieve gender equality a specific emphasis upon gender development is required.

The MEGDP, 2011 therefore advocates for education and skills levels of the citizens to be improved. Furthermore, focusing upon the improvement of education and skills level is viewed as equipping the citizens to optimally participate in both the democracy and the economy of South Africa (MPG, 2011:35). The study argues that women leaders as part of the citizens of the Mpumalanga Province too, stand to benefit from improvements in education and skills development initiatives.

Amongst the priorities of the MEGDP, 2011, is the improvement of job skills within a national target of 1.2 million employees (MPG, 2011:35). In addition, the MEGDP, 2011, challenges higher education institutions to perform a radical review of the education system and find ways of addressing the shortage of skills. The study maintains that the MEGDP, 2011 does provide a platform for women’s leadership development, but only if a sustainable pool of women leaders is identified.

The Mpumalanga Provincial HRD Strategy, 2012 (hereinafter referred as the MPHRDS, 2012), indicates that more women than men are unemployed in the province, with an unemployment rate of 36.2% for women and 26.0% for men. The purpose of the MPHRDS, 2012, is to facilitate the creation of a skilled workforce that is able to contribute to sustained economic and social growth; curtail poverty, degradation, unemployment and underdevelopment and build a conducive environment in which future generations can raise their children as they perpetuate humanity (MPG, 2012:11).
The MPHRDS, 2012, endeavours to identify the skills requirements of the Mpumalanga Province, to align supply and demand for skills and to ensure skills retention. It further facilitates skills development, meets critical and scarce skills needs and creates a debate with stakeholders on the skills requirements of the province (MPG, 2012:11-12).

Amongst the strategic priorities of the MPHRDS, 2012, is the building of a capable and efficient Public Service workforce. This priority seeks to develop a capable, committed and disciplined workforce through lifelong learning, the alignment of training programmes to critical skills and making training on core SMS competencies compulsory (MPG, 2012:20). The study maintains that both the implementation of lifelong learning initiatives and the training of the SMS on core competencies will benefit the development of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

The study claims that the regulatory framework adequately identifies the barriers that impede the advancement of women leaders into all the levels of the SMS. The gap that leads to the non-achievement of the targeted 50% representation of women leaders in all the levels of the SMS seems to arise from the strategies and action plans that do not categorically state the targets to be achieved and how these targets should be achieved, monitored, evaluated and reported. Again, the study recognises that targets alone will not ensure the development of a sustainable pool of women leaders, but may be a starting point to ensuring that women’s leadership development receives the prioritisation it needs.

The study suggests that the political environment is relevant to the development of women leaders, because it enables and regulates policies, processes and functions. The political environment indicates the political will in influencing the achievement of equal representation of women and male leaders in organisations, as well as the development of and advancement of women and the creation of an enabling and supportive environment for this development and advancement. The study claims that when the Public Service complies with the regulatory framework, attention to women’s leadership development may be possible. While the political environment identifies political commitment towards gender equity, the economic environment influences the access that women have to participating equitably in economic activities.
3.4 THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT AND ITS INFLUENCE UPON WOMEN’S LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Pearce and Robinson (2003:58,68) state that the economic environment encompasses the nature and direction of the economy in which an organisation operates. Some of the economic factors include the extent to which the economy is developed, population dynamics, rate of inflation, interest rates, the taxation system, compensation levels, unequal compensation, skills and competency levels, literacy levels, unequal advancement and unequal leadership role definition of women compared to men, per capita income and the gross national product. The economic environment contributes to the development of women leaders, either in a positive or a negative way, due to the inequalities in how women and men are affected by the various economic factors. A conducive economic environment is an imperative for the advancement and development of women leaders, so that their participation can be authentic and they can be judged as equals, and not be discriminated against for being women, irrespective of their qualifications, competence and quality of work (Piterman, 2008:10-12). The current trend is encouraging though, in that despite the barriers still existing in the workplace, a considerable number of women leaders have been resilient enough to break through the glass ceiling as demonstrated by the slow but increasing number of women ascending to higher leadership positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002:573).

The study limits itself to an analysis of the unequal compensation, unequal advancement and unequal leadership role identification between women and men leaders, as indicative of the influence of the economic environment. These aspects of the economic environment are regarded as key in analysing the influence upon the development of the women leaders.

3.4.1 Unequal compensation

Internationally, in the world of work, there seems to be a persistent compensation gap. The USA for instance, promulgated the Equal Pay Act of 1963 (hereafter referred to as EPA, 1963), which requires pay parity between women and men that perform equal work or work of equal worth (USA, 1963). The Equality and Human Rights Commission in the United Kingdom (2015) defines equal work as the same or broadly similar work or work that is equivalent as a result of a job evaluation system.
The USA (2012:1) reveals that in 2010, the full time women employees in the USA earned 77% of their male counterparts’ earnings. The gap in compensation between women and men is persistent despite the existence of the EPA, 1963. Also, the pay disparity was analysed and the aspects of the kind of work that the employees perform and qualifications with special reference to education and experience were considered. The analysis revealed that the best explanation for unequal compensation is discrimination.

The USA (2012:1) and Patten (2015) argue that the gender gap in compensation still persists. According to Section 1 of the Employment Equity Amendment Act of 2013 (No. 47 of 2013) (hereafter referred to as EEAA, 2013), compensation is defined as “any payment in money or in kind, or both in money and in kind, made owing to any person working for any other person, including the State” (South Africa, 2013).

Harries and Dye (2014) regard the declaration of the EEAA, 2013, as key for the advancement of women, given that women in South Africa earn about 50% less than their male counterparts that do the same work as they do. Harries and Dye (2014) further contend that, due to this gap in compensation between women and men, out of 134 countries in the world, South Africa ranks 91. The study argues that this ranking is bad for the development and advancement of women and has to change. The ranking shows that South Africa needs to work harder in achieving pay equity.

The USA (2012:2) maintains that the compensation gap has the following influence:

- households cannot afford basic necessities;
- households have at their disposal little or no money to invest in the future of the children; and
- women lose income as they begin to work, which in the long run results in reduced pensions, retirement savings and diminished social security benefits.

Patten (2015) suggests that some of the reasons for the gender income gap may be ascribed to spending less time at work due to:

- career interruptions in prioritising caring for the family;
- taking significant amounts of time off from work to cater for family responsibilities;
- reducing work hours to take care of either a child or a family member; and

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• some women ending up quitting their jobs to fulfil familial responsibilities.

The study argues that the aspects contributing to the gender income gap are indicative of some of the barriers that women leaders face in the workplace. To create a barrier free and enabling workplace environment, these aspects need to be eliminated.

Employees in different job categories are likely to earn different compensation based upon skill, seniority, responsibility and experience (Grogan, 2000). Section 6 of the EEA, 1998, prohibits employees from being paid different compensation on grounds including race, gender, pregnancy, marital status and family responsibility (South Africa, 1998a). Thus it is expected of employers to pay equal compensation for equal work, or work of equal worth.

The Public Service has salary scales that are applicable for all job categories. Women and men leaders that are appointed at the same date from a lower position should be paid at the same entry salary. With time, the difference in salary may be as a result of a combination of performance, prejudice and discrimination. Below satisfactory performance is not rewarded and the employee will be assisted to improve that performance. Satisfactory performance is rewarded, with a pay progression to the next salary level, whilst commendable and outstanding performance is rewarded with both pay progression and a cash bonus. Should the women and men leaders that are appointed in the same year or time perform differently, as per the categories mentioned, they are most likely to end up earning different salaries for work of equal worth (DPSA, 2003a:33-34; DPSA, 2003b: 89,107,112, 137-141; MPG, 2014:2-3,7,12-13).

A discrepancy in salary may be experienced in cases where gender discrimination and prejudice influence the evaluation of the performance of female and male leaders. Prejudice refers to negative attitudes that are held towards members of a certain social group (Eagly & Mladinic, 2011:2). It is not sufficient though that there are grievance procedures to be followed, because the outcomes of such procedures may not benefit the aggrieved employee.

The study asserts that the analysis of the compensation regulatory framework of the Public Service reveals that equal compensation for equal work or work of equal worth is being promoted at face value. The study further argues that the noble
intention to promote equality in compensation for work of equal value, may unfortunately not yet be achieved, as a result of lack of appropriate ways to reward the effort placed in the performance of duties, rather than being an incumbent of a particular salary level in the Public Service. The MPG has not yet achieved equal representation of women and men leaders in the higher leadership positions. This in itself influences the perceptions around inequality in compensation.

No research is evident on unequal compensation between public servants that is based upon reasons other than academic qualifications, experience, employee performance and seniority in the MPG. However, economic factors such as unequal compensation do not exist in isolation, but are the result of concomitant factors such as unequal opportunities for advancement (White House, 2015:5). Given the barriers facing women leaders in workplaces, the study suggests that there is a possibility that their mobility is hampered by prejudice and sex discrimination.

The study maintains that unequal compensation, in whatever form it may exist, contributes to the unequal economic advancement of women leaders as compared to their male counterparts. The compensation of women leaders is subtly affected by less favourable evaluation of their work, as well as prejudice and discrimination against them. Favourable evaluation of public servants results in pay progression and incentives (MPG, 2010:11).

3.4.2 Unequal advancement

Hiring practices are viewed as discriminatory against women leaders because the men seem to be favoured for jobs with higher status, higher authority and higher compensation. Furthermore, male leaders are preferred for male dominated and gender neutral jobs, while female leaders are only preferred for female dominated jobs. Male dominated jobs are those jobs that society prefers to be performed by men. In this context, an example is the leadership positions in the majority of organisations where male leaders are preferred. Gender neutral jobs are those that society seems not to mind being done by either women or men. More often than not, it is the male dominated jobs that have high status and compensation. Preference for men is evident, even in cases where the women may possess equal qualifications, skills and job experience, but men are be promoted instead of women. Higher standards of competency are imposed when women are considered for employment.
Women have to deal with the challenge of being accepted as legitimate in becoming leaders. Women leaders that are mothers are more likely to experience workplace discrimination (Eagly et al., 1995:127; Eagly & Carli, 2003:822; Carli & Eagly, 2011:108).

More women are engaged in personal and professional development as evident from the numbers of women that have acquired postgraduate qualifications (Eagly & Carli, 2003:822; Carli & Eagly, 2011:106). According to Statistics SA (Stats SA, 2012), 40% of women and 41.4% of men aged 20 years and older are in possession of Grade 12 and an educational qualification higher than Grade 12. When considering educational qualifications higher than Grade 12 only, there are 1 936 423 (11.9%) women and 1 708 194 (11.7%) men in this category (Stats SA, 2012:14,18, 35). According to Stats SA, (2012:14,18) there are 26 610 068 (51.4%) females and 25 160 492 (48.7%) males that make up the total South African population of 51 770 560. Thus 40% of the total female population is 10 644 027 whilst 41.4% of the total male population is 10 416 444.

The argument can be made that since women possess the necessary qualifications to access leadership positions, the expectation would be that representivity of women in leadership positions would be attainable. Yet, the opposite is true, which implies that, irrespective of qualifications, women are not considered for leadership positions when competing with men.

Bullough (2009:183-184) states that developing skills relates positively to women’s participation in leadership. The skills, formal training and the number of years of experience in top management positions are viewed as advantageous to women leaders occupying senior leadership positions. Thus, high skills levels are amongst the important factors which affect the advancement of women leaders, and are empirically kept constant in research processes and should have a positive impact upon women’s leadership. Possible control factors are, amongst others, as per the PSA, 1994, Sections 10 and 11, competence, knowledge, skills and broad representation of the South African citizens in the Public Service. The study argues that the number of women leaders possessing the required qualifications should translate into advancement, development, equal representation and minimisation of barriers of women leaders at all the levels of the SMS.
In explaining the lack of advancement to leadership roles experienced by women, a metaphor called the *glass ceiling* is utilised (Ayman & Korabik, 2010:157). The *glass ceiling* exists, despite the fact that in many countries women occupy nearly half of the labour force positions, yet they are underrepresented, particularly in top positions in the government. Throughout the world, the female population is over 50% (Exley, 1993:13). The under representation is explained as the result of invisible barriers and gender discrimination that impede women leaders' upward mobility into higher leadership positions (Bullough, 2009:179; Guerrero, 2011:381; Powell, 2011:133; Powell *et al.*, 2008:159). Doubell and Struwig (2014:531) contend that the *glass ceiling* manifests through the disproportionate number of women in leadership positions. Such a disproportion of numbers further perpetuates socialised patriarchal norms, as will be described as part of the social environment.

Doubell and Struwig (2014:531) report that despite the EEA, 1998, Section 2, that affirms the right to equal employment opportunities, a drop in South Africa's female representation in top management positions from 3.9% in 2008 to 3.6% in 2012 has been experienced. They suggest that such a drop occurred despite the realisation that women's leadership styles are suitable to leadership positions. In anticipation of the *glass ceiling*, women leaders may refrain from applying for leadership positions, even when they are better or equally qualified for the positions when compared with their male counterparts (Eagly *et al.*, 1995:127).

Women leaders further experience the *glass cliff*, where their promotion is not carried out with good intentions. Women leaders promoted for *glass cliff* purposes are allocated assignments that have a high failure rate and are provided with no support. The aim of this is that they should fall from the high echelons of leadership and fulfill the opinions of those who regard women leaders as less competent and less effective than men. Women promoted for *glass cliff* purposes end up facing the consequences of failing and being subjected to criticism and blame (Ryan & Haslam, 2005:87; Ryan & Haslam, 2007:550,554).

Organisations often further reduce the chances of promotion for women leaders, even in female dominated organisations. The phenomenon where men are promoted at the expense of women in predominantly female work places is called the *glass escalator* (Ryan & Haslam, 2007:549).
Mention has already been made in Chapter One of the gender inequality in all the SMS levels in the MPG. The extent to which the gender inequality is a product of barriers including hiring practices, the glass ceiling, the glass cliff and the glass escalator may become a research project emanating from this study. These barriers, by their nature and definition, evidence of which was provided above, have an adverse influence upon the development of women leaders. An economic environment containing these barriers is not capable of promoting equal advancement of female and male leaders, since it seems to seek to promote women leaders for the wrong reasons and/or prevent them from being promoted at all.

3.4.3 Unequal leadership role identification

The analysis of the numbers of the women and men that possess educational qualifications greater than Grade 12 reveals an almost equal number. There are slightly more women possessing educational qualifications greater than Grade 12 as described in the previous section. Thus educational qualifications cannot be the largest contributor to women leaders not advancing into all the levels of the SMS. The study argues that the “think manager-think male” paradigm (Booysen & Nkomo, 2006:24) influences the tendency to prefer men for leadership positions.

The stereotypical male agentic characteristics and the “think manager-think male” paradigm enforces that men are better suited for leadership positions than women. The combination of the two aspects is most likely to pose challenges to women leaders’ advancement into all SMS levels. Coupled with the fact that women leaders displaying agentic characteristics are viewed as having less communal characteristics and attract hostile relations and evaluations from male followers, women leaders under these circumstances are most likely not to be preferred for leadership positions (Carli & Eagly, 2011:109; Eagly & Karau, 2002:574).

The “think manager-think male” paradigm is consistent with the following definition of femininity and masculinity. The societal definition of femininity and masculinity socialises women to perceive themselves as feminine. A definition that seeks to suggest, on the one hand, that women possess, to a large extent, communal characteristics that make women display affection, helpfulness, kindness, sympathy, nurturing, gentleness, friendliness, selflessness and the ability to be interpersonally sensitive. On the other hand, the definition distinguishes men as largely possessing
agentic characteristics of aggression, ambition, dominance, forcefulness, independence, self-sufficiency, self-confidence, mastery, instrumental competence, assertiveness, task orientation and are also prone to act as leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002:574; Eagly et al., 1992:6,46).

In Chapter One, the study indicated the unequal leadership role identification that manifests in the gender representation in all levels of the SMS in the MPG. Of a total of 2 376 leaders in the MMS (MMS salary level 11 and 12) in September 2016, 938 are women leaders and 1 438 are men leaders. Furthermore, of the 645 SMS members, 204 are women and 441 are men. The study argues that while in the MMS level, women are almost appropriately represented. However, the fact that the advancement does not illustrate equal representation indicates that a strategy to sustain a pool of capable women leaders is not in place. Simply because women are represented in the MMS level does not guarantee access to the SMS level, but if a strategy exists to prioritise women’s leadership development, the intention is expressed to ensure equal access to SMS.

The study argues that the definition of masculinity and femininity that ignores androgynous behaviour by both women and men and the “think manager-think male” paradigm are all bases for unequal role identification between women and men. The study further argues that feminine characteristics are not considered to be important for the SMS level, thus the importance of feminine characteristics in senior leadership positions is not emphasised enough. This non-consideration of the feminine characteristics extends the barriers that the women leaders face in advancing to all levels of the SMS.

The economic environment creates a platform for the development of women. The extent to which an organisation bridges the gaps in compensation of women and men and identifies and advances leaders, influences the extent to which women leaders will be developed. The economic environment interacts with both the political and social environment in the workplace, and such an interaction may influence the development of women leaders either negatively or positively.

The following section discusses the social environment and its influence upon women’s leadership development. When women leaders are developed in a workplace they are engaged in an economic environment. Relationships in the
economic environment are influenced by the socialisation of women and men from both their homes and the organisations in which they serve.

3.5 THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT AND ITS INFLUENCE UPON WOMEN’S LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

The social environment is viewed as one of the contributory factors to the development of women leaders. The social environment refers to “… the beliefs, values, attitudes, opinions and life styles of persons in the firm’s external environment, as developed from cultural, ecological, demographic, religious, educational, and ethnic conditioning” (Pearce and Robinson, 2003:58). As the social attitudes change, the social environment also changes.

Smit et al. (2007:70) state that the social environment factors also impact upon an organisation through its employees. They further posit that, since people as both consumers of products and services and also as employees are carriers of the social environment factors, people’s influence upon organisational strategy should never be underestimated.

Career success is defined as “progression to the executive management or leadership level in the course of one’s career” (Doubell & Struwig, 2014:532). Barriers to career success include prejudice and discrimination, role incongruity, gender and leadership stereotyping, social exclusion from male networks, family responsibility, the ‘think manager, think man’ paradigm, undervaluing feminine values in leadership roles, scarcity of women mentors and teachers in leadership development programmes, a lack of female role models, culture and masculine organisational culture and patriarchy (Booysen, 1999:20-21; Doubell & Struwig, 2014:531-533).

Prejudice exists when “social perceivers hold a stereotype about a social group that is incongruent with the attributes that are thought to be required for success in certain classes of social roles. When a stereotyped group member and an incongruent social role become joined in the mind of the perceiver, this inconsistency lowers the evaluation of the group member as an actual or potential occupant of the role. In general, prejudice toward women leaders follows the incongruity that many people perceive between the characteristics of women and the requirement of leader roles” (Eagly & Karau, 2002:574). The United Nations (1979) refers to discrimination
against women as any form of distinction, exclusion or restriction that is practised on
the bases of sex, with the intention of disadvantaging women. Such disadvantages
include the nullifying of the recognition of women, and their’ impairment to enjoy
human rights, freedoms and equality with men in all spheres of life.

Flowing from the above regarding prejudice, gender stereotyping, leadership
stereotyping and role incongruity, are manifestations of prejudice. Gender
stereotyping refers to people’s belief that women and men have typical and divergent
traits. Attributes believed to be that of women are called communal attributes,
whereas those of men are called agentic traits, as was mentioned in the previous
section (Carli & Eagly, 2012:453).

On the one hand the communal stereotypic form of leadership suggests that
women’s forms of leadership are those of women collaborating and displaying high
interpersonal prowess in their leadership styles. On the other hand, the agentic
stereotypic forms of leadership become male stereotypic leadership that is task
oriented and dominating (Eagly et al., 1992:6).

The study argues that, based upon the Situational Leadership Theory discussed in
Chapter Two, different situations and different employees need different ways of
being lead. There are leadership situations that may demand communal traits and
others that may demand agentic traits. Thus, agentic and communal traits can be
learnt by both female and male leaders for application in appropriate leadership
situations.

Some social factors in the evaluation of leader effectiveness manifest themselves
through role incongruity, social exclusion from male networks and family
responsibility. Leader effectiveness refers to the ability of a leader to motivate
followers and enable them to perform more than they could have when the leader
was not involved (Gedney, 1999:1). Role incongruity refers to when people perceive
the gender of the leader to not be suited to a particular role. For example, those who
prefer men as leaders will view a women leader as not suitable for a leadership role
(Eagly & Karau, 2002:574).

The study maintains that perceptions of ability to lead should avoid role incongruity,
because it is not a fair measure of leadership effectiveness. Instead, the ability to
lead should be based upon the capacity of the leader to influence the followers to

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achieve organisational goals. The same standard for assessing leadership ability should be used for both women and men. The gender of a leader should not be part of the criteria to evaluate leadership effectiveness. The study further suggests that the women leaders that are increasingly advancing into leadership positions prove that the paradigm is erroneous. Thus, there is a need for organisations to start discouraging this paradigm when various leadership issues are being discussed.

Social exclusion from male networks refers to a tendency by male leaders to establish social networks that are arranged at awkward times for women and clash with their family responsibilities. By virtue of male leadership preference, such social networks are predominantly attended by men and engage in activities that most women are not interested in. These social networks are advantageous to the advancement of male leaders to even higher positions in leadership (Lyness & Thompson, 2000:87).

The study argues that it seems that social networks are advantageous to leadership development. The study further asserts that women leaders as a collective can establish their own social networks and advance themselves by sharing best practice amongst themselves. Such social networks should be designed to also enhance achievement of the work and family life balance.

Family responsibility refers to activities inclusive of domestic work, child rearing and motherhood, which women are expected to perform (Carli & Eagly, 2012:440-441). The study maintains that currently, women leaders are still faced with the bigger portion of family responsibilities. Family responsibilities contribute to women leaders not being able to dedicate long hours to organisations. Women leaders and their families need to review this skewed division of labour in the home, and how it affects their performance, and need to address it.

Undervaluing feminine values in leadership roles refers to the tendency to overlook the contribution that women leaders bring to the leadership of organisations. Powell (2011:135) contends that such undervaluing is evident in situations where the women leader:

- uses a stereotypical masculine leadership style;
- occupies a leadership role that previously was a reserved domain of male leaders, like the military; and
• is being evaluated by men.

The study contends that current complex, dynamic and turbulent organisational conditions are suited to women's leadership. Devaluing women's values will disadvantage organisations. An effort should be made for all employees of an organisation to know and appreciate the value that women bring into organisations.

The scarcity of women mentors and teachers in leadership development programmes and lack of women role models means that leadership development programme facilitation is often carried out by predominantly male facilitators. Since fewer women are in leadership positions, they then constitute insufficient numbers of role models for the majority of the women that aspire to advance to all levels of SMS (Booysen, 1999:21).

The study argues that through more women leaders advancing into higher leadership positions by design, more women role models may be created. Thus, it is imperative to develop a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

The study will focus upon culture, specifically the masculine organisational culture and patriarchy, as specific social environmental factors that influence the development of women leaders. The basis for narrowing the barriers to those identified above is evident from the categories of barriers to be focused on hereafter.

3.5.1 Culture

Culture is a complex and dynamic phenomenon consisting of both visible and invisible characteristics that may influence leadership development. Culture includes demographic characteristics, such as place of residence, or physical gender and status characteristics that may take the form of economic and educational variables. Culture also includes ethnographic characteristics in the form of nationality, ethnicity and language. Culture may be defined as shared meanings, feelings and behaviours that are acquired and transmitted to establish a human group and distinguish it from another human group (Ayman & Korabik, 2010:158).

Robbins (1998:601) contends that “culture by definition is elusive, intangible, implicit, and taken for granted. But every organisation develops a core set of assumptions, understandings and implicit rules that govern day-to-day behaviour in the workplace.
Until newcomers learn the rules, they are not accepted as full-fledged members of the organisation. Transgressions of the rules on the part of high-level executives or front-line employees result in universal disapproval and powerful penalties. Conformity to the rules becomes the primary basis for rewards and upward mobility”.

The study argues that, based upon the quotation from Robbins (1998:601), the influence of culture on the development of women leaders is clarified. The quote brings to light the existence of a specific organisational culture, where women leaders are expected to fit in and to adopt a prevailing leader’s way of approaching leadership. The elusiveness and intangible nature of culture is likely to contribute to experiences such as the glass ceiling, the double bind (which Carli and Eagly (2012:454) define as the situation where, when women display communal attributes, they are labelled as not being agentic enough, and when they display agentic attributes, they are criticised for their lack of warmth), the glass cliff and the glass escalator. Powerful penalties for women leaders who do not fit in could be their exclusion from the ‘old boys network’ and being passed over in preference of male leaders when leadership opportunities arise.

Different cultures in the workplace lead to diversity and the leadership should take this into consideration. Poor understanding of the complex and dynamic social environment and the impact of diverse cultures upon the leadership approach, is most likely to affect the preferred leadership styles. When diverse cultures are not properly understood and their influence is not well anticipated, it could prove to be difficult to diffuse conflicts emanating from interactions with others. These interactions may be fraught with misunderstandings, misattributions and misinterpretations. Poor understanding of the diverse cultures may also lead to poor assessment of how preferred styles of leadership would differ from those of others and also impact upon others. When less attention is given to the social environment, it has the potential to create challenges for women aspiring to leadership positions, or to impact negatively upon the effectiveness of women leaders already in the leadership positions (Ayman & Korabik, 2010:157).

As they grow up in their societies women are socialised to behave, think and aspire differently to men. This socialisation later creates difficulties for women leaders in the workplace, resulting in a culture trap. A culture trap is defined as a situation where the cultural diversity of people in one setting makes it difficult to communicate from a
common cultural ground (Duperval, 2005). In this case, the women leader finds herself in a culture trap between her socialisation and the culture in a masculine organisational culture. Such a culture trap could result in a dilemma in the choice of appropriate leadership styles for different situations.

Socialisation influences women leaders to regard themselves as second class and to develop a negative attitude towards leadership roles. Women leaders might internalise the second class attitude and end up accepting less praise and rewards. Their self-confidence too may be diminished (Appelbaum et al., 2003:44,46).

The study claims that a culture that still prefers male leaders to women leaders, even when the women leaders are equally or better suited for the job, or are better qualified for the job, adversely affects their development. In addition, women leaders, as part of the designated groups defined in Sections 4 and 5 and Chapter 3 of the EEA, 1998, should be advantaged when appointment opportunities exist. Suitably qualified women leaders should be advantaged because, over and above being suitably qualified, they also display the relevant leadership style. Such a leadership style is inclusive and specific to the complex context within which the Public Service operates.

While the above focuses upon culture as a general factor, Robbins (1998:595) states that organisational culture refers to “a system of shared meaning that members of an organisation hold which serves to distinguish the organisation from other organisations. It is a collection of key attributes that the organisation values". Organisational culture also refers to the norms and standards of doing things in an organisation; underlying assumptions about work performance, as well as acceptable and unacceptable behaviour that encourages and discourages actions. Organisational culture is a pervasive context that embodies the collection of traditions, values, policies, beliefs and attitudes that direct the thinking and actions in an organisation (Mullins, 1996:711).

The organisational culture, dependent upon its nature, may either impede the development of women leaders or advantage it. A masculine organisational culture embraces the masculine characteristics of leadership. An organisational culture that is characterised by men as preferred candidates for leadership positions, gender discrimination and prejudice and which promotes the glass cliff, will most definitely
contribute to the impediment of women leaders’ advancement. The study argues that an organisational culture that is androgynous, that seeks to optimally benefit from the diversity that women leaders bring to an organisation, to develop capacity building, networking, support, coaching and mentoring programmes and arrange flexible working times, is more likely to contribute to the advancement of women leaders.

Androgyny refers to the balancing of women and male leadership characteristics in leadership (Appelbaum et al., 2003:45). Bem (1977:196) suggests that androgynous individuals have the ability to perform across sex behaviour with ease. Furthermore, androgynous individuals are capable of displaying “high levels of both masculine independence and feminine nurturance” when situations warrant such behaviour (Bem, 1977:196). The study argues that an androgynous organisational culture equips both women and men equally for advancing into higher leadership echelons.

The study contends that the fact that women advanced into higher positions of leadership much later than men has disadvantaged their development. The early entry of male leaders into organisations has helped to entrench masculine values and has created masculine organisational cultures (Schein, 2007:7). The study maintains that masculine organisational cultures constitute a barrier that has the effect of some women leaders not being retained in higher positions when they eventually get the opportunity to advance into such positions. Organisational cultures are still predominantly pro-male. A predominantly masculine organisational culture is likely to limit the effectiveness of women leaders, because instead of engaging in provision of leadership, they first struggle with fitting into that culture. The masculine organisational culture that manifests in the persistent preference of male leaders is the most important hurdle for women leaders and will be most likely to discourage them from pursuing leadership positions (Schein, 2007:7).

The following cultural factors are viewed as being barriers to career success (Doubell & Struwig, 2014:533):

- individualism versus collectivism which deals with the degree to which an organisation values an individual or a group;
- power distance which deals with the degree to which an organisation tolerates inequality in power as appropriate;
• uncertainty avoidance that deals with the degree to which an organisation attaches value to certainty versus ambiguity. The degree of the risk appetite of an organisation; and
• masculinity which deals with the degree to which an organisation accepts gender values.

The study argues that the extent to which an organisation embraces the cultural factors above should determine the extent to which the organisational culture is masculine or feminine. It can be argued from these cultural factors that an organisation that promotes individualism and inequality in power, avoids uncertainty and believes that male leaders are more competent and effective than women, will be more masculine in approach to organisational leadership and culture. Such an organisation would find it difficult to support the development of women leaders.

Manifestations of the organisational culture that do not support women in senior leadership positions are reflected by the following situations (Appelbaum et al., 2003:47; Booysen & Nkomo, 2006:24; Carli & Eagly, 2011:104; Carli & Eagly, 2012:438-439; Lyness & Thompson, 2000:87):

• under-representation of women leaders in leadership roles that permit the exercise of substantial authority over others;
• women leaders’ upward mobility being hindered, irrespective of being talented, educated and committed to their careers;
• positions of decision making and authority with the latitude of influencing others’ pay or promotion are largely occupied by men; and
• situations where, irrespective of equal rank and tenure in an organisation, women leaders tend to have less authority and further lack access to demanding responsibilities and complex challenges that may later influence promotion into positions of greater authority.

According to Carli and Eagly (2011:107) even though women put more effort into improving their skills, interruption in employment and subsequent discontinuity in attending on the job training impedes their advancement into higher leadership positions. The interruption of employment results in women leaders having less job experience, which contributes to leadership positions being skewed to male leaders,
since they do not interrupt their job experiences to deal with family responsibilities, as women leaders do.

Whilst high executive positions are rewarded with advancement and higher compensation, which seems equitable for the long hours and sacrifices, expected long hours pose challenges for women leaders. Women leaders cannot allocate long hours at work, due to the fact that they lack the necessary support to do so. An enabling environment at home could include a husband or partner that equally shares the family responsibilities. Other family members too could lend a hand. The work place should be supportive and enabling, so that women leaders do not find themselves in the awkward position of seemingly having to choose between work and family responsibilities. Thus women leaders are capable of putting long hours into their work, however the social environment does not allow them to do so. The women leaders’ inability to work long hours is a form of a manifestation of patriarchy where women should be kept in the home. The women leaders’ inability to allocate more hours to work responsibilities is a subtle form of barrier to women’ advancement, since it contributes to continuously perpetuating the compensation gap between women and men (Carli & Eagly, 2012:458).

Since people tend to affiliate with those that are similar to them, in male dominated professions, male leaders have more access to powerful career networks than women leaders, and also have better chances of being promoted than women leaders. Apart from lack of time, the gender segregated career networks are not welcoming to women leaders and they often engage in activities that are not of interest to women leaders. As in Chapter Three these networks are not supportive of women, instead they offer active resistance from male leaders, they generate institutionalised impediments that stall the women leaders’ advancement into leadership positions, and they foster solidarity between men to threaten, marginalise, control and divide women leaders. The networks serve to disregard the value of feminine characteristics in leadership roles and entrench male leaders’ power, since they are always in the majority in higher leadership positions where they also take decisions about women leaders’ careers, job placement, promotion, access to training and development opportunities and performance evaluations (Appelbaum et al., 2003:47; Carli & Eagly, 2011:112 ; Carli & Eagly, 2012:458-9).
The study argues that the organisational culture that is described above is masculine. This type of organisational culture promotes men at the expense of women and ensures that a conducive environment for the advancement of men is created. In the masculine organisational culture, even in women dominated professions, the male leaders are still advantaged to be in positions of authority.

### 3.5.2 Patriarchy

Walby (1990:20) defines patriarchy as a “system of social structures and practices in which men dominate, oppress and exploit women”. Patriarchy is viewed as a prime obstacle that impedes women leaders’ advancement in the workplace. It is manifested through men controlling women in both public and private spheres. Patriarchy occurs in a society that gives men absolute priority and thus limits the human rights of women. It defines the power relations existing between women and men. The extent to which men hold power in important institutions of society illustrates the extent of patriarchy in a society (Sultana, 2010:1-2).

Some of the characteristics of patriarchy are power, dominance, hierarchy and competition. Patriarchy brings men together, irrespective of their different classes. It is materially based, ensures a hierarchical relationship between men, creates solidarity amongst them and enables them to oppress women. Men through patriarchy control the labour power of women, as well as their bodies and sexuality, inclusive of no control over their fertility or reproductive rights. Patriarchy creates a notion of every male always being in a dominant position, whilst every woman is in a subordinate position; that is, patriarchy presupposes a natural superiority of men over women. The family, the church, academia, employment, the law, textbooks, the media and the State are institutions of patriarchy and reinforce the subordination of women to men (Sultana, 2010:3-5,7,9).

Patriarchy manifests itself in the following ways (De Beauvior, 1949:11; Shozi, 2012:12; Sultana, 2010:6-11; Walby, 1990:21):

- it reduces women to the status of second class citizens or the lower sex;
- it deprives women of their legal rights and opportunities;
- it restricts the mobility of women, rejects their freedom over themselves as well as their property;
• it creates feelings of powerlessness, discrimination and causes limited self-esteem and self-confidence in women;
• it may take the form of discrimination, disregard, insult, control, exploitation, oppression and violence in the family, workplace and society;
• preference is placed upon sons, and the burden of household chores is placed upon women and girls, whilst they suffer a lack of educational opportunities and sexual harassment in the workplace;
• it causes women’s dependence upon and subordination to men in all spheres of life;
• women are viewed as property of men;
• through male violence, patriarchy instils a continued sense of insecurity in women and they are thus kept bounded to the home, are economically exploited and socially suppressed;
• men keep access to the best jobs at the expense of women, due to occupational segregation in the workplace;
• despite women having paid employment, they still do more labour than men in the households;
• the State fails to formulate policy that is pro-women or fails to ensure consequences to male dominated senior leadership in organisations that in turn fail to implement progressive policies; and
• cultural institutions such as religion, education and the media contribute to the subordination of women.

The study argues that the manifestations of patriarchy are a reflection of the extent of inequality between women and men leaders. Women leaders, by virtue of the patriarchy manifestations, start off being disadvantaged in the race for advancement in the form of both development and ascending into higher leadership positions. The patriarchy manifestations impress upon women leaders that men are superior in all spheres of life. The study contends that development programmes are a necessity to help women leaders to be resilient and advance into all levels of SMS positions, irrespective of the obvious subordinations supported by all structures of patriarchy.

Patriarchy concerns gender relations that may need to be confronted for women subordination to end. Gender relations are entrenched through (Ntoimo & Isiugo-Abanihe, 2014:1981):
• the structures of patriarchy that may need to be dismantled;
• no respect for the enjoyment of fundamental human rights;
• a society fraught with gender discrimination impeding the harnessing of the full potential of social groups, irrespective of their gender or circumstances; and
• failure to achieve equitable rapid economic growth based upon the protection of health, social, economic and political wellbeing of all citizens.

The study asserts that the influence of patriarchy on gender relations illustrates the different forms of inequities that women leaders face in their development. The study also suggests that the manifestations of gender relations call for an added effort to address the resultant adversarial environment. These gender relations create barriers to the development of women leaders. The study maintains that even though it might take a considerable length of time to completely eradicate the effects of patriarchy, development of women leaders could help them to deal with the barriers brought about by patriarchy.

Patriarchy manifests in the family, the workplace and the community at large, which places women leaders in a constant struggle to rise into higher leadership positions in all spheres of life. This social milieu that is fraught with various forms of patriarchy cannot be a conducive environment for women leaders to thrive.

The study contends that the existence of the complex and dynamic social environment demands an investigation into the content of women’s leadership development programmes. Such an investigation will help to detect the extent to which the programmes prepare the women leaders to operate in the complex and dynamic social environment. Awareness of the influence of the social environment may assist women leaders in dealing with child rearing, changing attitudes towards themselves or other women leaders occupying leadership positions and enhancing their interactions with fellow male leaders. Such awareness could also assist the women leaders to manage the influence of culture and patriarchy on the interactions with their male followers and counterparts (Guerrero, 2011:416).

The study maintains that the social environment is relevant to the development of a sustainable pool of women leaders, because women grow up in a social environment that is internalised and still influences their career choices and workplace. Such a
social environment has a potential impact upon the development of women leaders that needs to be acknowledged. The creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders should take such influences into consideration, so that women leaders may be better prepared to deal with the negative consequences upon their development.

General observations pertaining to the discussions of the political, economic and social environmental influences upon the advancement of women depict a political environment that is conducive to their progression. However, the regulatory framework transgressors do not seem to be facing consequences for transgressions that manifest themselves in the form of not reaching the required target for representation of women leaders in all the levels of SMS. The study argues that the current regulatory framework is sufficient to influence the development of women leaders. It is through implementation that any existing gaps may be identified and then addressed accordingly.

The study also suggests that the economic environment is not yet fully supporting the advancement of women leaders, due to challenges that include unequal compensation, unequal advancement between women and men and unequal leadership role identification. Hiring practices and demands that compete with family responsibilities further contribute to the inequalities in the workplace.

The study further maintains that the complex and dynamic social environment presents barriers to the development of women leaders. Culture, masculine organisational culture and patriarchy are key challenges that affect the development of women leaders. An investigation into the influence of the political, economic and social environment upon the development of women leaders may lead to insights that could assist to achieve a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The literature review indicates that the political, economic and social environments influence the development of women leaders. The political environment has established a regulatory framework that advocates gender equality and development of women leaders. South Africa has also signed a number of conventions, covenants and charters that support the promotion of gender equality and advancement of women leaders. The economic environment has tried to accommodate women leaders to develop further, but gaps are still identified. The gaps include inequalities
in hiring practices, in compensation, in career advancement between women and men and in the identification of leaders.

The social environment presents the biggest disadvantage to the development of women leaders, due to the influence of specific deeply rooted factors such as culture, masculine organisational culture and patriarchy. The predominantly male dominated nature of leadership in organisations and organisational structures are manifestations of the adversarial social environment. It is not accommodating of the family responsibilities of most women leaders, since organisations expect sacrifices such as long hours and working over weekends. The non-supportive social environment in the workplace portrays women leaders as being unable to meet these job requirements, whereas due to a lack of support, they find it difficult to balance work and life responsibilities. The disadvantages in the social environment further include the practices of discrimination, prejudice, double bind, the glass ceiling, the glass cliff and the glass escalator that all adversely affect women leaders. Family responsibilities impede women leaders from having strong networks for the advancement of their careers, whilst the ‘old boys networks’ exclude them.

Expecting women leaders to fit into the male-dominated culture of the organisations puts more pressure on them, since that expectation prevents them from being themselves. Poor networks affect women leaders’ chances of getting better mentors and promotion opportunities. Male dominated role models, male dominated curricula for leadership development programmes, male dominated lecturing staff in leadership development programmes and male dominated composition of attendees of leadership development programmes all contribute negatively to the development of women leaders.

The socialisation of women leaders through culture and their subordination through patriarchy may result in the internalisation of male superiority and developing a poor self-concept by women leaders. Such a situation may lead to women leaders not showing an interest in higher leadership positions, in order to avoid the challenges that result from the overflow of culture and patriarchy in the workplace. This will be to the disadvantage of organisations, because it will not be a decision based upon the inability of women to be effective leaders.
Chapter Three addresses the research objective pertaining to the political, economic and social environments and their influence upon women’s leadership development. Flowing from Chapter Three, Chapter Four analyses the challenges in the MPG in relation to women’s leadership development. This chapter will capture the challenges that will be induced from the empirical data collection. The primary data will be the MPG women leaders’ responses to the semi-structured questionnaire and the in-depth interview.
CHAPTER 4: AN ANALYSIS OF THE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES FOR WOMEN IN THE MPUMALANGA PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Three discussed the political, economic and social factors which have various influences upon women’s leadership development. Chapter Four presents the research findings based upon the primary data collected through the semi-structured questionnaires and the in-depth interviews, and also categorises the discussion under specific themes derived from the literature review. Throughout the chapter quotations from the primary data are included and the respondents are coded as already alluded to in Chapter One.

The following section discusses the aspects that relate to leadership development and advancement of women. The first part of the discussion covers the conceptualisation of leadership in the context of the study, which is followed by the regulatory framework that addresses women’s leadership development and advancement, organisational components influencing women’s leadership development and the conclusion.

4.2 CONCEPTUALISING LEADERSHIP IN THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

This section discusses the theme of leadership definitions with special focus upon leadership behaviour, leadership skills and leadership emergence. The leadership attributes theme follows, to emphasise the kind of attributes that leadership development programmes need to focus upon in developing women leaders. The leadership attributes theme is followed by the leadership styles theme. Leadership styles consolidate the art and science of the leader to display behaviour, skills and styles that are appropriate per situation, work environment and followers. The appropriate leadership style helps the leader to optimally influence followers to achieve the organisational goals and resolve any stumbling blocks impeding the achievement of goals.

As already alluded to in Chapter Three, the theme on culture and patriarchy introduced the influence of socialisation that spills over to the work environment to influence the outlook on leadership development and the advancement of women in particular. Culture and patriarchy also define leadership and seek to sustain cultural
and patriarchal practices, irrespective of influence upon women’s leadership development.

4.2.1 Defining leadership

The respondents defined leadership in relation to leader behaviour and leadership skills that the leader should possess, as well as leadership emergence, which speaks to whether leaders are born or made. Aspects of leader attributes and leadership styles, though relevant to leadership definitions, are discussed separately in the sections immediately after the leadership definition section.

4.2.1.1 Leader behaviour

A leader’s behaviour as perceived by the respondents is that of striving for the achievement of goals. Tobak (2015) supports this definition of leadership by focusing upon leader behaviour as “primarily a behavioural phenomenon”. Voljta (2016:2) states that leadership entails the behaviour of an individual when directing the activities of a group whose focus is a mutual goal. The respondents identify a leader as a person who displays behaviour which balances the administrative responsibility with the political responsibility within the Public Service. SMSI16 argues that balancing politics and administration is what makes public leadership so complicated. The respondents regard a leadership role as one that gives the leader authority and power that should be utilised for the achievement of goals. The authority and power allow the leader autonomy and discretion that becomes critical in taking decisions in relevant situations. Tobak (2015) supports this notion of leader behaviour, by stating that leaders challenge themselves, solve big problems, don’t whine and they have a vision that propels the followers to achieve organisational goals.

The respondents also perceive a leader to be inspiring, to understand the vision, to think ahead of the status quo and to assist the followers to understand and attain the vision. In dealing with the vision, the respondents consider the leader to be influential in ensuring buy-in into innovations that give direction, guidance, support, advice and encouragement to the followers, to optimally achieve specific and clarified goals. SMSI17 maintains that: “… a leader for me is someone that will guide you and know what are your strengths and weaknesses, and be able to groom you so that your weaknesses become your strengths, which you will be able to utilise to build other
people.” The respondents further interpret a leader to be decisive in overseeing the implementation of the strategic policies objectively, in order to enhance acknowledgement of commendable and outstanding performance, whilst managing poor performance through discipline with care.

The respondents maintain that a leader is one who communicates clearly and adequately with followers, enjoys good interpersonal relationships, is a good listener and is compassionate. They suggest that a leader knows both the personal strengths and weaknesses of followers, so that delegations are appropriate, thereby adding value to the followers through mentoring, empowering and capacitating them, to ensure that weaknesses in performance may be turned into strengths and strengths may be maintained. The respondents state that knowing strengths and weaknesses of followers enables the leader to manage human resources appropriately. The respondents’ perceptions of leadership behaviour are supported by Folkman (2010:2-3), Sundheim (2014) and Tobak (2015) who highlight the following leadership behaviours that elicit commitment from the followers to achieve specified goals:

- they have inspiring vision that motivates and energises followers to achieve desired ends;
- they focus upon continually teaching, empowering and improving their followers;
- they drive for results and are exemplary and collaborative, and they develop and build trust relationships amongst themselves and the followers;
- they possess self-confidence;
- they are courageous;
- they forever challenge themselves to do better and solve big problems;
- they listen intently, are resilient, have passion for their leadership role and life in general; and
- they have a clear focus of what to do professionally and personally.

The respondents’ interpretation of the definition of leadership is supported by the description of leadership in Chapter Two, which states that: leadership is “an interpersonal influence, exercised in situations and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals” (Tannenbaum et al., 1961:24). The aspects mentioned such as listening,
compassion, empathy and consideration of followers’ inputs, enhance the communication process. Thus all the other aspects mentioned support the influence of the leader and the achievement of specific goals. Being a good listener and being compassionate, empathetic and a good communicator, are some of the behaviours for which women leaders are known.

SMSI2 regards women leaders as follows: “Women leaders are more passionate, more understanding, they also lead by example in most cases. They take colleagues as family members and treat them as family and they also tend to help one another on things that are outside of work, even in personal things and family matters”. This perception of the behaviour of women leaders is consistent with the expectation that women leaders should be communal in their leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2003:818).

The study suggests that leadership behaviour is critical to the achievement of organisational goals, and that the definition of leadership as perceived by the respondents and supported by the literature review presents a platform for the development of women leaders. The development of women leaders is regarded as possible because the focus is upon leadership behaviour, which can be emulated from mentors or learnt from targeted leadership development programmes and every day practice of leadership duties. The study asserts that the behaviour of effective leaders has been identified as existing within women. The leadership development of women through targeted development programmes will aid in ensuring that a sustainable pool of women leaders are able to enter senior management positions and display the leadership behaviour expected from them.

Not all leadership behaviours are effective. Thus the need arises to develop the behaviour through leadership skills, so that the most appropriate leadership behaviour will be utilised in addressing the relevant leadership situations that may arise. In terms of defining leadership the respondents identified behaviour associated with transactional, transformational and gender specific leadership styles. Of interest is that leadership is neither seen as one or the other, but is rather seen as the ability to combine different leadership styles in both focusing upon the employee, as well as promoting organisational goal achievement. The following section discusses leadership skills. Leadership skills are acquired through structured learning and experience through opportunities to lead in organisations.
4.2.1.2 Leadership skills

The respondents state that leadership necessitates a combination of skills which include the creation of a vision, strategic thinking, interpersonal (people) skills, communication skills, listening skills and analytical skills. In the implementation of the strategic policies, the respondents regard the leader as a team player who organises the followers into teams that work towards the achievement of the same goal.

MMSQ5 supports this perception of leadership skills as follows: “A good leader should have the ability to be a visionary who is always thinking ahead of the current status quo, in an endeavour to add value to people’s lives. He/she should also have the ability to influence people to buy into their innovation, amend through their contribution, oversee the implementation objectively and be open to criticism, without being defensive and self-centred. They will strive for positive results in people’s lives without striving for prominence”.

The study argues that the fact that the respondents perceived women leaders as possessing the leadership skills that the various authors have supported, is an indication that there are women that are ready to lead, who just need opportunities to do so. The observed leadership skills possessed by women leaders are also an indication that women leaders are teachable, which is an important quality of a leader. Maxwell (2016) suggests that to keep leading, leaders should keep learning. The respondents believe that through the combination of skills, the leaders should be able to adapt to all kinds of circumstances, since leadership is challenging and requires a lot of work and time. Voljta (2016:2) supports this belief by stating that leaders need to continuously motivate others over a lengthy period of time, create an environment supportive of high collegiality and develop interpersonal relations, whilst being a team player.

The skills that the respondents perceive leaders to have are supported by CIMA (2001:2), MTD Training (2010) and Fáite Ireland (2013:4), who also allude to many other skills. The discussion of leadership skills is followed by the discussion of leadership emergence. Leadership emergence addresses the notion of whether leaders are born or made, and what difference this makes in women’s leadership development and advancement processes.
4.2.1.3 Leadership emergence

The respondents considered leadership emergence in relation to whether leaders are born or made or both born and made. The responses from the respondents reveal that leaders are both born and made, with more emphasis upon leaders being made. The respondents that suggest that leaders are made make reference to the influence upon leadership emergence of mentoring, training, learning and willingness to learn, observance and emulation of leadership behaviour, nurturing and providing opportunities to lead, developing leadership skills over time and grooming and providing experience and exposure over time. A specific comment in this respect is made by SMSQ8: “Leaders are made. Through exposure to good practices leadership can be learnt. Of course it takes willingness from a person to see the difference and then want to learn. With the right attitude, anyone can be whatever they want to be. So anyone can lead if they are willing to learn”. SMSI6 maintains that: “Made leaders are nurtured. They are given opportunities. They are mentored and they succeed. When I was Director: Planning, there was this shy male follower. I spotted his potential and I focused upon him. Today he is a Deputy Director and I believe one day he will be somewhere high in the leadership echelons”.

SMSI13 states that: “Leaders are born in the sense that I may have certain strengths that I am born with. I may have a strong character that I am born with. I am able to express my feelings and express myself because I am born that way”.

The study argues that leadership is developed, taking into account that people may be born with specific personality traits which may contribute to being a leader. However, being exposed to lifelong learning will enable a person to become a better leader. The study maintains that the fact that respondents perceive leadership to be more made than born is advantageous to the leadership development of women, because targeted programmes, exposure and leadership opportunities will assist in the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The theme that is discussed in the following section is leadership attributes. Leadership attributes are viewed from the general perspective of attributes possessed by leaders, irrespective of their gender, and also the specific attributes that are perceived as being possessed by women leaders.
4.2.2 Leadership attributes

The respondents recognise that women and men leaders have or should have the same attributes, and also that women leaders have attributes that may make them even better leaders. The respondents also highlight a few negative attributes displayed by women leaders.

The respondents consider the attributes that are the same, or should be the same, in both women and men leaders, to be humility, through the ability to admit to their own mistakes, as well as allowing themselves to be led by the followers where an opportunity presents itself. The respondents further recognise attributes such as intelligence, respect, patience, ability to read circumstances, flexibility, commitment, being a mentor and a creative problem solver and being orderly, focused, firm, principled and disciplined, as fundamental to leadership. Furthermore, a leader is perceived as one who leads by example by doing the right things and having values like honesty and integrity, professionalism, responsibility and accountability. Two specific comments by the respondents regarding similar attributes for female and male leaders are MMSQ5: “Leaders should have assertiveness, foresight, open-mindedness, analytical ability, be accommodative, be non-judgemental, have a will for lifelong learning and be innovative” and SMSQ23: “Leaders should have integrity, strategic thinking, decisiveness, courage, humility, objectivity and flexibility”. Munroe (1984:37-39, 133-150), Zaccaro et al. (2003:109-118), Ryan (2010), MTD Training (2010:10-16), CIMA (2001:2), Maxwell (2016) and Voljta (2016:1-2) collectively support the leadership attributes as perceived by these respondents. The respondents are further supported by Eagly and Johnson (1990:233) who point out the absence of reliable differences in the way that women and men lead. The study also recognises that in identifying leadership attributes, respondents prefer the combination of traditionally masculine attributes, such as decisiveness, to be balanced with feminine attributes such as humility. The respondents thereby indicate that men and women should be equally successful, if given the same sets of circumstances in which to lead.

The respondents also single out those attributes that they believe to be possessed by women leaders, which are: perfectionism, paying attention to detail, being hardworking, persuasive, passionate, self-motivated, sympathetic, empathetic and good negotiators. They are often able to admit mistakes, have strong interpersonal
relations, are better communicators, better listeners, have better values, are better leaders and are more understanding. The respondents further suggest that the values that women leaders bring to an organisation are those of providing a listening ear and hearing even that which is not said. The respondents believe that women leaders contribute the values of Ubuntu, the importance of togetherness, wisdom, a calming voice, a loving nature, better organisational ability, compassion, honesty and integrity, humility, respect and hard work to their organisations.

The respondents’ perception of the value of women leaders is supported by Eagly and Johnson (1990:236) and Eagly and Carli (2003:810), who maintain that the value contributed by women is through their feminine, expressive and communal behaviours. The manifestations of the differences alluded to in Patel and Buiting (2013:7) are increased performance of the organisations that have more women board members and executives, better corporate governance and ethical behaviour.

McKinsey and Company (2008:6) further clarify that women’s ability to frequently apply participative decision making, role modelling, being inspirational, providing followers with clear expectations and rewards and investing in people development. The ability influences their contribution to the organisational excellence and financial performance.

A few of the negative attributes which were identified were being too ambitious, not able to move on from past hurts, wounds or fights, wanting to prove a point even when it is not necessary, and still believing that ‘it is a man’s world’, as perceived by SMSQ14 who states that: “Mostly, however, there are women who still believe it is a man’s world and try to be a man, whereas there are far greater advantages to being a woman in leadership”. The respondents also believe that some women leaders no longer want to further their studies, are emotional, get easily disrupted, lose focus and are scared to take decisions.

Sandler (2014:64) states that women are not comfortable with power and ambition, set themselves a standard of having to do everything incredibly well to be good enough, may tone down their natural style of task-focus, and irrespective of them being genuinely inspiring and delivering great value to their organisations, they may choose not to stand out to the senior management. Thus the evaluation of women as being too ambitious could also be the projection of the extent to which women
leaders are uncomfortable with power and ambition. McKinsey and Company (2007:9) maintain that the perceived lower ambition of women may be influenced by the awareness of the barriers that they face which include: difficulty to capture every opportunity for promotion, inability to associate with success, tendency to play down their contribution in the organisation’s successes, lack of role models and difficulty in finding mentors.

The study argues that different sets of attributes are needed for different leadership settings. In addition, different leaders will exhibit different sets of leadership attributes in different leadership settings due to their different backgrounds, exposure and experience. The study contends that the gender of the leader is critical because women leaders contribute attributes associated with care and concern.

The theme that is discussed in the following section is leadership styles. The leader behaviour, leadership skills, leadership emergence and leadership attributes find expression through the leadership styles that various leaders display. The leadership style is identified through analysing the leader’s different sets of attributes displayed when addressing various situations. The discussion will integrate the respondents’ perceptions drawn from the primary data and the literature review.

**4.2.3 Leadership styles**

In general there are a variety of leadership styles. The respondents have identified the democratic, autocratic, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles as the generic leadership styles for both women and men leaders. SMSQ8 observes that: “Leadership is an exercise that should be generic and leaders should just lead in a responsible manner, irrespective of whether they are men or women”.

The respondents further recognise that women leaders are capable of utilising all these leadership styles too, depending upon the situation that needs to be addressed. The respondents highlight that women leaders have a tendency to frequently display a democratic, service oriented and transformational leadership style, which illustrates the difference between them and men leaders. SMS117 offers a specific comment about women’s leadership styles, stating that: “I think it depends upon the person and it also depends upon the situation. It is very difficult to say you know that women leaders utilise one style, because, as leaders we use different
styles to get what we want at the end of the day. Whether it is to hold someone’s hand, whether it is to achieve some objective, we utilise different styles and you know sometimes you can’t always be democratic. You just need to take a decision and run with it. You can’t consult with everyone. Sometimes you do not have the luxury of consultation”. MMSQ13 contends that: “In the main women leaders show a mix of leadership styles such as authoritative, coaching and coercive styles. They use each style to suit the need of that particular moment or task”.

The respondents identified other negative aspects in the women’s leadership styles, such as being domineering, insecure, masculine, disrespectful, working hard but not smart, sometimes being impulsive, making decisions reliant on male counterparts, sometimes lacking listening skills, sometimes lacking confrontation skills and needing to prove themselves. Specific comments include: SMSI13: “They are too democratic, and sometimes this is a disadvantage. As I said earlier on, we must just take a decision and put our foot down. That’s it, we have taken a decision. We are too consultative”. SMSQ10 suggests that: “Women have a hands-on approach which sometimes is a disadvantage, as we tend to find it very hard to delegate”.

The study argues that although subtle, there is a difference in the leadership style of women, and it is for this reason that contemporary organisations and organisations in turbulent times and beyond are said to be better managed by women leaders (Jogulu & Wood, 2006:242; McKinsey & Company, 2009:12-14; Rosener, 1990:125). The tendency for women leaders to be democratic and transformational in their leadership stands to benefit the organisations they are leading (Eagly et al., 2003:570,573; Rowley et al., 2013:86).

Women leaders excel in most leadership competencies, whilst they have a higher level of cultural and emotional intelligence. This enhances their ability to be more aware of their values, purposes and vulnerabilities. This ability is desirable for effective leadership. The ability also assists women leaders to be better at recognising subtle facial expression which is an important factor for effective and empathetic communication (Patel & Buiting, 2013:12).

The study argues that the respondents perceived various types of leadership styles displayed by women leaders. The fact that the most dominant one displayed by women leaders is the democratic leadership style, indicates the type of leadership
that 21st Century organisations need. Thus, there is both a need to develop women’s leadership, and also to advance those women leaders that are ready and in need of opportunities to lead. What does seem to be a bit of a contradiction is that when asked, the respondents indicated that the style which makes women so effective, namely being transformational leaders, may also lead to situations where more directive leadership is needed. The study suggests that while women possess the innate ability to promote transformational leadership, during their development they should also learn the benefits of balancing transformational and transactional leadership and learning when to use which style. This highlights the importance of understanding that leadership is situational as well as contextual.

Following the leadership styles theme is the culture and patriarchy theme. Culture and patriarchy socialises women and men differently and this socialisation has a bearing upon the leadership styles that are chosen for various situations.

**4.2.4 Culture and patriarchy**

Prior to women being influenced by their work environments and academic qualifications, culture and patriarchy have already socialised and entrenched in them the cultural teachings that imply that men are better leaders. This section resonates with the discussion in Chapter Three because socialisation manifests in women leaders not being able to stand their ground and they end up having a tendency to depend upon male colleagues who represent the cultural head of the family in society. Socialisation is perceived by the respondents as further hampering the participation of women leaders in organisational meetings. The perception is that their contributions will not be considered by virtue of these contributions coming from a female, and they then choose to keep quiet during meetings. The respondents further maintain that when women express their opinions, they are termed to be disrespectful and their upward mobility is hampered. SMSI9 points out that: “These teachings are perceived as creating barriers for women’s leadership development”. In addition, SMSI8 contends that: “…therefore even when we get to the boardroom we are so submissive that we agree to everything that they tell us. And as a result, most of the young women would then keep quiet in those meetings and we will never know the potential of some of them”. Patel and Buiting (2013:27) state that women themselves need to change their mind-set regarding how culture influences their leadership and organisations must coach women leaders on boardroom dynamics.
The respondents recognise that culture and patriarchy always give men higher status than women. SMSI15 maintains that: “Culture does influence women’s leadership. Men are always given higher recognition than women. The brother is more important because he will carry the family name and influence how you think and behave”. Thus, since most higher leadership positions are held by men, the perception is that they will not relinquish these positions without a struggle, since in other instances a man may have to be overlooked in favour of a woman. Furthermore, MMSQ6 observes that “females are much stronger than males, but culture requires that they should always humble themselves, even in situations that obviously could be handled differently”. In respecting culture and humbling themselves, women, through gender stereotypes, emerge as if they are not equal to leadership roles, and yet the type of leadership behaviours and styles displayed by women leaders are suitable to modern day organisations. Patel and Buiting (2013:22) assert that women leaders have a tendency to humble themselves to the extent that they play down their contribution to the performance of the organisation and do not express their ambition for promotion, which contributes to them being overlooked for promotion.

The respondents observe that patriarchy is the biggest challenge to the development and advancement of women into higher positions of leadership. They maintain that girls and boys are socialised differently, with the girl being taught to be inferior and the boy being taught to be a leader. Girls are taught to talk in a particular way to men and husbands and to always show respect to them. Girls are taught that there are particular things that they can’t do. SMSI8 supports these perceptions by stating that: “It is the way we have been brought up. Patriarchy is embedded in us. Patriarchy was designed in such a way that we (women) feel less of ourselves and they (men) feel more superior to us”. A manifestation of patriarchy is viewed by the respondents as the contest between the role of women as child bearers and carers and their leadership responsibilities.

SMSI6 explains: “You see, patriarchy is a monster challenging us as females that will take us years to overcome. I am saying that because some of our leaders will listen better to men than women leaders. Somebody once said “no-one is going to liberate females, but females need to liberate themselves” and I think he is right, because even with mere voting…it seems we love the men folk and I don’t have anything
against them, but it’s just that there are certain things about which I feel we do not think straight, because there are certain things that we put on a platter for men. But for females, we have to work doubly hard for these things and that is a challenge for me. I know I am simplifying patriarchy here but I am simplifying it because it is so embedded in our veins and in our thinking that we can’t even challenge certain things we see”.

The respondents maintain that patriarchy is internalised in the form of societal stereotypes by females, to the extent that a psychological glass ceiling is created which causes females in leadership positions to fail to handle their power and not be supported, even by other women leaders. In such a situation women are perceived as considering themselves to be less qualified, become less assertive, engage in less self-promoting behaviours and also fear risk taking. The respondents assert that the lack of support and the rejection of women leaders influence women’s leadership, as SMSQ8 reports: “It’s very bad. Cultural stereotypes do not support women’s leadership. So, women leaders tend to be rejected, even by other women, when they are in power exercising the rights or dictates that come with the authority of the position. Women are the ones who throw the biggest stones at other women”.

Patriarchy is also viewed by respondents as influencing females to lose their femininity. According to SMSI10: “We always want to do things that men do, instead of doing things we are good at, or in a manner that women do, as long as we achieve the same outcomes or even better outcomes. You know that there are attributes that women have and men don’t have. So we don’t use those female attributes to our advantage to achieve our outcomes, because we always want to match ourselves with the men that we are working with”. Given the presence of double bind (Carli & Eagly, 2012:454) and the lack of women leaders as role models, the study argues that some women leaders would choose to act more like men, since men are the majority of role models and their leadership is preferred (Schein, 2007:7). Since leadership is also learned through emulation of leadership behaviour, women leaders end up imitating what the men leaders are doing, as though it is best practice for leadership. That those women leaders end up choosing to respond that way to double bind, might not be the best way out, but it could be a question of choosing to be seen as competent, rather than being liked (Eagly & Carli, 2003:822)
The study suggests that the issues raised may easily be viewed as economic factors, because they arise in an economic environment in the work place. However, these issues arise in an economic environment controlled by leaders who are already socialised in patriarchal societies and have assimilated gender stereotypes, prejudice and gender discrimination: the manifestations of patriarchy.

Male leadership preference prevails, irrespective of the value that women leaders bring into the organisation, their attained qualifications and their attributes. The study thus argues that patriarchy is a stumbling block to the development and advancement of women leaders. Patriarchy influences the mind-sets of both women and men and thus contributes to how women’s leadership development is thought about, decided upon and implemented.

From the leadership aspects discussed previously it was revealed that women leaders have the necessary attributes and leadership styles regarded as contributing to leaders’ effectiveness. The constraints for women leaders are the influence of culture and patriarchy on their development and advancement. Different socialisation resulting from culture and patriarchy influences how both women and men approach leadership, to the detriment of women leaders. The regulatory framework discussed below contributes some relief, because it mandates organisations to put measures in place to develop and advance women leaders. The supportive regulatory framework assists in ensuring that both women and men should start changing their approach to leadership development and advancement. The mandatory part of the regulatory framework implies that those that do not comply will have to explain the reasons for non-compliance.

4.3 REGULATORY FRAMEWORK ADDRESSING WOMEN’S LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND ADVANCEMENT

The respondents assert that the regulatory framework supports women in their leadership development and advancement. MMSI4 states that: “Yes I think there are regulatory frameworks that are developed to assist in the development of women leaders. I am looking at the gender policies that are developed in departments. I am also looking at the Employment Equity Act which addresses issues of gender and the Constitution itself, which does provide support for that”. The respondents perceive that the regulatory framework could be improved to target women’s
leadership development specifically, and could also state precise penalties for non-achievement of plans that would advantage the development and advancement of women into higher leadership positions.

In supporting improved implementation of the regulatory framework, MMSI1 states that: “I think then we must have what they call financing for gender equality. Which means that we are saying as both private and public sectors that we should plan for this and they (organisations) must put more resources for women aside. And then maybe when we go deeper into other things like the SADC Gender Protocol and United Nations commitments that deal with the advancement of women we should have intensive implementation”.

The respondents raise the challenges of the legal framework not being appropriately implemented, monitored and evaluated. SMSI17 supports the perception and states that: “There are regulations and legislation that provide for women’s equity but is it really implemented? We report about it but where does it go? Does someone really care and say let’s develop these aspects? Is there something specific for the department? No. I don’t believe I have seen a departmental policy that is more biased towards women leaders”.

The Commission on Gender Equality Report on CEDAW, 2013 (CGE, 2013:102) reveals that implementation of the regulatory framework is a challenge. Some of the failure in the implementation of the regulatory framework includes the non-achievement of the equal representation of females in all levels of the SMS. This failure occurred despite the DPSA having received permission to include employment equity targets in the performance agreements of the Heads of Departments (HODs) and the Directors General (DGs), as per Cabinet Decision No 55 of 2012. This failure also occurred despite the equal representation of females and males target being set to be achieved in 2009, which was later shifted to 2015, and to date has still not been achieved.

There is furthermore no evidence that the HODs and the Directors General have been taken to task for non-achievement of the employment equity targets. The CGE (2013:107) identifies the gap in that the regulatory framework is not biased towards females. The study argues that the regulatory framework is supportive enough and that it is inappropriate implementation which impedes the detection of flaws in the
regulatory framework, if any. The fact that there are perceptions of lack of monitoring, evaluation and consequences for non-compliance, is an indication of the probable impact that the regulatory framework is supposed to have on the development of women leaders. MMSI5 posits that: “I think the monitoring part of it should be improved, because I know that there should be a system where reports are being submitted, indicating whether the department is reaching the target of representivity for women. Many departments will discover that the target is not achieved. There is nothing that is done about this, after finding that you are not complying. There is nothing that is in place that will force or motivate responsible people in the respective departments to comply”.

The respondents perceive that the current pool of SMS members, that are mainly men, is restrictive in the attempt to try and meet the targeted gender representation. MMSQ21 states that, “The regulatory framework I have observed to confirm the need for representation, but for some reason there are still beliefs amongst those in power, despite the existence of all due legislation, that male leaders are more efficient, which therefore contributes to the slow pace in appointing more women”.

The respondents argue that although at the level of heads of department, there is an almost fair representation of women, and the most recent Director General (DG) was a woman, the levels of the SMS in general is predominantly male. They further perceive that even in departments like Health, Social Development and Education, where the base is predominantly female, that representation is not proportional in the higher leadership echelons. Reasons for perceiving unequal representation of women and men in the MPG are inclusive of a lack of appropriate women for senior management positions, women being afraid of promotion, women not being given a chance for promotion or preference towards men during selection. A specific comment by SMSI6 alludes to the fact that as an indication of male leadership preference, one of her women colleagues likened the appointment of more women leaders to a girls’ choir that is not available at all times, because of childrearing and care giving responsibilities. SMSI6 further explained that her colleague’s comment perturbed her, since the department contains young women who need to be provided with opportunities.

Patel and Buiting (2013:7,21) argue that this unequal representation of women occurs despite the fact that women are increasingly educated, improve
organisational performance, live longer and represent the largest economic opportunity. The representivity of women in senior management positions is necessary, but the study argues that as long as the development of women does not receive targeted priority, through the creation of a sustainable pool of leaders, the intentions of government towards development may remain unfulfilled.

The study acknowledges that there seems to be an invisible barrier at the MMS level. The assertion emanates from the almost equal representation of women and men leaders at the MMS level, whereas the various levels of SMS reflect that more than twice the number of leaders are men (MPG, 2016a). The study maintains that despite supportive legislation, women do not as yet have equal opportunities for identification as leaders. Failure to identify women as leaders takes place through the inappropriate implementation of an enabling and supportive regulatory framework in South Africa. The lack of progress in developing and advancing women leaders is a display of the deep rooted influence of culture, patriarchy and gender stereotypes in the MPG. The subtleness of the influence of barriers to the development and advancement of women leaders contributes to the complexity of gender inequality. The quest to address these barriers gives impetus to the study to create a sustainable pool of women leaders. Thus, while the above demonstrates that respondents regard women leaders as necessary to the achievement of organisational goals and this is supported by literature, legislation prescribes that developing women leaders is not only important, but also mandatory.

Whilst the regulatory framework determines the parameters for behaviour in the practice of public administration, it is incumbent upon the organisation to translate the regulatory framework into implementation plans. The following discussion upon the organisational components influencing women’s leadership and advancement escalates the organisational aspects that are key contributors to the slow pace of women’s leadership development and advancement.

4.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMPONENTS INFLUENCING WOMEN’S LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND ADVANCEMENT

The respondents perceive that there are aspects of the workplace that reveal that women do not yet have equal opportunities to be identified, developed and to advance into leadership positions. Some such aspects include a supportive
organisational environment and culture, compensation, and the issues of women’s leadership development and advancement.

Organisational culture encompasses enabling a supportive environment, whilst leadership development incorporates the extent to which women’s leadership development and advancement is approached and emphasised, coupled with the challenges that are experienced. This section also discusses compensation as an organisational component that influences women’s development and advancement. The compensation discussion recognises the existence of the DPSA salary scales that at face value suggest equal compensation for equal work or work of equal worth.

4.4.1 Supportive organisational environment and culture

Tharp (2009:5) defines organisational culture as: “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”. O’Donnell and Boyle (2008:6) support the definition of organisational culture by asserting that it consists of deep seated and underlying values and assumptions in an organisation that manifest in a display of patterns of behaviour and the creation of observable symbols and ceremonies, that confirm how things are done and what is valued in the organisation. The definition of organisational culture is in agreement with the definition in Chapter Three and depicts an element of employees in an organisation working together to establish how things are done. Thus, organisational culture does not cater for a particular sector of the employees of an organisation deciding how things are done.

The respondents regard the MPG as having a masculine organisational culture due to the high numbers of male leaders, in particular in the senior management positions. The respondents believe that since male leaders take decisions by virtue of their being the majority in all the levels of the SMS, the decisions they take have a masculine inclination. The study also acknowledges that the respondents are used to this culture, since they indicate that the leadership attributes and styles they perceive as being effective are a combination of both masculine and feminine leadership characteristics. This is an interesting finding of the study, in that even for the women involved as respondents, a gendered approach to leadership development and
advancement would be beneficial, for both their own growth as well as for the organisational culture.

The respondents interpret that the general treatment of women leaders seems to be intended to send a message to all women leaders that they are not preferred as leaders, they are not expected to be leaders and also that they cannot lead. The study argues that the larger numbers of men leaders in the SMS constitute a statement that the MPG prefers male leaders. Furthermore, the respondents also perceive that the masculine organisational culture of the MPG extends to organised labour, where the reigning chairpersons in the MPG are men. The study views the status of chairpersons in the branches of organised labour in the MPG as an extension of the message about preference for male leaders.

The respondents’ perceptions of the masculine organisational culture are supported by Appelbaum et al. (2003:47), Booysen and Nkomo (2006:24), Carli and Eagly (2011:104), Carli and Eagly (2012:438-439) and Lyness and Thompson (2000:87), who argue that a masculine organisational structure manifests in under representation of women leaders in leadership roles, lack of upward mobility despite women leaders being talented, educated and committed to their careers, higher leadership positions being occupied by men leaders and women leaders lacking access to challenging assignments that have prospects for promotion. Schein (2007:7) supports these observations by suggesting that women leaders’ interruption of employment and subsequent discontinuity of attending skills development programmes adversely influences their advancement into higher leadership positions.

Carli and Eagly (2012:457-458) and Guerrero (2011:410-411) support the opinions of the respondents regarding different treatment of women and men leaders and masculine organisational culture alluded to above, by maintaining that impediments emanating from the influence of culture in women’s leadership manifests in a masculine organisational culture where:

- women leaders are likely to be appointed in organisations that are not doing well financially;
- women leaders are also confronted with unwelcoming organisational cultures and exclusive male networks that do not encourage them to participate, or if
they do, would not accommodate their needs. The gender segregated networks are mostly predominantly comprised of male leaders resulting in the most powerful networks being those of male leaders;

- most women are employed in staff jobs like marketing and human resources, and yet employees ending up in leadership positions come from the line function managers;
- the perception that women leaders do not have both the ambition and the competitive drive of males is utilised to deprive women leaders of promotion;
- women leaders are taught to be communal and to focus upon the needs of others, which in the end makes them feel that they cannot negotiate for a pay increase or greater responsibilities;
- women leaders experience outright gender discrimination that sometimes manifests in male leader preference and poor women leader performance evaluations;
- women are being stuck in gender segregated occupations that ensure that females remain in lower paying jobs;
- organisations have no strategies and programmes to assist females to reach a work and personal life balance;
- organisations demand a great deal from high status executive positions: employees should have very little outside responsibility and should be totally devoted to the achievement of their goals, which deliberately excludes women leaders from promotion, since they are expected to prioritise their family responsibility;
- work extending technology that demands that employees are accessible anytime, anywhere, even after working hours, on weekends and even when employees are on holiday, is considered to be in the best interest of the organisation, irrespective of how it presents a barrier to women leaders;
- male dominated workplaces increase the male leaders’ probability of being promoted into higher leadership positions;
- expectations that women leaders should fit into the masculine organisational culture exist;
- male leaders receive more challenging and developmental assignments;
women leaders are allocated highly risky assignments where they are more likely to fail (glass cliff), thus not receiving desirable assignments with the potential for advancement.

The study argues that the subtleness of gender inequality has an influence upon the perception of the MPG being neither feminine nor masculine. However, Vasquez (2015) states that conventional masculinity is often adopted to be the performance standard, irrespective of the existence of alternative standards that would be more beneficial to the organisation, and especially the women with aspirations for career advancement. This manifestation of masculine organisational culture also forms the basis for organisations to perpetrate leadership as a masculine role that is defined in conventional masculine terms that promotes men in general, and especially those who seem to embody conventional masculinity, as they perform their leadership duties. The study thus argues that a masculine organisational culture is a fertile ground for gender inequality.

A masculine organisational culture is incapable of creating an enabling and supportive work environment for the development and advancement of women leaders. Women leaders need to have equal opportunity to apply for leadership positions. However the MPG masculine organisational culture discourages them from applying for those positions. This means that the MPG organisational culture cannot be either feminine or masculine as perceived by the respondents. When recruitment panels are composed predominantly of men and the decision makers are predominantly men, the women selected and interviewed are already at a disadvantage.

Owing to the fact that the MPG has a masculine organisational culture, there are no childcare facilities, no health care facilities and there is an expectation that some meetings start on a Sunday or take place over the weekend. This often occurs without the courtesy of advance notification, which causes the respondents to perceive that the environment is not enabling and not supportive. SMSQ14 supports this perception when she states that: “The haphazardness in executing activities tends to require availability after hours, which is not user friendly for families. Poor planning leads to activities being done under pressure”.

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The respondents also acknowledge that the manner in which work is planned and expected to be done is characteristic of the masculine organisational culture of the MPG. The planning of work disregards the family responsibilities of women, since sacrifices are expected to be made where women leaders work extended hours both during the week and over weekends without reasonable notice. With regard to family responsibilities, the respondents contend that women leaders bear a large burden of care, since family responsibilities are skewed towards women leaders. This is viewed as potentially creating stress, depression and lack of rest, since a lot is expected of women leaders. The burden of care is perceived to influence women leaders to be reluctant to participate in developmental opportunities that take them away from their homes. In addition, the burden of family responsibilities is perceived to discourage women leaders from applying for higher leadership positions.

The respondents maintain that the influence of family responsibilities on women’s leadership development manifests in husbands and children that expect of the woman leader to do household chores, even when it is obvious that she does not have the time and space for that. Family responsibilities are perceived to pressure women leaders to prioritise the care of the children, the sick and the elderly in their homes, rather than pursue a career in higher leadership positions. The respondents suggest that family responsibilities are stressful for women leaders, because they spend most of the time in boardrooms and still have to perform household duties (Hillebrand-Tijhuis, 2012:12).

The respondents also suggest that women leaders are unable to achieve a work and family life balance because of a non-supportive workplace environment, and end up opting out of possible advancement to higher leadership positions. They contend that some women are forced to postpone both furthering their studies and competing for higher leadership positions because of the burden of family responsibilities. They also maintain that women do not have time to form social networks that would be advantageous to them. The respondents view family responsibilities as embodying multiple roles for the women leaders, and that as a result, they are burdened. SMSI5 states that “In terms of motivation to take up leadership positions, those that are in these positions sometimes find that they are being compromised. Often there are women you can see could take even the highest position, but then because of family they will decline leadership positions”. Thus, for peace’s sake in the family, females
are perceived to choose to take the back seat regarding their development and advancement. MMSQ5 further supports this perception by stating that: “Females are expected to be present for meetings that start at 06h00 when kids need to be seen off to school. Females are expected to drive to faraway places and sleep-over, regardless of what happens in their homes”. Patel and Buiting (2013:26,28) allude to the lack of flexible working times, career flexibility and use of technology as aggravating the plight of women leaders.

SMSQ14 purports that family responsibilities influence women’s leadership development and advancement as follows: “Some females are not available after hours and for extended days out of the homestead. Thus it works against them in some leadership activities. However, most females make arrangements for children and avail themselves of these arrangements as required. Arrangements go hand in hand with money, thus those who earn better are better able to make arrangements than those who earn less”. The respondents suggest that the influence of family responsibilities manifests in absenteeism of women leaders, which creates an opportunity for appointments into leadership positions to be biased towards men. The absence of childcare facilities too exacerbates the plight of the women leaders in relation to family responsibilities.

The respondents’ perceptions of the influence of family responsibilities on women’s leadership development are supported by Patel and Buiting (2013:9) who claim that women experience a double burden syndrome, especially in Africa and Asia, as already mentioned in Chapter One, because improving their professional opportunities does not translate into their family responsibilities being relinquished. Instead such women are still found to be doing double the household duties when compared to their spouses. In a similar study in the Free State Provincial Government, Lues et al. (2004:313) found that the majority of the African women managers were single parents, those married did not necessarily have supportive husbands and that they needed a supportive structure to balance work and family life since they still have the family responsibility despite their leadership roles at work.

Powell (2011:187) contends that the influence of family responsibilities is evident in the lack of work and family life balance. Such influence manifests in displays of time based behaviour, and strain based conflicts and behaviour congruent with gender roles. The time based conflict results when the time spent in the work role
disadvantages the achievement of goals in the family role and vice versa. The behaviour based conflict manifests when the behaviour in a situation in the work role cannot be used as a response in a similar situation in the family role and vice versa. Strain based conflict is also displayed when a strain from the work role spills over to the family role or vice versa. Furthermore when women behave in a manner congruent to perceived gender roles, they are more likely to accept part time or lower paying jobs, so as to have more time for family responsibilities. As women make these decisions and prioritise their families, they inevitably jeopardise their chances of ascending into higher positions of leadership.

Carli and Eagly (2012:458) state that the impediments emanating from the influence of family responsibilities on women’s leadership are:

- rewards are linked to the availability to work more hours, which at face value may seem fair and equitable, even if fewer women leaders would be able to make themselves available;
- women leaders having to manage the bulk of family responsibilities, leaving them little time for self-development;
- women leaders having to choose between promotion and/or starting a family; and
- work and family life that prevent the women leaders from establishing important networks and accessing these networks.

The study argues that family responsibilities are a burden to women leaders and it is not supposed to be so. The study maintains that the burden on women leaders is further compounded by the lack of an enabling and supportive work environment, which should be willing to create opportunities for women to both strike a work and family life balance and optimally be granted opportunities to lead. These opportunities would result in giving women leaders increased prospects to display the value and leadership qualities that they possess. Even where weakness may exist, this would not be known when women leaders are not given opportunities to lead. These challenges presented by family responsibilities inspire the study to develop a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The inspiration is derived from the fact that the MPG needs to find ways of addressing this impediment to women’s development and advancement, in order to benefit from the value that women’s leadership provides.
Working under pressure, working long hours and working late are viewed as not taking family responsibilities into account, and serve to discourage women leaders from progressing into leadership positions. Females are not assisted to strike a balance between work and family responsibilities. SMSI3 asserts that “…we still have a long way to go because, in terms of the working hours between females and males, they are the same irrespective of the family responsibilities that the female leader may have at home. So we don’t provide for this, and in a way it makes it difficult for a female to sit in a leadership programme and a leadership position. MMSQ6 states that: “…things like childcare facilities, health care facilities (gym) and flexi hours would assist the development of females”.

Another specific comment that displays the lack of an enabling and supportive work environment in the MPG is provided by SMSI8 who states: “I think a lot of those who are Deputy Directors, don’t even wish to be Directors. They are happy to work from 07H45, knocking off at 16h30, so that they are be able to deal with issues at home, because as things stand for senior managers in the MPG now, some of the family responsibilities we are supposed to do at home we no longer do. If you don’t have a strong partner, most of these marriages actually fall apart. Often men don’t understand why you are still in a meeting at 00:00 at night or how you can be in a meeting for three days away from home? If you don’t have a strong partner, the relationship actually suffers. That is why a lot of deputy directors, when you advertise the senior management posts, don’t even bother, because they look at us and they say they don’t want the type of life we live; they don’t want a life like that of the women leaders. It is not a life. So I don’t think the environment is conducive”.

Hillebrand-Tijhuis (2012:12,16) asserts that women employees and motherhood are a package and that women leaders should not be placed at a cross roads of choosing between leadership positions and motherhood. Women by nature are potential mothers and the timing for the higher leadership positions and motherhood mostly coincides. Thus women leaders need to be reasonably accommodated and the details thereof will be covered in Chapter Five.

SMSI17 posits that the MPG work environment is gender neutral and thus it cannot be termed enabling and supportive, because its influence is that of maintaining the status quo. She states that: “The environment does not stop you from developing, but it is also not pulling you forward and saying “let’s develop you, we see potential
in you”. It is one size fits all. Whether you have that potential, whether you are strong and show that potential, and it could develop you into a very dynamic leader, or whether you are just here to earn a salary, it does not make a distinction”.

Women leaders being left out of participating in aspects of the work that could help them uplift other females, and the non-existence of special programmes to change the work place and develop women leaders are further challenges emanating from the organisational environment. Women leaders in the districts are perceived as particularly disadvantaged, as MMSI13 contends that: “No. It’s not. If you look at organisational structure, environment, the rural nature of the province, if you are a female regional manager, you are forgotten and you don’t get support and other resources. No support at all”. The study argues that appointing women leaders without the necessary enabling and supportive work environment is another manifestation of a glass cliff. It sets them up for failure, so that even the aspiring ones are afraid to venture into those leadership positions.

Valerio (2009:16) contends that the impediments experienced from a lack of an enabling and supportive work environment constitute the circuitous path with numerous barriers that women who break the glass ceiling go through to advance into higher leadership positions. Women experience these challenges irrespective of their experience, and academic qualifications.

The respondents perceive that there is a political affiliation influence, political interaction during political activities and too much political interference in the administration, particularly in the appointments of leaders. This is another challenge that discourages aspiring women leaders to compete for higher leadership positions. Their reasons for regarding this as a challenge are that qualifying women leaders need the blessing of political leaders to be appointed, and when they do apply for advertised posts, political deployments support male leaders over women leaders. SMSI15 supports these perceptions by stating that: “The issue of political influence is a tough one. We have departments without females as chief directors. In terms of capabilities women are capable in the SMS. You need the blessing of the political leadership to be appointed. As a female leader somehow you are disadvantaged in that regard”. The study argues that as a policy matter, political deployments are supposed to be implemented to the letter of the relevant policy.
In general, culture and how this manifests in organisations and their organisational practices necessitates a gender-sensitive perspective. Organisations cannot continue to develop their leaders within the current masculine-focused cultures. The theme discussed in the following section is leadership development. Leadership development is critical for the advancement of women leaders. The discussion covers both the literature review findings and the data collected for the study through unstructured questionnaires and in-depth interviews.

4.4.2 Leadership development

The MPG has not as yet achieved the target of equal representation in all the levels of SMS, and this is an indication that women leaders have not as yet accessed equal opportunities. The respondents commented on perceptions pertaining to leadership development that are categorised as: emphasis upon leadership development of women leaders, the existence of and emphasis upon development programmes and the challenges experienced in leadership development and advancement.

The respondents have divergent interpretations on the MPG emphasising or not emphasising women’s leadership development. The following specific comments attest to that. SMSQ3 contends as follows: “No, I have personally, as a female manager, never experienced any emphasis upon such development and instead, when opportunities for growth and support arose, I was denied them”. MMSQ5 states that: “I have never heard of any development programme for women leaders since 2010, unless it happens discreetly”. SMSI6 maintains that: “To be quite, quite honest, I haven’t seen any concerted effort towards the development of women leaders. The last I heard of it was of the Executive Leadership Development (EDP) which too is for both sexes. So, if it is there, I am a little bit lost, I haven’t heard about it. Maybe it is there in one department but I don’t know of it”.

Furthermore, SMSI17 claims that: “I do not have a sense that they emphasise it. You know that it’s Women’s Month, and that is when they do something and that’s all. So it’s not as if you know there is a mentorship programme for our younger females. In my unit I have two very dynamic females at deputy director level. They need more exposure and they have the potential to become very good senior managers one day, and I am not the only one who can actually mentor them. I believe there should
be a programme that can identify them and could add value to them and it will also add value to the MPG”.

However, SMSQ7 reports that: “Yes the government (MPG) does emphasise the development of females. In our department we have EDP programmes which are only for female MMS members to prepare them for SMS positions. In 2014/15, 20 of them were trained on EDP”. The study thus acknowledges that leadership development of women may be prioritised, but this is not known to all women working in middle and senior management levels.

Day (2011:44-46) identifies the following aspects as important for the prioritisation of leadership development:

- leadership development is about learning, which needs an investment in extended periods of time to develop an expert leader;
- positive feedback is critical to learning to be a leader;
- some mentors and immediate leaders do not know how to give such positive feedback;
- incompetence in providing positive feedback makes leadership development programmes and initiatives fall short of attaining development goals;
- the majority of developmental initiatives are viewed as requiring diligent execution and follow-through, which very often does not happen, instead weak execution is witnessed; and
- the evaluation of development initiatives is either ignored or forgotten and acquired learning does not end up influencing leadership development and advancement.

Valerio (2009:11-15) states that the rationale for women’s leadership development is that in organisations, employees are affected by decisions that are made by leaders. Historically and culturally, these decisions were made by males, since females made a late entrance into workplaces owing to their gender roles. The gender roles spilled over to the workplace, to the extent that they had to discontinue working during pregnancy so that they could concentrate on raising their children. They occupied low paying jobs and professions like teaching, nursing, social work and secretarial work which provided no opportunity for promotion. These types of jobs and salaries paid to females are a manifestation of a phenomenon called the concrete wall in the
workplace. The concrete wall entrenches separate and distinct gender roles between women and men. The study argues that, organisations need to recognise the invisible barriers to the advancement of women and address them through targeted development.

The study contends that the leadership development and advancement of women deserves to have a clear vision, as well as implementation, monitoring and evaluation of plans, processes and procedures. Leadership development and advancement of women is not targeted or fast-tracked and those responsible for overseeing compliance with the regulatory framework seem not to be creating more awareness, not to be applying consequence management where non-compliance exists, or acknowledging performance where development and advancement of women is achieved.

The study argues that since there is no platform to share best practice, the women that view women’s development as happening in the MPG are those coming from pockets of good initiatives in the MPG. However, a total analysis of the MPG does not give a picture that attests to women’s leadership development being emphasised. From their standpoint, in their respective departments, the women experience positive initiatives and hence perceive women’s development as being emphasised. Developing a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG is aimed at, and is pivotal for, the leadership development and advancement of women.

The respondents identified the EDP, the Advanced Management Development Programme (AMDP), the Middle Management Development Programme (MMDP), Khaedu and the Social Work Supervisors Forum as leadership development programmes that the MPG is implementing. The only means of women’s leadership development seems to be the Women Principals’ Forum and the Women’s Senior Management Forum in some departments, which operate without any provincial coordination.

Some specific comments on these leadership development programmes include SMSQ4 who mentions: “the Executive Leadership Development Programme, but this was not targeting women leaders, it was for all SMS”; SMSI15 who states: “I don’t think there is a special programme for females. Khaedu is for both male and female
leaders. No emphasis upon females.”; MMSQ12 who posits: “There was a programmes for MMS and Senior Managers but of late I haven’t heard if it is still yielding positive results”; and SMSQ14 who asserts: “I’m not aware of leadership programmes. I’m only aware of the Women’s Day celebrations in August”.

These perceptions on existing leadership development programmes are supported, since apart from private service providers inclusive of institutions of higher learning, the NSG offers some of the programmes specified by the respondents. The challenge with the aforementioned programmes is that they are generic and mostly cover the core management competences. A case in point is the EDP which covers six core competencies of the SMS, which the NSG (2016) cites as one of its leadership development programmes. The study argues that, although these programmes exist, without the specific targeting of women, efforts to advance women may fail.

The challenges experienced in women’s leadership development and advancement, as perceived by the respondents, include cultural attitudes, resources, time constraints (since the majority of women have various caps and hats to wear at home, work, in society and otherwise), poor examples/role models by existing SMS members, information on HRD initiatives not cascaded adequately to inform training choices of employees and tokenism versus competency based appointment into SMS positions.

The specific comment relating to the competency of SMS members by SMSQ18 alludes to the fact that: “The competency level of most leaders leaves much to be desired. Yes, when appointing SMS you have to go through a competency assessment, but that doesn’t determine your appointment. You can be appointed even when you have failed”.

SMSI2 maintains that male leaders do not support female leaders and states that: “From my experience, most males still have that issue of blocking things done by females. A lot of sabotage takes place. As for recruitment, most recruitment that has been done in the province is male, and it favours males. We don’t get support as women leaders in this institution. I think there is an element of feeling that they are doing this deliberately because women are involved.”
Another example of a challenge to women’s leadership development and advancement is evident in the comments of MMSI13, who states that: “In development, the challenge will be that we don’t have a forum where leadership issues are discussed in the entire provincial government. We had an SMS Conference but even there, there was no discussion on gender issues. Only presentations were made. You would expect that you would have a discussion on what we are going to do concerning the issues, and then resolutions are made”.

Respondents observe that women leaders are unceremoniously removed from their leadership positions for unclear reasons, which discourages other women leaders from competing for advertised posts. In addition, women leaders do not want to share the glory of being leaders with other women, and claim that it is the predominantly male panels that recommend male leaders for appointments. Female leaders undermine themselves by projecting that male leaders are better leaders and even abandon their own education.

The respondents view the fact that increased academic qualifications do not assist women leaders to advance into higher leadership positions as another barrier. A specific comment by SMSQ1 includes: “I think the greater challenge to gender inequality is at the level of ordinary women who never make it to management positions. Statistics show that the majority of those who make it to tertiary education are women”.

The respondents perceive the current moratorium imposed on the filling of vacant posts as hampering women’s leadership development. They also regard male leaders as not putting as much effort into their work as the female leaders. They perceive that most of the work is done by the few women leaders that are present in the SMS, to the extent that such a work overload takes its toll on the women leaders’ health.

The respondents also interpret the lack of concerted efforts to identify the needs of women leaders and address them. They view the lack of programmes for mentoring women leaders with potential to lead, and the lack of monitoring of the programmes that are available, to be evidence that the MPG is paying lip service to transformation issues, since the women leaders are not taken cognisance of and it seems the number who are appointed are for compliance’s sake alone.
The respondents further observe that the leadership development and advancement of women in the MPG is a passive issue. The reason for this perception is that it does not seem that there is someone who is passionate about the development of women leaders, and wants to really develop them. The lack of a Women in Leadership Forum that could discuss the advancement of females is also seen as a barrier. In addition, the perception is that, since there is no special focus upon the junior and middle management levels, this is evidence that there are barriers to the advancement of women leaders.

As previously mentioned, the study argues that there are challenges in relation to the development and advancement of women’s leadership in the MPG. The primary data and the literature review reveal as challenges an apparent lack of a holistic approach that seeks to address personal issues relating to women leaders, the attitudes of male counterparts and followers, the organisational culture and organisational environment, the level of awareness on gender equality issues and provision of resources, while the strict implementation of the regulatory framework with subsequent consequences for non-compliance would mitigate the impact of the challenges. Thus, the development of a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG seeks to facilitate the attainment of gender equality in all levels of the SMS in the MPG.

Flowing from the discussion of the leadership development theme is the discussion of the compensation theme. Compensation of women leaders is an important issue to note, because discrepancies in pay for equal work or work of equal worth constitute an anomaly in the development of leadership.

**4.4.3 Compensation**

The majority of the respondents contend that in the Public Service women and men receive the same compensation, since the DPSA issues regulations and salary scales which are legislated. The respondents state that they view the private sector to be paying women less. They further perceive that differences in compensation are as a result of date of entry into the particular salary level and pay progression, as a result of performance. A specific comment upon the perception that women and men in the Public Service earn equally is made by MMSQ5: “Yes, I think they earn equal pay because salaries are categorised into levels and not by gender”.

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Some of the respondents claim that even in the Public Service, women who are on the same salary level as men do not necessarily earn the same pay. This is supported by SMSI10 who states that: “This is a difficult question because equal work in the Public Service does not translate into real equal work, but in terms of equal rank yes it translates into equal pay. Why I am saying this is because women go the extra mile. They go the extra mile in doing work and making sure that targets are achieved. I can tell you that I rely more on my female managers. I am not sure, but it could be because we are women, we try very hard to achieve our goals. You often see the male managers leave by 16h30, and the female ones, if the task is not completed they will not go home until the work is finished. Even when you phone them, you will find them on the phone on a weekend, and it is hard to find the male managers. Last year on the last day of our audit, we slept here and I am telling you all the women were here and come half past nine all the men were gone. Males will leave even if the task is not completed.”

The study argues that due to the subtleness of gender issues, even where it seems that the compensation is standardised, in practice that pay is not necessarily equal. Factors such as work environment, gender bias and sex discrimination may influence the actual compensation that a woman receives in the final analysis. Compensation is a factor in the economic environment which thus needs attention, to contribute to the creation of a supportive and enabling environment in the workplace.

The study maintains that the respondents’ perceptions of the failure to develop and advance women leaders for leadership roles are supported by issues raised in Chapter 3 that relate to the political, economic and social environments in the workplace. The MPG cannot afford to leave the current situation as it is. Thus the study emphasises that the MPG needs to implement a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

Through the themes identified in the primary data, there is consistent highlighting of the issue of the regulatory framework not being adequately implemented, monitored and evaluated. The MPG emerged as not being supportive to women’s leadership advancement, due to its masculine organisational culture, male leadership preferences, lack of childcare facilities, planning of work in masculine terms and lack of emphasis upon women’s leadership development and advancement, especially
targeted leadership training for women. Other aspects of the MPG’s masculine organisational culture and lack of supportive work environment consistently emerged as lack of flexibility in the working conditions and lack of flexibility in leadership development when provided, and the influence of political deployments in the development and advancement of women leaders. The masculine organisational culture makes it difficult for women leaders to strike a work-life balance, to the extent that they have to sacrifice both their development and competing for higher leadership positions. This is one of the regularly raised issues. Planning of work, especially after hours and over weekends, without reasonable prior notice, is another consistent issue that the respondents perceive as making the MPG unsupportive in a masculine organisational culture. The respondents repeatedly raised the issue of the implementation of political deployments as discouraging aspirant women leaders to strive for higher leadership positions.

4.5 CONCLUSION

Women’s leadership development and advancement is faced with various challenges. Some of these challenges emanate from inappropriate implementation of the supportive regulatory framework, the influence of culture, patriarchy and family responsibilities and the lack of an enabling and supportive environment. Other challenges can be attributed to the lack of a MPG holistic approach for women’s leadership development and advancement that lends itself to various perceptions and interpretations.

These challenges manifest in unequal leadership role identification, development and advancement of women leaders and male leader preference. The challenges as a collective have the potential to restrict women from advancing into higher leadership positions and also being developed to be effective in those positions. The increasing number of women in the work place necessitates that women too should serve in the higher leadership echelons. Already, a sizeable number of women have broken through the glass ceiling and attained higher leadership positions. In supporting women that break through the glass ceiling, it is imperative that the MPG takes deliberate steps to promote women’s leadership development and advancement.
Whilst Chapter Four addresses the research objective on exploring the perceived impediments in the development of women leaders in the MPG, Chapter Five proposes a strategy for creating a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The basis of the strategy is the literature review and the analysed findings from the research.
CHAPTER 5: THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROPOSED STRATEGY FOR CREATING A SUSTAINABLE POOL OF WOMEN LEADERS IN THE MPUMALANGA PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The participants in the study and the literature review exposed apparent challenges to the leadership development and advancement of women in general, and in the MPG in particular. The perceived challenges comprise the basis for the development of a proposed strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

Evidence reveals that there are a variety of challenges which arise from the political, economic and social environment in the workplace. These challenges suggest that a different and better way of approaching the development and advancement of women for leadership positions should be considered.

The following sections conceptualise the strategy and enumerate the aspects that need to be focussed upon in developing the proposed strategy. The strategy attempts to broadly outline the critical aspects to be considered, in order to enhance the leadership development and advancement of women.

5.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF STRATEGY

This section seeks to define strategy, describe the importance of strategy to an organisation and outline the different types of strategies. George Steiner (1979) is credited as one of the key authors who contributed to the origins and development of strategic planning through his publications (Nickols, 2016:2). Armstrong (2008:21) states that in 1955, Peter Drucker pointed out the importance of strategic decisions. He further credits Kenneth Andrews (1987), Igor Ansof (1987) and Alfred Chandler (1962) as outstanding pioneers of business strategy, who were followed by Micheal Porter (1985) and Henry Mintzberg (1987) in this sphere.

The pioneers contributed in their different ways to the definition of strategy. The fact that the definitions are not exactly the same reveals the different angles from which the definition of strategy is approached and the complexity of the concept of strategy.
5.2.1 Defining strategy

According to Pearce and Robinson (2003:4) strategy means: “... large scale, future oriented plans for interacting with the competitive environment to achieve company objectives”. This is supported by Rudman (2006:2) who reasons that strategy is “... the creation of the optimal “fit” between an organisation and its environment over time...the direction and scope of an organisation over the long term: ideally, which matches its resources to its changing environment, and in particular its markets, customers or clients, so as to meet the stakeholders’ expectations”. The study argues that the changing environment in the MPG necessitates the inclusion of women leaders to assist in meeting the stakeholders’ expectations. The MPG stakeholders consist of, amongst others, the public and private sectors that include government, business, organised labour, public entities, the academic sector and civil society (MPG, 2013b:17,26-27; MPG, 2016c). Development is defined as the process of a fact, event or happening taking place that especially changes a situation (The Free Dictionary, 2013). These definitions influence the development of a strategy aimed at the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG, with the intention of changing the leadership composition status quo.

Nickols (2016:2) and Grant and Jordan (2015:8) assert that strategy originates from the military, where it was used to deploy troops to achieve political ends. Businesses went on to adopt the military concept of strategy, in order to bridge the gap between policy, tactics and achieving organisational ends. Mintzberg (1994:23-27) defines strategy as a plan, pattern, position and perspective. Mintzberg (2001:11) also maintains that the strategy as a plan is made deliberately and purposefully in advance of the actions that will be executed as a result of the strategy.

Mintzberg (2001:12-16) further defines strategy as:

- a pattern in which the strategy is a consistent stream of actions irrespective of whether they are intended or not, that are performed to realise the goal of a strategy;
- a position which means that the strategy is a niche that an organisation needs to carve in the market and its environment; and
a perspective which means that strategy is viewed as an ingrained way of perceiving the world, where it may take the form of aggressive pacesetters that pride themselves upon creation of new technologies and exploiting markets, preference to operate in long established markets and building a protective wall around the organisation or heavy reliance upon political rather than economic prospects.

Thompson et al. (2010:5) support the notion of strategy as a position by stating that a strategy prompts the organisation to evaluate its current position, competitive pressures and weaknesses, performance and market standing, the direction the organisation needs to take, the route it needs to follow and the means to achieve its destination. The current position of an organisation is vital in being the baseline from which the organisation can critique its performance and competitive advantage.

Armstrong (2008:22-25) defines strategy as a declaration of intent where an organisation states and defines its desired long term goals and the methods it will utilise to achieve these goals. The goals serve to guide purposeful actions of the organisation in the quest for achieving the desired results. The strategic intent expresses the intentions of the organisation and spells out what is to be done and how the organisation will traverse from its current position to its desired end. The declared intent enables the organisation to master its current status quo, whilst anticipating the future. The declared intent further conveys the strategic fitness of an organisation, where strategic fitness entails the organisation’s ability to match its capabilities and resources to the opportunities available in the external environment. Thus the strategic intent analyses the organisation within the context of the world around it.

Nickols (2016:7) summarises the definitions of a strategy as follows: “Strategy is all these - it is perspective, position, plan, and pattern. Strategy is the bridge between policy or high-order goals, on the one hand, and tactics or concrete actions on the other. Strategy and tactics together straddle the gap between ends and means. In short, strategy is a term that refers to a complex web of thoughts, ideas, insights, experiences, goals, expertise, memories, perceptions and expectations that provide general guidance for specific actions in pursuit of particular ends. Strategy is at once the course we chart, the journey we imagine and, at the same time, it is the course we steer, the trip we actually make. Even when we are embarking upon a voyage of
discovery, with no particular destination in mind, the voyage has a purpose, an outcome, and an end to be kept in view”.

Accordingly, Nickols (2016:2) also defines strategy as effecting and accounting for policy through the deployment of resources. Nickols (2016:7) further states that a clear understanding of the ends to be attained is necessary and a precondition for the crafting of a strategy. Thus a strategy does not exist independent from the ends to be attained. The sole existence of a strategy is aimed towards the ends to be achieved. A strategy is a framework that both guides and shapes the patterns of consistent actions that are taken to achieve the desired ends. The study views Nickols’ definition as broad and all encompassing. Its adaptation will be utilised in the proposed development of the strategy in question in the study.

5.2.2 Importance of strategy

MyStrategyLab (2016) emphasises the importance of strategy by stating that “strategy matters to almost all organisations, and to everybody working in them”. Thompson and Martin (2010:10,20) indicate that the importance of a strategy is:

- it allows the organisation to embark upon a visionary view, a plan view, a tactical view and also to anticipate the eminent change and its implications;
- it assists the organisation to manoeuvre to a superior position and yet anticipate probable responses of competitors and their measure of success;
- it enhances the decisions to prioritise investment into business areas that promise an increase in competitive edge; and
- through the environmental analysis in the strategy formulation process, the organisation is afforded an opportunity to effectively identify critical success factors embedded in the economies of every business area.

The study contends that strategy is an important leadership tool through which an organisation is able to improve or maintain its competitive advantage. Thus, the MPG’s success in the development and advancement of women leaders is dependent upon the quality of the crafted strategy and the commitment of everyone in the MPG, inclusive of both women and men leaders, to ensure that it achieves the desired ends. Thus, advocacy on the strategy is of paramount importance, so that the employees of the MPG in their different levels understand the strategy and their clear role that will support achieving its desired ends.
5.2.3 Different types of strategy

There are different types of strategies for different industries, different organisations and different environmental times. Jonas (2000:1-2) states that there are four types of strategies. These strategies are discussed in this section and are viewed as necessary for the development of the proposed strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The types of strategies are the Designed Strategy, the Adaptive Strategy, the Framed Strategy and the Executed Strategy.

The Designed Strategy is defined as a traditional written, deliberated and defined strategy that outlines predetermined objectives. This strategy is known and communicated to all employees in an organisation (Jonas, 2000:2).

The Adaptive Strategy is a strategy that through time evolves as adaptations responding to both internal and external factors are made. It is a strategy that evolves through trial and error. It is fluid and most suitable for dynamic environments. The best adaptive strategies are those that are allowed to evolve from the bottom up, resulting from the implementers’ serendipity in responding to emergent factors. This strategy is also called Emergent Strategy (Christensen & Donovan, 2016:2,9; Mintzberg, 1994:25).

The Framed Strategy is a strategy that gives a framework that guides employees of an organisation to develop a detailed strategy in real time. This strategy is loosely defined with little or no leadership. This strategy is not likely to achieve results unless it is converted into an adaptive or designed strategy (Jonas, 2000:2).

The Executed Strategy is a designed or adaptive strategy that has achieved its goal as a result of consistent patterns of action over time. It has been completed and integrated into an organisation as a way of life and will not be altered as long as it achieves results (Jonas, 2000:2).

A characteristic of a strategy is that it has the ability to make an organisation stand out amongst its competitors. This aspect of an organisation is called its competitive advantage and should yield results in a sustainable way. Thus a sustainable competitive strategy is a creative, distinctive strategy that provides a durable basis for an institution to maintain its competitive edge, and it should become an employer of choice, particularly amongst women.
Thus, the core of crafting a strategy is a sustainable competitive strategy. When a strategy is unable to achieve a sustainable competitive edge for an organisation, then the organisation will be unable to earn above average profits, and will not be able to fund the adaptations to strategy that will inevitably emerge, because strategies prove to not be suitable over time. Thus it is imperative that every organisation be willing and ready to promptly adapt its strategy when the need arises or is anticipated (Thompson & Martin, 2010:11).

For the MPG as a government entity, the proposal is that the strategy should start as a designed strategy that will seek to adapt when both internal and external forces demand certain changes to the strategy. The strategy should continue to adapt until it continuously creates a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The proposed strategy will, thus, be presented as a combined designed and adaptive strategy, specifically since environmental factors affecting the strategy are included. The discussion of the proposed strategy is presented in the following section.

5.3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROPOSED STRATEGY FOR CREATING A SUSTAINABLE POOL OF WOMEN LEADERS IN THE MPUMALANGA PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

A strategy is imperative for the MPG to make progress and achieve the leadership development and advancement of women. The proposed strategy will be formulated with a built in implementation plan, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, a reporting framework, rewards for commendable and outstanding achievements and consequence management for non-achievement of plans.

As described earlier, the proposed strategy will be both a designed and adaptive strategy and will be presented, for the purpose of this study, as a conceptual model. Mouton (1996:198) defines a model as “an attempt to represent the dynamic aspects of the phenomenon by illustrating the relationships between its elements in a simplified form”. De Vos et al. (2011:36,511) contend that a model is “a copy, replica or analogy that differs from the real thing in some way…a representation of a reality”. De Vos et al. (2011:36) maintain that a model may differ from the real thing by size, since it might be smaller, the same size or much larger. The model may also contain the broad features, not necessarily all the features. In bringing the concept of the model to the field of social science, they reason that the model consists of words that
describe a social phenomenon and its main features, without attempting to provide an explanation or predicting anything from the description.

A conceptual model “gives structure to theory” (Van der Waldt, 2013:10). The proposed strategy is a conceptual model since the study will offer a designed and adaptive strategy that provides pointers to the conceptual elements that are imperative to the strategy. An illustration of the model is presented in Figure 5.1.

The following section discusses the conceptual elements to be considered in the prosed strategy. These conceptual elements include: the regulatory framework, creating a supportive environment and a supportive organisational culture, integrated human resource planning, integrated human resource development, integrated performance management and strategy implementation, reporting, monitoring and evaluation.
Figure 5.1: Proposed strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in Mpumalanga Provincial Government

Source: Own source (2016)
5.3.1 Regulatory framework

The regulatory framework is viewed as supportive of the development and advancement of women. Inadequate implementation of the regulatory framework is often likely to be misconstrued as gaps in the regulatory framework. However, in cases where genuine gaps in the regulatory framework are identified, such gaps need to be closed.

In the wake of inadequate implementation as revealed by the non-compliance with reaching equal representation of women and men leaders, it could be difficult to evaluate the full extent of gaps in the regulatory framework. From the primary data it has however emerged that special emphasis is not placed upon creating a supportive organisational culture. This is evident from the lack of flexible working hours, or that the training of women leaders, although emphasised, has not occurred in a targeted manner, and that the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the regulatory framework focuses upon compliance issues, rather than upon ensuring that non-compliance is properly managed. The participants requested that special attention should be given to these matters.

The study argues that inadequate awareness of the regulatory framework could easily be mistaken for inadequate implementation, with perceived gaps in the regulatory framework. Naidoo (2005:310) states that the implementation of policies and plans is a challenge for the Public Service. Thus, the creation of a broad awareness regarding the regulatory framework may be needed as a precursor to the review of the regulatory framework for substantial implementation. This would provide an opportunity to discover other gaps, if any, during implementation and to consolidate the changes that need to be made in the regulatory framework, given that it takes a long time to effect regulatory framework changes.

The study acknowledges the importance of legislation such as the Constitution, 1996, the EEA, 1998, as well as national and provincial policies such as the NDP, and the MHRDS, 2012, the MPBP, 2010 and the Mpumalanga Performance and Development Management System (MPPMDS), 2014. However, the study further argues that such a supportive policy environment does not automatically lead to the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders. Thus, as part of the strategy the following recommendations are made:
Recommendation 1: The MPG should ensure that the appropriate legislation and policies are used for the targeted leadership development and advancement of women. The study suggests that over and above women leaders being appointed into higher positions of leadership, women’s leadership development opportunities should also include women leaders being given opportunities to act in vacant funded posts, or when the incumbents are on leave for various reasons, to provide real work settings for practicing skills. Where work is organised into team work, the women leaders too should be given opportunities to become team leaders. When these efforts are institutionalised and internalised by all leaders, male leader preference will most likely diminish.

Recommendation 2: The MPG should ensure that the legislation and policies are used to establish appropriate and clear career paths for women. Also, women leaders should be identified and placed in the succession plan of the MPG.

Recommendation 3: Compliance with legislation and policies should extend beyond the implementation of equal representation for women leaders, to the composition of recruitment panels, organised labour representatives in recruitment processes, training facilitators, training participants and various committees of the MPG. Such a symbolic effort will consistently communicate the need for equal representation, development and advancement of women. The influence of such an effort will begin to bear fruit if it is consistently practised by all departments in the MPG.

The study identifies consultation with relevant stakeholders as important to the process of the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. The consultation processes assist in the advocacy for the proposed strategy and also help in dissemination of information, consolidating buy-in by stakeholders, clarifying issues that may arise prior to implementation and making inputs into the regulatory framework. Integration of plans and consolidation of reports will be enhanced when stakeholders have a mutual understanding of processes and the national framework behind such processes. Thus, consultations would also add value to the processes of women’s leadership development and advancement.
The MPG has established structures that have a stake in the development and advancement of women leaders. Such structures include the Provincial HRM Forum, which advises on all HRM and transversal issues (MPG, 2016d:1-2), the Mpumalanga Human Resource Development Council (MHRDC), which assists the Mpumalanga DoE as the lead department in the implementation of the Provincial HRD Strategy, and organised labour, which always participates in matters pertaining to their members (MPG, 2016c). The MPG (2012:2-3) mentions the need for stakeholder participation in HRD issues, by arguing that the MHRDS enhances collaboration and that stakeholder participation in both the development and implementation of the MHRDS cannot be overemphasised.

Both the Women in Leadership Forum (WLF) and the Provincial Gender Machinery (PGM) should receive reports on and make inputs to the consultation process. The achievements or non-achievements of the MPG regarding the development and advancement of women leaders will form the basis of the recommendations that these structures may make to the MPG.

The Provincial Management Committee (PMC) which advises on all the administrative issues of the MPG receives inputs and makes recommendations for the consideration of the Mpumalanga Executive Council. Inputs from the Mpumalanga Executive Council are incorporated for approval. After approval the OTP issues relevant circulars that the individual members of the PMC implement in the respective provincial departments (MPG, 2008:1,5).

Given that there is a possibility of overlapping of roles, the MPG together with its stakeholders, whether internal or external, should determine clear roles. Clear roles will assist in ensuring that the resources are allocated prudently for the development of the proposed strategy. Thompson and Martin (2010:35) contend that successful implementation of strategy is characterised by:

- an allocation of clear responsibilities for the achievement of the planned strategic change;
- limiting the number of strategies and strategic changes at a given point in time;
- taking into consideration the ability of organisational resources to implement and deliver the planned strategic changes;
identifying and planning actions for the implementation of planned strategic changes, coupled with clear allocation of responsibilities; and
putting into place standards and systems to measure, monitor and evaluate the performance of the organisation.

The study proposes that:

- Recommendation 4: The MPG should invest in consistent and continuous consultations where every stakeholder should be able to give progress updates on the clear role that was allocated to her/him.
- Recommendation 5: The MPG should establish a Provincial WLF which should assist in continuously impressing upon women leaders that the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders needs their contribution as part of the solution. Given the practical nature of the Provincial WLF, the MPG may choose to impress upon the departments that they should customise their own Women in Leadership Fora that will be represented in the Provincial WLF, so that there would be a better coordination and feedback mechanism. The Provincial WLF should perform the task of coordinating the departmental fora. The fora are not decision making bodies, however they serve as an important stakeholder in issues of women’s leadership.

From the above, the argument is made that while gender could be more pronounced in legislation and government policies, the fact remains that the intent of government to ensure equal representation is clear. The MPG needs to address this intent through targeted recommendations, as made above, to ensure that women are not only advanced and developed, but also visibly and actively involved in ensuring that the MPG acknowledges the importance of its legislative and policy environment as an enabler in the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

The following section discusses the creation of a supportive environment and supportive organisational culture. As previously mentioned by participants during the data collection, there are a number of issues pertaining to time, childcare facilities, the masculine organisational culture, culture and patriarchy that influence their ability to advance to higher leadership positions.
5.3.2 Creating a supportive organisational environment and culture

Women’s leadership development and advancement requires particular conditions for its success. The study analyses key aspects that include working conditions and a supportive organisational culture, which are critical for the creation of a supportive organisational environment. Thus, the discussion of these aspects follows.

5.3.2.1 Working conditions

The study argues that establishing working conditions that support the career advancement of women will allow the MPG to create a sustainable pool of women leaders. These working conditions speak to the aspects that women encounter because of the duality in their roles as mothers and caregivers, and to wanting to achieve career success through development and advancement. Aspects of particular concern include the inflexibility when it comes to working hours and the lack of childcare support by the MPG, which negatively influence the ability of women to advance. The implementation of flexible working conditions (also called flexi time) is imperative for the women leaders that may need it. Also, by virtue of their family responsibilities, being expected to work after hours or over weekends excludes these women from participation automatically. Patel and Buiting (2013:26,28) maintain that organisations that are committed to freeing up time for women leaders utilise technology that reduces traveling and allow these women to do some of the work at home, taking into consideration the different work cycle and career paths that they have, compared to male leaders. These organisations allow flexible working hours, and over and above offering parental leave, family friendly policies and part time work policies, they organise meetings within normal working hours. The life cycle of the women leaders includes the reality that at some point in time they may decide to have children or adopt which may require them to break service. An organisation that recognises the importance of the above initiatives accommodates career flexibility for women leaders. The study asserts that career flexibility is a progressive step towards the development and advancement of women leaders. The study also suggests that organisations should support women leaders to the extent that they could even cope when rearing their children, so that they don’t have to discontinue their work service.
Childcare facilities will enable women leaders to be at ease once the children are out of school or even when they are not yet of school going age, secure in the knowledge that they will still be taken care of. Providing various forms of childcare facilities will benefit both the employer and the employees. Childcare challenges manifest in absenteeism, staff turnover, increased stress and anxiety levels and poor productivity. The Labour Rights for Women Campaign (LRWC) (2014:5), Finn (2016) and Magloff (2016) are in agreement and state that the benefits of providing childcare facilities include:

- improved productivity where parents with young children suffer less separation anxiety when they know that their children are safely cared for;
- retaining and attracting employees where existing employees value childcare provisioning benefits as a sign of support and appreciation by the employer, because the challenge of an accessible, affordable and reliable childcare facility is taken care of; and
- reducing the labour costs for the employer where new mothers are enabled to return to work quicker and the organisation saves on the cost of both hiring and training replacements. Reduced absenteeism and levels of stress help to improve productivity and to ensure maximum utilisation of the staff with high morale that feel happy, valued and appreciated.

Hein and Cassirer (2010:8) regard women as the parents that usually have the major responsibility for their children. They further view the lack of access to affordable and reliable childcare as a major factor in gender inequality that undermines the women's chances for continued employment, development and advancement, and which later influences their opportunities to become leaders.

Thus, in developing working conditions, the MPG should guard against the unintended consequences that lead to automatic exclusion of women leaders. When the influence of time on the availability of women leaders is not properly managed, it may end up reducing their accessibility to developmental opportunities provided by the MPG. Interventions towards improving the work and family life balance for the women leaders could prove to be of assistance. The study, therefore, proposes the following recommendation as a component to the strategy:
Recommendation 6: In creating a supportive organisational environment and culture, the MPG should focus upon enabling women towards development and advancement by creating working conditions that allow for flexibility in balancing work and home responsibilities.

Apart from working conditions, the establishment of a supportive organisational culture has also been identified as one of the biggest challenges in creating a sustainable pool of women leaders. The following section discusses supportive organisational culture.

5.3.2.2  Supportive organisational culture

In providing a supportive organisational culture a solution will be offered to women who have to cope with not only masculinity within the organisation, but also cultural practices outside the organisation (specifically related to patriarchy) which consider women as less able to be leaders. Powell (2011:144) contends that masculine organisational cultures are characterised by prejudices against women leaders, promoting male leaders’ preferences, questioning the legitimacy of women leaders, tolerating sexist attitudes and lacking diversity management programmes. Carli and Eagly (2011:111) and Carli and Eagly (2012:456) state that in masculine organisational cultures good leadership is associated with agentic behaviours, which render the communal behaviours associated with women ineffective. In masculine organisational cultures, the ideal employee is the one that works extended hours, in the evenings and even when on leave. The advancement to higher leadership positions and pay is based upon the ability to work the extended hours, make personal sacrifices and in the process conduct fewer family responsibilities. Furthermore, traditionally masculine occupations cause women leaders to be more prone to harassment and women’s leadership is evaluated less favourably (Carli & Eagly (2011:111)).

The workplace is a representation of the society in which it exists. Thus the MPG workplace is not immune to the cultural practices of its surroundings, which may not necessarily be in support of women’s leadership development and advancement. Thus, culture does influence leadership practices in the MPG. As already mentioned in the previous chapters, patriarchy views women as subordinate to men. Patriarchy further contributes to the expectation that women leaders should bear the burden of
family responsibilities. There seems to be a difficulty to communicate that cultural expectations and women’s insubordination are not applicable anymore, since women and men are equal in the eyes of the law. Powell (2011:145) suggests that organisations should implement diversity management programmes to deal with the bias that is rooted in culture and patriarchy and discourage sexist attitudes in general. Carli and Eagly (2011:111) contend that organisations have a social structure and culture that is embedded in formal roles, rules, procedures and norms of conduct. Also, traditionally most leaders were men, so the organisational traditions developed to accommodate men’s lifestyles and preferences. The entrenched masculine practices that have their roots in patriarchy and culture should be constructively addressed, if a strategy to create a sustainable pool of women leaders is to succeed.

Patel and Buiting (2013:26) support the notion of organisations promoting the development and advancement of women’s leadership, by stating that gender diversity must be removed from the rhetoric arena to the reality agenda, where a clear business case is established and real leadership commitment is displayed. Barsh and Yee (2011) contend that women’s leadership development and advancement cannot take place whilst masculine organisational culture remains intact. Their assertion is that the whole organisation must change. Thus opting to support women’s leadership development and advancement is tantamount to opting to change the organisational culture. Amagoh (2009:997) maintains that long term success in leadership development and advancement is dependent upon an organisational culture that considers the development of its future leaders as a long term priority. Thus a current organisational culture that has failed to achieve the equal representation of women leaders cannot be utilised to develop a sustainable pool of women leaders.

In developing a supportive organisational culture, the study proposes that an increased awareness of the regulatory framework and gender mainstreaming for all is critical to minimise the influence of a masculine organisational culture upon the development and advancement of women leaders. Organisational cultures that promote women’s leadership and are committed to the implementation of diversity management programmes stand to benefit from the effective leadership styles adopted by women leaders, to obtain better financial outcomes, to provide internal
women role models, and to have suitable leaders in global economies (Carli & Eagly, 2011:110-111). The study, thus, proposes the following recommendation:

- **Recommendation 7:** In creating a supportive organisational environment and culture, the MPG should design, implement and evaluate a diversity management programme that aims to promote gender mainstreaming in all functions and address specific organisational processes and functions that support a masculine organisational culture.

From the above, the study suggests that as part of a designed strategy, specific components should be included to create a supportive organisational environment and culture, relating to offering flexible working conditions and promoting gender mainstreaming through diversity management programmes. As components of the strategy, both the regulatory environment and the organisational environment and culture are enablers to the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders. The following components delve deeper into specific organisational functions through which the targeted development and advancement of women could be facilitated.

### 5.3.3 Integrated human resource planning

The study argues that human resource planning should culminate in an employment equity plan reflective of the intent to promote gender equality and representation in all management, but specifically senior management levels. The study asserts that human resource planning (HRP) does not seem to be contributing towards achieving the employment equity plans of the MPG. Human resource planning also does not seem to be assisting with the advancement of women leaders, which is expected, given the unequal representation of women and men leaders in the MPG. The impression created is that when implementation of HR planning takes place, the employment equity plans are not consulted. This reflects that the employment equity plans are formulated for compliance purposes only, and they do not seem to be influencing recruitment that reflects the intent towards equity and representation. Membership on recruitment panels and representation by union members is skewed to men and is viewed as a deliberate move to discourage aspirant women leaders.

Armstrong (2008:79) emphasises the importance of people as key resources upon which organisational performance depends. Hence the advocacy of HR policies that are effectively implemented so that a substantial impact may be made upon the
performance of an organisation. The Cadre Deployment Policy of the ruling party in South Africa influences how some of the senior management posts are to be handled within the existing HR policies. Cadre deployments should be implemented as per the 53rd African National Congress (ANC) Mangaung Conference Resolutions that stipulate that: cadre deployments “should be preceded by systematic academic, ideological and ethical training and political preparation, …should be underpinned by a rigorous system of monitoring and evaluation of performance of cadres deployed and elected to leadership positions ….should also consider academic qualifications” (ANC, 2013:5). The study maintains that there would have been no need to spell out the policy, if the intention of the Cadre Deployment Policy was to disregard existing HR policies and procedures. Thus, officials charged with the function of HRM in departments should ensure proper integration and implementation of all HR policies.

The study further argues that deliberate efforts need to be exerted to ensure that women leaders are also developed and recruited to fulfil the technical skills needs of the MPG. The MPG (2012:31) alludes to the shortage of technical and scarce skills and women’s skills necessary for service delivery and the delivery of the province’s primary mandate. The study proposes the following recommendations:

- Recommendation 8: When finalising the human resource needs of the MPG, the employment equity plans, the cadre deployment needs and the needs of the different departments, these should be aligned and consolidated into one plan that will serve to inform subsequent human resource management functions, including recruitment and retention, specifically as it relates to retaining women managers in leadership positions.
- Recommendation 9: The involvement of human capital, particularly in the various recruitment panels, and as observers, should take into consideration their own equal representation issues so that applicants should not feel intimidated by any unequal representation.
- Recommendation 10: The MPG should pay special attention when planning for technical, scarce and leadership skills recruitment, so that deliberate actions may be taken to increase the number of women leaders in these areas. Such emphasis increases the probability of women leaders emerging
from the technical departments of the MPG too. Also, this emphasis will enhance targeted training to mentor women leaders.

- Recommendation 11: In reporting progress on the human resource management plans, the MPG should always strive to give disaggregated figures prior to giving an aggregated position, since aggregated figures have a tendency to hide the true picture. Similarly, in the crafting of the employment equity plans, each component should be analysed to ensure that overall gender representivity is informed by gender representivity in the individual components of a department and vice versa.

- Recommendation 12: Recruitment panels should be guided by the human resource plan, relevant component employment equity status reports and plans, succession plans and retention strategies so as to inform the actions of the panels.

From the above recommendations it is evident that the performance of the MPG is dependent upon its human resources, which include women leaders. For the benefit of the MPG and its clients, all plans that have a bearing upon the recruitment, development and advancement of employees, particularly the women leaders, need to be integrated for proper coordination and accountability. Integration of the human resource planning will facilitate the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

5.3.4 Integrated human resource development

Integrated HRD practices would enhance the focus upon the leadership development and advancement of women. For integration to take place, the HRD processes need to be reviewed, coordination of development programmes needs to be reviewed, partnerships need to be established and targeted training needs to be implemented.

5.3.4.1 Review of HRD practices

A review of HRD processes may prove beneficial to the identification, development and advancement of women leaders. The development of skills development and training programmes should be preceded by a skills audit. Data from opportunities like the PDPs in the performance agreements, the competency test assessment results, succession planning, retention strategy and career pathing should be
integrated, together with the skills audit results, in order to create a workplace skills development plan (WSP) and directory.

There is currently a disjuncture because personal development plans (PDPs) are submitted as part of the Performance Agreements by the end of May of every financial year (MPG, 2014:9), whilst the WSPs are due at the end of April of the same financial year (Izikhulu BEE, 2014). This makes the incorporation of the PDPs into the WSPs particularly challenging. Thus, alignment of training with the WSPs may not be a true reflection of actual training needs.

The PDPs must be based upon the skills gaps that are identified as impeding the performance of the women leaders in the MPG. Thus, an alignment between the performance assessments, identified PDPs and subsequent manifestation in development programmes is a necessity. Performance assessment results could also be utilised as another way of identifying the women leaders that should be included in a pool of women leaders to be developed and advanced into higher leadership positions. Thus, departments need to proactively find a way of getting the employees' PDPs prior to the submission of performance agreements, so that there is synergy between leadership development, performance agreement contracting and performance assessment processes.

The study argues that when the PDPs are aligned with the WSPs, the MPG will derive more value from the HRD processes and the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders will be facilitated.

Once women leaders are identified based upon a consolidated skills audit, they may be channelled to various forms of development programmes to produce different levels of skills. Such development of women leaders should be linked to the areas of high need that could assist in the achievement of equal representation of women and men leaders at all the levels of the SMS.

The awarding of bursaries is an opportunity that could be utilised to prioritise the identification of women leaders, particularly those earmarked for a pool of women leaders for further development and advancement. The MPG needs to review how it awards bursaries.

Creation of a synergy between the HRD and the HRM practices is a necessity for successful implementation of development programmes. Merriam-Webster Learner’s
Dictionary (2016) refers to synergy as “a mutually advantageous conjunction or compatibility of distinct business participants or elements (as resources or efforts).” For the MPG to get the most out of its practices, a need for creating synergy between HRD and HRM arises. When the HRD incorporates the identified skills gaps into the development and the implementation of the WSP, the development of women leaders will be a focused activity. Furthermore when HRM plans, recruits and implements succession planning and retention strategy in consideration of the women leaders that are participating in the development programmes, the objective of developing and advancing women leaders into higher leadership positions will be enhanced.

Cao and Xue (2013:2) support the synergistic manner in which leadership development should be approached, when recommending that gender initiatives should be holistic in approach and that the full cycles of recruitment, development, promotion and retaining of women leaders should be considered. Amagoh (2009:991) also promotes an integrated approach to leadership development that is strategic, synergistic and sustainable, which is possible when organisations craft comprehensive strategies that they implement effectively. Such a comprehensive strategy influences an organisation to increase its competitive advantage. The study proposes that:

- **Recommendation 13:** In order to address challenges in HRD practices the MPG should conduct a skills audit so that a directory of available skills and skills shortages may be made available. The shortage of skills audit will give an indication of the extent of the skills development needed, and coupled with targeted training, could have a positive effect upon the leadership development of women.

- **Recommendation 14:** The MPG should utilise the bursary budget to assist in the funding for targeted development of women through qualification improvements. Alignment of the bursary budget with the women’s development plans will increase the focus upon women’s leadership development and advancement, since the limited budgets would not be channelled to any formal studies that would not assist in the achievement of the plans for advancing women leaders.
• Recommendation 15: The MPG should focus upon the contents of the PDPs, so that synergy may be realised with the WSP, to ensure that proper training is received and that there is prudence in the utilisation of resources.

• Recommendation 16: The MPG should create synergy between the HRD and HRM practices, so that the greatest value may be derived from these practices to facilitate the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders. Furthermore, the allocated budgets may go a longer way because overlaps and repetitions inherent in these practices may be minimised.

The coordination of leadership development programmes is identified as one of the important aspects in the integration of HRD practices. The study argues that budgets may never be sufficient, but if the use of the existing budgets is effectively implemented through well-coordinated development programmes, unintended wastage would be eliminated. Through well-coordinated development programmes, the MPG would be able to access an overall picture of the achievement of women’s leadership development and advancement.

5.3.4.2 Coordination of leadership development programmes

Departments should not be both players and referees in the development and advancement of women leaders. Departments need to craft and fund their plans and submit them to the Mpumalanga Department of Education for monitoring and evaluation. They should also have an opportunity to share their plans and achievements. The processes of development and advancement of women leaders should be dealt with as a provincial issue, even though the individual departments would budget and implement their specific plans. Implementation of plans and reporting should be enhanced by discussion of employment equity issues in the management meetings. The gender agenda needs to return to the agenda of departmental management discussions and also that of both the PMC and the Mpumalanga Executive Council (MPEC).

The coordination of the implementation of the strategy rests with the DoE. Departments should make inputs as the implementation of the strategy progresses. Such inputs will be through the quarterly reports that they submit. The MPEC should receive progress reports on a quarterly basis. The study proposes that:
Recommendation 17: The Department of Education should consolidate and analyse departmental reports and report to both the PMC and the MPEC on a quarterly basis.

The following section discusses the establishment of partnerships. Given that the MPG, according to the perceptions of the respondents, has not done well on the women’s leadership development and advancement front, the need arises to consider the involvement of partners.

5.3.4.3 Establishing partnerships

Given the number of current women leaders at all the levels of the SMS in the MPG, and the lack of development programmes targeted at women leaders, it is important that partnerships are established. Institutions of higher learning, the private sector and private service providers are critical to the success of such partnerships.

Partnerships should be entered into to address the design, implementation and funding of women’s leadership development programmes and campaigns, coordination, reporting, monitoring and evaluation of development programmes, and the review of development programmes based upon the skills and training needs. Also, the partnerships should focus upon providing women facilitators for targeted training programmes and providing women role models that could assist in a mentoring and coaching programme for the MPG.

Amagoh (2009:995) supports the establishment of partnerships by stating that complete reliance of organisations upon their internal means for leadership development may lead to an insular mentality that limits creativity. Leadership development is aimed at harnessing diversity and sharing best practice, and the organisation is not likely to have all of this in the environment of operation.

In order for the MPG to conduct a proper evaluation of the leadership development programmes, a need for building the appropriate capacity arises. When proper evaluation of the programmes is conducted, the results of the evaluation should be incorporated into the on-going improvement of strategy to develop and advance women leaders. Day (2011:45) suggests that the evaluation of development programmes is often ignored or forgotten or done shallowly, through participants commenting upon facilitation of the workshop and the logistics. This means that the
important area of the impact of the developmental training upon the leadership skills of the participants is neglected. Furthermore, managers are said to not be competent in the evaluation of the development programmes. Managers too need to be assisted with skills to both evaluate development programmes and also to provide constructive feedback to the participants of leadership development programmes. The study, thus, proposes that:

- Recommendation 18: The MPG should establish partnerships that will help bring accredited leadership development programmes to the province. The MPG should take responsibility to roll out leadership development programmes through strategic partnerships.
- Recommendation 19: The critical process of the evaluation of the leadership development programmes should be conducted by the MPG, to assess the value derived from driving HRD through strategic partnerships.

From the above, it is clear that the MPG needs partners to effectively implement, monitor and evaluate leadership development programmes. Bringing the leadership development programmes closer to the province will also enhance an enabling and supportive work environment, which has already been highlighted as critical for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

The next subsection discusses targeted training. Targeted training is viewed as crucial to the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders, because it will target women leaders and target those areas that need attention, rather than targeting generic senior leadership issues.

5.3.4.4 Targeted training

Given the need to give women leaders a space to develop in a less threatening environment, the MPG should choose to implement targeted training. Such targeted training could be general for all women leaders, but more influence could be achieved by developing criteria to select women who could deliberately be developed to form part of a pool of well-groomed women leaders. The MPG should create the pool in line with its succession plans and retention strategies too.

The targeted training should be exclusive to women participants only and should include an awareness programme, a balancing of the work and family life
programme, and a leadership competency, training, mentoring and coaching programme. Patel and Buiting (2013:28) maintain that women-only programmes are beneficial because the women get an opportunity to experience being a majority in contrast to the regular male dominated contexts. Also women-only programmes increase opportunities to form networks with female role models. The study recommends that:

- Recommendation 20: The MPG should design, identify and implement accredited targeted training based upon a credible skills audit.
- Recommendation 21: For the sake of greater influence, the MPG should develop criteria to target women leaders to be developed and advanced.
- Recommendation 22: The MPG should sustain this proposed pool of women targeted for training by creating a clear exit strategy from the pool aimed towards appointment in senior management positions.

In order for the women to have a better understanding of what is available and planned for them, it is imperative that the MPG utilises many platforms to communicate with them. The communication should include plans, criteria for inclusion in the pool of women leaders, an exit strategy from the pool, flexibilities regarding attendance of structured leadership development programmes and other alternatives that are available for those that may not be available to be included in the first phase of the initiative. The targeted training is not likely to achieve its objectives if it is not well communicated, because poor attendance may contribute to improper use of scarce budgets.

5.3.4.5 **Mentoring and coaching programme**

The development programmes in isolation from one another would not deliver the desired results. The study proposes that inherent mentoring and coaching by supervisors and a formal mentoring and coaching programme stand to enhance the results significantly.

Women leaders earmarked to participate in the mentoring and coaching programme should undergo training, both as mentors and mentees. Mentoring and coaching, when approached from an informed position, will bear fruit for the MPG. Being a supervisor or a woman leader does not automatically make one a mentor. Similarly, being a follower does not necessarily make you a mentee. The mentoring and
coaching programme will help to regulate the relationship between the mentor and the mentee, the expectations and the desired outcomes.

Amagoh (2009:992), Cao and Xue (2013:2), Geldenhuys and Lues (2005:100) and Patel and Buiting (2013:27) support mentoring, coaching and sponsoring as a form of leadership development. Performance of duties is an opportunity for learning. Thus mentoring, coaching and sponsoring create the opportunity for women leaders to be supported in an on-going, in-the-moment manner (Barsh & Yee, 2011). In ensuring that the mentoring and coaching programme is successful, attention should be given to the selection of the women leaders that should participate in the formal programme, quarterly and annual reports must be crafted, analysed and consolidated and best practice must be singled out and shared. The study recommends that:

- Recommendation 23: The MPG should establish a mentoring and coaching programme to complement all the other efforts that are put in place to create a sustainable pool of women leaders. After identification of mentors and mentees, they should all attend the mentoring and coaching training programme so that all participants are able to manage the relationships. Furthermore, departments should coordinate their mentoring and coaching programmes and share best practice at both the departmental and the Provincial Women in Leadership Fora.

Whist this section dealt with mentoring and coaching that should help in the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders, it is not necessarily exhaustive. Every aspect of the review of the HRD practices, coordination of leadership programmes and establishing partnerships on their own will not achieve a sustainable pool of women leaders. A strategy that integrates all the aspects discussed in the study enhances the achievability of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

Flowing from the discussion above, a proposed strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG is outlined. The next section discusses the strategy implementation, reporting, monitoring and evaluation. Without these processes being systematically planned and executed, the proposed strategy will have no influence upon the development and advancement of women leaders.
5.3.4 Strategy implementation, reporting, monitoring and evaluation

Crafting of strategy refers to a process designed to guide an organisation’s senior leadership in defining the type of organisation they are leading, the desired ends they plan to achieve and the methods that can best achieve such desired ends (Pearce & Robinson, 2003:21). Thus the crafting of a strategy entails strategic planning sessions through which the environment in which an organisation operates is analysed, in order to make a strategic choice. Implementation plans are drawn up and implemented based upon the strategic choices (Thompson & Martin, 2010:352-353). Foundation for Community Association Research (2014:4) asserts that strategic planning refers to the organisation’s ability to remain financially viable, maintaining its reserves, whilst projecting and anticipating its position in the industry of operation in the long term. Furthermore, strategic planning is a systematic planning process and a cornerstone for the achievement of an organisation’s long term goals. Strategic choice refers to the route that an organisation chooses to take, in order to achieve its desired ends. The route is dependent upon the extent of the anticipated match between the competitive conditions in the industry of operation and the organisation’s internal resources, strengths and weaknesses (Thompson et al., 2010:181). In the case of the study, the crafting of the strategy is aimed at the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

Executing the strategy refers to a process of ensuring that the plans derived from the chosen strategy utilise the organisational structure and allocated resources to achieve the desired ends for the organisation. The execution of the strategy demands of the executing managers capacities that influence employees to commit to the achievement of the planned organisational change, the investment in the organisation’s competences and competitive advantage, and also the creation and nurturing of an enabling and supportive work environment for the strategy to come to fruition. An expectation of the executing managers is also that there should be adequate advocacy for the strategy, so that the lowest level employees also understand the strategy and how they contribute to the successful implementation of the strategy (Thompson et al. 2010:41-42).

In support of strategy crafting and execution, Mintzberg (1994:23) contends that: “The real world inevitably involves some thinking ahead of time as well as some adaptation en route”. This quotation indicates that strategy crafting and execution
involves visionary thinkers who are flexible enough to adapt the strategy when the need arises or is anticipated. Adaptation simplifies learning and control during strategy implementation, because an organisation that operates on a totally emergent strategy would only seem to be controlled by both internal and external forces that render it voiceless in its direction, which would most likely lead to disaster (Mintzberg, 1994:25).

The study argues that part of the commitment of the MPG to the development and advancement of women leaders will be evident in the resources and drive that are put into the execution of the strategy. It will not be sufficient to merely craft the strategy because the process of crafting the strategy alone is not adequate. Execution of the strategy translates the strategic intentions into patterns of activities whose outcomes lead to the desired change; in this case the development and advancement of women leaders.

The study reasons that the crafting, execution and management of the strategy are intertwined. From the beginning of the strategic planning session right up to the execution, different strategy management processes are involved. It is for this reason that management of the strategy should be allocated to the leadership of organisations, so that there is accountability. For the strategy to be focused upon the development and advancement of women leaders, the study proposes that the DoE, as the current central department for coordination of HRD in the province, should be assigned the role though the HODs of the departments, as they will be in charge of the strategy in their respective duties through the departmental HRD Units in collaboration with the Transversal Units.

After the proposed strategy is crafted, the 12 provincial departments of the MPG inclusive of the OTP (MPG, 2013) should craft departmental implementation plans. These plans should be dependent upon the current employment equity status quo regarding the representation of women leaders, and should then be executed accordingly. Through the departmental monitoring and evaluation units, the departments should monitor and evaluate their own progress. However, the reports that the 12 departments generate should be submitted to the DoE for consolidation and tabling to the HRM Forum, the MPHRDC, the PMC and the MPEC. The reporting protocols will persuade departments to make progress in the development and advancement of women’s leadership.
Based upon the above, the study recommends that:

- **Recommendation 24:** The MPG should escalate the implementation, monitoring, reporting and evaluation of the proposed strategy once adopted, so that a deliberate emphasis may be placed upon the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

Day (2012:116,125) argues that leadership development comes at a cost and evolves over time, and the acquisition of desired skills happens even outside the formal development programme structured learning. Thus, the need arises to systematically document and evaluate the impact of all the interventions, so that future interventions may address eminent gaps.

### 5.4 CONCLUSION

The development and advancement of women leaders in the MPG stand to benefit the leadership and assist the MPG to utilise all its available resources optimally. The human capital of the MPG is central to the delivery of services. Women leaders have a contribution to make in the MPG. The development and advancement of women leaders are mandatory for the MPG.

In order to assist the MPG to achieve equal representation of women and men leaders and thus be compliant with the regulatory framework, the proposed strategy needs to be adopted (with adaptations where necessary), executed and managed. The study presents a framework for the proposed strategy on the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

Chapter Five addressed the objective on the development of a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. Chapter Six follows, which comprises the conclusions and recommendations emanating from the study, and it consolidates the proposed strategy.
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The study seeks to “develop a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the Mpumalanga Provincial Government”. A qualitative research approach was utilised by the study to collect data and analyse it to inform women’s leadership development and advancement.

This chapter discusses the conclusions that are drawn for the study, based upon the literature review and the responses to both the semi-structured questionnaire and the in-depth interviews. The conclusions are followed by the recommendations to the MPG regarding the development of a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

The study has central theoretical departure points which are the Public Administration, Gender and Leadership Theories. The gender of the leadership manifesting in the form of the unequal representation of women and men leaders in the practice of public administration in the MPG is central to the study.

The study addresses the following research objectives as captured in Chapter One:

- to analyse the leadership and gender theories underpinning the study;
- to explore the political, economic and social environments and their influence upon the development of women;
- to examine the perceived impediments to the development of women leaders in the MPG; and
- to develop a strategy that may be utilised to create a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

A qualitative research approach was used in the methodology. The research design was a single case study, with the instruments for the collection of data being the documents, the self-administered semi-structured questionnaire and the in-depth interviews. Data analysis was aligned with the qualitative research approach. The MPG is the population for the study with the 1st level of sampling being women leaders currently serving the MPG, and the 2nd level of sampling being 40 women
leaders. The women leaders in the first and the second sampling are from salary levels 11-16.

The study was conducted within ethical considerations where the rights of the respondents and the authors of the various sources were respected. Authors were credited for the contribution they made to the study.

Chapter One encapsulates the theoretical statements underlying the study and outlines the processes that the study underwent to inform the chapters in the study, inclusive of the conclusions and the recommendations in this chapter. The processes outlined in Chapter One ensure that each chapter addresses the research objectives as intended.

Chapter Two illustrates the paradigmatic development of Public Administration through the discussion of five paradigms. The Gender and Leadership Theories are discussed to consolidate the theoretical departure points of the study.

The Public Administration Theory helps with the understanding of the interdependence of politics and administration, the need for experts in the Public Service that may be derived from HRD practices, the need for participation of civil society in the delivery of services, and it also provides a platform for the practice of leadership in the delivery of public services. The Leadership Theories assist in the understanding of the emergence, behaviour, skills and styles of leaders and the reasons for male leadership preference. Leadership effectiveness becomes the focus for HRD interventions. The Gender Theories highlight both similarities and differences between women and men leaders. The similarities emphasise that women are equally capable of leading organisations as men do, and the differences aptly display the value that women’s leadership brings into organisations. The Public Administration, Gender and Leadership Theories assist in the decisions regarding the content of the leadership development programmes. The abovementioned theories find expression in political, economic and social environments in the workplace.

Chapter Three contextualises the political, economic and social environments in which public administration is practised. These environments provide the national and provincial regulatory framework that is supportive of women’s leadership development and advancement, although not adequately implemented, reported
upon, monitored and evaluated. The environments emphasise the inseparableness of politics and public administration and the contributory aspects of the work environment that influence the development and advancement of women’s leadership.

The political, economic and social environments in which public administration and leadership are practised help with the understanding of the aspects of the work place that have the potential to influence the development and advancement of women’s leadership. The environments assist in the identification of the key aspects of the work environment that need focus to enhance women’s leadership development and advancement. The study identifies the regulatory framework, the enabling environment, the identification and advancement of leaders, compensation, masculine organisational culture, family responsibilities and culture and patriarchy as some of the aspects in the work environment that need attention, in order to enhance the development of a strategy for the creation of a pool of women leaders in the MPG. Issues from the environments, together with the theories in Chapter Two, form the basis of the questionnaire and the in-depth interviews that were used as instruments for the collection of primary data in the study.

Chapter Four discusses the challenges that influence the unequal representation, development and advancement of women leaders. These challenges are categorised as regulatory framework and organisational component challenges. The challenges emanate from both the responses of the respondents through the data collection instruments and the literature review in the study.

Chapter Four captures the varied barriers that the organisational components present to women’s leadership development and advancement. These organisational components are embedded in the economic and social environment of the MPG. Although the political environment through the regulatory framework is supportive of women’s leadership development and advancement, the failure of the MPG to adequately implement, report on, monitor and evaluate the impact of the regulatory framework is a cause for concern. In this chapter the study identifies the challenges to form the basis of the proposed strategy.

Chapter Five examines the analysis of the findings from the documents and the responses to the semi-structured questionnaire and in-depth interviews. Chapter
Five is the basis for the recommendations that are discussed in the following section and which proposes a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based upon the barriers that are identified in the organisational components of the MPG, recommendations are made to assist in the development of a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders. The recommendations focus upon the key barriers, that when addressed, should exhibit progress in the development and advancement of women leaders. These barriers are addressed hereunder, and are supported by the primary data and the literature review.

6.3.1 Regulatory environment

The regulatory environment is perceived as supportive to women’s leadership development and advancement. However, a criticism thereon is that it does not adequately specify the interventions for women and it is also not adequately implemented, reported upon, monitored and evaluated. Consultation with relevant stakeholders is identified as important for advocacy and making inputs into the regulatory framework. Thus the study recommends that:

- Recommendation 1: The MPG should ensure that the appropriate legislation and policies are used for the targeted leadership development and advancement of women. The study suggests that over and above women leaders being appointed into higher positions of leadership, women’s leadership development opportunities should also include women leaders being given opportunities to act in vacant funded posts, or when the incumbents are on leave for various reasons, to provide real work settings for practising skills. Where work is organised into team work, the women leaders should also be given opportunities to become team leaders. When these efforts are institutionalised and internalised by all leaders, male leader preference will most likely diminish.

- Recommendation 2: The MPG should ensure that the legislation and policies are used to establish appropriate career paths for women. Also, women leaders should be identified and placed in the succession plan of the MPG.
• Recommendation 3: Compliance with legislation and policies should extend beyond the implementation of equal representation for women leaders, to the composition of recruitment panels, organised labour representatives in recruitment processes, training facilitators, training participants and various committees of the MPG. Such a symbolic effort will consistently communicate the need for equal representation, development and advancement of women. The influence of such an effort will begin to bear fruit if it is consistently practised by all departments in the MPG.

• Recommendation 4: The MPG should invest in consistent and continuous consultations where every stakeholder should be able to give progress updates upon the clear role that was allocated to her/him.

• Recommendation 5: The MPG should establish a Provincial WLF which should assist in continuously impressing upon women leaders that the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders needs their contribution as part of the solution. Given the practical nature of the Provincial WLF, the MPG may choose to impress upon the departments that they should customise their own Women in Leadership Fora that will be represented in the Provincial WLF, so that there could be a better coordination and feedback mechanism. The Provincial WLF should perform the task of coordinating the departmental fora. The fora are not decision making bodies, however they serve as an important stakeholder in issues of women’s leadership.

6.3.1.1 Working conditions

Inflexible and non-supportive working conditions for women leaders are viewed as displaying the extent to which the MPG is a non-supportive work environment. These working conditions are viewed as a manifestation of a masculine organisational environment. The study thus recommends that:

• Recommendation 6: In creating a supportive organisational environment and culture, the MPG should focus upon enabling women towards development and advancement by creating working conditions that allow for flexibility in balancing work and home responsibilities.
6.3.1.2 Supportive organisational culture

The masculine organisational culture in the MPG is viewed as promoting male leadership preference. The unequal representation of women and men leaders contributes to the masculine organisational culture. For the women’s leadership and advancement initiatives to succeed, the organisational culture must change.

- Recommendation 7: In creating a supportive organisational environment and culture the MPG should design, implement and evaluate a diversity management programme that aims to promote gender mainstreaming in all functions and to address specific organisational processes and functions that support a masculine organisational culture.

6.3.2 Integrated human resource planning

Consolidation of HRP practices seeks to review and align the HRP to other practices that may be of mutual benefit and advantage to the development and advancement of women leaders. A synergy is sought between the HRP and the HRD practices.

- Recommendation 8: When finalising the human resource needs of the MPG, the employment equity plans, the cadre deployment needs and the needs of the different departments should be aligned and consolidated into one plan that will serve to inform subsequent human resource management functions, including recruitment and retention, specifically as it relates to retaining women managers in leadership positions.
- Recommendation 9: The involvement of human capital, particularly in the various recruitment panels, and as observers, should take into consideration their own equal representation issues so that applicants should not feel intimidated by any unequal representation.
- Recommendation 10: The MPG should pay special attention when planning for technical, scarce and leadership skills recruitment, so that deliberate actions may be taken to increase the number of women leaders in these areas. Such emphasis increases the probability of women leaders emerging from the technical departments of the MPG too. Also, this emphasis will enhance targeted training to mentor women leaders.
- Recommendation 11: In reporting progress on the human resource management plans, the MPG should always strive to give disaggregated
figures prior to giving an aggregated position, since aggregated figures have a tendency to hide the true picture. Similarly, in the crafting of the employment equity plans, each component should be analysed to ensure that overall gender representivity is informed by gender representivity in the individual components of a department and *vice versa*.

- **Recommendation 12:** Recruitment panels should be presented with human resource plan, relevant component employment equity status reports and plans, succession plans and the retention strategies, so as to inform the actions of the panels.

### 6.3.3 Review of HRD practices

The review of HRD practices is critical to the development and advancement of women leaders. HRD practices are the vehicle which helps to achieve the women's development and advancement goals. Women leaders need to be recruited and when recruited, the PMDS practices need to reward them for their efforts in the delivery of public services. The study recommends that:

- **Recommendation 13:** In order to address challenges in HRD practices the MPG should conduct a skills audit so that a directory of available skills and skills shortages may be made available. The shortage of skills will give an indication of the extent of skills development needed, and coupled with targeted training, could have a positive effect upon the leadership development of women.

- **Recommendation 14:** The MPG should utilise the bursary budget to assist in the funding for targeted development of women through qualification improvements. Alignment of the bursary budget with the women's development plans will increase the focus upon women's leadership development and advancement, since the limited budgets would not be channelled to any formal studies that would not assist in the achievement of the plans for advancing women leaders.

- **Recommendation 15:** The MPG should focus upon the contents of the PDPs, so that synergy may be realised with the WSP, to ensure that proper training is received and that there is prudence in the utilisation of resources.

- **Recommendation 16:** The MPG should create synergy between the HRD and HRM practices, so that the greatest value may be derived from these
practices, to facilitate the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders. Furthermore, the allocated budgets may go a longer way because overlaps and repetitions inherent in these practices may be minimised.

6.3.3.1 **Coordination of leadership development programmes**

The empirical data regarding the focus of the MPG upon leadership development revealed that there is no proper or adequate coordination. There are pockets of success that are not consolidated to provide the total picture of how the MPG is addressing women’s leadership development. There are no targeted leadership development programmes for women leaders. Focus needs to be aimed at the coordination of leadership development programmes, so that all leadership development initiatives may be accounted for, overlaps may be avoided and resources may be prudently utilised. The study thus recommends that:

- Recommendation 17: The Department of Education should consolidate and analyse departmental reports and report to both the PMC and the MPEC on a quarterly basis.

6.3.3.2 **Establishing partnerships**

The leadership development challenges identified in the study declare that the MPG does not have adequate capacity and expertise to deal with issues of women’s leadership development. The established University of Mpumalanga is one of the key aspects that need consideration in deciding upon partnerships, due to its accessibility. Other partnerships dependent upon the requirements of the MPG need to be explored, to ensure that the MPG does not serve as both ‘referee and player in the development and advancement of the women leaders. The study recommends that:

- Recommendation 18: The MPG should establish partnerships that will help bring accredited leadership development programmes to the province. The MPG should take responsibility to roll out leadership development programmes through strategic partnerships.
- Recommendation 19: The critical process of the evaluation of the leadership development programmes should be conducted by the MPG, to assess the value derived from driving HRD through strategic partnerships.
6.3.3.3  **Targeted training**

Culture and patriarchy have socialised women and men differently, and this socialisation spills over to the workplace. Since the majority of higher leadership positions are occupied by male leaders, leadership development interventions are dominated by men as both participants and facilitators. The need arises to give women space to explore leadership development in a conducive environment, where the presence of male leaders would not be a constant reminder of their socialisation. The study recommends that:

- Recommendation 20: The MPG should design, identify and implemented accredited targeted training, based upon a credible skills audit.
- Recommendation 21: For the sake of greater influence, the MPG should develop criteria to target women leaders to be developed and advanced.
- Recommendation 22: The MPG should sustain this proposed pool of women targeted for training by creating a clear exit strategy from the pool aimed towards appointment in senior management positions.

6.3.3.5.  **Mentoring and coaching programme**

The women leaders in the MPG are at different levels of development and some have all the skills and lack only opportunities to lead. A mentoring and coaching programme creates opportunity for skilled women and women currently occupying higher leadership positions to ‘lift as they rise’ and become mentors and role models to other aspirant women leaders. The mentoring and coaching programme also presents an opportunity to ensure that as many women leaders as possible could start enhancing their career advancement, since budgetary constraints will limit the number of women that can attend formal leadership training programmes. Synergy may be derived between the establishment of a Women in Leadership Forum and the mentoring and coaching programme. The study recommends that:

- Recommendation 23: The MPG should establish a mentoring and coaching programme to complement all the other efforts that are put in place to create a sustainable pool of women leaders. After identification of mentors and mentees, they should all attend the mentoring and coaching programme, so that all participants know how to manage the relationships. Furthermore, departments should coordinate their mentoring and coaching programmes
and share best practice at both the departmental and the Provincial Women in Leadership Fora.

6.3.4 Strategy implementation, reporting, monitoring and evaluation

Strategy implementation, reporting, monitoring and evaluation processes are necessary and important, as they ensure that the proposed strategy attains its goal. Unfortunately in the heat of service delivery, these processes are postponed, ignored or done for compliance sake only. Such treatment of strategy implementation, reporting, monitoring and evaluation processes can only result in failure to develop and advance women leaders. When these processes are adequately afforded the desired attention, feedback into the strategy review process will instruct and influence future strategies. The study recommends that:

- Recommendation 24: The MPG should escalate the implementation, monitoring, reporting and evaluation of the proposed strategy once adopted, so that a deliberate emphasis may be placed upon the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

6.4 CONCLUSION

Chapter Six addresses the research objective that consolidates the conclusions and the recommendations of the study. The conclusions and recommendations reveal that the regulatory framework is supported, although focus needs to be placed upon training targeting women specifically, and implementing, reporting, monitoring and evaluating the women’s leadership development and advancement initiatives. These processes will assist in the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders.

The recommendations address all the barriers identified as being embodied in the political, economic and social environments internal and external to the MPG. The study contends that paying special attention to the implementation of the recommendations contained in the proposed strategy will achieve the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders.
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Questionnaire for the fulfilment of Doctoral degree in Public Management and Governance.

Research title: Developing a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the Mpumalanga Provincial Government

Researcher: M. P. L. Mabelane

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

South Africa has a progressive legal framework for the development and advancement of women leaders into higher positions. Research findings indicate that a preference for male leaders still persists. The study focuses on the development of a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the Mpumalanga Provincial Government (MPG).

The study is qualitative. It utilises the literature review, research questionnaires and interview schedule to collect data for analysis. The non-achievement of the 50% target for the representation of women in all the SMS level positions, particularly in the MPG, and the perception of an unequal treatment of women and male leaders prompted the study.

You are requested to complete the questionnaire and thus contribute to the development of a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of women leaders in the MPG. Your participation is voluntary and your anonymity is guaranteed. Your responses are confidential and will only be shared with the Promoter of the research. Your responses will be utilised for academic purposes only. There will be no compensation for the completion of the questionnaire.

CONSENT

I agree to voluntarily participate in the research conducted by Maseke Pontšho Lydia for partial fulfilment of the Ph.D in Public Management and Governance.

Mark with “X”

AGREE | DISAGREE
SECTION A: PROFILE OF THE PARTICIPANT

NOTE: The numbers to be crossed in relevant questions are for classification of responses purposes only.

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SECTION B: Women leaders’ perceptions

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13. In your opinion which values do women leaders bring into an organisation?
14. Do you believe the MPG to be representative in terms of both men and women leaders? Please provide reasons for your answer.

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15. Do you perceive MPG to emphasise the development of women leaders? Please provide reasons for your answer.

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16. Which leadership development programmes exist in the MPG? Please specify if there is a specific emphasis within these programmes on the development of women leaders.

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17. What are the leadership development challenges experienced by the MPG?

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18. In your opinion, what should the MPG do to address these leadership development challenges?

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19. Do you think that the regulatory framework is supportive of developing women leaders? Please provide reasons for your answer.


20. Do you think the regulatory framework promotes equal representation of male and women leaders in the Public Service? Please provide reasons for your answer.


21. Do you think the regulatory framework is implemented appropriately? If there are areas that need improvement in the implementation of the regulatory framework, what should be improved and how should it be improved?


22. Do you think women and male leaders earn equal pay for equal work or work of equal worth? Please provide reasons for your answer.


23. What do you perceive as challenges for women leaders to advance to higher leadership positions in MPG?
24. What should the MPG do to develop women leaders for higher leadership positions?

25. What do you think is the influence of culture in women leadership? Please provide reasons for your answer.

26. Do you perceive the MPG organisational culture as masculine or feminine? Please provide reasons for your answer.

27. What do you think is the influence of patriarchy on women leadership? Please provide reasons for your answer.

28. What, in your opinion, is the influence of family responsibilities on the development of women leaders? Please provide reasons for your answer.
29. Do you think that the MPG organisational environment is enabling and supportive to the development of women leadership? Please provide reasons for your answer.

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30. Do you think there are barriers to the development and advancement of women’s in the MPG? Please provide reasons for your answer.

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31. Should barriers exist, how would you suggest MPG address it?

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32. Are there any additional information that you think is pertinent to understanding the challenges associated with the development of women leaders in the MPG?

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15 February 2016

Informed consent for participation in an academic research study

Title of the study
Developing a strategy for the creation of a sustainable pool of female leaders in the Mpumalanga Provincial Government

Research supervised by:
Prof HG van Dijk
North-West University
0182852214

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Ms Maseke Pontšho Mabelane who is a student at the North West University NWU. The purpose of the interview is to gather information regarding your perceptions on female leadership development in the Mpumalanga Provincial Government (MPG).

Please note the following:
- This study involves your participation in the completion of a questionnaire.
- Your participation in this study is very important to NWU. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- The results of the study may be made available to all stakeholders in this research project and may be published in an academic journal and/or presented at an academic conference.

Please sign the form and tick the box provided in the questionnaire to indicate that:
- You have read and understood the information provided above.
- You agree to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

A self-addressed envelope is included for returning the questionnaire.

__________________________  _____________________
Respondent's signature        Date
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16. Which leadership development programmes exist in the MPG? Please specify if there is a specific emphasis within these programmes on the development of women leaders.

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17. What are the leadership development challenges experienced by the MPG?

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18. In your opinion, what should the MPG do to address these leadership development challenges?

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19. Do you think that the regulatory framework is supportive of developing women leaders? Please provide reasons for your answer.

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20. Do you think the regulatory framework promotes equal representation of male and women leaders in the Public Service? Please provide reasons for your answer.

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21. Do you think the regulatory framework is implemented appropriately? If there are areas that need improvement in the implementation of the regulatory framework, what should be improved and how should it be improved?

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22. Do you think women and male leaders earn equal pay for equal work or work of equal worth? Please provide reasons for your answer.

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23. What do you perceive as challenges for women leaders to advance to higher leadership positions in MPG?

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24. What should the MPG do to develop women leaders for higher leadership positions?

25. What do you think is the influence of culture in women leadership? Please provide reasons for your answer.

26. Do you perceive the MPG organisational culture as masculine or feminine? Please provide reasons for your answer.

27. What do you think is the influence of patriarchy on women leadership? Please provide reasons for your answer.

28. What, in your opinion, is the influence of family responsibilities on the development of women leaders? Please provide reasons for your answer.
29. Do you think that the MPG organisational environment is enabling and supportive to the development of women leadership? Please provide reasons for your answer.

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30. Do you think there are barriers to the development and advancement of women’s in the MPG? Please provide reasons for your answer.

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31. Should barriers exist, how would you suggest MPG address it?

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32. Are there any additional information that you think is pertinent to understanding the challenges associated with the development of women leaders in the MPG?

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