AN ENQUIRY INTO THE FACTORS IMPEDING THE CAREER ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN ACADEMICS AT PENINSULA TECHNIKON

BY

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the study was to determine the factors that impede the career advancement of women academics at Peninsula Technikon, an academic institution in South Africa. There are many variables which need to be addressed systematically, but the present research focused on two factors: to determine whether women academics at the institution experienced difficulty in balancing career and family demands (role salience), and to determine which barriers impacted on the career advancement of women academics at the institution.

Research interest in the influence of gender on advancement was stimulated by the relative scarcity of women at the top echelon of academic institutions. Women continue to be underrepresented among institutions of higher education and concentrated in the lower ranks, despite legislative advances and affirmative action. Studies indicated that many personal, social, and situational factors contribute to women being underrepresented in the higher echelons of the academic hierarchy and experiencing more occupational barriers in their academic careers than males. Family responsibilities have been reported as a significant obstacle to the advancement of women in the past. Many professional women find themselves trying to satisfy the responsibilities of a demanding career and home-life.

The study investigated the level of participation, commitment and role value realisation reported by women academics at the institution compared to the normative data gathered on the Life Role Inventory (LRI). The relative influence of participation, commitment and role value realisation of home/family and working functions for women academics were also contrasted. The study also investigated the barriers experienced by women academics compared to the normative data gathered on the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised scales (CBI-R).

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All seventy-three women academics at the institution were solicited to participate in the study. The sample of women academics (n = 43) was distributed within the Science, Engineering, and Business Faculties. A demographic questionnaire was designed by the researcher to obtain the demographic data relevant to the sample description and the family situation, educational level, research involvement, working experience, and departmental location of the respondents. The CBI-R was used to determine the barriers that impacted on the career advancement of women academics at the institution. The LRI was used to address the question whether women academics at the institution experienced any difficulty in balancing career and family roles.

The research findings suggested that respondents were less likely to indicate their experience of tension/dissatisfaction with their career advancement in the direct, discrete questions. However, they were likely to express themselves more openly on the items of the career barrier scales. Women academics in the present study indicated greater experience of barriers to their career advancement than college students of the standardised sample on all, but one of the thirteen career barrier sub-scales, inspite of their more advanced stage of career development.

The results of the present study confirmed that women academics at the institution experienced greater participation in the work role compared to the home and family role, but were more committed to the home and family role than to the work role. Although it was predicted that women academics in general have a stronger commitment to the work role than to the home and family role, women academics in the present study evidenced more commitment towards the role of home and family than to the work role. The findings indicated that there was no significant difference between value expectations of the work role and value expectations of the home and family role for women academics. Although it was predicted that professional women in general have higher value expectations of the work role than the home and family role, women academics in the present study evidenced no difference between the two roles.

DECLARATION

The researcher hereby declares that this whole thesis, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is her own work.
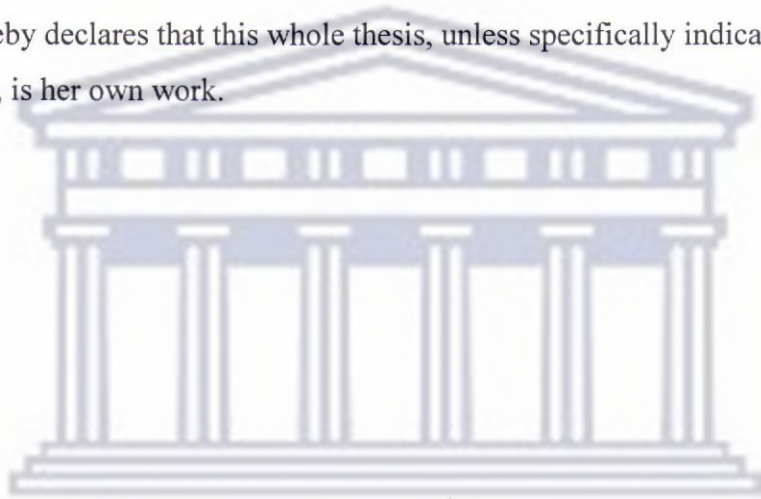
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"After the seeding and incubation of autumn,
The hard work of winter,
And the weeding and integration of spring,
Comes the joy of the harvest in the summer."
- AV Naidoo

Firstly, I thank my Almighty for granting me the strength, courage and inspiration to succeed in this endeavour during challenging times. "When long and steep the path appears, or heavy is the task, Our Father says, 'Press on, My child; one step is all I ask." He was the veritable wind beneath my wings.

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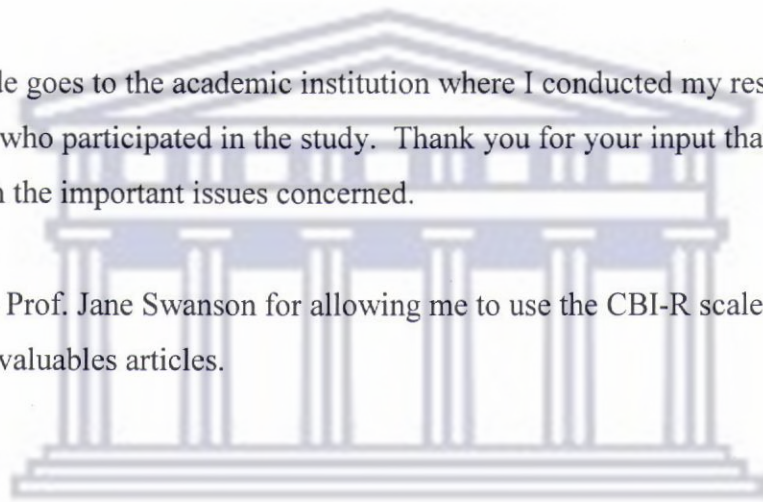
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CHAPTER ONE

"Work and family are more than just complications,
they are sources of meaning and identity
to which women balance commitment"

- D Bielby

1.1   INTRODUCTION

There has been a proliferation of research studies on work and family interfaces in recent years. This may reflect the changing status of women in society. In the past, women were restricted to traditional family roles while men were defined primarily by their work (Chi-Ching, 1995). In recent years there has been a growth in the number of women aspiring to management positions, but the actual growth has mainly been in occupations that are seen as traditionally female and mainly at junior levels (Foster, 1994). It still is difficult for women to reach upper middle and senior positions, while it seems relatively easy for them to gain employment at the lower levels of organisations with few prospects for mobility or growth. Only a selected few move past the "glass ceiling" to join the top echelon of male corporate executives (Davidson, 1991).

Discrimination against women has been an integral part of the corporate world and will take a long time to be eradicated. Many women hold the view that as a result of sexism, particularly in male dominated fields, women must work harder than men do and achieve more in order to gain acceptance and promotion. For some women a male-dominated culture means being patronised or not being taken as seriously as men. For others it is a feeling of not being heard and of lacking the confidence or desire to be assertive enough to make an impression (Naidoo, 1997).

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Women constitute the majority of working people in many countries, but few hold decision-making positions. Whilst many women have moved into managerial positions, many more are experiencing barriers that keep them from progressing into higher level positions of organisational authority and power (Van Rooyen, 1989). Structural barriers are viewed to impede women's progress in organisations. Because white males predominate in important management positions, power structures may tend to perpetuate the status quo. The few women in power positions may be seen as tokens or representatives of their gender, and they may face undue pressure to perform (Morris & Von Glinow, 1990). Gender stereotypes and discrimination may underlie the differential status of women in the workplace. Evidence suggests that gender-based stereotypes persist in the world of work despite efforts, such as affirmative action, to more fully integrate women into positions of organisational responsibility (Abraham & Hansson, 1996). One of the most damaging stereotypes is the belief that women workers are unstable and unreliable, thus employers are often reluctant to promote or train female employees because they fear that women will quit when they marry or when they have children. Other frequent barriers perceived by women in attaining their desired positions include family obligations (getting married, having children, wanting to spend more time with the family) (Wentling, 1995).

At the home front, an increasing number of career women are becoming disillusioned about being "superwomen," handling the multiple demands of a job/career, children, and domestic chores with little support from their husband and family members. It seems that women are still at the crossroad, tossed between the family and a career and in search of the best way to combine the two in their life. Research on stress and burnout in dual-career families suggests that working women have a hard time coping with their multiple roles (Chi-Ching, 1995). Results of research also suggest that traditional gender role expectations continue to powerfully influence life-role participation (Higgins, Duxbury, & Lee, 1994).

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The division of labour in the South African corporate world is often based on stereotype gender roles. Tasks that are regarded as being challenging such as management positions are not easily available to women. It can be argued that many jobs performed by women are extensions of work undertaken in the household unit. African women are clustered in menial and low paid jobs such as cleaning, tea making, lower rungs of nursing and teaching, while Coloured and Indian women tend to be accommodated in the lower ranks of the clerical corps. This is reflective from the available statistics (Naidoo, 1997). In South Africa, women constitute approximate 54% of the population. Although they account for 40% of the paid workforce, they account for 70% of all service sector employees and more than half of all clerical and sale positions. Women in South Africa also occupy a significant majority of the so-called 'pink-collar jobs'. They comprise: 96% of registered nurses; 90% of occupational and radiotherapists; 86% of social workers; 67% of teachers; and 96% of domestic workers. With regard to senior positions in the corporate sector, women in South Africa compromise 1% of 3,773 directors of the JSE's 657 companies - fourteen women are either executive directors, chairwomen, or managing directors. Women represent less than 1% of board members in the corporate world. Of non-executive directors, 9% are white women and only 2% are African women. Only 25 percent of all the women surveyed and 3 percent of African women were in senior management positions, compared with 85 percent of men (Naidoo, 1997).

The above findings suggest that the "glass ceiling" still exists today in much the same form as it has in the past and performs the same function, namely to exclude women from upper-level management in most organisations (Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1992). Theoretically no barriers exist which could keep women from moving upward on the occupational ladder into positions of authority and power. Reality, however, differs from theory. Apart from women experiencing tokenism in organisational context, women also experience barriers based on residuals of traditional gender socialisation. External status characteristics (such as race and gender) can result in differences in general expectations of effective behaviour. Behaviour accepted as correct for a man may be rejected as

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inappropriate for a woman. There are indications that even if individuals' performance or qualifications are identical, then the gender of a person could influence evaluation of real or potential effectiveness (Van Rooyen, 1989).

1.2   RATIONALE FOR THE PRESENT STUDY

Women's position in academia has been the focus of much empirical attention. Women continue to be underrepresented among university faculty and concentrated in the lower ranks, despite legislative advances, affirmative action, and large increases in the number of women among university students (Finkelstein, 1984; Simeone, 1987). In institutions of higher education in the UK, men have traditionally dominated senior positions. Although the number of women employed in universities over the past ten years has increased, their representation at senior levels has not changed dramatically. In 1990/91, 16% of full-time academic staff was women, with only 3% of women holding professorships and 7% holding senior lecturer posts (Foster, 1994). The situation at the Peninsula Technikon where the present study was conducted is not very dissimilar. The statistics from the Human Resource Department (August, 1999) indicate that out of a total of two-hundred-and-twenty-eight academics, only sixty-seven (29 %) were women academics. Out of a compliment of seventeen head of departments, only two (12 %) were women; of forty-six senior lecturers, only nine (20 %) were women and only one out of three held a professorship.

Studies indicated that many personal, social, and situational factors contribute to women being underrepresented in the higher echelons of the academic hierarchy and experiencing more occupational barriers in their academic careers than males (Vasil, 1992). Factors such as female faculty investing more time in teaching and less in research, and hence publishing less (Boice, Shaughnessy, & Pecker, 1985; Helmreich, Spence, Beane, Lucker, & Matthews, 1980), and female faculty receiving lower evaluations on global teaching effectiveness and academic competence (Martin, 1984) have been implicated in creating this situation (Vasil, 1992). Although such studies contributed to the knowledge

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about women's present status in academia, a theoretical framework is needed to integrate empirical findings. A theoretical conceptualisation that may be useful in providing explanations for women's current position in academia is the self-efficacy model (Bandura, 1977, 1986). The self-efficacy model is particularly applicable in that it emphasises both personal and environmental variables (Landino & Owen, 1988).

1.3 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON BARRIERS

Researchers interested in the career development of women have noted the potentially strong influence of perceived opportunities and barriers in the formulation and pursuit of career goals (Astin, 1984; Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Opportunities and barriers offer a partial explanation for the continuing ability-attainment gap in the occupational choices of women (McWhirter, 1997).

Theorists such as Super (1980) and Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma (1951) based much of their theories on research with White males (Raskin, 1985) – a group viewed as having the advantage of psychological and economic resources that ensure optimal career development (Brooks, 1990). Unique factors impeding the career development of women and minority groups, ranging from restricted opportunities through job discrimination, sexism, and racism to background factors (Naidoo, 1993), suggest that theories based on White middle-class career development may be inappropriate for these groups (Dillard, 1980). Consequently, the applicability of these theories to women, and persons from other socio-economic groups begs further investigation (Naidoo, 1993).

The model found to be promising for understanding perceived career barriers is Lent et al.'s (1994) application of Bandura's (1982) social cognitive theory. The model, to be discussed in chapter two, provides specific predictions for the role of barriers in individuals' career decisions and thus offers the possibility of explicit translation of theory to practice (Lent & Brown, 1996). The construct of barriers fits into Lent et al.'s

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(1994) social cognitive theory of career development. Certain types of barriers appear to overlap substantially with the two social cognitive processes of self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. Perceived barriers may contribute to, result from, or even represent some of the person, contextual, and experiential factors that Lent et al. (1994) hypothesised to moderate relations among sociocognitive variables, interests, and choice behaviours (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

The number and type of barriers that one perceives can be a limiting factor in career choice and implementation. The construct of perceived career barriers has been recognized as an important explanatory variable in research regarding career choice. An understanding of factors that interfere with the career development process is important to career researchers who hope to assist individuals in overcoming these impediments. People's perception of barriers to making and implementing career choices is one such factor. Early career theorists postulated barriers as a construct to explain the gap between women's abilities and their achievements, to explain the inhibition of women's career aspirations and moderate the relation between women's career aspirations and their range of perceived career options (Farmer, 1976; Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980; O'Leary, 1974). The literature on barriers reviewed herein supports both the viability of the construct of career barriers and the utility of the construct in understanding the career-development process. However, the barriers construct has lacked a firm theoretical framework and this is evidenced by a lack of consensus in the literature regarding both a clear conceptualization of the barriers construct and the domain of potential barriers people may perceive (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar, 1996).

Early work on career-related barriers was conducted without the benefit of an integrated theoretical structure. Placing the construct of barriers within a theoretical context affords several advantages (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar, 1996). First, incorporation of theory may offer insight into how an individual acquires perceptions of barriers. Second, a theory could offer hypotheses about the relations between perceived barriers and other

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relevant career variables, and it suggests counselling interventions designed to modify perceived barriers (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

1.4   WORK-ROLE SALIENCE

Super's (1980) life-span, life-space approach advanced the notion that the work role is not the only role to which career scholars need to attend. Rather, persons live in multiple-role environments in which work roles, family roles, educational and community roles vary in their demands on and significance for different person and within different developmental periods. Super (1980) conceptualised the relative sequence of involvement in these roles by means of a life-career rainbow and contended that self-actualisation may take place in various roles and not just in a formal work-role (Naidoo, 1993).

Super (1984) tried to portray and clarify a life-span, life-space approach as he brought life-stage and role theory together to convey "a comprehensive picture of multiple-role careers, together with their determinants and interactions" (Super, 1984, p. 200) through the use of the Life-Career Rainbow, a graphic device that portrays, at different parts of the life span, the roles that a particular individual plays independently or simultaneously. These roles include child, student, leisurite, citizen, worker, homemaker, spouse, parent, and pensioner. Super (1980) used the Life-Career Rainbow device to depict the longitudinal nature of roles that most persons play across their lives: how these roles emerge, interact, and possibly conflict, and how these roles shape decision points that occur before, and at the time of, taking on a new role, giving up an old role, and making significant changes in the nature of an existing role (Herr, 1997).

An instrument that can be used to assess the relative importance that an individual attaches to the five major life roles in order to lead a fulfilling and self-actualising life is the Role Salience Inventory (Nevill & Super, 1986a). Research findings related to the Role Salience Inventory indicated the influence of societal expectations on the career development of women – their life-role participation (Niles & Goodnough, 1996). For

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example, it is evident from findings that women place greater importance on the home and family role than do men. It is also a consistent finding that those women, who regard both the home/family and work role as important, are at risk for experiencing role conflict. This conflict is exacerbated by the fact that men consistently report lower participation and value expectations for the home and family when compared with women. Male expectations are that women cannot be competent in both family and work role areas and that family pressures will compromise job-related functions (Niles & Goodnough, 1996).

The division of domestic labour is seen as the greatest conflict for women developing professional careers (O'Toole, 1982). Home and career conflict and historical societal expectations probably inhibit women's career development. The negative view of society on working mothers is another unnecessary conflict that causes counter-productive guilt feelings. Most women are therefore conditioned to avoid success in a traditional man's world (Allie, 1998). Thus, while marriage and family are often seen as detractors or even handicaps for female professionals, it adds to the perceived stability of male workers (Madill, Brintnell, Macnab, Stewin, & Fitzimmons, 1988).

Super's theory is considered the most comprehensive of all developmental theories (Baiely & Stadt, 1973), as offering the most empirically validated explanations of developmental concepts (Osipow, 1973), and as being the most highly systematic and advanced conceptual model (Osipow, 1983; Zunker, 1981), however, several criticism have been levelled against his theory (Naidoo, 1993). Super's theory has been frequently criticised for neglecting situational or societal determinants in explaining career development (Herr & Cramer, 1988; Osipow, 1983; Watson, 1984). Furthermore, as women have become so fully incorporated into the labour force and are occupying leadership roles in traditional and in non-traditional occupations, greater attention to gender issues in role salience and career decision making needs to be applied in life-space, life-span perspectives (Herr, 1997). There is a need to increase the number of segmental theories as they focus more directly on the specific forms of obstacles and

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barriers affecting the career behaviour of women by levels of education, socio-economic level, and other indices (Super & Knasel, 1979).

1.5   PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to determine the factors that impede the career advancement of women academics at Peninsula Technikon, an academic institution in South Africa. There are many variables which need to be addressed systematically, but the present research focused on two factors: to determine whether women academics at the institution experienced difficulty with role salience in balancing career and family and to determine which barriers impact on the career advancement of women academics at the institution.

Research interest in the influence of gender on advancement was stimulated by the relative scarcity of women at the top echelon of organisations (Steinberg, Haignere, & Ghertos, 1990). The study will investigate the level of participation, commitment and role value realisation reported by female academics at the institution compared to the normative data gathered on the Life Role Inventory (LRI). The relative influence of participation, commitment and role value realisation of home/family and working functions for women will also be presented. The study will also investigate the barriers experienced by female academics compared to the normative data gathered on the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised (CBI-R).

For the purpose of this study barriers are defined as events or conditions, either within the person or in his/her environment, that make career progress difficult (Swanson et al., 1996). The term "glass ceiling" has been used in reference to the subtle barriers to advancement and development that often face women in organisations (Morris & Von Glinow, 1990). It exists in most organisations and consists of a complex web of management myths and values, which suggest that women are not fit for senior positions (Lessing, 1994). In South Africa women are having an even tougher time than American

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women in overcoming attitudinal and organizational prejudices keeping them from promotions and key appointments (Ward, 1998).

Work salience refers to the relative perceived importance of and satisfaction with the work role relative to other roles in the individual's life (Greenhaus, 1971, 1973). Research indicates that individuals with high work-role salience are more satisfied with their occupation and engage in more self-exploration seeking out work opportunities more actively (Greenhaus & Sklarew, 1981; Sugalski & Greenhaus, 1986).

A comprehensive discussion of these central constructs and the hypotheses of the present study are presented in chapter two. The research methodology is described in chapter three, the results in chapter four and the discussion of the results and recommendations in chapter five.
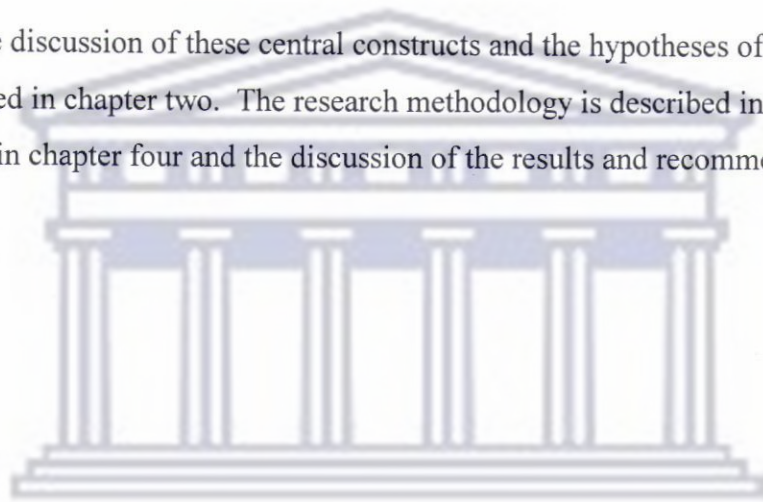
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CHAPTER TWO

2.1   INTRODUCTION

Work plays a central role in individual development (Super, 1980) and women have entered the labour market in ever greater numbers in search of self-realisation in work (Super & Nevill, 1986). The relative importance to an individual of the major life roles of study, homemaking, work, leisure, and community service is an important determinant of the time and energy that will be devoted to each of these life roles. Life is a changing constellation of roles: the amount of time given to each and the amount of affect attached to each varies with changes in maturity and in the environment (Super, 1980, 1982). In order to understand a person's readiness to make career decisions, one needs to know the relative importance that the individual attaches to study, work, homemaking, leisure, and community service (Super, 1983).

In the past sex differences in professional achievement have been attributed to the different values held by males and females and to external constraints on women's professional advancement. Women academics in the past achieved less eminence as a group than men (Anastasi, 1958). The aptitudes of women scholars were as high as those of men (Astin, 1969; Bernard, 1964), yet their academic rank was lower than that of men, given their qualifications (Bernard, 1964). With changing opportunities for women academics, it is important to discover whether other aspects of their situation could cause a difference in professional advancement (Levinton & Whitely, 1981).

Researchers suggested both personal and situational causes as the reason for the observed sex difference in professional achievement. Family responsibilities have been reported as a situational obstacle to the advancement of women in the past (Astin, 1969; Goodwin, 1966; Mitchell, 1970). Many professional women find themselves trying to satisfy the responsibilities of a demanding career and home-life. It still remains to be seen whether

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today's professional women find it easier to accommodate their dual role (Levinton & Whitely, 1981).

In institutions of higher education, men have traditionally dominated senior academic positions and were in a position to influence promotion. The representation of women at senior academic levels in tertiary institutions has not changed dramatically, although their numbers has increased over the past years (Foster, 1994). Sex role stereotyping among academic staff therefore remains a barrier to the advancement of women. These academic staff is involved in the education of students who will be tomorrow's managers, and it is likely that their attitudes could influence their students (Foster, 1994). The "glass ceilings" for women therefore remain in tact and women still have the added problem of juggling family and work demands. This is a significant problem, but it may not have as much influence on advancement as other barriers. Despite the common belief that women leave their organisations because of career-family conflicts, professional women leave mainly because they see limited career prospects for themselves (Morrison, 1992). As long as the "glass ceiling" remains, it becomes important to ask whether there is any reason to be optimistic about the prospects for women in the future, and whether solutions to these barriers can be constructed in organisations (Morrison, 1992).

The values held by professional women may or may not be changing. In the past few women became administrators, the easier path to eminence, while most of them often chose teaching as a career (Astin, 1969; Bernard, 1964; Simon, Clark, & Calway, 1972). Women were less motivated to achieve eminence, because most of their professional activities were not conducive to career advancement (Bernard, 1964). Other studies pointed to women's high degree of interest and identification with their field of study (Mitchell, 1970; Simon, Clark, & Galway, 1972), yet there still is a discrepancy in career advancement.

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Super's (1953) theory of career development is the theoretical framework underlying this research. The present study examines the career advancement of women academics, their level of participation, commitment and role value realisation in term of home/family and work, and the barriers that impede their upward career mobility in the institution. The ensuing literature review will provide a synopsis of the theory's concepts and assumptions and its relationship to the area of study. This will be followed by a discussion of research findings relating to the concepts of work-role salience and career barriers. Finally, the relevant hypotheses and research questions of this investigation will be introduced.

2.2   DEFINITION OF TERMS

This research begins with a discussion, definition, and differentiation of the main concepts utilised in this study, as a lack of concise definitions stand in the way of scientific evaluation of theory and replication (Salomone & Palmer, 1978).

2.2.1   Barriers for Women

Early career theorists postulated barriers as a construct to explain the gap between women's abilities and their achievements, to explain the inhibition of women's career aspirations and moderate the relation between women's career aspirations and their range of perceived career options (Farmer, 1976; Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980; O'Leary, 1974). Barriers are defined as events or conditions, either within the person or in his/her environment that make career progress difficult. A two-step process occurs when participants consider how much a barrier will hinder their career progress. An individual first considers how likely it is that the barrier will occur and only then considers how much of a barrier it will be (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar, 1996). It is important to know an individual's belief as to how likely it is that a barrier will be present in her/his life, in addition to knowing how much she/he believes that such a barrier will interfere with her/his career progress. Low ratings of how much a barrier might hinder career progress may be disguising quite different types of beliefs. Low ratings may occur because an

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individual believes there is a low likelihood of a barrier occurring or because she/he believes the event will occur, but that she/he will be able to overcome it. This distinction is crucial to the social cognitive model as described in chapter two, and it may amend the type of relations hypothesised to exist between perceived barriers and other career variables, such as self-esteem and self-efficacy (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

The term "glass ceiling" has been used in reference to the subtle barriers to advancement and development that often face women in organisations (Morris & Von Glinow, 1990). It exists in most organisations and consists of a complex web of management myths and values that suggest women are not fit for senior positions (Lessing, 1994). The term describes an invisible barrier created in corporate organisations to prevent women from winning top jobs and upper-level management positions. Many career women have complained that the "glass ceiling" has blocked their path to greater success and achievement (Ward, 1998). By "glass ceiling" they can mean 'the system', large corporations, traditional work structures or men in general. Most female managers are barred from top levels or organisations world-wide, irrespective of their abilities and despite having proved themselves (Report by International Labour Organisation, May 1998). The most intangible barrier for women to overcome is the fact that men feel uncomfortable sharing power with them (Ward, 1998). It has been suggested that corporate power stay with men because those in authority promote in their own image. Perhaps there is still an inherent belief among men at the top that women are somehow not as competent, intelligent or capable as their male colleagues. In addition, there is still a perception that women cannot function in the tough and competitive business world and that motherhood distracts and diverts them from their careers (Ward, 1998).

2.2.2 Career Development

Career development in its broadest sense refers to "the total constellation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic, and chance factors that combine to shape the career of any given individual over the life span" (Sears, 1982, p. 139). Super (1990) depicted career development as an ongoing process of assessing and integrating knowledge of the self and the world of work as both change over the life span. Intertwined throughout the life course of an individual are the distinct but interdependent roles of child, student, employee, spouse, and parent, among others. Roles are conceptualised as a set of expectations that arise from one's ascribed status (sex, race, and age) and achieved status (educational level and occupation). The roles an individual assumes, as well as decisions about how to act out these roles, define both the career-life course and its direction over the life span (Naidoo, 1993). Career development tasks or decisions are influenced by internal and external factors (Herr & Cramer, 1988; Sears, 1982; Tolbert, 1980). External factors refer to parental SES, sex, level of education, race, place of residence, and environmental press (Salomone & Palmer, 1978). Several researchers have stressed that career development is affected by the culture/subculture in which it exists (Osipow, 1973; Tolbert, 1980). Super's theory has frequently been criticised for neglecting situational or societal determinants in explaining career development (Herr & Cramer, 1988; Osipow, 1983; Watson, 1984).

2.2.3 Work-Role Salience

Greenhaus (1971, 1973) defined work salience as the perceived importance of work in occupation choice and satisfaction. One or more roles are more salient at a particular time in the individual's life, although they adopt various roles in life. Work salience refers specifically to the relative importance of or commitment to the work-role relative to others (student, parent, leisurite, homemaker, and citizen) in the individual's life (Naidoo, 1993). Super (1982b) has suggested that role salience shifts as individuals move through the life span. Super's (1980) life span, life-space approach advanced the notion that the

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work role is not the only role to which career scholars need to attend. Rather, persons live in multiple-role environments in which work roles, family roles, educational and community roles vary in their demands on and significance for different persons and within different developmental periods. Super (1980) conceptualised the relative sequence of involvement in these roles by means of a life-career rainbow and contended that self-actualisation may take place in various roles and not just in a formal work-role (Naidoo, 1993). Career development theory contends that the salience attached to roles such as work is the product of personal and situational variables and their interaction (Super, 1980, 1990). Individuals who report high work-role salience have been found to view their preferred occupation more favourably (Greenhaus & Simon, 1976), and they explore themselves and work opportunities in greater detail than those with low work-role salience (Greenhaus & Sklarew, 1981; Sugalski & Greenhaus, 1986).

2.3   THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON BARRIERS

A two-category system to classify types of barriers or thwarting conditions that may impede the career development process was distinguished by early scholars as internal conflicts (e.g., self-concept, motivation to achieve) and external frustrations (e.g., discrimination in the workplace, wages) (Crites, 1969). Subsequent writers tended to adopt Crites's internal-external dichotomy. Six internal (e.g., fear of failure) and four external (e.g., sex role stereotypes) barriers to upward career aspirations in women were hypothesised by O'Leary (1974). Farmer (1976) suggested six internal or self-concept barriers and three environmental barriers to women's career achievement, and Harmon (1977) postulated psychological and sociological barriers to women's career development.

More recently, researchers have begun to challenge the internal-external dichotomy that previously had guided much of the discussion of barriers. A two-category system often fails to adequately fit individuals' experiences. Whether a barrier was classified as internal or external was really a matter of interpretation. Internal barriers were easy to

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discern, while external barriers presented more difficulty, because the locus of the barrier could reside either in the person or in the environment, thus making it difficult to determine whether the barrier was truly external or internal. For example, a woman may state that multiple role conflict is a barrier because she believes the work environment to be inflexible or because she believes that she does not have the personal resources to manage the conflicting demands of multiple roles (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

A three-category system was devised to provide solutions to the difficulties inherent in the internal-external dichotomy: social-interpersonal (e.g., multiple role obligations, job relocation), attitudinal (e.g., self-concept, attitudes toward work), and interactional (e.g., discrimination, lack of qualifications) (Swanson & Tokar, 1991a). The three-category system was adapted from earlier literature regarding women's decision to work (Nieva & Gutex, 1981; Sobol, 1963). Sobol (1963) suggested a theory of work commitment, defined as long-range work plans, among married women with children. Three sets of conditions influenced the decision to work: enabling, facilitating, and precipitating. Enabling conditions consisted of "family status factors that make it easy or difficult to work" (Sobol, 1963, p. 47), such as the number and age of children, and plans for future children. Facilitating conditions determined the ease of finding employment (employment opportunities), including education and previous work experience. Precipitating conditions included two types of variables: financial factors, such as amount of family income and satisfaction with income, and attitudinal factors, such as personal life satisfaction and attitudes toward work (e.g., need for accomplishment through work). All three conditions were necessary to explain work commitment: enabling and facilitating conditions related to the degree of difficulty encountered in the family or job market, whereas precipitating conditions represented "conditions that push her into the labour market" (Sobol, 1963, p. 47), or motivational factors. Empirical evidence exists to support the use of Sobol's (1963) system. Variables from all three sets of conditions showed significant differences between career-oriented and home-maker-oriented women, however, it was enabling conditions that demonstrated the best differentiation (Tinsley & Faunce, 1980).

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Other authors proposed a similar set of factors: personal characteristics of the woman, attitudinal factors, and situational factors (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Personal characteristics included the demographic variables of race, age, and educational background, as well as personality variables. Attitudinal factors consisted of attitudes toward work and toward working women and mothers. Situational factors were more important than personal characteristics and attitudinal factors, and included several subclusters: husband variables, children variables, mobility, and previous work experience. Husband variables included his attitudes toward his wife working, his employment status, occupational level, and income. Children variables consisted of the presence, number, and age of children, as well as availability of childcare. Husband and children variables also influenced a woman's mobility, in terms of her ability to relocate for her job and her need to relocate for her husband's job (Swanson & Tokar, 1991).

Modest support for this three-way classification system was provided by subsequent research (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b), but data were even less supportive of an internal-external barriers dichotomy. The construct of barriers has not received much attention in most theories of career development, as it has been discussed almost solely in the context of the career development of women (Swanson & Tokar, 1991). However, recent theory (Gottfredson, 1981) provided a relevant framework for the examination of career-related barriers, particularly in light of Sobol's (1963) and Nieva and Gutek's (1981) classification system. Gottfredson (1981) described the interaction that occurs between one's self-concept and one's perceived accessibility of an occupation, which includes obstacles in the social or economic environment. As individuals confront barriers to implementing occupational aspirations, they face the need to compromise their goals. The most central and strongly protected aspect of self-concept is gender self-concept, and therefore the last aspect to be sacrificed as part of compromise. Gottfredson's (1981) theory thus highlights the importance of an individual's recognition of and response to barriers in three domains: self-concept, the social and economic environment, and the interaction of self-concept and environment (Swanson & Tokar, 1991).

2.4   SOCIAL COGNITIVE CAREER THEORY (SCCT)

The model found to be promising for understanding perceived career barriers is Lent, Brown, and Hackett's (1994) application of Bandura's (1977, 1986) social cognitive theory. According to the social cognitive theory of career and academic interest, choice, and performance, perceived barriers are among the contextual factors that mediate the relationship between career interests/choice and career goals (McWhirter, 1997). Gender differences in interest-goal congruence were rooted in gender differences in perceived barriers, as well as differences in opportunity structures, support systems, and socialisation practices (Lent et al., 1994). Further, they contend that when differences in barriers are controlled (as well as differences in opportunity structures, support systems, and socialisation practices), gender differences in interests and interest-goal congruence would disappear (McWhirter, 1997).

The social cognitive model applies Bandura's construct of self-efficacy and outcome expectations to career choice and implementation. Self-efficacy and outcome expectations provide the foundation for the development of vocational interests, goals, and actions. Person, contextual and experiential factors influence the development of self-efficacy and outcome expectations and, thus, may moderate the relations among these sociocognitive variables, interest, goals, and choice behaviours. Contextual influences are postulated to moderate the relations of self-efficacy and outcome expectations to interests, of interests of choice goals, and of choice goals to choice actions (Lent et al., 1994).

2.4.1   Self-Efficacy Beliefs

There has been empirical support for the inclusion of self-efficacy as an explanatory variable in models of career choice and development (Betz & Hackett, 1981, 1983; Clement, 1987; Post-Kammer & Smith, 1985). According to self-efficacy theory, one of the most important influences on behaviour are individuals' self-efficacy beliefs

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(perceptions about their ability to successfully perform a behaviour) (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Self-efficacy beliefs influence whether a behaviour will be initiated, the amount of effort expended, and persistence in performance of behaviours (Bandura, 1977, 1986).

In global terms and in relation to specific activities, the degree to which people perceive barriers may be intricately tied to their self-efficacy. Asking individuals to report how much a barrier will hinder their career progress may be considered as approximately equivalent to assessing self-efficacy beliefs.

Perceived barriers may be viewed as exerting a direct influence on self-efficacy beliefs. An expectation about one's ability to accomplish certain career-related activities is influenced by the type of barriers that one perceives as interfering with those accomplishments. Another way in which barriers might contribute to the self-efficacy process occurs in the relations of self-efficacy to variables structurally subsequent in the model; that is, how self-efficacy influences outcome expectations, interests, goals, actions, and performance attainments. All of the hypothesised paths from self-efficacy to these subsequent variables can be envisioned as modified by perceived barriers. The influence of self-efficacy on outcome expectations and on interests is likely to be mediated by perceived barriers, as is the path from outcome expectations to interests. The link between self-efficacy and goals and actions seem particularly susceptible to the moderating influence of perceived barriers (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

The conceptual link between self-efficacy and perceived barriers also seems to be dependent on the type of barrier. Self-efficacy may be viewed as synonymous with barriers that are more internal in nature, such as lacking self-confidence. Low self-efficacy (or a high number of perceived internal barriers) may, in turn, lead to an increased estimation of the likelihood of external barriers. On the other hand, estimating the likelihood of barriers that are more external in nature (such as racism or sexism) may be unaffected by level of self-efficacy. However, self-efficacy would be a factor in determining whether or not the barrier would interfere with career progress. Self-efficacy

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may be related to barriers in several ways. Low self-efficacy may predispose an individual to a higher number of perceived internal barriers. Perception of internal barriers may likewise predispose an individual to perceiving a higher number of external barriers. Finally, whether and how barriers are confronted and overcome is determined by one's level of self-efficacy (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

2.4.2   Outcome Expectations

Outcome expectations can be defined as "personal beliefs about probable response outcomes" and addresses the question "If I do this, what will happen?" (Lent et al., 1994). There seems to be a strong relationship between outcome expectations and perceived barriers, and individuals probably consider both their capabilities and possible outcomes in making important decisions. The distinction between the likelihood of a barrier occurring and the degree to which it is perceived as potentially hindering one's career progress becomes important that must be acknowledged in assessing the impact of barriers and determining appropriate interventions (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

2.4.3   Person, Contextual and Experiential Factors

Barriers arise from a variety of origins, including internal, external, and interactional and as such, specific types of barriers correspond to different types of factors as described in social cognitive career theory (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b). Certain barrier scales are closely related to the person factors (e.g., lack of confidence and decision-making difficulties), whereas other barriers are contextual influences (e.g., racial discrimination, sex discrimination, and discouragement from choosing non-traditional careers, disability-health concerns). Perceived barriers will influence the development of self-efficacy beliefs through factors such as the availability of learning experiences and opportunities and differential support or discouragement for career activities. Perceived barriers are powerful proximal contextual determinants that mediate the relations between interests

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and goals, between goals and actions and between actions and accomplishments (Lent & Brown, 1996).

2.5   PERCEIVED CAREER BARRIERS

Researchers interested in the career development of women have noted the potentially strong influence of perceived opportunities and barriers in the formulation and pursuit of career goals (Astin, 1984; Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Opportunities and barriers offered a partial explanation for the continuing ability-attainment gap in the occupational choices of women (McWhirter, 1997). Although many theorists (Luzzo, 1993, 1995; McWhirter & Paa, 1996) speculated that there were barriers that hindered career progress, little was known about how, and whether, individuals perceived barriers as existing and hindering their career progress. It is known from many other areas of psychological research that one's perception of an event or condition is far more important that the reality of that event or condition. Empirical attention as to whether women perceived the existence of any barriers or to questions related to perceptions was minimal. Questions relating to perceptions included: "Why do some women perceive barriers and others not?" "What factors predict whether barriers are perceived?" and "Why do some perceive barriers but do not evaluate them as being hindering factors in their career progress?" (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

The poor representation of women in general may well be the result of several major barriers that constitute today's "glass ceiling." Even in progressive organisations studied by Morrison (1992), the barriers were formidable. The following barriers were discovered by Morrison (1992) to be most instrumental in blocking the advancement of women:

Prejudice or treating differences (in sex) as weaknesses: Prejudice seemed the most prevalent barrier. Managers in the study described how the perception of differences as deficiencies limited advancement opportunities for women. Women were still assumed

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to be less competent or less suitable for leadership positions than 'white' men. Negative sex-role stereotypes continue to limit women's advancement today.

Difficulty in balancing career and family demands: The struggle to reconcile home and work is still largely a woman's problem, and the decisions which women have to make often postpone and even preclude their advancement into senior management. Bearing and raising children, maintaining a marriage and home, and performing social obligations are demanding activities that sometimes conflict with career demands. Many organisations provide little support for women to meet these dual responsibilities.

Poor career planning which has failed to give many women the breadth of experience and credentials needed to compete for senior management. Poor career planning and development also hurt women, especially when they are not given attention and guidance early in their careers. The accumulated effect of losing developmental opportunities over time keeps them from qualifying for high-level jobs.

A lonely, hostile, unsupportive working environment for women: Women are still unusual in the executive suite; they are isolated and often viewed sceptically by the male colleagues. They feel enormous pressure to perform, often because they are expected to exceed the standards that are used for others, and to consistently demonstrate their dedication to the organisation.

Lack of organisational understanding on the part of women: Some women acknowledge that they do not know "how to play the game" of getting along and getting ahead in business. Their lack of organisational understanding sometimes gets in the way of their advancement, creating an even greater problem of fitting in with their colleagues. The lack of mentors contributes to this barrier.

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Greater comfort of a person dealing with his/her own kind: Another barrier to women's advancement is the fact that people tend to gravitate towards people who are similar to them. Male executives from business and social activities, because of apparent or assumed differences, often exclude women and although this "comfort factor" is not intentional discrimination, it does make integration difficult.

Morrison (1992) reported that the above barriers indicated that the "glass ceiling" for women is much the same as it was in the 1980's. Advancing in one's chosen career also requires personal control or mastery, however, the job-related environment presents opportunities or obstacles that may interfere with one's progress. Subjects as representing attitudinal and interactional barriers (Swanson & Tokar, 1991) reflected this in responses. The topic related to special concerns for women also elicited predominantly interactional barriers. This suggested that the early categorisations of barriers as internal or external (Crites, 1969; Farmer, 1976; Harmon, 1977; O'Leary, 1974) may not be adequate for explaining the impact of barriers on women's career development. Given the definition of social/interpersonal barriers as including concerns about future marriage and children, the barriers related to the balancing of career and family were predominantly social/interpersonal in nature (Swanson & Tokar, 1991).

Sex differences have been evident throughout research regarding perceived barriers. On the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised (CBI-R), women scored higher on a number of scales, indicating greater perceptions of barriers (Swanson & Daniels, 1996). The CBI-R was designed to assess a range of barriers that college students might perceive. Some of the scales that measure perceived barriers are more likely to exist for women, such as sex discrimination, multiple role conflict, and conflict between children and career demands. The scores on other scales were also higher for women, such as those measuring lack of confidence, inadequate experience or training, decision-making difficulties, and dissatisfaction with career. As noted earlier, one may theorise the existence of barriers, but little was known whether women perceived barriers to exist. These findings provided confirmatory evidence for the early speculations about barriers that women experienced

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(Swanson & Woitke, 1997). However, the magnitude of many of the differences between women and men was less than might be expected, suggesting that barriers were perceived by both men and women, although in somewhat differing patterns (Swanson & Tokar, 1991). No significant differences emerged from the research done by Swanson and Tokar (1991), although significant differences in the types of barriers listed by women and men were expected. This lack of gender differences raised several questions: If actual career-related barriers were more prevalent for women than for men, then why was this not reflected in women's perceptions? How does confronting actual barriers (Gottfredson, 1981) affect women who were not prepared to do so? These questions need to be addressed in future and suggested that perceptions of barriers warrant continued research.

2.6   THEORIES OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Theories which have focused upon development over the lifespan (such as Super, Levinson, and Gottfredson) share in common an assumption that one's self-concept becomes more clearly defined with age, and that career choice is a process of matching self-concept with images of the occupational world (Osipow, 1983). The developmental approach, which proposed the longitudinal analysis of work-family linkages in the life span of persons or a couple, has gained attention (Gallos, 1989; Sekaran & Hall, 1989; Lambert, 1990; Swanson, 1992). Individuals may link work and family roles differently at different stages of their life as family and career demands fluctuate, depending on the stage of family/career development a person was at. The developmental approach therefore adopts a psychological/developmental framework to explore the dynamics of the relationship between individual/family and career developments in the life span of person/couple (Chi-Ching, 1995). The three developmental theories that have received the most attention are Super (1984), Levinson (1978), and Gottfredson (1981).

2.6.1   Super's Theory of Career Development

Super (1984) tried to portray and clarify a life-span, life-space approach as he brought life-stage and role theory together to convey "a comprehensive picture of multiple-role careers, together with their determinants and interactions" (Super, 1984, p. 200) through the use of the Life-Career Rainbow. Super (1990) proposed five stages in his model of career development: (a) growth (birth-age 14/15), characterised by the development of capacity, attitudes, interests, and needs associated with self-concepts; (b) exploration (ages 15-25), characterised by a tentative phase in which choices are narrowed but not finalised; (c) establishment (ages 24-44), characterised by trial and stabilisation through work experiences; (d) maintenance (ages 45-64), characterised by a continual adjustment process to consolidate work position and situation; (e) decline (ages 65+), characterised by pre-retirement considerations, work output, and eventual retirement (Zunker, 1990).

In contrast to Levinson (1986) theory, Super posits that these stages are not determined by age, but rather by an individual's circumstances and perceptions. Thus, individuals can be in any stage at various points in their lives or careers and, further, can recycle through the stages when major changes or transitions occur (Swanson, 1992). The Life-Career Rainbow was conceptualised by Super (1980) to depict careers in the life span as exemplified by the various roles played at any one time. A career is thus a changing constellation of roles, some sequential and some simultaneous. Roles decrease and increase in importance depending upon the developmental tasks to be accomplished, the values sought, and the ways chosen for attaining them. The Life-Career Rainbow can be used to show both the temporal importance of and the emotional involvement in a life role (Super, 1980). Temporal importance is shown by the amount of time that an individual devotes to a role. The worker role is traditionally dominant in males and the homemaker role in female, although the roles have been changing rapidly since the 1960s. The role of worker often diminished in later years as more attention is paid to family and to leisure activities.

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Emotional involvement also varies with age. A worker could be heavily committed during the early years when in the establishment phase, but have divided loyalties with the birth of children. A worker could lose enthusiasm with the realisation that aspirations are not likely to be reached. Individuals may feel that they must satisfy multiple sets of expectations when they attempt to fulfil more than one role simultaneously. When an individual experiences difficulty in conforming to multiple role expectations, role conflict occurs. Women experience more conflict between home and employment when holding a low-status job than when occupying a high-status one, in spite of the heavy time and pressure demands of the latter (Super & Nevill, 1984).

An important focal point in the study of career development of women has been the degree of career salience or the importance of work in one's total life (Greenhaus & Simon, 1977; Hackett, Esposito, & O'Halloran, 1989). The concept has evolved from an early view of women's choice between career and family to a more current conception of the relative balance between career and home commitments (Douce & Hansen, 1990). While the individual holds various roles over his/her lifetime, one or more roles are more salient at a particular time in the individual's life. As individuals moves through the life span, role salience changes (Super, 1982).

Career development theory contends that the salience attached to roles such as that of work is the result of personal and situational variables and their interaction (Super, 1980). Major determinants of work-role salience have been age, an individual's sex, and socio-economic status (Nevill & Super, 1986), however, an individual's culture may also define work-role salience for its members (Nevill & Super, 1986; Osipow, 1983). Thus an individual's cultural milieu and also an individual's place within such a culture may influence the importance an individual attaches to the world of work (Nevill & Super, 1986; Pine & Innis, 1987; Watson & Stead, 1990).

Research regarding women's career development has evolved from investigating how women's careers deviate from established theories based on men's development to an exploration of additional factors that uniquely affect women (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980). One such factor is the barriers that women may experience in making and implementing career choices. Researchers have hypothesised such barriers as explanatory concepts to describe the gap between women's abilities and achievements (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). The work patterns of women often differ from those of men and this led to the use of research variables generally not relevant to the study of male career development. Women's career development research utilised variables describing a woman's intention to work and the importance of career pursuits in her life. This expanded focus required attention to a large number of predictor variables that might affect the career choices of women in a manner different than that of men (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987).

Certain personality characteristics, particularly high levels of self-esteem and instrumentality have been found to predict vocational orientation and choice (Cook, 1985; Gilbert, 1985; Jones & Lamke, 1985; Lemkau, 1983; Metzler-Brennan, Lewis, & Gerald, 1985; Spence & Helmreich, 1980, 1981), which might have assisted women in making independent career choices and persisted when barriers to achievement were encountered (Fassinger, 1990). Positive vocational self-efficacy expectations and confidence in occupational decision-making have been influential in the career choice process (Betz & Hackett, 1981; Taylor & Betz, 1983). Marital and parental status have been the strongest predictor variables in prior research on women's career development (Gigy, 1980; Hock, Morgan, & Hock, 1985; Houseknecht & Spanier, 1980; Leviton & Whitley, 1981; Russo & Denmark, 1984; Stewart, 1980), with marriage and motherhood generally being inversely related to strong career orientation and non-traditional choices (Fassinger, 1990). Related to family and career decisions are sex role attitudes and stereotypes, which have been found to parallel career choices, with traditional attitudes leading to more traditional decisions about family and work (Czajka & Mason, 1976; Stringer & Duncan, 1985; Vetter, 1980; Yount, 1986). Due to methodological

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limitations and inadequacies in unifying theoretical underpinning of research concerning important individual predictor variables, the manner in which these variables interact and the relative importance of their effects, has been poorly understood (Betz & Gerald, 1987; Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980).

2.6.2   Levinson's Theory of Career Development

A developmental theory that has particular relevance to work and family interfaces is Levinson's (1978) life-stages theory. Levinson and colleagues (Levinson, 1986; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978) proposed a series of age-related stages, which encompass unique activities and adjustments. Levinson discussed four "life eras": childhood (ages 0-20), early adulthood (ages 20-40), middle adulthood (ages 40-60), and late adulthood (over 60 years), with substages within each era. Although Levinson's work focused primarily on male adult development, gender–based differences in the pattern of adult development are well documented. Levinson depicted male adult development as consisting of alternating periods of structure building and transitions. Each of the structure forming periods usually lasts 6-7 years and the transition period, about 5 years. Levinson identified major transitions in the adult development of men: the age 30 transition and mid-life transition (around 40). Although the major concern of men in early development is building a career and family, career often takes precedence. The "age-30 transition" marks the period when men direct their energy at improving their lot in the career realm. During mid-life transition, men come to re-evaluate the salience of the career role and corresponding over-investment in that role. The realisation that they have in their career pursuit, sacrificed marriage and family on "the career altar", may result in a shift of gears and an increased involvement in the family at the mature parenthood stage (Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Levinson et al., 1978).

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2.6.3 Gottfredson's Theory of Career Development

Although no comprehensive theory of women's career development has as yet been developed (Astin, 1985; Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987), several factors have emerged as important in the occupational behaviour and career patterns of women. One of the first integrative frameworks that described the career development of women and men which proposed a gradual narrowing of career options in accordance with gender and socio-economic societal influences, was Gottfredson's (1981) theory of circumscription and compromise. According to Gottfredson (1981), as individual's perceptions of themselves and the world-of-work develop, the range of occupational alternatives is successively circumscribed. This process is reversed when actual occupational choices are made: as individuals face barriers to their aspirations, they must inevitably compromise, leading to a constriction of the range of occupational alternatives. Both processes of circumscription and compromise are hypothesised to follow a prioritised order: in circumscription, occupational sex type is the first to develop and thus the most central, followed by prestige and then interests; in compromise, the reverse order occurs in sacrificing interests first, followed by prestige, and finally sex type (Swanson, 1992).

According to Gottfredson's theory, a young woman who believes that only traditionally female activities are appropriate for her will choose a traditionally female occupation, regardless of her interests. There is evidence that gender self-concept is related to traditionality of occupational choice (e.g., Galejs & King, 1983; Pryor, 1987). Consequently, a sense of what is gender-appropriate might influence some young women to select more traditional occupations than they actually desire (Davey & Stoppard, 1993). When people must compromise on their choice of occupation, they will do so by choosing occupations that are less gender-appropriate than their original choice (Gottfredson, 1981). However, this hypothesis received only partial support in a study conducted by Davey and Stoppard (1993). Gottfredson's theory of compromise assumes a homogeneity among women that was not supported by the evidence from the research by Davey and Stoppard (1993).

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Women are socialised to be flexible in their career plans so that they will be able to meet the needs of future spouses and children (Angrist & Almquist, 1975). Young women's priority for family roles over career roles will cause them to compromise their career aspirations in order to accommodate expected family responsibilities (Angrist, 1969). This appears to be the case for some young women (Burroughs, Turner, & Turner, 1984), although the results of some recent studies suggested a trend toward both increased value for and expectation of participation in paid employment on the part of young women (Geller, 1984; Machung, 1989; Davey & Stoppard, 1993).

2.6.4 Lambert's Theory of Career Development

Lambert (1990) identified three perspectives to characterise the process by which work and family are linked and all three assume that work and family are basically incompatible.

The **segmentation/segregation theory/model** treats work and family as independent domains and assumes that actors can separate the two spheres in term of time, physical location, emotions, attitudes and behaviour. Involvement in the two spheres does not therefore affect each other. The institution of work and the various social institutions in the non-work sphere are all physically, temporally, and functionally segregated (Cohen, 1995).

The **compensation theory** posits that people who do not find satisfaction in work or home would try to find satisfaction in the other sphere. One would thus expect high involvement in one sphere to be accompanied by low involvement in the other. That is, workers who experience deprivations at work will compensate for them in their choice of nonwork activities (Cohen, 1995).

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The **spillover view** assumes the existence of spillover effect from one set of roles (work and family) to another. The nature of one's work experiences will carry over to the nonwork domain. Hence the degree of involvement that an individual has at work will be directly related to the degree of involvement in social roles outside the workplace (Cohen, 1995).

Research has tended to focus on negative spillover effects rather than positive ones. This again reflects the tendency to treat the two domains of work and family as competing and incompatible, leading to the concerns expressed by Greenhaus et al. (1989), Orthner and Pitmann (1986), Lambert (1990), and Callos (1989) about the overemphasis on the negative linkages between work and family. The findings by Cohen (1995) tended to support the spillover model to a work-nonwork relationship. Contrary to other research findings, most of the significant correlations between nonwork claimants and work commitment in Cohen's (1995) study were positive. More time devoted to the family might result in higher satisfaction from the family as well as fewer work/family conflicts that should have a positive impact on the individual's behaviours and attitudes toward the work setting. It showed that the way individuals feel toward their nonwork domains had and important effect on their work attitudes. Employees might not accomplish everything they want in their nonwork domains, but the importance they assigned to these activities were no less important in determining their work attitudes. Thus, it seemed that there was no support for the argument that work commitment was immune from the influence of outside work claimants.

The increase in labour force participation of all women has weakened the relationship between marital/familial status, but this increase in participation did not address the nature of that participation or the extent to which family responsibilities remained a priority for many women despite daily work outside the home. For example, subjects in Fassinger's (1990) study responded with clear affirmation when asked about the salience of career pursuits in their lives, but with less consistency when asked relative to family pursuits. This suggested that their plans to combine family and career roles might not

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include consideration as to how that integration will occur or how their own priorities will be determined.

The attitudes of a woman's partner and the extent to which that partner facilitates or blocks her career attainment, are related to integration of work and family roles. Given the documented differences in male and female attitudes toward home and work responsibilities, the research on dual-career families (Gilbert, 1985) may provide perspective in evaluating the effects of partner attitudes on women's career development. The overlap of the ability and sex role variables in the model by Fassinger (1990) also pointed to the difficulty in determining the differential predictive influence of sex roles and ability on women's career choices. This suggested that sex role attitudes might become salient in determining career choices, but when ability levels vary, ability itself might become a primary determinant of career choice. Alternatively, the capacity for academic success might foster the development of sex role attitudes which will be congruent with the exercise of that capacity for achievement (Fassinger, 1990).

2.7   WORK-ROLE SALIENCE

The concept of work-role salience has received increased attention from career psychologists (e.g., Greenhaus & Simon, 1977; Nevill & Super, 1988) since its introduction by Masih (1967). Work-role salience is defined as the perceived importance of work in occupational choice and satisfaction (Greenhaus, 1971, 1973). To understand what gives an individual's life structure and meaning, it is necessary to consider his/her involvement in a variety of life roles including but surpassing the paid work role (Cook, 1994). Nine major role are commonly played by a person throughout or at specific points in an individual's life span: son/daughter, student, leisurite, citizen, worker, spouse, homemaker, parent and annuitant/pensioner (Super, 1990). The Life Career Rainbow visually depicts how these roles constitute a life career from birth until death according to the amount of time spent and the person's emotional involvement in each role (Nevill & Super, 1986; Super, 1990).

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The importance of a role can be determined by three criteria: commitment, referring to one's emotional attachment to a role; participation, or actually spending time and energy in a role; and knowledge, gained through direct or vicarious experience in a role (Nevill & Niles, 1992). The term role salience can refer to varying combinations of the qualities of role commitment, participation, and knowledge. Worker role salience is important to a person's career maturity or adaptability, values sought in work, and in making satisfying career decisions (Super, 1990).

Research done by Niles and Goodnough (1996) examined the degree to which people sought and found value in major life roles (Super, 1984), on the basis of the concept of role salience, derived from Super's notion of the Life-Career Rainbow (Super, 1980). As noted by Super (1984, p. 35), "an important value not sought in work might reveal its importance in being sought in homemaking, or in community service, in studying, or in leisure activities." Super (1990, p. 219) noted that research findings were expected to provide the following: "A clearer picture of the meanings of work, homemaking, leisure, study, and community service; a better understanding of the impact that a change in occupations has on self-actualisation; and an understanding of the degree to which, when work is not rewarding or is not available, other roles replace it as outlets for abilities, interests, and values" (Niles & Goodnough, 1996).

Individuals who report high work-role salience have been found to view their preferred occupation more favourably (Greenhaus & Simon, 1976), and they explore themselves and work opportunities in greater detail than those with low work-role salience (Greenhaus & Sklarew, 1981; Sugalski & Greenhaus, 1986). This suggests that high work-role salience would be positively related to people's strengths of preference for their preferred occupation and the perceived value of internal and external search activities (Stumpf & Lockhart, 1987). Individuals who report high work-role salience are hypothesised to have stronger beliefs in the instrumentality of their internal and external search activities, and to believe that it is more important to obtain their preferred position, than individuals who have low work-role salience (Stumpf & Lockhart, 1987).

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Role preferences are influenced by a variety of factors external to the individual, including "social traditions" such as gender stereotyping. It is clear that men's and women's career patterns are quite different in how they blend together work and other roles (Cook, 1994). As expected, empirical data on role salience (Nevill & Super, 1986) indicated that women routinely report greater participation in home roles than do men. However, gender differences in commitment and value expectations scores for home roles are minimal.

Despite the increasing participation of women in the paid labour force in recent years, the basic pattern has changed little: women continue to take major responsibility for child care and homemaking duties, with the paid worker role often waxing and waning in time commitment over the life span (Voydanoff, 1989). Performance of certain life roles is socially mandated for the sexes, and considered to be central to their identities: paid work for men, home and family roles for women (Silberstein, 1992; Wiley, 1991). Women have more latitude in expanding paid work involvement, but such involvement typically means addition to, rather than substitution for, primary home and family responsibilities, even in couples expecting high career involvement for both partners (Silberstein, 1992). This presumption about women's primary home involvement is frequently maintained by their employers as well (Cook, 1994). Such expectations for women's domestic work can influence the nature and quality of women's labour force participation (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991).

Occupying multiple roles can lead to conflict according to Super (1990). It is commonly assumed that women adding paid work to extensive home responsibilities suffer severe stress as a result. The underlying assumption here is that home-based roles are "natural" and non-stressful for women, whereas the paid worker role upsets the proverbial applecart (Cook, 1994). Research does not indicate that role jugglers are necessarily more stressed than other women, however, research does indicate that paid work offers women self-esteem and a buffer from the stresses of home-based roles (Crosby & Jaskar, 1993). How women and men resolve role conflict may vary in some important ways as well.

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Research (DiBenedetto & Tittle, 1990) suggests that the sexes view women, but not men, as needing to balance or make trade-off decisions regarding work and parenting roles. Women's solutions often involve modification of paid work to accommodate home-role demands (Bielby & Bielby, 1989; Lambert, 1990; Sekaran & Hall, 1989).

Support from other people is crucial in effective management of complex roles. The extent to which individuals find role performance to be rewarding depends on the support of other people, such as co-workers or family members (Hirsch & Rapkin, 1986; Silberstein, 1992). This is particularly important when the configuration of salient roles is somewhat unusual for the person's sex, as when a woman decides not to become a parent in favour of exclusive career commitment (Cook, 1994).

2.8   RESEARCH FINDINGS ON BARRIERS TO CAREER ADVANCEMENT

In Western industrialised society, the female gender role has been that of homemaker and child-rearer. Relatively few women in Western industrialised countries, however, conform to the traditional role of stay-at-home wife and mother with their increased entry into labour force participation. However, this does not mean that gender role congruence pressures are no longer in existence (Konrad & Cannings, 1997).

In recent years, researchers have begun to specifically examine college students' recognition of barriers (Russel & Rush, 1987; Slaney, 1980; Bowman, 1988; Swanson & Tokar, 1991). While the types of career barriers perceived by Euro-American male and female college students were essentially the same, there were gender differences in the salience of some of these barriers (Swanson & Tokar, 1991a, 1991b). For example, female respondents perceived discrimination and child rearing as greater barriers than did males (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b). These students most frequently perceived barriers relating to not being adequately prepared for their careers and being dissatisfied with their careers. The greatest obstacles to career advancement were opportunity and their own performance and personal qualities. Shortage of time, including time for family and

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children and time demands related to work, as well as financial issues were the greatest barriers to balancing career and family. Responses to "special concerns for women" indicated that pressure from multiple role obligations, discrimination, and barriers due to pregnancy and children were perceived as the greatest obstacles (Swanson & Tokar, 1991). The least frequently perceived barriers related to not receiving approval for their career choices from family and friends and being discouraged from pursuing non-traditional fields (Swanson et al., 1996). College students also viewed lack of spousal support for career plans as a potential barrier (Swanson & Tokar, 1991). Such support may be particularly crucial for female students whose desired occupations are non-traditional for women.

Individual differences also exist in how barriers are perceived and these differences reinforce the importance of assessing barriers, because individuals will express widely differing beliefs about barriers, which, in turn, may have widely differing influences on career choice and implementation (Swanson & Woitke, 1977). In another study, perceived barriers to management careers reported among a sample of college women included family/social concerns, femininity concerns, organisational barriers, limited education and experience, and future subordinate resistance (Russell & Rush, 1987). The impacts of barriers have also been examined in several studies of Black college students. African-American women perceived financial issues and chance-related issues as more likely to prevent them from reaching career goals than did white women (Slaney, 1980).

A large body of literature suggested that women, for a variety of reasons, were typically perceived as less competent than men for certain roles and, in particular, for managerial roles (Gerdes & Garber, 1983; Taylor & Ilgen, 1981). A primary reason for such female devaluation includes reliance on sex-role stereotypes. Numerous studies (Gerder & Garber, 1983; Taylor & Ilgen, 1981) have indicated that women are perceived as possessing fewer managerial skills and competencies than men. Role assignments then become based on gender, rather than on actual skills and abilities. A study by Heilman, Block, Martell, and Simon (1989) confirmed the persistence of sex-role stereotypes; men

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in general were described as more similar to successful managers than were women. Similarly, Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky (1992) found that female leaders were devalued particularly when put in traditional male-dominated roles and when the evaluators of performance were men. These findings suggest that an objective evaluation of the qualifications of female managerial candidates may be in jeopardy and may constitute an additional barrier women have to negotiate (Stover, 1994).

A recent study by Foster (1994), however, showed that among both males and females there was a reversed difference in attitudes between those staff at 'senior' levels and those at the lower levels. The female academic staff involved in the study indicated no association between the characteristics they associated with successful middle managers and those they associated with women in general. The high numbers of female staff at junior levels largely dominated these views. This is contrary to previous studies among female managers. It was interesting to note that men in senior positions strongly stereotyped the manager role as male, whereas males at the lecturer and senior lecturer level rated women and men in general as equally having the characteristics of successful middle managers. An explanation for the stereotyping shown by the female academics in the lecturer and senior lecturer grades could be that the influence of their own work environment, where they are outnumbered by men, with few women role models in senior management positions to change their views, has led to a perception that women were less likely to make successful managers and have few of the characteristics perceived as being necessary for this role (Foster, 1994).

Research has documented other beliefs about women in the work force that might cause employers to statistically discriminate against them. For example, Britton and Thomas (1973) found that employers believed women were more likely to be absent from work more frequently than men. Goldin (1990) reported on employers concern that women might exhibit less commitment to the work role than men on average. The logic of statistical discrimination theory suggests that these beliefs about women may cause employers to make fewer investments in women's careers. Thus, women will have fewer

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opportunities to advance if employers hesitate to invest in their careers. According to Konrad and Cannings (1997), until women have demonstrated commitment to their career by working long hours, accepting challenging assignments etc., employers may be hesitant to place them in responsible positions. It therefore becomes very important for women to demonstrate career commitment, given that they may have to overcome employer scepticism.

2.9   RESEARCH FINDINGS ON INFLUENCES ON WOMEN'S CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Women's career development was shown to be influenced by numerous factors, including ability and attitudes, role models, and willingness to take risk. Fassinger (1990) tested a causal model of career choice in samples of college women. Overall, ability, agentic characteristics, and feminist and family-related orientation predicted career orientation, and career choice.

Douce and Hansen (1990) have researched the relationship between women's willingness to take risks and various aspects of career development such as occupational stereotype, career salience, occupational attitudes, marriage and family influence, and educational aspirations. Their research reflected the following results: High-Adventure women as measured by the Strong Interest Inventory, described themselves as Androgynous or Masculine, in other words, they rated themselves as high on both "instrumental" and "expressive" characteristics, while the low-Adventure women described themselves as Feminine. This suggested that high Adventure women were not gender role bound, and that they were comfortable in exhibiting either traditionally masculine or traditionally feminine behaviours as the situation warranted.

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This conformed to Farmer's (1985) findings that career-motivated women were likely to be androgynous. Women in the study indicated few stereotypes about the sex role appropriateness of occupations. These results paralleled those of White, Kruczek, and Brown (1989) who found that the degree to which female and male college students stereotype occupations had declined. Also, the groups did not differ significantly in career salience, nor did they differ significantly in entry into non-traditional occupations, marital plans, educational level, or parental role models as measured by parents' education level and occupations. Nonsignificant trends suggested that high-Adventure women might enter occupations that were less traditional than the occupations selected by low-Adventure women. High-Adventure women were also related to less certainty of marriage and a delay in or a later expected age of marriage (delayed family commitment), which implied the possibility of an increased chance of establishing a career path (Douce & Hansen, 1990).

Results of a research study by Chi-Ching (1995) were consistent with the literature that marriage and family were the prime concerns of women in the early stages of adult development. This supported the findings of Roberts and Newton (1986), and Josselson (1987) that women in earlier adult development placed marriage and relationships above their job and career. Marriage and parenthood, however, did not affect the high-career women's life-role perceptions nor their commitment to the roles, whilst marriage and parenthood had significant effects on the life-role orientations of the low career women. It appeared that women who valued and were committed to the career were single-minded in their career pursuit. The high-career women in Chi-Ching's (1995) study did not show sign of doubting or regretting their heavy commitment to the occupational role as they approached mid-life. These results did not support the observation by Hennig and Jardim (1978) and Hardesty and Jacob (1986) that women who rejected traditional feminine roles to invest in their careers, experienced a re-evaluation of life-style as they approached mid-life. However, high-career women were troubled by conflicts between work and family roles (Chi-Ching, 1995).

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Several studies examined college students' attitudes about work and family activities. Stake and Rogers (1989) compared attitudes toward work and family activities among college women and their mothers. Mothers reported more interest, confidence, and support for home activities, and daughters reported equal levels for home and work activities. Women had greater self-efficacy for combining career and family with traditionally female occupations, and men and women had greater self-efficacy for gender-traditional occupations (Stickel & Bonnet, 1991). Both women and men placed equal value on career and family, yet both women and men expected women to take more responsibility for family (Spade & Reese, 1991; Machung, 1989). Men viewed work and family roles as independent domains, whereas women viewed the roles as necessitating a trade-off (DiBenedetto & Tittle, 1990). Men's perceptions of their potential spouses' work and family roles corresponded to women's perceptions of their own roles. College students with a high intrinsic religious orientation placed more emphasis on family than career and anticipated that the wife would spend less time in career (Jones & McNamara, 1991). Compared to men, women indicated less traditionally defined gender roles in work and parenting responsibilities, less belief that nonwork issues limit women's work effectiveness, and greater need for employer support for work and family issues (Covin & Brush, 1991).

A considerable amount of research was conducted related to careers characterised by their gender traditionality or as female- or male-dominated. Women in traditional programmes were less likely to view potential barriers in non-traditional occupations (Chatterjee & McCarrey, 1989). College women who chose male-dominated careers had higher occupational aspirations and gave more economic reasons for their choices (Murrell, Frieze, & Frost, 1991). Black and White women did not differ in non-traditional plans, although Black women and women who chose non-traditional careers tended to plan for more education than was necessary to achieve their career goals. Women in non-traditional jobs reported more adverse working conditions, more job stress, and less job satisfaction (Mansfield, Koch, Henderson, Vicary, Cohn, & Young, 1991).

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Several studies demonstrated that women in non-traditional careers are perceived poorly, suggesting a negative consequence of violating gender norms in occupational choice (Brabeck and Weisgerber, 1989). Females portrayed as pursuing traditionally male occupations were viewed negatively by both men and women as potential romantic partners (Pfost & Fiore, 1990). Several studies attempted to replicate Touheys's (1974) findings that an occupation was devalued when it was portrayed as becoming more female dominated. Both women and men gave higher "respectability" ratings to male than to female incumbents in the same occupations (Kanekar, Kolsawalla, & Nazareth, 1989). Female-dominated occupations were perceived as offering pleasant working conditions, whereas male-dominated occupations were perceived as providing pay and promotion opportunities (Scozzaro & Subich, 1990). Theorists struggled to explain women's "developmental deficiencies" and deviations from male standards, and turned to an emphasis on biological turning points for women such as childbirth that has been the cornerstone for theorising about women's development (Giele, 1982). As married career women with children increasingly characterise the female population, family orientation might become inadequate in predicting women's career choices as suggested by current societal trends. Thus, measures which tap only the most non-traditional attitudes might become salient in predicting career choice, making it necessary to redefine the concepts of "traditional" and "non-traditional" roles (Fassinger, 1990).

2.10   RESEARCH FINDINGS ON WORK-ROLE SALIENCE

The consideration of life-role salience and values is critical for increasing an understanding of how people and their career develop. Work-role salience is defined as the perceived importance of work in occupational choice and satisfaction (Greenhaus, 1971, 1973). Work salience has generally been conceptualised as an independent variable that impacts on a variety of career issues. Work-role salience is also related to work values (Beutell & Brenner, 1986; Greenhaus & Simon, 1977), career maturity (Super & Nevill, 1984), sex role attitudes (Illfelder, 1980), and career indecision (Greenhaus &

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Simon, 1977; Jones & Chenery, 1980). For women various contending roles make work-role salience a complex issue.

Madill et al. (1988) examined life-role salience in a sample of Canadians representing four occupational groups: professional/managerial, clerical/sales, skilled, and unskilled. When a comparison between working and home/family role was made, females placed more importance on participation in the home/family role than they did on participation in the working role in all categories except for the professional/managerial group. Here the male and female respondents both placed more importance on participation in the working role.

A similar pattern was reported in the level of commitment to the home/family and working roles in each occupational group. A similar pattern was demonstrated in the manner in which respondents sought to implement their values through both these roles. Competition between the home/family and working roles is most evident in the similar levels of commitment and role value realisation that are assigned to the home/family and working roles by females in the professional/managerial category. It therefore would appear that females in the professional/managerial category find it difficult to strike a good balance between working and home/family activities. The value that professional/managerial women assign to the working role gives this activity a level of greater importance compared to the other occupational categories where the home/family role is of greater importance. Females outside the professional category are less likely faced with the dilemma encountered by the professional women, because they have made a greater commitment to home/family needs. Professional women tend to have more resources and options open to them, but the cost of an interrupted career on their probability of advancement is likely to be high (Madill et al., 1988).

Ostry (1966) reported that the level of education exerted a strong influence 'in determining whether or not a woman enters the labour force.' How actively women will participate in the workforce is determined by both the number and age of children.

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British and American researchers (Berk & Berk, 1978; Gutek, Nakamura, & Nieva, 1981) reported that both working women and managerial and professional women spend more time in child care and home duties than their spouses.

Findings in a study by Leviton and Whitely (1981) suggested that women rate both career and home values as more important than did men. Women rated the values that they themselves perceived as professionally satisfied more highly than did the men. They also tended to rate home-related values more highly, based on their own perceptions of home-related values. It was suggested that these women might be trying to portray themselves as "superwomen" defined by Stein and Bailey (1973) as women who achieve highly in both career and homemaking. Levinton and Whitely (1981) noted that possible sex differences in professional achievement were not easily attributable to any hypothesised lower career motivation by women, as suggested by earlier researchers (Bernard, 1964), since women attach higher values to both career and home (Levinton & Whitely, 1981).

Greenhaus (1971) reported that career salience was positively related to occupational satisfaction for females. In a later study Greenhaus (1973) noted that self-esteem was positively related to occupational satisfaction for females. However, females who demonstrated high self-esteem were not necessarily those who valued career advancement or placed their highest priority on a career as a source of life satisfaction. This supports Super's (1981a) contention that work provides 'a focus for personality organisation for most men and women, although for some persons this focus is peripheral, incidental, or even non-existent'. Super (1940) reported that work is not the most salient role for a significant number of individuals – other roles may occupy that position. Super (1981, p. 31) proposed the possibility that 'a successful and satisfying career may be one in which a good balance is struck between roles.' The literature, therefore, seems to suggest that women are likely to have greater difficulty in striking such a balance, in view of their dual role functions, i.e. balancing the demands of the home/family and working roles (Madill et al., 1988).

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Men were culturally mandated to place greater importance on the work role as endorsed by initial research on sex differences in work-role salience (Masih, 1967), but later studies seemed to indicate otherwise. Female tertiary students have been found to be consistently higher in work exploration (Greenhaus & Sklarew, 1981), career values (Cooper & Robinson, 1984), general attitudes towards work (Greenhaus, 1973), and commitment to work (Nevill & Super, 1988). In a study conducted with African-American students, females showed more commitment to the work role compared to males, however, both females and males indicated greater commitment to home and family over work (Naidoo, Bowman, & Gerstein, 1998). Contrary to Nevill and Super's findings, African-American university students were found to have greater value expectation from the home and family role than from the work role. However, the female students manifested greater value expectations in the role of home and family, while males had marginally higher expectations about the work role than the home and family role (Naidoo, 1993).

Such findings have not been substantiated on South African tertiary students where sex appears to be unrelated to work-role salience (Watson & Allan, 1989). Research on the influence of sex on the work-role salience seemed less clear. Some research has indicated that adolescent males have greater work-role salience (Super & Nevill, 1984), while other research indicated that adolescent females have a higher commitment to the work role (Nevill & Perrotta, 1985; Watson & Stead, 1990). Taylor, Madill, and Macnab (1990) examined gender differences in values, role salience and job satisfaction in a matched peer sample of 55 male and 55 females in Canada. Results from this study indicated that men placed more importance on the values of risk and advancement than did the women. These findings suggest that the men in the study were more career oriented than were the women. Taylor et al. (1990) noted that without the societal expectation to assume a primary role for home and family responsibilities places men in a better position than women to devote their full attention to career advancement. Men may also become eligible for being promoted to managerial positions earlier than women, because of their 'head start' in their careers. This earlier start for men enables them to acquire greater

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seniority in their occupational positions, apart from the additional benefits (higher pay, authority) of being in a supervisory role (Niles & Goodnough, 1996).

A study conducted by Crozier (1990) examined life-role importance and its relationship to variables such as sex, age, marital status, and parental status with a sample of teachers. The teachers in this study spent more time in the role of worker, but felt more emotionally committed to the home and family role. Single teachers rated the home and family role as significantly less important than did married or cohabiting teachers. Single teacher rated work as being the most important life role, followed by leisure and homemaking. But female teachers scored higher on the Commitment to Work scale than did the male teachers. Crozier (1990) noted that "for individuals without children and for singles it appears that the home and family role is being replaced by work, and, for singles, it is also replaced by the leisure role" (p. 237). Crozier's findings resemble those of other studies of Canadian adults (Madill, 1985). The Canadian studies point to the fact that although work is an important life role for adults, it is often not the central life role. Home and family, as well as leisure activities, provide important outlets for self-expression. These findings support Super's (1940) theory that "work is not the most salient role for a significant number of individuals – other roles may occupy that position".

The greater commitment to work and home by women in Nevill and Super's study (1988) reflects the role of women in the workplace. However, the lower values expectations scores of women regarding the worker role may reflect a realistic acknowledgement of the restricted occupational opportunities still confronting women. The findings that women in the study reported more participation in the homemaker role, were more committed to the homemaker role, and had higher expectations for releasing their values in the homemaker role than men, may reflect a realistic acceptance of the traditional division of labour (Niles & Goodnough, 1996).

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Eschback (1991) also examined the influences of work and home life roles on the career development process. The results indicated that women expressed greater role salience than did men. These findings concur with the Nevill and Super's (1988) study. Work is an important life role among university women, yet the home and family is the area in which they perceive more opportunities to express their values. Life-role salience, therefore, is an important construct for understanding consequences of gender role socialisation and of a male-oriented workplace (Niles & Goodnough, 1996).

2.11   SUMMARY

It is clear that men and women's modal career patterns are quite different in how they blend together work and other roles. As expected, empirical data on role salience (Nevill & Super, 1986) indicated that women routinely report greater participation in home roles than do men. Why are the sexes' life career patterns often so different, when their emotional commitments and values seem so similar? Gender powerfully shapes individual characteristics, the social environment, and the interaction between them, and thus the nature of a person's life career. Men's and women's life career are often so different not because of biological predestination, but because our sex-differentiated society expects and moulds them to be different from birth until death. Yet, the diversity among life careers of members of the same sex is a testament to the complexity of the process by which individuals forge a life from the many possibilities and restrictions they encounter. Gender influences the nature of role priorities and enactment over time, how individuals perceive various roles, and role juggling during adulthood (Cook, 1994).

Occupying several demanding roles is a routine feature of adult life; as Sekaran and Hall (1989) put it, everyone juggles roles. For many women, the pleasures of multiple roles outweigh the costs, substantial as the costs are in terms of time and energy (Crosby & Jaskar, 1993). It was assumed that the work domain was distinct from the family domain, an idea Kanter (1977) referred to as the "myth of separate worlds." According to this myth, each world operated by its own laws and thus could be studied independently.

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Today, it is recognised that the work and family relationship is a dynamic and reciprocal one. Not only do factors in the work situation influence family life, but family concerns also have positive and negative effects on the worklife. The process of sequencing, or adjusting labour force participation to meet the needs of family demands, is a major way in which the work and family domains interact (Sekaran & Hall, 1989; Voydanoff, 1987).

The sequencing of career and family events can be summarised in terms of the "split dream" (Roberts & Newton, 1986). Unlike men who develop dreams that focus on career success, women develop dreams that include both the career and family domains. However, not all women have split dreams; some focus entirely on careers without having children or marry and vice versa (Sekaran & Hall, 1989; Voydanoff, 1987). Despite the increasing participation of women in the paid labour force in recent years, the basic pattern has changed little: women continue to take major responsibility for child care and homemaking duties, and juggle these with the work role. It is clear that men's and women's career patterns are quite different in how they blend together work and other roles (Cook, 1994). Findings and theories about women's career development can allow for devising new career directions for women. These new directions can provide women with the support and social sanctions to forge individual careers without risking the negative evaluations that erode confidence and truncate future advancements or keep women swinging between instrumental and nurturing roles and helplessly caught in a no-win situation (Gallos, 1989).

A theoretical framework is needed to integrate empirical findings about women's present status in academia. Women's position in academia has been the focus of much empirical attention. Studies have indicated that many personal, social, and situational factors contribute to women being underrepresented in the higher echelons of the academic hierarchy and experiencing more occupational barriers in their academic careers than males. Women advance up the academic hierarchy more slowly than their male counterparts and are more likely never to advance to the top (Vasil, 1992).

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Academia is a field in which women have made substantial gains in terms of opportunities for employment and career advancement, yet many internal and external barriers continue to impede women's career progress (Russel, 1994). Success in academia may, more often than not, depend not only on what you know but also whom you know for support and advocacy (Hall & Sander, 1983). Hall and Sander (1983) suggested that women who work in academia might need to learn the unwritten rules of their profession for both pursuing and formulating goals. "Unwritten rules" in academia tend to be handed down from one generation to another and communicated informally through networking.

Many professional women find themselves trying to satisfy the responsibilities of a demanding career and home-life. It remains to be seen whether the barriers experienced by women academics impact detrimentally on their participation, commitment and value expectations from the work role, thereby affecting their career advancement.

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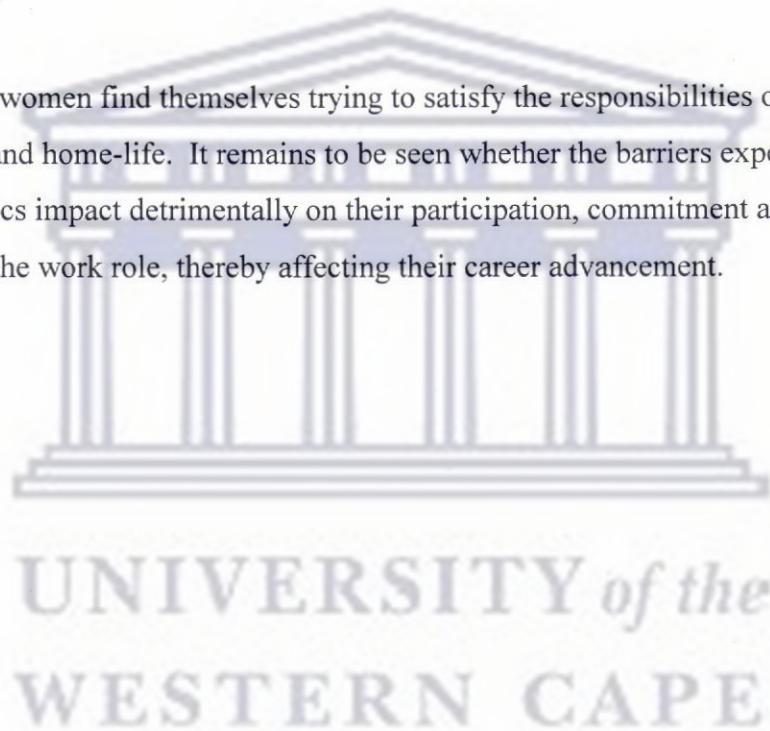
2.12 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Based on the literature review presented, the following hypotheses will be investigated:

- Women academics in general report experiencing significant barriers to career advancement.

- Women academics in general participate more in the work role than in the role of home and family.

- Women academics in general display greater commitment to the work role than to the home and family role.

- Women academics in general have higher value expectations of the work role than of the home and family role.
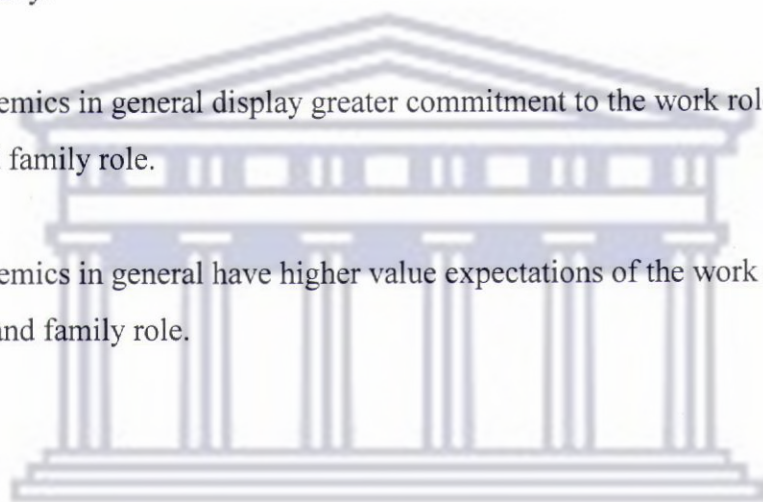
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter will present the research design and methodology utilised in the study. The chapter will define the population from which the sample was drawn, the sample, and discuss the measuring instruments used in the study, and the sampling procedure followed to collect the data. A brief overview will be provided about the use of the different statistical techniques to analyse the data.

3.1.1   The Population

The population targeted in this study included all women academics, including permanent and contract staff members (N = 73), from all three faculties (business, sciences, and engineering) at the tertiary institution, Peninsula Technikon, in the Western Cape. Peninsula Technikon is a historically black institution with a current student population of 8,827 with a 6:4 female to male ratio (PeninsulaTechnikon Student Affairs Department, November, 1999). Statistics from the Human Resource Department (August, 1999) indicate that out of a compliment of two-hundred-and-twenty-eight permanently employed academics, only sixty-seven (29%) are women academics. The population of women academics is distributed as follows: sixteen (22%) within the Business Faculty, thirty-four (47%) within the Science Faculty, and twenty-three (31%) within the Engineering Faculty.

In terms of the level of appointment, the statistics from the Technikon's Human Resource Department (August, 1999) indicate that out of a compliment of seventeen head of departments, only two (12 %) were females; of forty-six senior lecturers, only nine (20 %) were females; of one-hundred-and-fifty lecturers, sixty (40%) were females, and out of a compliment of five junior lecturers, two (40%) were females. No female academics occupied the position of either director (one male), associate dean of faculty

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(six males) or dean of faculty (three males) within the institution. These statistics indicate that women academics were either not represented at all or very poorly represented within the higher echelons of the institution. Where females were represented in the higher echelons, they were in departments traditionally associated with "female" careers such as human resource management and radiography.

The racial composition of the academic staff at Peninsula Technikon is as follows: out of a compliment of two-hundred-and-twenty-eight, only thirteen (6%) are African; one-hundred-and-fifty-one (67%) are Coloured; sixty (26%) are White; and one (1%) is classified as Other. The population statistics indicate that women academics (N = 73) are from the following racial backgrounds: the two head of departments are White; of the nine senior lecturers, five (55%) are Coloured and four (45%) are White; of the sixty lecturers, six (10%) are African, thirty-three (55%) are Coloured, twenty-one (35%) are White, and the two junior lecturers are Coloured. These statistics indicate that White women academics occupied the higher positions as head of department and African women were under-represented within the institution.

3.1.2   The Sample

All seventy-three women academics at the institution were solicited to participate in the study. Forty-three women academics returned completed questionnaires for a 58,9% response rate. Data pertaining to faculties and departments where the women academics were situated were obtained from the Human Resource Department. All respondents were assured that participation in the research project was voluntary, that anonymity would be protected and that responses would be confidential.

The sample consisted of forty-three women academics, of whom thirty-nine (90,7%) were permanently employed and four (9,3%) employed on a contract basis. The mean age of the respondents was 41,54 with ages ranging between 27 and 59 years old. The standard deviation for age was 7,63, the median age was 42,00, and the mode was 40,00. Racial

groups represented in the sample constitute twenty-one (48,8%) White; seventeen (39,5%) Coloured; four (9,3%) African; and one (2,3%) Indian. The racial composition is based on statistics from the Human Resource Department, August 1999. Racial classification is based on the designations used in the previous dispensation. With regards to marital status the majority of respondents, thirty-two (76,2%) were married/living together and ten (23,8%) were either single/widowed/divorced/separated. Other pertinent demographic data of the sample will be discussed in the results chapter.

3.2   Measuring Instruments

The instruments used in this study included a Demographic Questionnaire designed for the purpose of the study, the Life Role Inventory (Langley, 1990), and the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised (Swanson & Daniels, 1996) (See Appendix B). The Demographic Questionnaire consisted of 41 questions designed by the researcher to obtain the demographic data relevant to the sample description and the family situation, educational level, research involvement, working experience, and departmental location of the respondents. The Life Role Inventory (LRI) was used to address the question whether women at the institution experienced any difficulty in balancing career and family roles. The Career Barriers Inventory-Revised (CBI-R) was used to determine the barriers that impacted on the career advancement of women at the institution.

3.3   The Life Role Inventory (LRI)

Super (1980) indicated the importance of investigating the relative importance of the five life roles for any individual, namely the roles of student, worker, community worker, home and family, and leisurite. Ideally, people should strive to achieve a balance between these roles. For any particular individual one or more of these roles may be more important at a specific stage in his/her development than the other roles. An instrument that can be used to assess the relative importance of these life roles is the Life Role Inventory (Langley, 1993). The purpose of the LRI is to assess the relative

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importance that an individual attaches to the five major life roles in order to lead a fulfilling and self-actualising life. The LRI makes it possible to assess both cultural and individual differences when studying the relative importance of the five major life roles to the individual.

3.3.1   Description

The South African version of the LRI was developed by the HSRC in collaboration with the Work Importance Study, an international consortium of career psychologist spanning a dozen European, American, and Asian countries. The South African LRI is based on the Role Salience Inventory (SI) that was developed by Nevill and Super (1986a).

The LRI is a 170-item inventory (15 scales) that measures an individual's participation in, commitment to and value expectations for the five life-career roles described above. The Participation Scale (50-items) is behavioural in content and concerns the individual's behaviour in the five roles. It assesses what the respondent does or has done recently in each of the life roles. It measures the amount of attention/time given to a particular role. The more time and energy someone devotes to a particular role, the more the individual can be said to participate in the role. Participation does not measure how a person feels about a particular role, or how much the person knows about it, but refers to the importance of the role in the person's life.

The Commitment Scale (50-items) is affective in content and assesses how the respondent feels about each of the five life-career roles. It assesses attitudes towards roles by asking about the degree of commitment to the role. It refers to the importance of the person's attitude to the activity. The more someone is emotionally committed to a particular role, the more the individual can be said to be involved with the role. Langley (1993) emphasises that involvement does not necessarily imply participation.

The Value Expectations Scale (70-items), also affective in content, assesses attitudes towards roles by rating the degree to which 14 major life satisfactions or values are expected to be found in each of the roles. It infers how much the person anticipates expressing each of 14 values through the role. Respondents respond to items on all three scales on a 4-point rating scale indicating a range of activity from "never or little" to always or a great deal." Of the 15 scales, this study examined only those pertinent to the life roles of work and family.

3.3.2   Psychometric Properties

The LRI has acceptable psychometric properties for the major language and cultural groups in South Africa. The total standardisation sample consisted of high school pupils (n = 5,350) largely representative of the South African population in terms of its three major language groups (African languages, Afrikaans and English), socio-economic status and gender. Although the Life Role Inventory distinguishes between five life roles, the results of a recent factor analysis suggest that the distinction between the student and worker life roles is not meaningful for university students (Foxcroft, Watson, De Jager, & Dobson, 1994). It seems reasonable to expect that this findings will also be true for other adolescent and young adults who are still preparing for their roles as workers (Stead & Watson, 1999).

The LRI was developed through an evaluation of the relevant literature (Nevill & Super, 1986) and thus the content validity was an intrinsic part of its development. Reference was made to literature on life stages and career development in order to select the major life roles of adolescents and adults (Nevill & Super, 1986). Project leaders refined definitions of roles and activities after receiving results from field trials and agreement was reached on the particular phrasing adopted, as well as on the final LRI roles (Langley, 1993). The item selection process included item-scale correlations and factor-analytic procedures, designed to enhance internal consistency and appropriate scale independence.

Sex, culture, age and educational level differences in respect of some of the life roles lent support to the construct validity of the LRI. The manual (Langley, 1993) indicates that in the case of the total South African sample, girls scored significantly higher than boys on the Student, Community and Homemaker roles of all the components as well as in commitment to the worker role. Boys scored significantly higher on the Leisure role and also on Participation in the Worker role. Super and Nevill (1984) reported similar results. In concurrent studies with high school students (Super & Nevill, 1984) and college students (Nevill & Super, 1984), high school females were found to be more committed to home than to work, but their male counterparts were more committed to work than home. College females, however, expressed more commitment to both home and work than did male college students even though females did not expect to realise more values through their work than did males (Nevill & Super, 1984).

The reliability of the LRI has been tested on a representative sample of all high schools in South Africa and involved more than 5 000 pupils countrywide (Langley, 1988). The LRI manual (Langley, 1993) reports high internal consistency for those pupils speaking English, Afrikaans and African languages with reliability coefficients (Kuder-Richardson Formula 8) for all fifteen subscales ranging from .84 to .92 for the total sample. The reliability coefficients for the subsamples were as follows: English language group (n = 1,843) ranged from .83 to 93; African language group (n = 1,795) ranged from .81 to .90; and Afrikaans language group (n = 1,172) ranged from .84 to .93.

3.4   The Career Barrier Inventory (CBI)

The number and type of barriers that one perceives can be a limiting factor in career choice and implementation, and the construct of perceived barriers has been increasingly recognised as an important and useful explanatory variable in research regarding career choice (Swanson & Tokar, 1996). The Career Barriers Inventory (CBI) (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b) is a multidimensional self-report instrument designed to tap a broad domain of barriers that might occur across a range of career-related events (e.g., choosing

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a career, job performance, work-family interface). The CBI represents a comprehensive, psychometrically sound tool for the assessment of career-related barriers and for future investigation of the relationship of perceptions of barriers to other relevant career-related constructs (e.g., career indecision, self-esteem, self-efficacy expectations). The CBI is beginning to be acknowledged as a useful instrument, particularly as researchers are increasingly recognising the potential role of perceptions of barriers in career choice (Hackett & Lomborg, 1993; Russell & Elby, 1993).

3.4.1 Description

The Career Barriers Inventory-Revised was used for the purpose of this study (CBI-R; Swanson & Daniels, 1996). A brief overview of the initial development of the CBI and the CBI-Short (CBI-S) will also be discussed.

To ensure comprehensive coverage of the barriers domain, the initial pool of 112 CBI items (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b) was rationally derived from a thorough review of the relevant theoretical and empirical literature on perceptions of barriers to career development (Farmer, 1976; Harmon, 1977; Matthews & Tiedeman, 1964; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; O'Leary, 1974; Russel & Rush, 1987; Swanson & Tokar, 1991a). Respondents in the initial CBI sample (313 female and 245 male college students) rated the potential impact on their careers of each of the 112 barriers (e.g., "Stress at work affecting my life at home") using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = would not hinder at all, 7 = would completely hinder). Principal-components analyses of the 112 CBI items guided the formation of 18 factorially-derived barriers scales.

The original version of the CBI had several shortcomings (too lengthy and the item content of several scales needed revision) resulting in the development of a revised version of the CBI, the CBI-Short (CBI-S) (Swanson, 1996). The objective with shortening the original CBI was to leave the items and scales of the CBI relatively intact, but to reduce the number of items. These changes resulted in an 84-item version of the

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CBI, with 16 scales. The final change made in the CBI-S was to randomize the order of presentation of items within the instrument. Previously, items were arranged according to approximate stages of career development, such as choosing a major, getting a job, advancing in career, and balancing work and family concerns.

In the most recent revision of the CBI, resulting in the CBI-Revised, the dual goals were both to shorten and strengthen many of the scales. The goal evolved so that the rational aspects of content and definition of the scales were considered on an equal footing with empirical considerations, and at times, took precedence over empirical evidence (CBI-R, Swanson & Daniels, 1996). The CBI-R consists of 70 items scored on 13 scales. The Sex Discrimination scale (consisting of seven items) reflects several aspects of sex discrimination, including barriers related to financial impact and workplace climate. The Lack of Confidence scale consists of four items directly related to confidence and self-esteem. The Multiple-Role Conflict scale (consisting of eight items) reflects barriers that are more general in nature. The Conflict between Children and Career Demands scale (consisting of seven items) relates to balancing work responsibilities with child-rearing responsibilities. The Racial Discrimination scale (consisting of six items) focuses specifically on the broader aspects racial discrimination. The Disapproval by Significant Others scale consists of three items, focusing on different sources of disapproval about one's career choice (e.g., parents/family). The Decision-Making Difficulties scale (consisting of eight items) reflects difficulties such as "Not being sure how to choose a career direction." The Dissatisfaction with Career scale consists of five items that reflect boredom or disappointment in one's career progress. The Discouraged from Choosing Nontraditional Careers scale (consisting of five items) suggests that support from significant others is critical to pursuing nontraditional career fields. The Disability/Health Concerns scale consists of three items, such as "Having a disability which limits my choice of careers." The Job Market Constraints scale (consisting of four items) was added to the original CBI to reflect barriers related to a tight job market and to future employment outlook. The Difficulties with Networking/Socialisation scale (consisting of five items) was added to address issues related to work adjustment and socialisation.

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3.4.2 Psychometric Properties

The CBI has undergone rigorous restructuring and factorial analyses. The psychometric adequacy of the original 18 CBI and CBI-S scales was evaluated through reliability analyses of each scale, scale intercorrelations, and item-scale intercorrelations (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b). In the original CBI 18-scale several of the longer scales had alpha coefficients exceeding .90 and these were targeted for item reduction. Several of the very short scales had alpha coefficients lower than .60 and these were identified for further evaluation and revision.

Items of the CBI-Short were evaluated based on item-scale correlations, item intercorrelations within scales and item content. A series of factor analyses were conducted to examine the underlying structure of the CBI-S (Swanson, 1996).

The means, standard deviations, and alpha coefficients of the CBI-Revised (CBI-R) were derived from a sample of 100 college students (Swanson & Daniels, 1996). The internal characteristics of the CBI-R were found to be solid. Internal consistency coefficients of the CBI-R ranged from .64 to .86, with a median of .77 (Swanson & Daniels, 1996). Although most of the scales were at acceptable levels, some of these coefficients were considerably lower than corresponding coefficients in previous samples. For example, Conflict between Children and Career Demands had alpha coefficients of .75 compared to a range of .81 to .86 in the previous samples. The reason for these differing coefficients is that the presentation of items was reordered in the CBI-R. For example, in the previous versions, the three items on Disapproval by Significant Others were contiguously arranged, whereas in the CBI-R they were distributed throughout.

Intercorrelations among the CBI-R scales were generally high, ranging from .27 to .80, with a median of .60 (Swanson & Daniels, 1996). The highest correlation was Racial Discrimination with Sex Discrimination, and the lowest correlation was Disapproval by Significant Others with Disability/Health Concerns.

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The CBI scales showed expected group differences that contribute to its validity, including differences between men and women and between members of racial-ethnic majority and minority groups (Swanson & Daniels, 1996). Women were more concerned than men were about discrimination in the workplace and about children interfering with their career plans; men expressed greater concern than women did about physical disability hindering their work, uncertainty regarding plans for marriage and children, and sex-role conflict (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b).

Data related to the demographic characteristics of sex and race or ethnicity has shown expected relationships to CBI scales and provides the strongest and most consistent evidence for the construct validity of the CBI. Women typically score higher on a number of CBI scales, indicating greater perceptions of barriers. For example, women scored higher than men did on 7 of the 13 CBI-R scales (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar, 1996). These results are corroborated by other research documenting greater perceptions of barriers by women than by men. Women were considerably more likely than men to cite family-related concerns as potential barriers to their career plans (Luzzo, 1995). Significant racial differences also emerged on 8 of the 13 CBI-R scales. The most predictable differences were that racial-ethnic minority subjects scored higher than Caucasian subjects on Racial Discrimination. The remaining eight score differences were higher for Caucasian subjects than for minority subjects (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar, 1996).

3.5   Procedure

Prior approval to conduct the study was obtained from the Human Resource Department of the institution. To evoke an interest in the study, all female academics were first informed via internal e-mail about the purpose and goals of the study, the anonymous and voluntary nature of the study, and that the information acquired would only be used for the purpose of the research study. All women academics were recruited by telephone, internal e-mail, and personal solicitation before sending off the self-administered

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questionnaire through the internal postal system. Respondents were requested to return the questionnaire within four weeks to the researcher in the sealed envelope provided via internal post to the specified address. Regular e-mail reminders were sent to respondents concerning the due date of the questionnaire. Due to a poor response by the first due date, the response time was extended by another three weeks. The initial poor response rate may have been due to end of semester pressures that academics were dealing with. A cover letter (Appendix B) was attached to the questionnaire, which explained in detail the aim and objectives of the study, assured respondents that anonymity would be protected, and that responses would be confidential. Respondents were informed that the research findings will be presented to the academics after completion of the study and a written synopsis of the research findings will be made available on request.

3.6   Research Design

The purpose of the study was to determine whether women at the institution experienced any difficulty in balancing career and family demands and to determine the barriers that impacted on the career advancement of women at the institution. The study adopted a quantitative methodology using a demographic questionnaire and several measures of the dependent variables identified in the hypotheses of the study. The data were statistically analysed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) (Norusis, 1993). Demographic data were analysed by obtaining frequency distribution summaries and descriptive statistics of the sample. Various statistical procedures, including t-tests, correlations, and chi-squares were used to assess the hypotheses of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The results pertaining to the aims of this study are presented in this chapter. The implications of the results will be discussed in chapter five. The data obtained from the Life Role Inventory (LRI; Langley, 1990) and the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised (CBI-R; Swanson & Daniels, 1996) were statistically analysed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The alpha level of .05 was selected a priori for tests of significance throughout the statistical analyses.

4.1 Demographic information regarding the sample

This section presents analyses of the demographic data gathered from the women academics (n = 43) who participated in the research.

The sample of women academics (n = 43) is distributed in the institution as follows: twenty-four (55,8%) within the Science Faculty, eight (18,6%) within the Engineering Faculty, and eleven (25,6%) within the Business Faculty. Women academics at the institution were still over-represented in departments traditionally associated with "women" careers such as radiography, education and communication. See Table 1 in Appendix A for distribution per department.

The literature indicates that marital status and the responsibility of childbearing and rearing were important factors influencing the work-role of women. In this study thirty-two (76,2%) of women academics were married or cohabiting and ten (23,8%) were either single/widowed/divorced/separated. Most of the respondents have two children (thirty-five; 81,4%) and eight (18,6%) have no children. Of the married/cohabiting respondents, twenty-five (60%) indicated having no plans for any or more children. Nine (21%) of the unmarried respondents indicated likewise. Only five (11,9%) of the

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married and one (2,4%) of the unmarried respondents indicated that they do plan to have more children and two (4,7%) married respondents being uncertain.

The majority of the respondents, twenty-nine (67,5%) had less than a master's degree qualification. One (2,3%) respondent had a diploma; ten (23,3%) had a higher diploma; four (9,3%) had a technikon degree; eight (18,6%) had a university degree; and six (14%) had an honours degree. Only twelve (27,9%) respondents had a master's degree of whom eight were White and four were African. Only two respondents had a doctoral degree. The cross-tabulation of qualifications by race is presented in Table 2 in Appendix A.

With regards to level of appointment, the majority of female academics, thirty-five (81,4%) occupied the position of lecturer; four (9,3%) occupied the position of senior lecturer; two (4,7%) were appointed as junior lecturer; and only two (4,7%) occupied the position of departmental head. Both departmental heads are White from departments traditionally associated with "women" careers. Apparently no women academics occupied the position of either director (one male), associate dean of faculty (six males) or dean of faculty (three males) within the institution. From the statistics it is evident that women academics were either not represented at all or very poorly represented within the higher echelons of the institution. Where women academics did occupy the higher positions within the department they were still predominantly White. The statistics indicate that African and Indian women academics were under-represented and that White women academics constituted almost half of the total women academics within the institution. See Table 3 in Appendix A for the summary of level of position by race data.

The number of working years of respondents ranged from one to twenty-three years with a mean of 7,79, a median of 7,00 and mode of 5,00 years. The majority of the sample (thirty-six; 83,7%) has not been promoted since being employed at the institution.

Only three respondents (7,0%) lectured within the M.Tech and D.Tech programs at the institution of whom all three respondents are White. A large number of participants, twenty-three (53,5%) were involved with further studies to improve their qualifications.

The academic activities of women academics are summarised in Table 4.1. The majority of respondents has not published articles in accredited journals (thirty-three; 76,7%); has not as yet published any books (thirty-eight; 90,5%); has not delivered any papers at international conferences (thirty-five; 81,4%) or national conferences (eighteen; 41,9%). Only a third of the respondents (sixteen; 37,2%), however, were involved with research which was not related to a further qualification. There were no discernible differences between the racial groups in terms of all the academic activities.
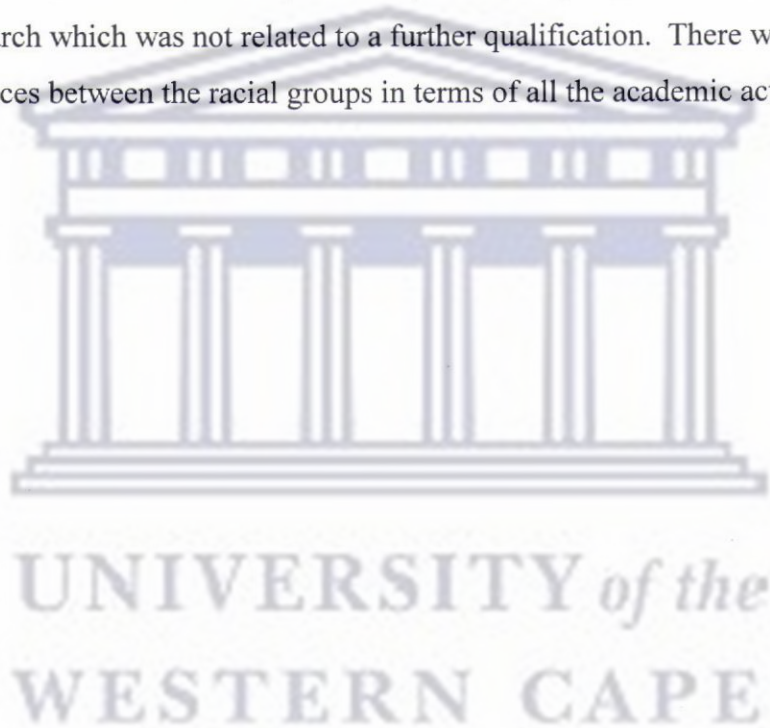
Table 4.1   Involvement of Black and White Women Academics in Academic Activities

Cell values are listed as: **Count** / Row Percent / Column Percent / % of Total

Count / Row Percent / Column Percent / % of Total	Articles Published in Accredited Journals			Books Published			Papers delivered: International Conferences			Papers delivered: National Conferences		
	Black	White	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total
None	**18** 54,5% 81,8% 41,9%	**15** 45,5% 71,4% 34,9%	**33** 76,7%	**21** 55,3% 95,5% 50,0%	**17** 44,7% 85,0% 40,5%	**38** 90,5%	**19** 54,3% 86,4% 44,2%	**16** 45,7% 76,2% 37,2%	**35** 81,4%	**14** 56,0% 63,6% 32,6%	**11** 44,0% 52,4% 25,6%	**25** 58,1%
One	**3** 75,0% 13,6% 7,0%	**1** 25,0% 4,8% 2,3%	**4** 9,3%	**0**	**1** 100,0% 5,0% 2,4%	**1** 2,4%	**2** 66,7% 9,1% 4,7%	**1** 33,8% 4,8% 2,3%	**3** 7,0%	**5** 62,5% 22,7% 11,6%	**3** 37,5% 14,3% 7,0%	**8** 18,6%
Two	**1** 16,7% 4,5% 2,3%	**5** 83,3% 23,8% 11,7%	**6** 14,0%	**1** 50,0% 4,5% 2,4%	**1** 50,0% 5,0% 2,4%	**2** 4,8%	**1** 50,0% 4,5% 2,3%	**1** 50,0% 4,8% 2,3%	**2** 4,7%	**2** 66,7% 9,1% 4,7%	**1** 33,3% 4,8% 2,3%	**3** 7,0%
Three	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**1** 100,0% 5,0% 2,4%	**1** 2,4%	**0**	**3** 100,0% 14,3% 7,0%	**3** 7,0%	**1** 14,3% 4,5% 2,3%	**6** 85,7% 28,6% 14,0%	**7** 16,3%
Column Total	**22** 51,2%	**21** 48,8%	**43** 100,0%	**22** 52,4%	**20** 47,6%	**42** 100,0%	**22** 51,2%	**21** 48,8%	**43** 100,0%	**22** 51,2%	**21** 48,8%	**43** 100,0%
Missing						1						

n = 43

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Table 4.1 (continued) Involvement of Black and White Women Academics in Academic Activities

Stub values per cell (top to bottom): Count / Row Percent / Column Percent / % of Total

	International Conferences attended since at Institution			National Conferences attended since at Institution			Professional Development Programs attended			Other Publications (Manuals, Course Readers)		
	Black	White	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total
None	16 55,2% 72,7% 37,2%	13 44,8% 61,9% 30,2%	29 67,4%	5 100,0% 22,7% 11,6%	0	5 11,6%	3 50,0% 14,3% 7,3%	3 50,0% 15,0% 7,3%	6 14,6%	15 53,6% 68,2% 35,7%	13 46,4% 65,0% 31,0%	28 66,7%
One	2 28,6% 9,1% 4,7%	5 71,4% 23,8% 11,6%	7 16,3%	7 77,8% 31,8% 16,3%	2 22,2% 9,5% 4,7%	9 20,9%	6 66,7% 28,6% 14,6%	3 33,3% 15,0% 7,3%	9 22,0%	3 60,0% 13,6% 7,1%	2 40,0% 10,0% 4,8%	5 11,9%
Two	3 50,0% 13,6% 7,0%	3 50,0% 14,3% 7,0%	6 14,0%	5 55,6% 22,7% 11,6%	4 44,4% 19,0% 9,3%	9 20,9%	4 57,1% 19,0% 9,8%	3 42,9% 15,0% 7,3%	7 17,1%	4 80,0% 18,2% 9,5%	1 20,0% 5,0% 2,4%	5 11,9%
Three	1 100,0% 4,5% 2,3%	0	1 2,3%	1 25,0% 4,5% 2,3%	3 75,0% 14,3% 7,0%	4 9,3%	1 33,3% 4,8% 2,4%	2 66,7% 10,0% 4,9%	3 7,3%	0	0	0
More than three	0	0	0	4 25,0% 18,2% 9,3%	12 75,0% 57,1% 27,9%	16 37,2%	7 43,8% 33,3% 17,1%	9 56,3% 45,0% 22,0%	16 39,0%	0	4 100,0% 20,0% 9,5%	4 9,5%
Column Total	22 51,2	21 48,8	43 100,0%	22 51,2%	21 48,8%	43 100,0%	21 51,2%	20 48,4%	41 100,0%	22 52,4%	20 47,6%	42 100,0%

"Black" = Coloured, Indian, and African

n = 43

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4.2 Hypotheses Testing

The initial step in testing all four hypotheses involved obtaining correlations among the variables of interest and computing their respective means and standard deviations. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was deemed more appropriate than the Spearman correlation because the distributions for the LRI and the CBI-R scales consisted of continuous data and were normally distributed. To test the hypotheses of the study, $\underline{t}$-test comparisons were deemed appropriate where group comparison was required and where the main career barriers identified in the study were normally distributed.

The correlations for the LRI scales of the present study and the respective means, standard deviations and alpha coefficients are presented in Table 4.2. The correlations for the CBI-R scales of the present study and the respective means, standard deviations and alpha coefficients are presented in Table 4.3. Comparisons of the descriptive statistics of the LRI, the CBI-R and their respective standardisation samples are presented in Table 4.4 and Table 4.5.

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Table 4.2   Pearson Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations of the LRI Scales

	PHF	PWR	PS	CHF	CWR	CS	VHF	VWR	VS
PHF	1.00								
PWR	-.15	1.00							
PS	.17	.32	1.00						
CHF	.36	.34	.02	1.00					
CWR	.01	.62	.06	.73	1.00				
CS	.03	.55	.52	.45	.65	1.00			
VHF	.37	.20	-.00	.38	.36	.27	1.00		
VWR	-.11	.51	.49	.32	.48	.54	.36	1.00	
VS	.03	.26	.38	.16	.20	.56	.36	.71	1.00
M	26.08	32.02	27.59	36.83	35.71	31.46	43.21	43.83	37.80
SD	5.28	4.52	6.78	3.88	4.86	6.86	8.09	7.94	9.69
n	40	41	41	42	42	41.	42	40	40

Internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha): 0,96

PHF	=	Participation in Home and Family
PWR	=	Participation in the Work Role
PS	=	Participation in Study
CHF	=	Commitment in Home and Family
CWR	=	Commitment to the Work Role
CS	=	Commitment to Study
VHF	=	Value Expectation in Home and Family
VWR	=	Value Expectation in the Work Role
VS	=	Value Expectation in Study

Table 4.3   Pearson Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations of the CBI-R Scales

	SD	LC	MRC	CCC	RD	IP	DSO	DMD	DC	DNC	DHC	JMC	DNS
SD	1.00												
LC	.54	1.00											
MR	.25	.58	1.00										
CCC	.40	.70	.68	1.00									
RD	.93	.49	.24	.43	1.00								
IP	.54	.87	.57	.80	.50	1.00							
DSO	.19	.57	.71	.56	.16	.23	1.00						
DMD	.65	.87	.54	.74	.57	.83	.26	1.00					
DC	.58	.78	.51	.70	.56	.78	.25	.80	1.00				
DNC	.63	.46	.39	.50	.62	.47	.34	.61	.51	1.00			
DHC	.74	.62	.48	.65	.81	.65	.25	.72	.81	.63	1.00		
JMC	.54	.60	.52	.55	.37	.64	.33	.69	.64	.53	.55	1.00	
DNS	.43	.50	.55	.43	.40	.46	.28	.63	.55	.55	.50	.65	1.00
M	4.76	4.42	4.61	4.14	4.92	4.85	.3.43	4.30	4.88	3.36	4.72	4.74	4.01
SD	1.52	1.49.	1.15	1.07	1.42	1.31	3.14	1.03	1.10	1.26	1.44	.92	.92
n	41	42	38	38	39	43	41	40	42	43	41	41	41

Internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha): 0,96

SD	=	Sex Discrimination
LC	=	Lack of Confidence
MRC	=	Multiple-role Conflict
CC	=	Conflict between Children and Career demands
RD	=	Racial Discrimination
IP	=	Inadequate Preparation
DSO	=	Disapproval by Significant Others
DMD	=	Decision-making Difficulties
DC	=	Dissatisfaction with Career
DNC	=	Discouraged from Choosing Non-traditional Careers
DHC	=	Disability/Health concerns
JMC	=	Job Market Constraints
DNS	=	Difficulties with Networking/Socialisation

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Table 4.4   Comparison of the Descriptive Statistics of the LRI Scale and the Standardisation Sample

LRI Scale	Manual[1]	Current Study
Participation in Home and Family	M = 28.24 Sd = 6.77	M = 26.08 Sd = 5.28
Participation in Work Role	M = 32.30 Sd = 5.72	M = 32.02 Sd = 4.52
Participation in Study	M = 26.71 Sd = 8.05	M = 27.59 Sd = 6.78
Commitment in Home and Family	M = 36.21 Sd = 5.10	M = 36.83 Sd = 3.88
Commitment to the Work role	M = 35.77 Sd = 4.78	M = 35.71 Sd = 4.86
Commitment to Study	M = 29.39 Sd = 7.96	M = 31.46 Sd = 6.86
Value Expectation in Home and Family	M = 46.24 Sd = 7.31	M = 43.21 Sd = 8.09
Value Expectation in the Work Role	M = 45.46 Sd = 7.06	M = 43.83 Sd = 7.94
Value Expectation in Study	M = 39.12 Sd = 9.10	M = 37.80 Sd = 9.69

1)   Manual (Super & Nevill, 1986, n = 102 female adults)

Table 4.5   Comparison of the Descriptive Statistics of the CBI-R Scale and the Standardisation Sample

CBI-R Scale	Manual[1]	Current Study
Sex Discrimination	M = 4.33 Sd = 1.29	M = 4.76 Sd = 1.52
Lack of Confidence	M = 4.02 Sd = 1.34	M = 4.42 Sd = 1.49
Multiple-role Conflict	M = 4.20 Sd = 1.02	M = 4.61 Sd = 1.15
Conflict between Children and Career Demands	M = 3.67 Sd = 1.03	M = 4.14 Sd = 1.07
Racial Discrimination	M = 4.41 Sd = 1.35	M = 4.92 Sd = 1.42
Inadequate Preparation	M = 4.36 Sd = 1.33	M = 4.85 Sd = 1.31
Disapproval by Significant Others	M = 3.04 Sd = 1.31	M = 3.43 Sd = 3.14
Decision-making Difficulties	M = 4.25 Sd = 1.15	M = 4.30 Sd = 1.03
Dissatisfaction with Career	M = 4.49 Sd = 1.22	M = 4.88 Sd = 1.10
Discouraged from Choosing Non-traditional Careers	M = 3.03 Sd = 1.16	M = 3.36 Sd = 1.26
Disability/Health Concerns	M = 4.23 Sd = 1.51	M = 4.72 Sd = 1.44
Job Market Constraints	M = 4.38 Sd = 1.18	M = 4.74 Sd = .92
Difficulties with Networking/Socialisation	M = 4.37 Sd = 1.06	M = 4.01 Sd = .92

1)   Manual (Swanson & Daniels, 1995a, n = 100 college students)

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4.2.1 Hypothesis 1

Ho: Women academics in general do not experience significant barriers to career advancement.

H1: Women academics in general do experience significant barriers to career advancement.

The data were analysed in several ways to fully explore this hypothesis. Firstly responses to four direct discrete questions were evaluated. Responses were cross-tabulated to ascertain differences due to marital status and racial classification. Career barrier scores of the women academics were also compared to the standardisation sample. T-tests were also conducted to test for group differences on the barriers deemed significant in the study.

4.2.1.1 Frequency Distributions and Cross-Tabulations

To examine the above hypothesis, the following questions were deemed significant to investigate: Has your career development at Peninsula Technikon been impeded because you are a woman? Does your current job meet your career aspiration? Do you experience conflict or tension between your role as academic and your role in your home and family? To what extent does this role conflict/tension affect you? The aforementioned variables were also cross-tabulated by marital status and racial classification.

The findings indicate the following: twenty-seven (73,0%) respondents reported that their career has not been impeded at the institution because they are a woman; thirty-four (82,9%) respondents indicated that their current job did meet their career aspirations to a moderate extent; however, twenty-two (51,2%) respondents indicated that they did experience conflict between their role as academic and their role in the

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home and family. Those respondents who did experience role conflict only experienced it very marginally (twenty-one; 48,8%,). The cross-tabulations of these variables by marital status and race are presented in Tables 4 - 7 in Appendix A.

4.2.1.2   Comparison to Standardisation Sample

The career barriers scores of the sample were compared to that of the standardisation group. When women academics in the present study were compared to the standardisation sample that consisted of college students, their mean and standard deviation scores were higher on all thirteen career barrier scales, except the difficulties with networking/socialisation scale. Women academics in the present study indicated greater experience of barriers than university students of the standardisation group in terms of their careers. See Table 4.5 for the comparison of the descriptive statistics of the CBI-R scale and the standardisation sample.

4.2.1.3   T-Test

To further examine the above hypothesis, t-tests were also used to test for group differences in terms of six career barriers: Sex Discrimination, Multiple-role Conflict, Conflict between Children and Career Demands, Racial Discrimination, Dissatisfaction with Career, and Disapproval by Significant Others. The results of t-tests for married versus unmarried respondents on the corresponding six barriers are presented in Table 4.6. The results of racial differences with regards to the corresponding six barriers are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.6   Marital Status Differences in Career Barriers

| Career Barrier	Mean Difference[1]	t-value	df	P[o] significance
Sex Discrimination	-.02	-.04	38	0.97
Multiple-role Conflict	-.30	-.63	35	0.54
Conflict between Children and Career Demands	-.02	-.05	35	0.96
Racial Discrimination	-.43	-.81	36	0.42
Dissatisfaction with Career	.31	.78	39	0.44
Disapproval by Significant Others	1.55	.71	38	0.50

1)   Comparison of scores of Unmarried/Single/Divorced respondents versus Married/Cohabiting respondents

Table 4.7   Racial Differences in Career Barriers

Career Barrier	Mean Difference[1]	t-value	df	P[o] significance
Sex Discrimination	.74	1.58	39	0.12
Multiple-role Conflict	-.47	-1.28	36	0.21
Conflict between Children and Career Demands	-.20	-.56	36	0.58
Racial Discrimination	.77	1.73	37	0.09
Dissatisfaction with Career	-.06	-.17	40	0.87
Disapproval by Significant Others	.58	.59	37	0.56

1)   Comparison of scores of Black versus White respondents

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The research findings for this hypothesis suggest that respondents were less likely to indicate their experience of tension/dissatisfaction in the direct, discrete questions. However, they were likely to express themselves more openly on the items of the career barrier scales. Women academics in the present study indicated greater experience of barriers to their career advancement than college students of the standardised sample on all the career barrier sub-scales, except the Difficulties with Networking/Socialisation barrier. The results of the t-tests, however, indicated no marital status or racial classification differences in the experience of barriers. Married and single respondents, as well as Black and White respondents experienced the barriers in very much the same way. However, it was interesting to note that there was a significant direct relationship between Sex Discrimination and Racial Discrimination ($r = .93$, $p = 0.00$) and between Multiple-role Conflict and between Conflict between Children and Career Demands ($r = .68$, $p = 0.00$). White and Black women academics may experience a relationship between sex discrimination and racial discrimination for entirely different reasons.

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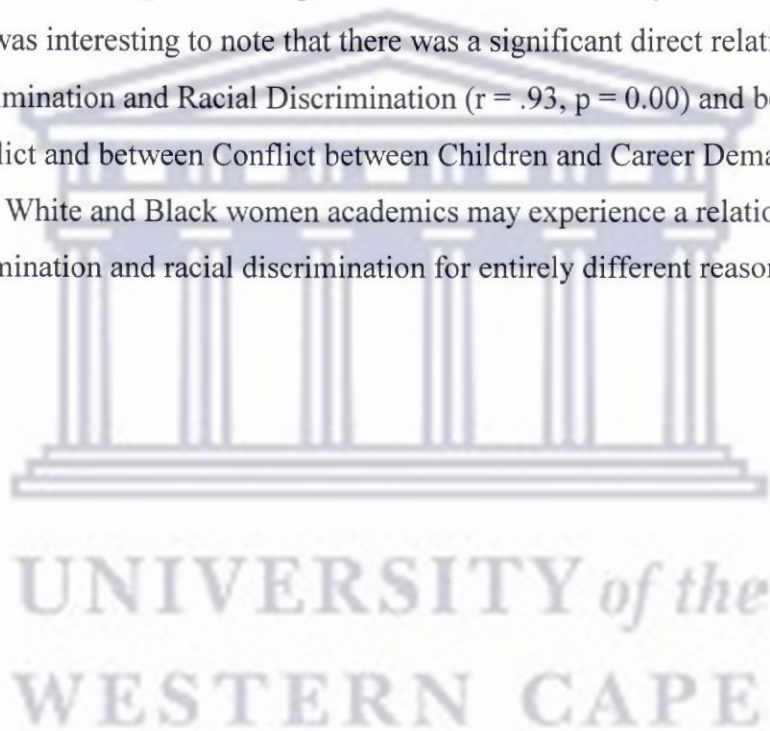
4.2.2 Hypothesis 2

Ho: There is no difference between participation in the work role and
       participation in the role of home and family for women academics.

H2:   There is a difference between participation in the work role and
       participation in the home and family role for women academics.

**Table 4.8   Summary of paired-samples t-test for participation in home and
family role versus participation in the work role**

Variable	Mean	SD	SE of Mean			
Participation in Home and Family Role	26.06	5.28	.835			
Participation in the Work Role	32.02	4.58	.725			
	Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail Sig
Paired Differences	-5.95	7.50	1.18	-5.02	39	.00

P ≤ 0.05

The hypothesis was explored with a t-test for paired-samples and the findings of
t = -5.02, (df = 39), p = 0.00 (2-tail) are summarised in Table 4.6. Since the probability
value was less than the 0.05 alpha level, the null hypothesis was rejected with 95%
confidence. The research hypothesis was therefore confirmed.

The findings confirmed a statistically significant difference between participation in the
home and family role (m = 26.08) and participation in the work role (m = 32.02), with
women academics indicating greater participation in the work role. The Pearson product-
moment correlation for the two variable indicated no significant relationship (r = -.15,
p = 0.36) between participation in the work role and participation in the home and family
role (refer Table 4.2).

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4.2.3   Hypothesis 3

Ho: There is no difference between commitment to the work role and commitment to home and family for women academics.

H3:   There is a difference between commitment to the work role and commitment to home and family for women academics.

Table 4.9   Summary of paired-samples t-test for commitment to home and family role versus commitment to the work role

Variable	Mean	SD	SE of Mean			
Commitment to Home and Family	36.83	3.88	.598			
Commitment to the Work Role	35.71	4.86	.749			
	Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail Sig
Paired Differences	1.12	3.34	.515	2.17	41	.04

$P \leq 0.05$

The hypothesis was explored with a t-test for paired samples and the findings of $t = 2.17$, (df = 41), $p = 0.04$ (2-tail) are summarised in Table 4.5. Since the probability value was less than the 0.05 alpha level, the null hypothesis was rejected with 95% confidence. The research hypothesis was therefore tenable.

It can, therefore, be concluded that for the sample, there was a statistically significant difference between commitment to the home and family role (m = 36.83) and commitment to the work role (m = 35.71), with women academics evidencing more commitment towards the role of home and family than to the work role. The Pearson product-moment correlation for the two variable indicated a significant direct relationship ($r = .73$, $p = 0.00$) between commitment to the home and family role and commitment to the work role with the sample ranking home and family as being more salient than work (refer Table 4.2).

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4.2.4 Hypothesis 4

Ho: There is no difference between value expectations of the work role and value expectations of the home and family role for women academics.

H4: There is a difference between value expectations of the work role and value expectations of the home and family role for women academics.

Table 4.10   Summary of paired-samples t-test for value expectations of the home and family role versus value expectations of the work role

Variable	Mean	SD	SE of Mean			
Value Expectations of the Home and Family Role	43.58	7.92	1.25			
Value Expectations of the Work Role	43.83	7.94	1.25			
	Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2 tail Sig
Paired Differences	-.250	8.98	1.42	-.18	39	.86

P ≥ 0.05

The hypothesis was explored with a t-test for paired-samples and the findings of t = -.18, (df = 39), p = 0.86 (2-tail) are summarised in Table 4.7. Since the probability value exceeded the 0.05 alpha level, the null hypothesis was retained. The research hypothesis was rejected, indicating there was no statistical significance between the value expectations of the home and family role (m = 43.58) and the work role (m = 43.83).

The Pearson product-moment correlation for the two variables indicated a significant slight direct relationship (r = .36, p = 0.02) between value expectations of the work role and value expectations of the home and family role (refer Table 4.2).

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CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Women continue to be under-represented among university faculty and concentrated in the lower ranks despite legislative advances, affirmative action, and large increases in the number of women among university students (Finkelstein, 1984; Simeone, 1987). In the light of the aforementioned statement, the main purpose of this study was to explore the factors that impede the career advancement of women academics at the tertiary institution, Peninsula Technikon, in the Western Cape. There are many variables which need to be addressed systematically, but the present research focused on two factors: to determine whether women academics at the institution experienced difficulty in balancing career and family demands (role salience), and to determine the extent to which the barriers impacted on the career advancement of women academics at the institution.

It was predicted that:

a. women academics in general do experience significant barriers to career advancement;

b. women academics in general display greater participation in the work role than in the role of home and family;

c. women academics in general have a stronger commitment to the work role than to the home and family role, and

d. women academics in general have higher value expectations of the work role than the home and family role.

The discussion of the results of this study will be organised into sections per hypothesis.

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Hypothesis 1:   Career Barriers

The question of whether women academics experience significant barriers to their career advancement was investigated from three vantage points. Firstly, responses to the following questions were examined: Has your career development at Peninsula Technikon been impeded because you are a woman? Does your current job meet your career aspiration? Do you experience conflict or tension between your role as academic and your role in your home and family?   Secondly, the career barriers scores of the sample were compared to that of the standardisation group. Thirdly, marital group status and racial differences were examined with regards to six career barriers.

In response to the direct questions, the majority of women academics (73%) reported that their career had not been impeded at the institution because they are women, and that their current job satisfied their career aspirations (82,9%). However, more than half of the sample (51,2%) confirmed that they did experience conflict between their work role and their role in home and family. An increasing number of career women are becoming disillusioned about handling the multiple demands of a job/career, children, and domestic chores. Career women are still at the crossroad, tossed between the family and a career and in search of the best way to combine the two roles in their life. Research on dual-career families suggest that working women have a hard time coping with the multiple roles (Chi-Ching, 1995). It is a consistent finding that those women, who regard both the home/family and work roles as important, are at risk for experiencing role conflict (Niles & Goodnough, 1996; Super, 1990).

When the thirteen career barrier scales of the current study were compared to that of the original sample (Swanson et al., 1996), the women academic respondents scored higher than the college student sample on all but the Difficulties with Networking/Socialisation barrier. This would support the contention that women academics experience significant barriers to their career development. Furthermore, moderate to strong correlations were evident between several barriers salient to the study. There was a significant direct

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relationship between Sex Discrimination and Racial Discrimination and between Sex Discrimination and Dissatisfaction with Career. Also, Multiple-role Conflict was directly related to Conflict between Children and Career Demands, and Dissatisfaction with Career. Interestingly no marital status and racial differences were found in the experience of barriers. However, caution should be exercised in interpreting the comparison of responses as the two groups (students and women academics) are obviously in different developmental stages of their career.

A study conducted with psychologists and managers helps to explain the relationship of perceived discrimination to an individual's reaction to the job and to the organisation. The results showed that both the level of and the reactions to perceived sex discrimination were stronger for women than for men (Gutex, Cohen, & Tsui, 1996). While workers in the study perceived relatively little sex discrimination, women perceived more discrimination against women than did men, and both sexes perceived more discrimination against women than discrimination against men (Gutex, Cohen, & Tsui, 1996).

Also, Swanson and Tokar (1991b) in their study with college students concluded that women were more concerned than men were about discrimination in the workplace and about children interfering with their career plans. While the type of career barriers perceived by Euro-American college students were essentially the same, there were gender differences in the salience of some of these barriers. Female respondents perceived discrimination and child rearing as greater barriers than did males (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b).

Women typically scored higher than men did on 7 of the 13 CBI-R scales indicating greater perceptions of barriers (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar, 1996). These results were corroborated by other research documenting greater perceptions of barriers by women than by men. Women were considerably more likely than men to cite family-related concerns as potential barriers to their career plans (Luzzo, 1995). The current study

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indicated that women academics perceived more barriers to their career advancement than college students of the standardisation sample, inspite of their more advanced stage of career development. This may indicate a more realistic appraisal of their experience in the world of work.

The present study indicated that the majority of women academics was not involved in academic activities e.g. the majority did not publish articles, delivered papers and attended conferences, which supports the above notion that they may reduce the time at work in an attempt to balance their dual roles. Findings that stress the tendency for women academics not to publish as prolifically as men may fail to take into account the various aspects of family responsibilities such as child caring. These domestic and family responsibilities have been traditionally allocated to women and impact on decisions of continued or discontinued employment and diminished productivity to varying degrees (Poiner & Temple, 1990). The present study indicated that very few women academics were involved with research that was not related to a further qualification. Despite women academics' commitment to a career, the literature suggests that aspects of their personal life inevitably impact on their approach to research. The fact that single women that live on their own with a housekeeper and no children still tend not to publish can be attributed to possible internalised oppression in response to the deep inquity of a gendered society. While constituting 29% of the permanent academics at the Peninsula Technikon, the female academics only produced 23,3% of the publications. Similarly, women academics at UWC in 1993 also only produced 10% of the publications of the University, despite constituting 35% of the permanent academics (Christie, 1993).

The women academics in the present study indicated that their career development has not been retarded, because they are women. However, the demographic research results indicated that more males than females occupied the more senior positions within the institution and were more readily promoted than females. From the research findings it was evident that women academics were either not represented at all or very poorly represented within the higher echelons of the institution. Where women academics did

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occupy the higher positions within the department they were still predominantly White. The findings indicated that African and Indian women academics were under-represented and that White women academics constituted almost half of the total women academics within the institution. The researcher speculates that women academics in the present study believed that they were appointed for their ability and not on the basis of their sex. Their self-efficacy beliefs lead them to disconfirm any institutional impediment to their career development.

However, more unobtrusive evaluations of their experience reported the salience of several barriers to their career development and advancement. The research findings indicated that the majority of the respondents experienced conflict between their role as academic and their role in home and family. The researcher speculates that their plans to combine family and career roles might not include consideration as to how that integration will occur or how their own priorities will be determined. This notion is explained by Fassinger's (1990) study in which subjects responded with clear affirmation when asked about the salience of career pursuits in their lives, but with less consistency when asked relative to family pursuits. It is acknowledged that many women in paid employment have two jobs and face a duality of roles that could result in conflict as they attempt to manage both situations. For some, the additional pressure is so marked that their role conflict is viewed consciously, and openly acknowledged as being a heavy burden to bear (Field & Bramwell, 1998). Although being in employment is associated with reported feelings of subjective well being the compounding effect of the 'multiple role conflict' can erode such feelings of well being. The research findings of the present study are supported by these findings by other researchers.

The majority of women academics was in their early forties, did not plan to have more children, have been with the institution for a long period, and was well established within their career. The researcher speculates that for these reasons they experienced role conflict only marginally. Women experience more conflict between home and employment when holding a low-status job than when occupying a high-status one, in

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spite of the heavy time and pressure demands of the latter (Nevill, 1978). Women academics in the present study occupied a high-status job, thus the researcher speculates that for this reason they only experienced role-conflict marginally. Or it could well be that the women academics adopted strategies such as reducing the time they spent at work in an attempt to lessen the pressure, a notion also supported by Field and Bramwell (1998).

Hypothesis 2:   Participation in the Work Role vs. Participation in the Home and Family Role

For this hypothesis the research hypothesis was accepted. Mixed findings by other researchers were experienced in terms of this hypothesis. In a study conducted with African-American students, females manifested greater participation in the role of home and family, whilst males evidenced greater participation in the work, however, the correlation was not significant (Naidoo, 1993). Similarly female adult students showed greater participation in home and family activities than did males in a study conducted with adult university students (Nevill & Super, 1986b). Perhaps due to the career development stage of these samples, the research findings did not support the results of the present study. The results of the present study confirmed that women academics at the institution experienced greater participation in the work role compared to the home and family role. Women academics are more consolidated in their careers therefore would likely evidence greater participation in the work role.

In a study conducted with blue-collar and professionals adult workers mixed findings were reported in terms of participation in the home and family role and the work role. Home became the most central area for blue-collar workers who viewed home as the dominant socialisation agent. Work became the most central area for professionals that viewed work as the dominant socialisation agent (Krau, 1989). The latter results supported the findings of the present study.

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Crozier (1990) examined life-role importance and its relationship to variables such as sex, age, marital status, and parental status. The relative importance (in descending order) of life roles for this sample of teachers was home and family, working, leisure activities, studying, and community service. The scores for the life roles of worker and homemaker were much higher than the three remaining life roles. The teachers in this study spent more time in the role of worker, but felt more emotionally committed to the home and family role. These results are consistent with the findings of the present study with women academics that experienced greater participation in the work role compared to the home and family role, but were more committed to the home and family role than to the work role.

The researcher speculates that the difference in results from previous studies could be that previous research was primarily conducted with high school and university students who are in a different career development stage. Especially for high school students the world-of-work seems remote, especially to those anticipating further education. However, the women academics in the present study, occupied permanent positions and the majority has been with the institution for a long period, thus their greater participation in the work role compared to home and family role. It is also assumed that because women academics in the present study are already exercising a career choice, they viewed work as the dominant socialisation agent, thus their greater participation in the work role compared to the home and family role.

Hypothesis 3: **Commitment to the Work Role vs. Commitment to the Home and Family Role**

For this hypothesis the research hypothesis was accepted. The results of this hypothesis confirmed that there was a significant difference among women academics between their commitment to the work role and commitment to home and family role. Although it was predicted that women academics in general have a stronger commitment to the work role

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than to the home and family role, women academics in the present study evidenced more commitment towards the role of home and family than to the work role.

The results of the present study were consistent with findings of other researchers. The findings of concurrent studies with university students (Nevill & Super, 1984) indicated that males and females did not differ in their relative commitment to work as opposed to home and family. Both male and female university students had a much greater commitment to home and family role than to work role (Nevill & Super, 1984). In a study conducted with African-American students, females showed more commitment to the work role compared to males. However, both females and males indicated greater commitment to home and family over work (Naidoo, 1993).

The results of the present study confirmed that women academics at the institution ranked home and family as being more salient than work. The researcher speculates that this could be because the majority of respondents were married with children and viewed home and family as a valued part of their lives. This notion is supported by a study done with adults (Nevill & Super, 1986b). The married respondents in their study indicated a stronger commitment to home and family activities than did the unmarried respondents. The average number of working years of women academics in the present study was eight years indicating that they were well established in a stable, permanent occupation. Also, their average age was forty-two years reflecting that they are past the establishment phase, are more consolidated in their careers and therefore view the home and family role as more salient than work at this stage of their lives. More actualisation may also be experienced in home and family than in the work role for women academics.

Contrary to the findings of the present study, the high-career women in a research study by Chi-Ching (1995) did not show signs of doubting or regretting their heavy commitment to the occupational role as they approached mid-life. These results did not support the observation by Hennig and Jardim (1978) and Hardesty and Jacob (1986) that women, who rejected traditional feminine roles to invest in their careers, experienced a

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re-evaluation of life-style as they approached mid-life. However, these high-career women were troubled by conflicts between work and family roles (Chi-Ching, 1995) as was the case with the women academics in the present study. That women academics ranked home and family as being more salient than work in terms of their commitment elucidates the role conflict experienced as they juggle the demands of home and family with the institution's expectations to perform their academic and research duties.

Hypothesis 4:   Value Expectation of the Work Role vs. Value Expectation of the Home and Family Role

For this hypothesis, the null hypothesis was retained. The findings indicated that there was no significant difference between value expectations of the work role and value expectations of the home and family role for women academics. Although it was predicted that professional women in general have higher value expectations of the work role than the home and family role, women academics in the present study evidenced no difference between the two roles. Betz and Hackett (1981) have proposed a woman's career development model, which might throw light on the above finding. Using Bandura's concept of self-efficacy expectations they proposed that women, as a result of their socialisation, "lack strong expectations of personal efficacy in relationship to many career-related behaviours and thus fail to fully realise their capabilities and talents in career pursuit" (pg. 326). Women do not see work as an outlet for personal value realisation to the same extent as men do. Thus higher levels of work commitment by women, as mentioned earlier, may be more related to feelings of responsibility or tendencies to persevere than to meeting personal needs, or they may instead reflect awareness of limited opportunities in non-traditional fields (Nevill & Super, 1988).

Mixed findings by other researchers were experienced in terms of this hypothesis. In a study conducted with university undergraduate students, female students did not expect to realise more values through work than did male university students, even though they were more committed to work than were males; perhaps also a manifestation of realism

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in their views of opportunities for women (Nevill & Super, 1988). These findings were confirmed by the present study.

Contrary to Nevill and Super's findings and findings of the present study, African-American university students were found to have greater value expectation from the home and family role than from the work role. However, the female students manifested greater value expectations in the role of home and family, while males had marginally higher expectations about the work role than the home and family role (Naidoo, 1993). This may be a manifestation of the increased role of women in the work place and the availability of more African-American female role models, compared to the South African situation.

In a study conducted by Veeder (1991), women in a group of MBA graduates reported significantly lower values expectations scores for the work role, compared to women who were enrolled in an MBA program at the time of the study. However, there were no significant differences related to scores on the commitment to work scale, despite the significant differences in value expectation scores. These findings raise questions concerning the actual experience of women in the world-of-work versus the perceptions of female students relative to what the world-of-work will be like once it is encountered. For example, are the lower value expectations for the working group a reflection of more realistic expectations regardless of gender? Or, are they a reflection of encounters with discriminatory practices in the workplace? Conversely, are the higher values expectations scores for the student group an indication of unrealistic expectations for the work experience (Niles & Goodnough, 1996).

SUMMARY

Women academics in the present study did not experience their career aspirations to be impeded expressing strong self-efficacy beliefs. However, they did experience more career barriers than college students. More unobtrusive evaluations of their experience, however, indicated the salience of several barriers to their career development and advancement. While women academics in the study indicated more participation in the work role, they felt more committed to the home and family role and appeared to have equal value expectations from the role of home and family and the work role.

5.1   IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY, RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

5.1.1   Theory

Early discussions of barriers were limited to literature describing the career development of women (Farmer, 1976; Fritzgerald & Crites, 1980). These early career theorists hypothesised barriers as explanatory concepts that might account for the gap between women's abilities and their achievements (Farmer, 1976) and interact to inhibit career aspirations among women (O'Leary, 1974). Studies have indicated that many personal, social, and situational factors contribute to women being underrepresented in the higher echelons of the academic hierarchy and experiencing more occupational barriers in their academic careers than males (Vasil, 1992). Luzzo (1995) concluded that women were considerably more likely than men to cite family-related concerns as potential barriers to their career plans. The women academics in the present study scored higher than the college students of the standardisation sample (Swanson et al., 1996) on all thirteen career barrier scales, but one. This would support the contention that the women academics experienced significant barriers to their career development, inspite of their more advanced stage of career development. Many professional women find themselves trying to satisfy the responsibilities of a demanding career and home-life. It remains to be seen whether the barriers experienced by women academics impact detrimentally on their

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participation, commitment and value expectations from the work role, thereby affecting their career advancement. The present study indicated that the majority of women academics did experience conflict between their work role and their role in home and family. Given the lack of clarity and cohesiveness in previous conceptualisations of an empirical approach to barriers, the application of an appropriate theoretical framework to future discussions of perceptions of career-related barriers could prove useful (Swanson & Tokar, 1996).

Role salience is a concept that has only recently caught the attention of vocational psychologists. Results of the present research provide a wealth of information about the role salience of women academics, confirming certain aspects of existing career development theory. Women at the career stage of consolidation do participate more in the work role even though they may feel greater committed to the role in home and family. The women academics in the present study placed greater salience in home and family than in the work role. It may well be that, for women academics at the institution, self-actualisation may find better expression in the role in home and family rather than in the formal work role (Burck & Reardon, 1984), whether it be due to job discrimination, sexism or racism (Freeman, 1979) experienced in the work place. More studies of the significance of role salience and managing multiple roles are needed to better understand the difficulties experienced by women in managing their career development.

5.1.2   Research

The application of social cognitive theory as a framework for the construct of barriers offers a new perspective on future research regarding barriers. Lent et al. (1994) provided numerous hypotheses regarding the effect of contextual influences on career interest development and career choice and performance behaviours. An important future direction for research on barriers is to test these hypotheses (Swanson & Tokar, 1996). An avenue for examining barriers regarding opportunity and support is to sample men and women who are in careers that are non-traditional for their sexes. Previous research

suggests that women in non-traditional careers differ from women in traditional careers in perceived barriers. Another future direction for research is to further understand the gender and racial differences reported in perceptions of barriers. Also the need to understand the double discrimination that Black women have experienced in the South African context is needed. Once again, social cognitive theory is a source of testable hypotheses for addressing these issues. In addition to explicating the role of barriers in the career choice process, future research should address the role of barriers in performance attainment, another aspect of the social cognitive model. Future research regarding barriers could also benefit from broadening the types of sample and subjects that are studied. Thus far samples have consisted entirely of college students in the USA and this raises the generalisability of the barriers construct as measured by the CBI-R. Little is known about perceptions of barriers for employed adults (Swanson & Tokar, 1996).

The present study with women academics only investigated work-role salience in terms of home and family and work. Following Super's (1980) model, the rest of the five major roles (student, worker, homemaker, citizen and leisurite) need to be studied to understand the factors impinging on the career-life of women academics. The process of career development should be viewed in the context of an individual's life-span and life-space (Super, 1980). Since previous research has been with high school and university students, the present study looked at work-role salience and the barriers that impacted on the career advancement of women academics. Further research should also contrast the career correlates of female academics with that of their male counterparts.

Also, the cumulative effects of working in a field perceived to be discriminatory toward women are not known, but deserve to be studied. Perceived discrimination may well derail some careers and lead women into switching organisations and/or careers in an attempt to find equal opportunity (Gutek, Cohen, & Tsui, 1966) and the space to juggle their multiple roles more effectively. These effects and adaptive behaviour beg further investigation.

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5.1.3   Practice

The results of this study hold several implications for career counselling. The construct of perceived career barriers has been increasingly recognised and useful explanatory variable in research regarding career choice. An understanding of factors that interfere with the career development process is important to career researchers and career counsellors who hope to assist their clients in overcoming these impediments. One such factor is people's perceptions of barriers to making and implementing career choices. Barriers may lead to circumscription and compromise in career decision making (Gottfredson, 1981). A career counsellor may want to assess whether a client has an awareness of barriers that he/she is likely to encounter and then address in counselling whether the client's perceptions match with the realities of the world of work. Further, a counsellor may want to know what barriers the client believes will hinder her/his career progress so that the counsellor can assist in developing strategies to overcome the barriers or find ways to help the client raise her/his self-efficacy for specific situations (Swanson & Tokar, 1996).

Counsellors should also recognise that some individuals may not view work as their highest commitment. Self-actualisation may be sought from other roles that an individual may play at that stage of his/her life (Naidoo, 1993). Career counselling in that situation must be directed toward either making work more meaningful through exploration of work life, as well as occupations, or addressing ways in which needs can be met through different life-roles (Nevill & Super, 1988).

Models of career development should explicitly recognise the interaction of career and relationship domains for both sexes. Any models failing to address how women blend the two domains in their lives do not represent women's reality accurately. Counsellors need to be aware of just how varied individual's blending can be, depending on whether they are married or single, intending to have children or not. Counsellors need to take the gendered context of the work environment more seriously in preparing clients for career

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transitions. Women entering male-dominated occupations may need preparation to cope with the work environment, not because they are "deficient", but because as women they may face unique problems. It is not alarmist to teach women how to recognise and handle possible sexual discrimination (Cook, 1993). Substantial research on role importance and on its relationship to educational, vocational and homemaking behaviour at various age and social levels is needed (Nevill & Super, 1988).

5.1.4   Limitations

The sample was drawn from an academic institution with a very small population (N = 73) of women academics. A sample of forty-three (58%) women academics completed the questionnaire, resulting in a relative low response rate. The thirty (42%) women academics who did not complete the questionnaire could possibly have skewed the final results. The four (9,3%) women academics that were appointed on a contract basis could also have influenced the results, as their conditions of employment could have been different and as such have influenced their commitment towards their work role. Additionally, that the majority of the sample (83%) has not been promoted since being employed at the institution may also have influenced their commitment to their work role.

This study may be limited in its generalisability to a female academic population other than the academic institution where the study was conducted. The replication of the present study with another academic institution with a female academic population would contribute much towards confirming the results of the present study. The study was also quantitative in nature. Further qualitative research is needed to better understand how women academics integrate their multiple roles. Despite the limitations, the results of the present study confirmed previous theoretical speculation, as well as suggest that perceptions of barriers warrant continued research.

5.2   CONCLUSION

The emergence of the dual-career family consequent upon the entry of women into the work force has exposed the myth of the separation of the work and family spheres (Kanter, 1977). As the traditional family with the wife as the homemaker and child caretaker becomes a vestige of the past, the myth of the separation of work and family has now been replaced by the reality of what Pleck (1977) labels the "work-family system." Much of the research on the relationship between work and family has been somewhat negative in that it tends to emphasise the dysfunctional consequences of work-family interactions (Greenhaus, 1989). Bielby (1992, p. 283) argued that: "Work and family are more than just complications, they are sources of meaning and identity to which women balance commitment. An adequate understanding of the work-family interface requires attention to the processes by which these commitments are built and sustained." This suggests a distributional dimension of commitment – allocation of time and energy among competing activities based on the salience of that activity to one's identity (Arye & Luk, 1996).

The scarcity perspective argues that individuals do not have sufficient energy and time to fulfil their role obligations and hence, can only build commitment to one role at the expense of other, either family or role committed but not dually committed (Arye & Luk, 1996). In contrast, the multiplicity perspective asserts that individuals make time and are able to generate enough energy in role behaviours to which they are committed (Marks, 1977). The scarcity and multiplicity views do not, however, explain how women allocate time and resources to their work and family roles. This is because neither perspective took into account the sociocultural context within which women function. There is no cultural congruence between a woman's family role and work role. A woman who takes on the work role in addition to her family role must trade-off one identity for the other. Barnett and Baruch (1987, p. 135) argue: "The weight of social sanctions and the low probability that women can trade-off to their husbands or children, aspects of the wife and mother roles reduce the likelihood for successful negotiation between their workplace and

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non-workplace roles. It thus appears that women have fewer options than do men to achieve control over competing role demands." Women may not be able to simultaneously develop a work and family identity as they are culturally mandated to give priority to the family and household responsibilities (Arye & Luk, 1996). The work-family trade-off required by women and the minimal involvement of men in the family role suggests a redefinition of the cultural values that underpin the operation of the work-family system. The integration of work and family in ways that will contribute meaning to the lives of individuals (Bielby, 1992) will ultimately require "the development of a new model of the work role and a new model for the boundary between work and family" (Pleck, 1977).

While the need for further exploration of the developmental nature of work-role salience has been recognised (Nevill & Super, 1986), research is generally lacking in the area of academic environment and has received limited attention in South Africa to date (Watson & Stead, 1990). Future studies could investigate the perception of barriers among women in academia and examine the reciprocal interaction of work and family roles (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). As Rose (1982: p. 52) posits "…women still do not fit in 'naturally'… (*in the world of academia and research*), the style of discourse is male, as is the way of relating on a very cognitive, impersonal level about issues that one may feel passionate about. That the rules of the academic game have been defined by men, and that women feel profoundly outside… is a fact that is often lost sight of by progressive as well as conservative male academics, and even sometimes by women who have succeeded in making inroads into the mainstream academic life…" Notwithstanding the aforementioned obstacles facing women, women academics have come to occupy a significant presence in the contribution they make to tertiary education (Van der Merwe, Amosun, Butler, Kunneke, & Naidoo, 1999).

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APPENDIX A

Table 1   **Distribution of Women Academics per Department**

Faculty - Department	Frequency	Percent
Engineering - Building	3	7,0
Engineering - Info-technology	1	2,3
Engineering - Electrical	2	4,7
Communication	7	16,3
Engineering - Fashion Design	1	2,3
Business - Human Resources	1	2,3
Business - Commercial - Administration	3	7,0
Business - Info-technology	2	4,7
Business - Marketing	1	2,3
Science - Health Sciences	3	7,0
Science - Radiography	11	25,6
Science - Adult Basic Education	3	7,0
Science - Education	2	4,7
Science - Physical Sciences	2	4,7
Science - Dental Services	1	2,3
Total	43	100,0

Table 2   **Cross-Tabulation of Highest Educational Level by Race Classification**

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	RACE CLASSIFICATION				
Count Row Percent Column Percent % of Total	African	Coloured	White	Indian	Row Total
Diploma	0	1 100,0% 5,9% 2,3%	0	0	1 2,3%
Higher Diploma	0	5 50,0% 29,4% 11,6%	5 50,5% 23,8% 11,6%	0	10 23,3%
Technikon Degree	0	1 25,0% 5,9% 2,3%	3 75,0% 14,3% 7,0%	0	4 9,3%
University Degree	0	4 50,0% 23,5% 9,3%	3 37,5% 14,3% 7,0%	1 12,5% 100,0% 2,3%	8 18,6%
Honours Degree	2 33,3% 50,0% 4,7%	4 66,7% 23,5% 9,3%	0	0	6 14,0%
M. Degree	2 16,7% 50,0% 4,7%	2 16,7% 11,8% 4,7%	8 66,7% 38,1% 18,6%	0	12 27,9%
Doctoral Degree	0	0	2 100,0% 9,5% 4,7%	0	2 4,7%
Column Total	4 9,3%	17 39,5%	21 48,8%	1 2,3%	43 100,0%

Table 3   Cross-Tabulation of Level of Position by Race Classification

LEVEL OF POSITION	RACE CLASSIFICATION				
Count Row Percent Column Percent % of Total	African	Coloured	White	Indian	Row Total
Junior Lecturer	0	2 100,0% 11,8% 4,7%	0	0	2 4,7%
Lecturer	4 11,4% 100,0% 9,3%	13 37,1% 76,5% 30,2%	17 48,6% 81,0% 39,5%	1 2,9% 100,0% 2,3%	35 81,4%
Senior Lecturer	0	2 50,0% 11,8% 4,7%	2 50,0% 9,5% 4,7%	0	4 9,3%
Departmental Head	0	0	2 100,0% 9,5% 4,7%	0	2 4,7%
Column Total	4 9,3%	17 39,5%	21 48,8%	1 2,3%	43 100,0%

Table 4   **Has your career development at Pentech been impeded/retarded because you are a woman? Cross-Tabulation by Marital Status and Race Classification**

Count Row percent Column percent % of Total	MARITAL STATUS			RACE CLASSIFICATION		
	Single	Married	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total
Yes	1 14,3% 10,0% 2,8%	6 85,7% 23,1% 16,7%	7 19,4%	5 62,5% 26,3% 13,5%	3 37,5% 16,7% 8,1%	8 21,6%
No	9 33,3% 90,0% 25,0%	18 66,7% 69,2% 50,0%	27 75,0%	14 51,9% 73,7% 37,8%	13 48,1% 72,2% 35,1%	27 73,0%
Uncertain	0	2 100,0% 7,7% 5,6%	2 5,6%	0	2 100,0% 11,1% 5,4%	2 5,4%
Column Total Missing observations	10 27,8%	26 72,2%	36 100,0% 7	19 51,4%	18 48,6%	37 100,0% 6

Table 5   **Does your Current Job meet your Career Aspiration?**
Cross-Tabulation by Marital Status and Race Classification

Count Row percent Column percent % of Total	MARITAL STATUS			RACE CLASSIFICATION		
	Single	Married	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total
Not at all	1 100,0% 12,5% 2,5%	0	1 2,5%	0	1 100,0%	1 2,4%
To some extent	3 21,4% 37,5% 7,5%	11 78,6% 34,4% 27,5%	14 35,0%	8 53,3% 40,0% 19,5%	7 46,7% 33,3% 17,1%	15 36,6%
Moderately	3 15,8% 37,5% 7,5%	16 84,2% 50,0% 40,0%	19 47,5%	9 47,4% 45,0% 22,0%	10 52,6% 47,6% 24,4%	19 46,3%
Entirely	1 16,7% 12,5% 2,5%	5 83,3% 15,6% 12,5%	6 15,0%	3 50,0% 15,0% 7,3%	3 50,0% 14,3% 7,3%	6 14,6%
Column Total Missing observations	8 20,0%	32 80,0%	40 100,0% 3	20 48,8%	21 51,2%	41 100,0% 2

Table 6   **Do your experience Conflict/Tension between your Role as Academic and your Role in Home and Family? Cross-Tabulation by Marital Status and Race Classification**

Count Row percent Column percent % of Total	MARITAL STATUS			RACE CLASSIFICATION		
	Single	Married	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total
Yes	5 22,7% 50,0% 11,9%	17 77,3% 53,1% 40,5%	22 52,4%	8 36,4% 36,4% 18,6%	14 63,6% 66,7% 32,6%	22 51,2
No	5 25,0% 50,0% 11,9%	15 75,0% 46,9% 35,7%	20 47,6%	14 66,7% 63,6% 32,6%	7 33,3% 33,3% 16,3%	21 48,8%
Column Total Missing observations	10 23,8%	32 76,2%	42 100,0% 1	22 51,2%	21 48,8%	43 100,0%

Table 7   **To what extent does this Role Conflict/Tension affect you? Cross-Tabulation by Marital Status and Race Classification**

Count Row percent Column percent % of Total	MARITAL STATUS			RACE CLASSIFICATION		
	Single	Married	Row Total	Black	White	Row Total
Not at all	5 29,4% 50,0% 11,9%	12 70,6% 37,5% 28,6%	17 40,5%	12 66,7% 54,5% 27,9%	6 33,3% 28,6% 14,0%	18 41,9%
To some extent	3 23,1% 30,0% 7,1%	10 76,9% 31,3% 23,8%	13 31,0%	5 38,5% 22,7% 11,6%	8 61,5% 38,1% 18,6%	13 30,2%
Moderately	2 25,0% 20,0% 4,8%	6 75,0% 18,8% 14,3%	8 19,0%	4 50,0% 18,2% 9,3%	4 50,0% 19,0% 9,3%	8 18,6%
Severely	0	4 100,0% 12,5% 9,5%	4 9,5%	1 25,0% 4,5% 2,3%	3 75,0% 14,3% 7,0%	4 9,3%
Column Total Missing observations	10 23,8%	32 76,2%	41 100,0% 1	22 51,2%	21 48,8%	43 100,0%
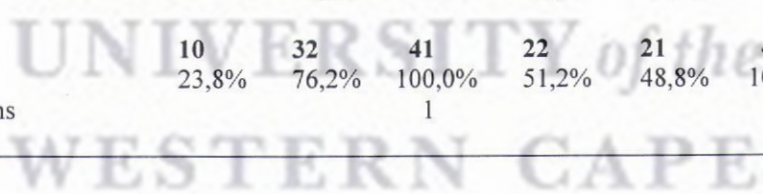
APPENDIX B

Research questionnaire distributed to the sample of women academics at Peninsula Technikon

Dear Colleagues

RESEARCH: **FACTORS IMPEDING THE CAREER ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN AT THE PENINSULA TECHNIKON**

I hereby wish to solicit your vital contribution in the completion of my Master's research work. The aim of the study is to determine the factors that impede the career advancement/upward mobility of women at the institution. The Peninsula Technikon statistics (January 1999) indicates that out of a total of 224 academics, only 66 (29 %) are females. It also indicates that out of a total of 17 HOD, only 2 (12 %) are females and out of a total of 47 senior lecturers, only 9 (19 %) are females.

The objectives of the study are the following:

❑ To determine whether women at the institution experience any difficulty in balancing career and family demands

❑ To determine the barriers that impact on the career advancement of women at the institution

While permission has been granted for doing the research within the institution, I am dependent on your input as women academics at the Peninsula Technikon to be able to research these important issues. Hopefully the outcome of this study will improve the career development of women at the institution.

After completion of the study, the research findings will be presented to the Technikon academics. A written synopsis of the research findings will be gladly made available to you on request by January 2000.

It is understandable that you might be concerned about what happens to this information, as much of it may be highly personal. The information acquired will be treated as **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL** and will only be used for the research purpose. You will **not** be required to write your name on the questionnaire and all data will be kept completely **anonymous**.

The questionnaire consists of four sections. To make things easy, only a cross (x) is needed to answer the questions. It might be best to complete the questionnaire in one sitting. After completion of the questionnaire, could you kindly leave it in a sealed envelope with the Dean's secretary; alternatively you could send it via internal mail to me in a sealed envelope at the address below.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ANSWERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer each question to the best of your ability. Do not write your name on the questionnaire. Indicate your most appropriate choice with a cross (X) in the block(s) as required for each statement or question.

It will be appreciated if you could return the questionnaire by **23 JULY 1999**.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR TAKING THE TIME AND TROUBLE TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

Charmaine May   HR/Accounting Department   Telephone: 959-6529
Business Faculty   Education Building   E-mail: mayc@edunet

PLEASE ANSWER IN THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK(S)

1. **Please indicate your age** | Years |

2. **Race in term of previous dispensation**

African	Coloured	White	Indian	Other (please specify)

3. **Current marital status**

Single (never married)	Single (divorced, widowed, separated)	Married/ living together

4. **Number of children in household**

None	One	Two	Three	Four	Four +

5. **Do you plan to have any/more children?** | Yes | No |

6. **Highest educational level**

Dipl	H. Dipl	Tech Degree	Univ Degree	Hon Degree	M. Degree M. Tech	D. Degree D. Tech

7. **Faculty**

Science	Engineering	Business

8. **Are you a full time or contract/part-time lecturer?**

Full-time	Contract/Part-time

9. **Indicate in which department you are located** e.g. Accounting

10. **Indicate in which program(s) you lecture** e.g. Communication; Commercial Administration

11. **Level of position**

Junior Lecturer	Lecturer	Senior Lecturer	Dept Head	Ass Dean	Dean

12. **Working years at institution** | Years |

13. **Working years in present position** | Years |

14. **Working years in previous position at Pentech** | Years |

15. **Number of promotions since being at Pentech**

None	1	2	3	4	5+

16. **Indicate in which _academic_ program(s) you lecture/supervise _within_ your department**

Dipl/ H.Dipl	B.Tech	M.Tech	D.Tech

17. **Indicate in which _academic_ program(s) you lecture/supervise _outside_ your department**

Dipl/ H.Dipl	B.Tech	M.Tech	D.Tech	Other

18. **Lecturing in _academic_ programs _outside_ the Technikon (currently or in the past)**

Yes	No

19. **Involved in _other_ programs (e.g. training, workshops, etc.) _at_ Pentech (currently or in the past)**

Yes	No

20.	Involved in *other* programs (e.g. training, workshop, etc.) *outside* Pentech (currently or in the past)					Yes	No

21.	Number of males in senior positions within your department/program	None	1	2	3	4	5+

22.	Number of females in senior positions within your department/program	None	1	2	3	4	5+

23.	Number of males you 'supervise'	None	1	2	3	4	5+

24.	Are you a chairperson of a committee(s) *at* Pentech?					Yes	No

25.	Are you a chairperson of a professional committee(s) *outside* Pentech?				Yes	No

26.	Have you published articles in accredited journals?	None	1	2	3	4+

27.	Other publications (manuals, course readers)?	None	1	2	3	4+

28.	Books published	None	1	2	3	4+

29.	Papers delivered at *international* conferences	None	1	2	3	4+

30.	Papers delivered at *national* conferences	None	1	2	3	4+

31.	*International* conferences attended since employed at Pentech	None	1	2	3	4+

32.	*National* conferences attended since employed at Pentech	None	1	2	3	4+

33.	Staff or professional development programmes attended since joining Pentech	None	1	2	3	4+

34.	Presently involved with studies (diploma/degree/post graduate)					Yes	No

35.	Presently involved with research (not degree related)					Yes	No

36.	Have you used any opportunity for study leave?					Yes	No

37.	Does your current job meet your career aspiration?	Not at all	To some extent	Moderately	Entirely

38.	Has your career development at Pentech been impeded/retarded because you are a woman?					Yes	No

39. **Please explain briefly.**

40.	Do you experience conflict or tension between your role as academic and your role in your home and family?					Yes	No

41.	To what extent does this role conflict/tension affect you?	Not at all	To some extent	Moderately	Severely

SECTION B

CAREER BARRIERS INVENTORY

A 'barrier' is a factor that interferes with progress in your job or career plans. Barriers can be "external" or "internal". External barriers are found in the environment – for example, job discrimination. Internal barriers are more psychological in nature – for example, low self-esteem. These barriers may occur regarding your choice of career, in finding a job, while you are working in your job or career, or in how you balance your career with other aspects of your life.

For each of the common barriers listed below, think about how much it would **hinder your career progress**. In other words, how much would this barrier interfere with your career progress or make your progress difficult? Mark your answer, using the following scale.

would not hinder at all		would hinder somewhat				would completely hinder
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Unsure of my career goals. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

2. Needing to take time off work when children are sick or on school breaks. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

3. Experiencing racial discrimination in hiring for a job. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

4. Needing to relocate because of my spouse's/partner's job. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

5. Changing my mind again and again about my career plans. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

6. Having a disability which limits my choice of careers. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

7. Discrimination by employer because I have, or plan to have, children. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

8. Unsure of how to "sell myself" to an employer. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

9. Becoming bored with my job/career. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

10. Being discouraged from pursuing fields which are non-traditional for my sex (e.g., engineering for women). `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

11. Feeling a conflict between my job and my family (spouse and/or children). `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

12. Having a boss or supervisor who is biased against people of my racial/ethnic group. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

13. Experiencing problems with my health that interfere with my job/career. `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

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would not hinder at all			would hinder somewhat			would completely hinder
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Unsure of my work-related values. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

15. Allowing my spouse's desire for children to take precedence over my career goals. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

16. Difficulty in finding a job due to a tight job market. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

17. Feeling pressure to "do it all" – expected to do well as parent, spouse, career person, etc. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

18. Not feeling confident about my ability on the job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

19. Not being able to find good day-care services for my children. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

20. My spouse/partner doesn't approve of my choice of job/career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

21. Not feeling confident about myself in general. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

22. Not wanting to relocate for my job/career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

23. Feeling guilty about working while my children are young. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

24. Experiencing racial harassment on the job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

25. Experiencing discrimination in hiring for a job because I have a disability. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

26. Not being paid as much as co-workers of the opposite sex. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

27. Being undecided about what job/career I would like. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

28. Stress at home (spouse or children) affecting my performance at work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

29. Lacking the required personality traits for my job (e.g. assertiveness). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

30. Disappointed in my career progress (e.g. not receiving promotions as often as I would like. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

31. Other people's belief that certain careers are not appropriate for people of my sex. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

32. Losing interest in my job/career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

would not hinder at all			would hinder somewhat		would completely hinder	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

33. Difficulty in re-entering job market after taking time off to care for my children. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

34. Difficulty in planning my career due to changes in the economy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

35. Lacking the required skills for my job (e.g. communication, leadership, decision-making). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

36. Experiencing racial discrimination in promotions in job/career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

37. Difficulty in maintaining the ground gained at my job after having children. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

38. Not being sure how to choose a career direction. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

39. Unsure of what my career alternatives are. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

40. Conflict between marriage/family plans and my career plans. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

41. Lack of maturity interferes with my career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

42. Not having a role model or mentor at work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

43. Experiencing sex discrimination in hiring for a job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

44. Not receiving support from my spouse/partner. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

45. Having low self-esteem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

46. Discrimination due to my marital status. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

47. My parents/family don't approve of my choice of job/career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

48. Having a boss or supervisor who is biased against people of my sex. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

49. People of the opposite sex receive promotions more often than people of my sex. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

50. No opportunities for advancement in my career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

51. Not being paid as much as co-workers of another racial/ethnic group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

52. My belief that certain careers are not appropriate for me because of my sex. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

53. Having children at a "bad time" in my career plans. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

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would not hinder at all			would hinder somewhat			would completely hinder
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

54. People of other racial/ethnic groups receive promotions more often than people of my racial/ethnic group.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

55. Lacking information about possible jobs/careers.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

56. The outlook for future employment in my field is not promising.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

57. Being dissatisfied with my job/career.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

58. Unable to deal with physical or emotional demands of my job.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

59. Unsure of what I want out of life.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

60. Having an inflexible work schedule that interferes with my family responsibilities.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

61. Unsure of how to advance in my career.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

62. Lacking the necessary educational background for the job I want.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

63. Experiencing sexual harassment on the job.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

64. Fear that people will consider me "unfeminine" because my job/career is non-traditional for my sex.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

65. Not knowing the "right people" to get ahead in my career.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

66. Lacking the necessary hands-on experience for the job I want.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

67. Lack of opportunities for people of my sex in non-traditional fields.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

68. No demand for my area of training/education.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

69. Stress at work affecting my life at home.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

70. My friends don't approve of my choice of job/career.   `1 2 3 4 5 6 7`

(The Career Barriers Inventory developed by Prof. Jane L Swanson)

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THE LIFE ROLE INVENTORY

The Life Role Inventory deals with the meaning you attach to important kinds of activities. Please only respond to the three categories, **Home and Family, Working, and Studying**. The questionnaire consists of sections, **Participation, Commitment** and **Value Expectations**. Please complete all sub-sections of a question i.e. mark all sub-sections with a **cross (x)** e.g.

See Test Booklet: The Life Role Inventory, Langley (1990).