AFRICAN WOMEN AS EFFECTIVE MANAGERS IN THE FREE STATE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT: ADDRESSING PERFORMANCE DETERMINANTS

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree

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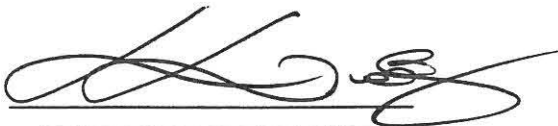Promoter: Prof A.J. Geldenhuys   D. Administrationis
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BLOEMFONTEIN
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DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENT WORK

I, LIEZEL LUES, do hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Technikon Free State for the degree DOCTOR TECHNOLOGIAE: PUBLIC MANAGEMENT, is my own independent work that has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

_____   28 January 2003

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT   DATE

This study is dedicated to my late mother, whose support, love and faith in me will remain with me always, as a lasting legacy.

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Summary

Change is a process which, although feared and resisted by many, is unfortunately often inevitable. South Africa, with all its diversity, was no exception, and had to experience its fair share of change with the quantum leap from an Apartheid regime to a democratic government where equality reigns supreme. Democracy in South Africa has brought many benefits, particularly for previously disadvantaged citizens such as African women, who until 1994 had never experienced westernised democracy as professional women in South Africa.

Several mechanisms in the South African areas of government and academia have paved the way for African women to enter the labour force as managers in the past decade. Legislation was one area in which gender equality was aggressively promoted. However, it soon became apparent that legislation *per se* would not be enough to ensure the level of equality that these professional women had hoped for. Several factors influenced the lives and performance of African women managers. This study focused on cultural history, demographic variables and certain operational factors as areas which have had an influence on African women managers in respect of their ability to perform effectively and to deliver effective services.

Although it is true that cherished cultures and traditions can enrich a country, some traditions have a detrimental effect on advancement of any kind and should rather be changed so as to benefit all individuals belonging to a certain culture. Examples of such traditions include the customary law, in terms of which an African woman immediately reverted to the status of a minor after marriage, and the "ubuntu" principle, which fosters collective group identity and emotional dependence. These two traditions have undeniably influenced the effective functioning of African women managers negatively. This study has touched on the effect of several of these customary practices, as well as the impact of legislation that was passed after the 1994 elections. Through this investigation, it became evident that a major breakthrough has nevertheless been made regarding the rights and status of professional African women.

A survey questionnaire targeting the 79 African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration was conducted. This was followed by a focus group discussion amongst eight participant from the original sample, as a supporting method of data collection. On a demographic level, significant information was derived from the research. It became apparent that African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration functioned independently in the social, economic and professional spheres of their lives. The respondents were all well educated, financially independent, career-orientated and valued having children of their own. They preferred a lifestyle that would fulfil their needs, while also contributing to the enhancement of their skills and effectiveness as professional women.

In the work environment, African women managers experienced factors that influenced their managerial effectiveness both negatively and positively. It was apparent that not all of them were involved in crucial managerial actions that would normally be expected of them; and also that they were sometimes still deliberately denied exposure as managers. This resulted in a lack of basic managerial skills, such as change management, on the part of African women managers. On the positive side, they all had confidence in their judgement and competence to function effectively; but indicated that they wished to enhance their managerial skills.

Following the findings of the survey and focus group an appraisal model was firstly introduced, in order to measure the performance of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration by means of a competency checklist. This model makes it possible for the African woman manager to evaluate her own performance and also enables the institution, in turn, to measure her managerial effectiveness in terms of the key performance areas stipulated in the checklist. Secondly, the research proposes a quality assurance model to i) provide standards of service excellence for the measurement and subsequent improvement of the actual level of managerial competence within the institution; and ii) create an integrated human resource skills development framework for managers. Both these models aim to create mechanisms to enhance the managerial effectiveness of the African woman manager and the quality of service delivery of the institution as continuously demanded by a democratic dispensation.

OPSOMMING

Verandering is 'n proses wat, alhoewel dit deur verskeie persone gevrees word, dikwels onvermydelik is. Suid-Afrika met sy diversiteit is geen uitsondering nie, en moes omvattende veranderinge ondergaan in sy sprong vanaf 'n Apartheidsbewind na 'n demokratiese regering waar gelykheid seëvier. Demokrasie in Suid-Afrika het omvangryke voordele meegebring, veral vir voorheen benadeelde burgers soos Swart vroue, wat tot en met 1994 nie westerse demokrasie as professionele vroue in Suid-Afrika beleef het nie.

Verskeie meganismes in die Suid Afrikaanse regering en die akademie het die weg gebaan vir Swart vroue om die arbeidsmark oor die afgelope dekade te betree. Wetgewing was een area waarbinne geslagsgelykheid ekstensief bemark is. Dit het egter spoedig duidelik geword dat wetgewing opsigself nie genoegsaam is om die vlak van gelykheid teweeg te bring waarvoor hierdie vroue gehoop het nie. Verskeie faktore oefen 'n invloed uit op die lewens en werkverrigting van Swart vrouebestuurders. In hierdie studie is gefokus op die areas van kulturele geskiedenis, demografiese veranderlikes en sekere bedryfsfaktore wat 'n invloed op Swart vrouebestuurders uitoefen in soverre dit hulle werkverrigting- en diensleweringvermoë aangaan.

Alhoewel dit waar is dat gekoesterde kulture en tradisies 'n land kan verryk, het sommige tradisies 'n afbrekende invloed op vooruitgang van enige soort, en moet sodanige tradisies en kulture eerder verander word om tot voordeel van alle individue wat aan 'n sekere kultuurgroep behoort, te strek. Voorbeelde van sodanige tradisies sluit gewoontereg, in terme waarvan 'n Swart vrou direk nadat sy in die huwelik getree het, verlaag word tot die status van 'n minderjarige, en die "ubuntu"-beginsel, wat gesamentlike groepsidentiteit en emosionele afhanklikheid aanmoedig, in. Hierdie twee beginsels het ongetwyfeld die doeltreffende funksionering van Swart vrouebestuurders in die algemeen, maar ook in die openbare sector spesifiek, negatief beïnvloed. Hierdie studie het verskeie van hierdie gewoontepraktykte aangeraak, sowel as die impak van wetgewing wat ná die 1994-verkiesing in werking getree het. Deur hierdie ondersoek het dit duidelik geword dat daar

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nietemin 'n groot deurbraak gemaak is met betrekking tot die regte en status van professionele Swart vroue.

'n Vraelys-opname met 79 Swart vrouebestuurders in die Vrystaatse Provinsiale Administrasie as teiken, is uitgevoer. Dit is opgevolg deur 'n fokusgroep bespreking onder agt deelnemers vanaf die oorspronklike steekproef ten einde die metode van data-insameling aan te vul. Op demografiese vlak is betekenisvolle inligting uit die navorsing ingewin. Dit was duidelik dat Swart vrouebestuurders in die Vrystaatse Provinsiale Administrasie onafhanklik funksioneer in die sosiale, ekonomiese en professionele sfere van hulle lewens. Die respondente het almal 'n goeie vlak van opleiding, is finansieel onafhanklik, beroepsgeoriënteerd en heg waarde aan die feit dat hulle kinders van hulle eie het. Hulle verkies 'n lewensstyl wat hulle behoeftes aanspreek, en terselfdertyd bydra tot die uitbouiing van hulle vaardighede en doeltreffendheid as professionele vroue.

In die werksomgewing ondervind Swart vrouebestuurders egter verskeie faktore wat hulle bestuursdoeltreffendheid beide positief en negatief beïnvloed. Dit het uit die studie geblyk dat nie almal van hulle in belangrike bestuursaksies betrokke is wat in die reël van hulle verwag sou word nie, en dat hulle steeds soms opsetlik blootstelling as bestuurders geweier word. Dit gee aanleiding tot 'n gebrek aan basiese bestuursvaardighede soos onder meer veranderingsbestuur. Swart vroue toon egter vertroue in hulle oordeel en vermoë om doeltreffend te funksioneer, maar het wel aangedui dat hulle bestuursvaardighede kan verbeter.
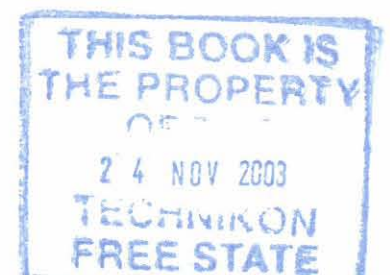
Op grond van die bevindinge van die opname en die fokusgroep, is 'n beoordelingsmodel is in die eerste plek bekendgestel ten einde die werkverrigting van Swart vrouebestuurders in die Openbare Sektor deur middel van 'n vaardigheidsoorsiglys te meet. Hierdie model maak dit vir Swart vrouebestuurders moontlik om hulle eie werkverrigting te meet, en stel ook die instansie waarvoor hulle werk in staat om bestuursdoeltreffendheid te meet in terme van die sleutelprestasie-areas wat in die oorsiglys gestipuleer word. Tweedens stel die navorsing 'n kwaliteitversekeringsmodel voor om: i) standaarde vir diensuitnemendheid te verskaf, vir die meting en gevolglike verbetering van die ware vlak van bestuursvaardigheid binne die instelling, en ii) om 'n geïntegreerde menslike hulpbron-vaardigheidsontwikkelingsraamwerk vir bestuurders tot stand

te bring. Beide hierdie modelle is daarop gemik om praktiese meganismes te skep ten einde bestuursdoeltreffendheid van die Swart vrouebestuurder in die Openbare Sektor en die kwaliteit van dienslewering van die instelling te verbeter, soos deurlopend in 'n demokratiese bestel vereis word.

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ACRONYMS

ASD	-	Alternative Service Delivery
CODESA	-	Conference for a Democratic South Africa
CEDAW	-	Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women
CGE	-	Commission for Gender Equality
DPSA	-	Department of Public Service Administration
EAP	-	Employee assistance programme
GEAR	-	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
HIV	-	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
MEC	-	Member of the Executive Council
NQF	-	National Qualifications Framework
NPSAC	-	National Public Sector Anti-Corruption Conference
OSW	-	Office on the Status of Women
PPM	-	Provincial public manager
SAMDI	-	South African Management and Development Institute
PSETA	-	Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority
PSC	-	Public Service Commission
RDP	-	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RPL	-	Recognition of prior learning
SADC	-	Southern African Development Community
SAQA	-	South African Qualifications Authority
SETA	-	Sector Education and Training Authority
SDA	-	Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998
SDIP	-	Service Delivery Improvement Plan
WBI	-	Women's Budget Initiative

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION: OVERVIEW, DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY FIELD AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.1   INTRODUCTION

In 1956 African women came together in Pretoria to protest against the pass legislation whilst singing the following well-known words: "Wathint abafazi, wathint imbokodo. Uzokufa", meaning: "You have tampered with women. You have struck a rock, you will be crushed" (Truter, 2001 (a):18 and Department of the Premier, 2002 (d):5). Ironically enough, although African women have, on many levels, formed the backbone of the struggle for freedom in South Africa, they are nowadays entangled in a totally new struggle – the one for recognition in a previously male-dominated, racist and sexist society. A network of structures to promote the emancipation and empowerment of women, both within and independently of government, has emerged during the past decade in South Africa. The political struggle of both women and men against Apartheid in South Africa, as well as women's persistent endeavours to have their concerns included in the constitution-making process, had a major impact on transformation. Through these attempts, a strong women's movement has emerged that has been actively campaigning for the inclusion of women in, for example, governmental decision-making, policy–making and structures (Albertyn, 1994:5). This struggle has led the way for political recognition of gender equality.

There are considerably more women than men in South Africa who live in poverty and who lack access to basic human rights such as education and health care (Department of Welfare, 2000:On-line). Persisting socio-cultural systems and beliefs from the Apartheid era prevent women from benefiting from legislation that has been put in place to address their circumstances (Department of Welfare, 2000:On-line). Despite the fact that the **Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act, Act 108 of 1996,** guarantees every citizen equality before the law, customary law is still upheld and women living under this system still cannot enjoy equality as stipulated and intended in the Constitution (Erwee, 1986:177 and Flood, Hoosain, & Primo, 1997:31).

The public sector with its various governmental institutions has led the way for the introduction of women into the professional and managerial echelons and has thus been the core of sweeping changes. Prior to 1994 a typical South African governmental institution had a substantial substructure with a large number of poorly educated and unskilled African men and women in lower positions, whilst the higher structure was dominated by a few white male managers (Abrahams, 1997:3 and Moahloli, 1997:31). The extent of interaction and communication between these two groups was minimal, as the top structure made decisions whilst the lower structure merely had to execute these decisions. In these public institutions one would find a number of white women working in close association with the managers (predominantly white males), but all of these women occupied "dead-end" posts. Irrespective of their inputs, value, skills and education they would rarely step into the manager's shoes or be promoted to higher posts (Lillicrap, 1987:23 and Abrahams, 1997:27).

According to Santho, by 1995, 87% of the management echelon in the Free State Provincial Administration consisted of males, whilst only 13% of managerial staff were female. Santho (1995:50) furthermore concluded that a database concerning women employed in the Provincial Administration should be managed in terms of future potential, promotion and advancement, and that gender-awareness training should be conducted amongst managers and policy-makers. It was evident during 1995 and earlier that, in particular, African, coloured and Asian females were considerably under-represented at managerial level; and therefore the Provincial Administration had to recruit, select and develop a larger number of suitably qualified women with a view to placing them in managerial positions (Santho, 1995:14 and Flood et al., 1997:22).

In order to counteract under-representation of women in managerial positions, the public sector proposed that guidance services, advertisements and employment agencies should encourage women to take up careers or professions traditionally considered to be male territory (Albertyn & White, 1994:100). In addition, the implementation of affirmative action programmes assisted this process, as these programmes were aimed at developing disadvantaged women and increasing diversity in respect of experience and talent (Santho, 1995:38; **Affirmative Action Act, Act 66 of 1995:12** and Sunday Times, 2002:2). The process of recruiting and training women

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for senior management posts was recently further emphasised by the Minister of Public Service and Administration, who cautioned the Private Sector that the Public Service would boast the most highly qualified women managers in the near future (Volksblad, 2001:4).

In 1997, statistics indicated that although women accounted for 49% of the Public Service, a mere 11% of the 38% component of black managers occupying directors' posts or even more senior positions, were women (SA: White Paper on Human Resource Management, 1997 (a):25). Although the percentage of women in senior management positions (salary levels 13 to 15) in the Public Service had increased to 16% by the year 2001, this still fell short of the 30% mandated by the Transformation Policy (SA: White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995:104; SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line and Volksblad, 2001:4). Therefore it is evident that African women continue to be significantly under-represented in managerial positions in the Public Service. This situation has become one of the most significant challenges for the transformation of the entire Public Service into an institution that is representative of the majority of citizens of South Africa (SA: Office on the Status of Women, 2001:8).

The Free State Provincial Administration currently consists of nine Departments, as well as the two Departments of the Director General and the Premier respectively. The computerised personnel system (Persal), used by the Free State Provincial Administration (described in section 1.3.1), has indicated that although women accounted for 60% of the work force in the institution by 2000, no representation of women at the levels of Chief Director and above (up to that of Director-General) has as yet been put in place. In the Free State Provincial Administration in 2000, white women represented 59.3% of the total number of female managerial staff, African women 38.7%, coloured women 1.5% and Asian women 0.5% (SA: Department of the Premier, 2000 (a)).

This study will investigate the position of African women as effective managers in the Free State Provincial Administration and the contributions that have been made towards the empowerment of African women in South Africa. It will also identify, accentuate and address the performance determinants that influence the effectiveness of African

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women managers, since the execution of management functions and responsibilities has a holistic impact on the service excellence in the public sector of South Africa and therefore the Free State Provincial Government as well.

1.2   RATIONALE

1.2.1   Main research problem

The Public Service in South Africa is faced with immense challenges in its attempts to increase efficiency and effectiveness, specifically with regard to service delivery (SA: Parliament, 2002:On-line). It is mandated to be committed to, and capable of, executing legislation and policies that address effective service delivery through the enhancement of effectiveness (Maphunye, 2001:317 and Penceliah & Moodley, 2002:28). The success of the Public Service, according to Penceliah and Moodley (2002:23), is to a great extent dependent on the capacity and commitment of its employees to function efficiently and effectively. The effectiveness of the African woman manager in the Public Service is playing an increasingly important role in service delivery, as more and more women are being appointed in managerial posts. The White Paper on Human Resource Management makes it clear that this is a long-term project that should enjoy high priority (SA: White Paper on Human Resource Management, 1997:26 and Budlender, 1998:20). The existence and reality of this situation have also been corroborated by the recent implementation of the Code of Conduct and the Batho Pele (People First) principles for the Public Service which, in essence, aim to promote an ethos of professional service in addition to putting the interest of the public first (SA: White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997 and SA: Code of Conduct for the Public Service, 1999).

According to Cohen & Eimicke (1995:2) and Sekoto & van Straaten (1999:104), the public sector is viewed as inefficient, unproductive and corrupt whilst the private sector is experienced as "lean and efficient". Erwee (1986:174) states three reasons for this situation, namely a lack of productivity realisation in South Africa, insufficient education and training of the population and inadequate management skills. The White Paper on Public Service Transformation (1997) also acknowledges the general lack of sufficient resources in the Public Service (knowledge, experience, commitment, funds and general resources) to address the development needs in South Africa effectively. Cohen & Eimicke (1995:3) argue that, although there are numerous reasons for such a

predicament, one should look beyond these factors and rather focus on developing strengths promoting effectiveness. In addition to the overall problem statement, a number of secondary research problems have emerged with regard to factors that play an integral role in the realisation of an effective public sector and which, if not addressed individually, will severely hamper service delivery, as well as other aspects including gender equality, human resource investment and economic growth.

1.2.2   Secondary research problems

❑   A general perception that confronts African women managers in the Public Service and influences service delivery is that of a lack of managerial experience. This is owing to the fact that the first generation of African women to be appointed to full-time management positions have an average of about 20 years of managerial experience to their credit. African women were introduced to the management environment as recently as the 1980s, while supportive legislation only came into place in the 1990s (Weaver & Hill, 1994:2).

❑   Gender equality is currently one of the burning issues in most of South Africa's legislation, such as the Constitution, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the **Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995)**, the White Paper on Affirmative Action, 1998 and the **Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997)**. However, because gender equality programmes and related legislation are still in their infancy, they need to be investigated, evaluated and continually upgraded to ensure their contribution to the effectiveness of African women managers (**SA: National Education Act, Act 27 of 1996**).

❑   South Africa's human potential should be utilised to the advantage of economic growth, but legislation alone will ultimately not be enough to drive this process (SA: Department of Labour, 1996:On-line and Primo, 1997:38). Although the Constitution and various Acts, as indicated previously, have paved the way for progress, the Public Service will have to invest in the development of its human resources, especially previously disadvantaged individuals such as African women managers. In its endeavour to invest in human capital, the Public

Service should come to realise the impact of single parenting, dual-career families, as well as the demands of balancing a career and family, on African women managers (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx & van der Schyf, 1998:25).

❑ A number of reports have recently emphasised that women managers worldwide experience obstacles to achieving effectiveness as managers (Erwee, 1986; Bellamy & Ransay, 1994; Loeffler, 1995; Maher, 1997; Maier, 1997 & Sinclair, 1998). The relevant research, however, concentrated mainly on European and American countries, as well as Australia, and focused on women in general. Moreover, Davidson (1997:14) reported that when research addressed issues of "ethnic minority managers", it invariably focused mainly on African-Americans. Reports on research conducted amongst African women managers in South Africa are limited and the information that does exist is based primarily on personal perceptions and experience, rather than on scientific research. In addition, the majority of the research was performed prior to the 1994 general election and therefore does not account for the legislative and socio-economic impact of that election on African women managers today. This lack of information has been ascribed to the fact that the topic was not considered to be a relevant issue in South Africa prior to the last decade (Sparks, 1995:38).

1.2.3 Aim and objectives of the study

The main aim of the study is to assess and promote effective service delivery on the part of African women managers in the public sector. The research will endeavour to shed light on the factors that hamper the managerial effectiveness of African women in the Free State Provincial Administration and put forward suggestions for rectifying these problems, thereby contributing to the establishment of a successful and dynamic workforce and optimal service delivery.

Consequently, the objectives of this study are:

i.   To establish a theoretical foundation and framework for this research through an inclusive literature study;

ii. To assess the current demographic milieu of African women managers (in

assistant directors' or higher posts) in a typical South African governmental institution such as the Free State Provincial Administration;

iii. To investigate the occupational description of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration in order to ascertain the expectations, responsibilities and pressures they are subjected to in the work environment;

iv. To identify the key factors influencing the effectiveness of African women managers in the specified area, thereby facilitating the identification of approaches to address them. Based on these approaches, strategies will be proposed to deal with the above-mentioned factors in an attempt to enhance the positive factors and limit the negative.

1.2.4 Significance of the research

Although currently it might seem that African women have access to a broad spectrum of management-related job opportunities in the Public Service, in practice only a few have had the opportunity and means to enhance their education and thereby come into consideration for such jobs. The empirical results generated in this study will, *inter alia*, attempt to point out the extent of, and the occupational descriptions related to, the current positions held by African women managers in a typical South African governmental institution such as the Free State Provincial Administration.

The Provincial Administration should recognise the importance of human resource development and training of its managers, as well as the potential impact thereof on their service delivery, on the effectiveness of the public sector as a whole, and on the broader economy of South Africa. Information generated in this study should shed light on the amount of time and the number of opportunities invested in African women managers with regard to training and development, and should also indicate whether the Free State Provincial Administration is sufficiently effective with regard to equal developmental programmes.

Findings on the legislative, demographic, occupational and educational milieu of African women should contribute to substantiating certain factors that have an influence on managerial effectiveness, to a greater or lesser extent. For example, because African women managers were introduced to the labour market only a few decades ago and a general lack of African women role-models prevails, information gleaned in respect of

these aspects should contribute considerably towards enhancing the status of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration. Finally, feedback from this study will be communicated to the Free State Provincial Administration, highlighting identified shortcomings, making recommendations as to how these can be rectified and promoting the realisation amongst African women managers that infiltration into previously male-dominated managerial positions is not as difficult as they might have perceived it to be (Talley-Ross, 1995:4).

1.3   RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire survey (quantitative method) and a focus group discussion (qualitative method) were used for data collection. Huysamen (1997:2) argues that the use of both a qualitative and a quantitative study on the same research problem is beneficial, as quantitative research generally supports research that is qualitative in nature and vice versa. The information collected via the mentioned methodologies is supported by a comprehensive literature survey incorporating national and international books, journals, dissertations, Acts and various sources of legislation, research reports, internal governmental documents, magazines and newspaper articles. The sample was comprised of African women managers (in the posts of Assistant Director, Deputy Director, Director, Chief Director and Director-General) in the Free State Provincial Administration.

1.3.1   Questionnaire survey (quantitative method)

As stated above, the sample for the study was comprised of African women in managerial positions in the Free State Provincial Administration. Women occupying all positions, from the level of Assistant Director to the highest level, were selected with the aid of the Persal system. The Persal system is a computer-based system currently in use by the Free State Provincial Administration and managed by the Human Resource Management Division in order to keep a record of all personnel-related matters including appointment dates, salary levels and scales, promotions and ranks.

All the women concerned were targeted (100% sample), amounting to a sample size (n) of 209. The final sample, however, amounted to 204 because one woman had been seconded to a national department; a second was on three months' maternity leave; a third had resigned; and another two women could not be traced. Of these 204 potential

respondents, 79 were African, one Asian, three coloured and 121 white. Thirty-nine of the African women responded, giving a 49.3% response, whereas 49.5% of the white women responded, as well as the one Asian woman. No feedback was received from the three coloured women.

1.3.2 Focus group (qualitative method)

A focus group discussion was conducted in accordance with the second, supporting method of data collection. This discussion served the purpose of providing immediate, in-depth feedback with a view to accomplishing the fourth objective of the study (see iv, under 1.2.3) and, in addition, was useful in providing a supplementary source to the quantitative research (Brodigan, 1991:3). The focus group methodology yields experiences and constructive actions that would not be accessible without group interaction. Moreover, it facilitates responses amongst the participants such as agreement or disagreement, asking questions and providing suggestions (Erkut & Field, 1987:74). It also provides an atmosphere of spontaneity, originality and synergism. Care was taken to ensure that the questions posed during the focus group discussion were not verbal duplications of the questionnaire, but rather, open-ended questions that explored sentiments and emotions and culminated in recommendations, strategies and actions (Brodigan, 1991:3).

Eight participants were selected from the original sample (n=79). The participants were selected so as to represent as many ranks and departments as possible, as well as to include individuals who did not respond to the initial questionnaire, in order to present them with another opportunity to contribute to the study. Within each rank and response / non-response category, participants were selected using simple random sampling. The final sample thus consisted of two Chief Directors, two Directors, two Deputy Directors and two Assistant Directors from eight departments (four participants had completed and returned their questionnaires whereas four had not). The services of an external facilitator with experience in focus group facilitation and dynamics were utilised to facilitate the group.

1.3.3 Data-collection instruments

1.3.3.1 Questionnaire compilation and distribution

The sample size, time constraints and busy schedules of the respondents, as well as aspects of confidentiality, influenced the choice of data collection method to a large extent. A confidential questionnaire, rather than an interview, comprised the method of choice for the gathering of sensitive information from the respondents, and constituted the first data-collection process for the research under discussion. The logistical backup for the distribution and collection of the questionnaires also justified the selected methodology. In addition, only a very strenuous and time-consuming interview, in the case of each respondent, could have covered the number of variables that were, in fact, evaluated much more effectively by using the questionnaire. Care was taken to include a variety of open-ended questions in the questionnaire (Furlong, Lovelace & Lovelace, 2000:10). Although such questions admittedly tend to pose problems in respect of empirical processing and quantification, they have the advantage that they invite the respondents to elaborate on a number of aspects if the need exists (Czaja & Blair, 1996:5).

The questionnaire (Addendum B) consisted of thirty-seven questions (divided into three sections), aimed at addressing the circumstances of the African woman manager in the Free State Provincial Administration in their totality. The questions were compiled on the basis of exploratory discussions with a number of African women managers and a careful review of related literature. Section one of the questionnaire focused on gathering information on the current demographic milieu of African women managers in the Provincial Administration, while section two investigated the occupational environment of the African woman manager. Section three, in turn, aimed at identifying the main factors influencing the effectiveness of African women managers.

A pilot study using a draft questionnaire was performed on ten respondents with similar characteristics, employed by national government departments. Based on feedback and observations from this pilot study, adjustments were made to the final questionnaire. A number of questions were eliminated, for example, after comments were made indicating that they were perceived to be irrelevant to the aims of the study. These included questions concerning the income of husbands or partners and that of the respondents, as well as questions pertaining to socio-economic status. An adjustment

was made to the wording of questions relating to the ethnicity of the respondents: the groupings as put forward in the Constitution were used as a replacement for the use of tribal names as response categories. In addition, some of the answers given by the ten initial respondents were added to the response categories of some of the questions. A remark was also made by those respondents regarding the length of the questionnaire and the time taken to complete it. Placing the more difficult questions earlier on in the questionnaire rectified this problem.

During the pilot study some of the African respondents perceived the research to be discriminatory and prejudicial towards them. James (1984:6) reported a similar situation, concluding that problems were experienced because the study included only black women. It was consequently decided that the final questionnaires would be distributed to all women managers in the Provincial Administration and that the word "African" should be removed. The sample was finally broadened to include all women in the relevant employment categories, although for the purpose and objectives of this study, only the completed questionnaires of the African respondents were evaluated. Moreover, the author experienced reluctance on the part of institutions to participate in the study when only black women were emphasised.

Authorisation was obtained from the Director-General of the Free State Provincial Administration in respect of the following (Addendum A):

❑ Liaising with the respondents so as to inform them of the study, its goals and objectives, and the advantages thereof for them and the Provincial Administration;

❑ Distributing a questionnaire to each of the respondents to complete in their free time. The information was treated confidentially; and

❑ Possible participation in further discussions, for instance as part of a focus group.

The questionnaires were distributed and collected with the assistance of a contact person identified by each department participating in the study. The data were collected over a period of three months. Early in November 2000 the researcher briefed the contact persons regarding their roles in the distribution and collection of the questionnaires. Each respondent's address was printed on an envelope containing both

a questionnaire and a second pre-printed envelope in which the questionnaire was to be returned. The contact persons distributed and collected the questionnaires through the internal mail system.

To facilitate the tracking of respondents who failed to respond, and to maintain confidentiality, each questionnaire was given a respondent number. The researcher telephonically contacted respondents who failed to reply after one month, in order to make enquiries as to whether they had received a questionnaire and whether it had been returned. The addresses of respondents who had not received questionnaires were confirmed and a second questionnaire was redistributed by hand to these respondents, totalling six African and nine white respondents. Once the final questionnaires had been collected in January 2001, letters were sent to the various contact persons in the departments, as well as to the Director-General, acknowledging their assistance with the research.

1.3.3.2 Focus group procedures

During the second phase of data-gathering, the eight respondents were telephonically contacted and requested to provide their assistance and participation in the focus group. After they had confirmed their commitment, they received written confirmation of the purpose of, and arrangements for, the focus group, as well as a blank copy of the original questionnaire that had been distributed during the first round of data collection. It was felt that if they familiarised themselves with the contents of the questions once again, this would serve as part of the preparation of these respondents for the focus group.

During the commencement of the focus group session, a concise exposé, comprising selected descriptive statistics and general responses from the completed questionnaires, was conveyed to the participants. Although selected results were communicated to the participants, care was taken not to influence their subjectivity (Erkut & Field, 1987:75 and Maykut & Morehouse, 1994:71). An interview schedule (Addendum C) consisting of open-ended questions was used to prompt the participants into discussion.

1.3.4 Statistical processing

The questionnaire responses were coded and analysed in collaboration with the Department of Biostatistics at the University of the Free State. Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the results in terms of frequencies and percentages for categorical variables; means or medians, as well as maxima and minima for numerical variables. The relationships between selected variables were investigated using correlations or contingency tables. The focus group discussion was recorded on tape and transcribed verbatim. Together with the data from the questionnaires, the information from the transcripts was used to formulate final conclusions and recommendations in order to achieve the aims of the study.

1.4 EXPLANATION OF TERMS

The following terms are defined as follows and are applicable throughout the study:

Accountable: Refers to the requirement prescribed by legislation or any other relevant instruction to give account of the manner in which functions are performed (Cloete, 1995:3).

Affirmative action: "The additional corrective steps which must be taken so that those who have been historically disadvantaged by unfair discrimination are able to derive full benefit from an equitable employment environment" (SA: White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, 1998:9).

African: "The word African refers to the indigenous people of South Africa. 'Black' is used to refer to the previously disadvantaged; these are African people, the so-called Coloured community, the Indian people and the San and Khoi communities" (SA: Office on the Status of Women, 2001:6).

Audit: An examination of evidence to discover or verify desired outcomes. "A written report of findings will normally result [from such an audit] and findings will normally be based on investigation of a sample of an institution's operations" (Fox & Meyer, 1995:10).

"Batho Pele": In 1997 the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, the so-called "Batho Pele" (People First) document, was adopted, which put forward eight principles regarding public service delivery. The Batho Pele principles cover areas pertaining to service and include consultation; service standards; access; courtesy; information; openness and transparency; redress and value for money (Penceliah & Moodley, 2002:31).

Benchmarking: A comparative measurement between business practice and performance levels in order to obtain insight and identify opportunities for making improvements (Barker & Rubycz, 1996:57). In terms of the public sector, it can be identified as a new way to establish service delivery targets. This is not the method according to which such targets have been established in the past. Instead, they are now established on the basis of the so-called best of the best practices. These "best practices" are constantly reviewed and updated to find the most effective and structured way to obtain long-term service excellence.

Black people: " [A] generic term which means Africans, Coloureds and Indians" (**SA: Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998**).

Constitution: The **Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996)**. The Constitution is the supreme law of the Republic of South Africa.

Designated groups: "...means Black people, women and people with disabilities" (**SA: Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998:8**).

Dual workload: "Refers to the performing of duties by men or women in both the labour market and at home" (De Vries, 1991:69). Labour statisticians regard home responsibilities and domestic chores as non-economic. "The need arises to acknowledge that the partner who takes responsibility for these tasks is contributing to the economic and social well-being of the family" (De Vries, 1991:3).

Economically active population: The number of individuals between the ages of 15 and 65 years who are working or available for work (including those who are
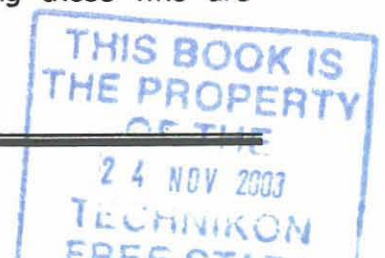
unemployed) (Statistics South Africa, 2000 (b):40 and Forgey, Dimant, Corrigan, Mophuthing, Spratt, Pienaar & Peter, 2001:338).

Effectiveness: "Refers to a condition in which a focal organization, using a finite amount of resources, is able to achieve stated objectives as measured by a given set of criteria, and the extent to which a programme is achieving or failing to achieve its stated objectives" (Fox & Meyer, 1995:41). For evaluation purposes an institution uses a tool such as benchmarking to compare the performance (output) of an organisation with external functions (Barker & Rubycz, 1996:149). According to Lewis, Goodman, & Fandt, (1998:5), effectiveness is "doing the right things".

Efficiency: Cloete (1995:27) defines efficiency as the "production of goods and rendering of services without wasting money, material and labour". This terminology includes quantifiable measures such as unit costing, efficiency indicators, productivity ratios, service quality indicators and the number of transactions completed (Farnham & Horton, 1993:48). Efficiency in the public sector stems from two factors, namely innovation and the variability of procedures in response to changing circumstances (Halachmi & Bouckaert, 1995:226). According to Stoner & Wankel (1990:689), efficiency is defined as "doing things right".

Equality: A situation where all individuals enjoy the same status in their relations with a government and society (Fox & Meyer, 1995:44). "Men and women in South Africa must be treated equal[ly]... [this] does not mean that men and women are the same" (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line).

GEAR (Growth, Employment and Redistribution): An economic strategy introduced by the Department of Finance, aimed at, *inter alia*, enhancing human resource development and creating flexibility in the labour market (Flood et al., 1997:19).

Gender: "Gender differs from sex in that it is social and cultural rather than biological. Gender attributes differ from society to society, and change with time. Some of the attributes are shaped by the economy, religion, culture and traditional values" (Budlender, 1998:2).

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Government: Government refers to the institution(s) responsible for governing South Africa. These institutions primarily refer to the political executive, which is comprised of the President and his Cabinet at national level, and the respective Premiers and executive councils at the provincial level (see sections 43, 85, 85(2), 125(1), 151(2) & 165 of the Constitution).

Governmental institutions: "National departments, provincial governments and other institutions covered by the Public Service Act, 1994" (**SA: Public Service Act, Act 103 of 1994:4**).

Holistic approach: "An approach to problem structuring that views problems as inseparable and unmeasurable apart from the whole system of which they are integral parts" (Fox & Meyer, 1995:58).

Inequality: In South Africa this refers, *inter alia*, to: "women [who] are subordinate to men because men have more institutional and social power, more access to resources and more opportunities for development" (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line).

Management: Although the term "management" is defined by several authors, the explanation most suitable for this research is that of Fox and Meyer (1995:77) who define management in the public sector as that part of public administration in which a person is charged with certain functions, such as policy-making, planning, organising, leading, control and evaluation. Section 2.2.2 of chapter two elaborates on the administrative and managerial perspectives whilst section 2.4 of chapter two discusses the typical managerial functions expected of the provincial public manager.

Manager: "A manager is anyone whose duties in the main involve responsibility for the work of others" (SA: White Paper on Human Resource Management, 1997:19). Thus, the term includes not only those who are usually referred to as managers because they are members of the so-called "management echelon", but also all first-line supervisors performing the management functions discussed in chapter two, section 2.4. For the purpose of this study the occupational categories as defined in the **Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998** will be referred to (chapter two, section 2.2.3).

Non-economically active population: Those individuals in South Africa between the ages of 15 and 65 years who are not available for work, such as full-time pupils, students, retired individuals and those unable or unwilling to work (Forgey et al., 2001:342).

Office on the Status of Women (OSW): The Office on the Status of Women is based in the President's office and has provincial counterparts in eight Premier's offices. Its role is coordinating and facilitating the implementation of government policy and programmes on gender (Albertyn 1995:37 and SA: Department of Welfare, 2000:On-line).

Performance: Refers to the manner in which planned objectives are accomplished. It involves operational behaviour directly related to the organisation's effectiveness (Fox & Meyer, 1995:94).

Private sector: A collective term for those persons and organisations whose economic activities are under the control of non-governmental economic units and who mainly conduct business for profit and own well-being (Fox & Meyer, 1995:101).

Provincial public manager (PPM): For the purpose of this research, a manager on provincial government level will be designated as a Provincial Public Manager (PPM).

Public manager: In general, a manager in the public sector may be defined as a person in a leadership post performing management functions (Roux, Brynard, Botes & Fourie, 1997:191).

Public sector: This refers to those institutions responsible for all government and semi-government activities, including national departments, provinces, local authorities, parastatal institutions, universities and technikons and agricultural marketing boards (Forgey et al., 2001:350).

Public Service: "... means the Public Service referred to in section 1(1) of the **Public Service Act, Act 103 of 1994,** and includes any institutional component contemplated in section 7(4) of the Act but excluding – (a) the National Defence Force; (b) the

National Intelligence Agency; and (c) the South African Secret Service" (**SA: Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998:10**). Also refers to the people employed in national government departments and provincial administrations (Forgey et al., 2001:350). Consequently, for the purpose of this research the Public Service in South Africa is deemed to be made up of those individuals who are employed by the government departments and the nine Provincial Administrations. The employees are remunerated from the funds of the Exchequer.

1.5   SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Chapter one provides the introduction and background to the study. It presents the problem, and outlines the purpose and the relevance of the study, as well as the general research hypothesis. It also sets the delimitations, defines the important terms and gives a description of the methodology.

Chapter two of this study focuses on the requirements for an effective public manager in the South African provincial government using the central, provincial and local spheres of government as a frame of reference. Critical areas such as the South African public service delivery milieu and requirements for service excellence in the South African public sector are discussed. Finally this chapter presents an overview of typical managerial functions and skills required from provincial public managers.

Chapter three provides a historical overview of the life of African women in South Africa. Regarding the role of women in the time of former governments and political dispensations, it seems that tradition, culture and legislation have not treated them fairly and equally. Women's rights were violated on many levels. Since 1994, however, the situation has drastically improved for women. This chapter places an especial focus on the freedom that legislation has brought about for women in South Africa.

The domestic and socio-economic influences on the performance of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration are investigated in chapter four. The results concerning these influences, which were gathered by means of the questionnaire and focus group, are discussed in detail, shedding light on the demographic milieu of African women managers with regard to education and marital

status, and conclusions are reached concerning the influence of these factors on managerial effectiveness.

Chapter five investigates the occupational milieu of African women and their introduction as managers into the Free State Provincial Administration. The results concerning occupational influences, gathered by means of the questionnaire and focus group, are discussed. The chapter includes aspects of employment circumstances of African women in South Africa as well as certain employment statistics concerning African women managers in the various departments of the Free State Provincial Administration. The impact of the preferences of African women on their management role, the hierarchical milieu and operational involvement of African women managers, as well as beneficial and detrimental effects of the management milieu on African women, are also dealt with.

The inadequacies regarding personal and institutional performance determinants are discussed in chapter six. The chapter attempts to present a holistic view of the two major areas that may influence managerial effectiveness. With regard to the first of these, deductions are made and recommendations are proposed in respect of domestic and socio-economic influences on the performance of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration. The discussion of the second major area touches on deductions and recommendations regarding the occupational milieu of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration.

CHAPTER 2

THE EFFECTIVE PUBLIC MANAGER IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Managers in the South African public sector have been raised according to noticeably different cultures and beliefs. This diversity is evident in public institutions in South Africa and should be exploited to the extent that the potential of each manager is utilised to the benefit of the entire society (Penceliah & Moodley, 2002:23). Improving the quality of life of society and freeing the potential of each person, together comprise the primary aim of the government in terms of the preamble of the Constitution of South Africa. In order to achieve this aim, government functions have been divided into two groups, namely maintenance and development functions. The maintenance functions include the maintenance of law and order and ensuring that living conditions do not degenerate to such an extent that living standards decline. Development functions refer first of all to socio-economic development functions and secondly, to functions aimed at improving the general welfare of society. The latter can be achieved by the creation of job opportunities and the improvement of education and health standards, as well as by improving the circumstances of the homeless and taking purposeful action to promote economic growth (SA: Department of Labour, 1996:On-line).

Thus, the core function in the public sector is service delivery. In compliance with the Batho Pele White Paper, all public managers, including provincial public managers (PPMs), should strive for excellence (SA: White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997:3). These managers are therefore required to do everything in their power to improve service delivery in order to facilitate the optimal functioning of the community. The overall level of their performance will also be under constant scrutiny. Improvement initiatives should be undertaken to develop their ability to manage the effective achieving of targets (Auriacombe, 1999:129). The establishment of good practices and the willingness to learn from other individual role-players and institutions to improve the manager's ability are indeed essential in order to deliver quality services

to the community (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2001 (b):On-line).

It is evident from the Constitution that government utilises more than just state departments to achieve its objectives; several role-players, amongst whom the PPM in the provincial sphere of government is a key figure, need to participate. Thus, to view the PPM in the provincial sphere of government as a politically neutral force in government activities, mainly responsible for executing policies that were put in place by political rulers, is no longer applicable. The reason for this is that the task of the contemporary PPM involves more than the mere execution of legislation - he/she plays an active role in policy-making, implementation, analysis, evaluation and management (Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:52).

The purpose of this chapter is to conceptualise the functions and skills required by managers in the South African Provincial Government in order to be able to deliver excellent services to the community. Changes in the public sector have brought about revolutionary managerial concepts, as well as expectations, that have impacted considerably on the public manager in the provincial sphere. The changes in the South African public sector in general and their effect on the management process as such will be analysed in order to identify a conceptual framework for effective management. With this framework as an important norm for effective management in the Free State Provincial Administration, specific performance determinants influencing the management role of African women will be evaluated in subsequent chapters with the purpose of increasing the effectiveness of these women as full and equal managers. Key legislation that has impacted on the management environment after the 1994 elections will also be identified.

2.2 THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY MILIEU

South Africa is gradually moving away from being a divided country characterised by racial conflict, mistrust, widespread poverty, violation of human rights, violence and corruption. Moreover, the country is making progress through the individual and collective endeavours of citizens and governmental initiatives (Ministry for the Public Service and Administration, 1997:4). These initiatives refer to legislation, committees, structures and the efforts of governmental officials who contribute to the well-being of the country. During the 5th National Public Service Trainers' Conference (2001), the

Minister of Labour stated that a professional and committed civil service is indispensable for growth and prosperity (SAMDI, 2001:9). The Minister added that although there were many committed and hard-working civil servants, there were still too many who were not committed to delivering the services required (SAMDI, 2001:12). Initiatives on the national level of government that address service delivery in the public sector include the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1997), the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997) and the **Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996** (Chapter 10, section 195(1)).

At the provincial level of government, the Public Service commits itself to service excellence by celebrating an annual Public Service Week, with the emphasis on improved service delivery. The Premier of the Free State Province emphasised that apart from frontline personnel, the Executive Council and top management also play an important role in this process (SAMDI, 2001:12). The Free State Provincial Government has further developed a Customer Care Strategy, together with Departmental Service Delivery Improvement Programmes (SDIP's), to conform to legislation (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002:5). Public Service delivery is finally addressed at the local level of government. During the State of the Nation Address, the President emphasised the important role of municipal councils in ensuring effective functioning and delivering of services to citizens (SA: Mbeki, 2002:On-line).

It is evident that Government has adopted a holistic approach to service delivery throughout all spheres of government. There are several role-players involved in these processes - all of them equally important, although their degree of responsibility towards service excellence varies. The important issue, however, is that economic prosperity is directly dependent on service excellence. This environment will now be analysed in terms of the Constitution as the foundation of service delivery, and also in terms of administrative and managerial perspectives; the post of the provincial public manager; and an exposé of legislation.

2.2.1 The Constitution as the foundation of service delivery in the Free State Provincial Administration

As mentioned in the Introduction, it is the primary aim of the Government of South Africa to improve the general welfare of society. To achieve this aim, specific goods and services should be rendered to the public. The infrastructure and mechanisms for these

goods and services are specified by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Ministry for the Public Service and Administration, 1997:4). Under constitutional supremacy, the Constitution is the highest norm and can therefore be identified as the foundation of service delivery in the South African public sector (section 2 of the Constitution, 1996). In practice, this indicates that all laws, actions and all institutions such as the Free State Provincial Administration, exercising government power, are subject to the Constitution.

In South Africa, the national, provincial and local spheres of government authority are provided for in the Constitution. For the purpose of this research, the provincial sphere of government, and the Free State Provincial Government specifically, will be emphasised as the environment of the study. In terms of the Constitution, the general functions of the government in the three mentioned spheres have been assigned to separate branches known as the legislative power, the executive authority and the judicial authority (sections 43, 85 & 165 of the Constitution, 1996). The managerial role of African women in the Provincial Administration in the Free State comprises that part of the executive function of the executive authority on which the research will concentrate.

The Free State Provincial Legislature exercises legislative power, while the executive power of the province is vested in the Premier, who exercises her powers together with the other members of the Executive Council (MECs) (section 125(1)(2) of the Constitution, 1996). It is the duty of the Executive Council to exercise executive power in the province by proposing and executing laws, by executing national legislation in respect of Free State provincial matters, by developing and executing provincial policy and by coordinating the work of the provincial administration (section 125(2) of the Constitution, 1996).

It is important to note that the Executive Council of the Free State refers to the institution responsible for executing the above-mentioned legislation. This Executive on provincial level and Cabinet on national level are referred to as the government (section 40(1)(2) of the Constitution, 1996 and SA: Parliament, 2002:On-line). In the provincial sphere of government, the provincial executive authority is vested in the Premier, who operates in collaboration with the members of the Executive Council (MECs) (section 125(1)(2) of the Constitution, 1996). The Premier of the Free State Province is

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constitutionally as well as politically accountable (section 128(2) of the Constitution, 1996).

With regard to her capacity as a political executive functionary, the Premier is comparable with the President at the central level of government (Cloete, 1996:93). The Free State Executive Council consists of the Premier, as head, and members appointed by the Premier from the ranks of the members of the provincial legislature. The Premier of a province assigns the relevant powers and functions to the members of the Executive Council (section 132(1)(2) of the Constitution, 1996). Each member of the Executive Council may appoint a provincial government department to administer functions or to assist members of the Executive Council in their functions. The MECs of the Free State Province are individually and collectively accountable to the provincial legislature and the Premier for the execution of their functions.

2.2.2   Administrative and managerial perspectives

Fox, Schwella & Wissink (1997:2) are of the opinion that public administration in government institutions is much wider in scope and nature than management in government institutions. In this regard, management merely constitutes a facet of public administration in government institutions. With the above definitions in mind, management in government institutions cannot take place if administration, as such, does not enable officials in managerial positions to manage. Cloete (1991:203) further emphasises the importance of recognising that these two dimensions indeed differ, and that administrative functions thus include those management functions that are directly linked to public managers.

It is thus imperative to correctly define and distinguish between the concepts of administration and management. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, administration means: "... the management of public affairs, the conducting or carrying on [of] the details of Government" (The Oxford English Dictionary, 1986 in Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:8). According to the Afrikaans dictionary: "Administration [is] the control [and/or] management of [a] public ... [or] private institution or enterprise; an administrator is a manager of a public or private institution [or] enterprise; and to administer is to control [or] to manage" (Schoonees, 1950 in Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:9). The same dictionary defines the verb "to manage" as: "to give direction, lead, control, govern, rule over, [whilst a] manager is an official who manages or controls – a

person who has in his hands the general leadership of an enterprise or of a division. [He is] a supervisory person" (Schoonees, 1950 in Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:12). Thornhill & Hanekom (1995:12) suggest that the dictionary explanations view "management", "leading", "directing" and "guidance" as collective concepts. The authors further conclude that management involves people and mechanisms; this factor, in turn, entails authorative and directive actions.

Although these definitions do not unambiguously clarify the meaning of "management" and "administration", authors generally refer to administration as managing, directing, governing, supervising, organising, performing, operating and addressing (Cloete, 1991:203). According to Farnham & Horton (1993:27), administration refers to a combination of processes and actions whereby public officials implement and execute government policies within a necessary legislative framework in order to achieve organisational aims and objectives.

It is important to note that the difference between public and private administration lies not so much in the nature of administration, as in the environment within which each functions (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:55). The public sector strives towards the achievement of higher-order goals and activities and differs from the private sector in that it operates within a highly legal framework, in the absence of competition, and is service-delivery-orientated. In the private sector, however, administration is often aimed at subordinate functional activities such as bookkeeping, registration, filing and data-processing - the so-called auxiliary functions (Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:10). Thus, the concept of administration may be viewed primarily as a universal entity, because it is integrated into all social activities. In addition, administration is a co-operative move to achieve objectives, since there are always two or more parties involved, in a group context, in the process of inducing, incorporating and coordinating actions. Finally, administration is goal-orientated, with the purpose and explicit intention of achieving definite goals and objectives. Meiring & Parsons (1994:59) are of the opinion that in order to accomplish the mentioned activities in any work situation, the necessary resources should be supplied (enabling functions), used or applied (operational functions) and utilised effectively and efficiently (utilising functions) (table 2.1).

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Table 2.1: Administrative functions defined

1. Means supplied	-	**Enabling functions**		Enabling and utilising functions
		- Conceptual & directive dimension	(goal and objective setting - authority and responsibility)	Two main characteristics of administration
2. Means applied	-	**Operational / auxiliary functions**		
3. Means utilised	-	**Utilising functions**		
		- Managerial dimension	(effective and efficient utilisation of resources)	

Source: extracted from Cloete 1991:220, Meiring & Parsons, 1994:59 and Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:10

In the same context the administrative functions are deemed to consist of enabling functions (policy-making, creation of posts and structures, provisioning of money, provisioning of personnel, determining of work procedures and control measures) and utilising functions (policy implementation, budgeting, the assignment of workloads, the maintenance of work procedures and methods, and exercising control). The enabling functions consist of a conceptual or directive dimension that focuses on generating goals and objectives.

The directive dimension is considered to be the task of the top and senior managers in the Public Service (including the provincial government) at salary levels 13 to 15, whereas the middle and junior managers at salary levels 9 to 12, who are tasked with the implementation of the instructions, are responsible for the managerial dimension (utilising factors) (table 2.1). Top and senior officials spend most of their time on the conceptual or directive dimensions and are called the administrators. The managers (at middle and junior level), on the other hand, are responsible for the management dimension of the administrative function.

Robbins & De Cenzo (1995:4) define management as the performance of specific activities to achieve certain objectives with and through people. These activities (planning, organising, leading and controlling) are predominantly executed by managers. Management always involves individuals who are vitally important for the effective operation of an institution (Charlton, 2000:57). These individuals, especially when they act in a management capacity, should motivate subordinates to achieve

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organisational goals in the most effective and efficient manner (Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:13).

It may be concluded that management assumes an authoritative and responsible position, which refers, *inter alia*, to the control that a manager exercises over subordinates, which can be applied to direct an institution's strategic plan, work plan and outcomes, for example. Authority also takes the utilisation of resources such as money, material, machinery and information into account. In addition, management entails a group of functions with the main purpose of directing and leading the activities of an institution towards the achievement of identified objectives. This process is guided by compliance with legislation, as well as the availability of capital and other resources (Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:15).

In terms of the above exposition, management thus aims at the effective and efficient performance of functional activities (line functions). The proper accomplishment of these functions, in turn, depends on whether provision was made through the enabling functions for the execution thereof (Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:14). In other words, the administrative functions enable the effective and efficient implementation of the functional activities. Management, therefore, refers to a specialised process that can only be performed by specialised people: not everyone in an institution could be a manager, or be responsible for executing managerial functions.

For the purpose of this research, public administration will be defined as an enabling activity taking place on a continuous basis. Management, on the other hand, is regarded as a continuing activity. It is the ongoing continuation of specific activities, which is only made possible by virtue of public administration. In practice, public administration empowers managers in provincial government institutions to perform their managerial functions. The management functions of the public sector manager are therefore a continuation or extension of public administration for the provision of goods and services to the community.

2.2.3 The provincial public manager

A number of concepts need clarification prior to the definition of a provincial public manager. An official, according to Cloete (1995:52), is an individual who is employed in a public institution such as a state department, but who is not a political executive

office-bearer. An official of higher rank who is employed in a state department or public institution is termed an "administrator" (Cloete, 1995:5). A public administrator, according to Fox & Meyer (1995:105), is a public employee with managerial responsibilities. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (1986), a manager is defined as follows: "[O]ne whose office [is] to manage [a] business establishment or a public institution, [and] management [is] the action or manner of managing..., the application of skill or care in the manipulation, use, treatment or control [of things or persons] or in the conduction [of an enterprise, operation etc.]" (The Oxford English Dictionary, 1986 in Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:11). The Afrikaans dictionary defines a manager as "an official who manages or controls, i.e. a person who holds the general leadership of an enterprise or of a division - a supervisory person" (De Stadler, 1994:590).

The above-mentioned definitions lead to the conclusion that a PPM is an official appointed by the provincial government who is responsible for executing managerial tasks and decisions in order to achieve goals and objectives effectively and efficiently (Roux et al., 1997:191). With regard to the provincial sphere of government, the PPM performs an important role in the effective functioning of the provincial government sphere, since he/she directs and exercises control over subordinates, who are involved in the functional operation of the institution. The success of services rendered by the provincial government to society is, therefore, closely linked to the quality of management. The PPM is active within the provincial government sphere which, in turn, functions within a larger environment.

In practice, PPMs are divided into the following three occupational categories as defined in the **Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998**: The first occupational category includes senior managers in the Public Service at salary levels 13 to 15. Their main tasks comprise strategic planning; directing and coordinating the policies and activities of the institution in the public sector; and directing and controlling the management functions of the institution. These tasks are also referred to as enabling functions within the administrative process (table 2.1) (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:59). The second occupational category comprises middle managers at salary levels 11 to 12. PPMs in this group are required to function at a high level of professionalism and experience, and are responsible for implementing instructions. The third and final group comprises junior managers at salary levels 9 to 10. This group's main tasks require technical knowledge and experience.

The PPM (at middle or junior level) is mainly involved in the utilising functions within the administrative process (Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:10). These functions ensure that resources are used effectively and efficiently. Legislation and policies form the foundation of the roles and responsibilities of PPMs. Therefore, these managers need to have extensive knowledge of current legislation. For the purpose of this study, PPMs at salary level 9 and above (Assistant Director, Deputy Director, Director, Chief Director and Director-General) were investigated.

2.2.4 An exposé of legislation, policies and structures as directives for service delivery

For the first five years after the 1994 election, changes in the role of the public sector and in its size and composition were inevitable. Profound decisions were made and actions were taken to accomplish transformation, such as the implementation of a system of voluntary severance packages (SA: White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995:100). These efforts, which were aimed at restructuring the provincial government in order to render it more effective, efficient and representative, turned out to be costly (Maphunye, 2001:319). Consequently, in 2000 the then Minister of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) announced that the system of voluntary severance packages would be terminated with immediate effect (SA: White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995:100).

In order to maintain effective service delivery, legislation mandated provincial governments to comply with the **Public Service Act, Act 103 of 1994** and the Public Service Regulations. This legislation called for definite outcomes-based strategies as part of the management plan of departments in provincial government (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2001 (a):On-line). This included a strategic management plan in keeping with the medium-term expenditure framework; an organisational structure that complied with a strategic management plan; a plan to improve service delivery; as well as a human resource development strategy that would culminate in equality regarding development for women managers (Maphunye, 2001:316 and SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2002:On-line).

The mandate to focus on the human resource development of PPMs also included the reviewing of employment conditions, capacity-building, career development, employee assistance programmes and a performance management system that was introduced in

1999 (**Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998**). Legislation supporting human resource development and especially the development of women managers mainly includes the White Paper on Public Service Training and Education, published in 1997, which establishes a policy framework on training and education in the provincial government. The **Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998** governs the application of minimum standards and comprises an attempt to shed all racial and gender-based discrimination. In addition, the **Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998** and the **Skills Development Levies Act, Act 9 of 1999** provide a framework for developing the skills of the South African work force and integrating the relevant strategies within the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) (**South African Qualifications Authority Act, Act 58 of 1995**). The **Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998** covers the establishment of learnerships and the financing of skills development by means of a levy grant, while also providing for and regulating employment services administered by the Department of Labour. To direct standard-setting, accreditation and quality assurance, the Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority (PSETA) was established on 20 March 2000. The PSETA is mainly responsible for identifying priorities for skills development and administering the levy system (SA: Department of Labour, 2001:47 and The Business Bulletin, 2002:7).

Further legislation addressing service delivery is contained in the White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, published in April 1998. It focuses on the accountability, monitoring, coordination and reporting responsibilities of the various role-players within affirmative action programmes. The implementation of affirmative action policies was incorporated into managers' performance objectives and into the performance contracts of Directors-General. PPMs are responsible for putting forward affirmative action policies containing numeric targets and time-frames. From April 1994 to December 1998, the representation of blacks in the management structure of the public sector had increased from 6% to 44% in national departments and 53% in provincial departments (figures for 1994 exclude the former TBVC states and self-governing territories) (Flood et al., 1997:74). The number of women in management positions had increased from 2% to 15% in both provincial and national departments. The envisaged percentage of blacks at management level in the public sector was targeted at 50%, while the target for women was 30% and that for people with disabilities, 2% by the year 2000 (SA: White Paper on the Transformation of the Public

Service, 1995:100). The 30% target for women was specifically aimed at middle and senior management posts (Flood et al., 1997:74).

Concerns surrounding the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and Aids also received attention in terms of policy formulation (Flood et al., 1997:63). Other initiatives currently in the process of implementation include the revision of the **Public Service Act, Act 103 of 1994**, the alignment of the Public Service Regulations with the contents of the **Public Finance Management Act, Act 1 of 1999** and the draft copy of the Treasury Regulations section of the latter Act. According to the 1999 Public Finance Management Act, the National Treasury may prescribe an "...investment policy for public entities, constitutional institutions and those departments authorized to open a bank or other account in terms of the prescribed framework".

2.3 SERVICE EXCELLENCE IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SECTOR AND THE PROVINCIAL PUBLIC MANAGER

The broad vision of the Government is to build a united, non-racial, non-sexist and prosperous democratic South Africa to ensure a better life for all (African National Congress, 1994:1). In this regard the Government has identified the following priority areas that should assist in achieving its vision: i) speeding up the delivery of basic needs and the developing of human resources; ii) building the economy and creating jobs; iii) combating crime and corruption; iv) transforming the state and v) building a better Africa and a better world. The mission statement of the Government expresses the latter's commitment to accelerated change in partnership with people, and to building a new patriotism and fostering the moral renewal of the South African society.

In order to achieve the latter, the National Cabinet identified the transformation of the Public Service as a key priority in July 1999 (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (c):9). Simultaneously, the Minister for Public Service and Administration prioritised the development of a Service Delivery Innovation (SDI) policy framework in all provincial departments (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2001 (a):On-line). This framework mandated the Free State Provincial Government Departments to establish and sustain a Service Delivery Improvement Plan (SDIP) (Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):1). The Public Service Regulations further stipulated that the executive authority of each Department should establish and sustain an SDIP. Therefore

it is important to promote and strive for excellence in service delivery and to exploit transformation for the improvement of Public Service delivery.

2.3.1   The need for excellence in service delivery

Basic values and principles require that the public sector should strive to be development-orientated, accountable, transparent, and should address imbalances regarding employment equity and focus on service delivery (SA: Parliament 2002:On-line). This is also required from the PPM, who forms part of the management of the public sector. The public sector is a transparent system, embedded in a thriving environment that not only sets the pace but also outlines the actions to be taken by institutions within this sector. In any society, the affairs of the people must be regulated in the interest of all, with a view to promoting the general welfare of society (Roux et al., 1997:207). The Free State Provincial Administration is mandated to deliver the services required by the society. Public officials have been appointed to serve the members of the public and not to promote private and own interests (Botes, Brynard, Fourie & Roux, 1996:365). However, it appears that the South African public sector is characterised by allegations of improper and unethical behaviour and that this state of affairs has generated widespread concern at government level (Mafunisa, 2000:4).

At present, it appears as if the South African public sector does not function optimally. The reasons for this include, amongst others, a lack of sufficient resources to fulfil mandates such as the counteraction of unemployment; the fragmentation of the legislative framework; insufficient application of the disciplinary system; and undeveloped management capacity (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2002 (a):6). The government should strive to improve service delivery by benchmarking its performance in collaboration with the private sector, deploying personnel more effectively, rendering a more accessible service, circumventing inflexible Public Service regulations and engaging in partnerships with other authoritative role-players in service delivery (Ministry for the Public Service and Administration, 1997:4, Sekoto & van Straaten, 1999:104 and SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (a):18). Improving service delivery is further mandated by the Constitution (SA: Constitution, 1996:Chapter 2).

2.3.2   Transformation and the improvement of Public Service delivery

Improving service delivery implies that the delivery of public services to the community must be transformed so as to meet the basic needs of all South Africans. Various initiatives were set in motion to improve service delivery in provincial governments. Published in 1995, the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service laid down eight transformation priorities, of which the transformation of service delivery was a key element. The White Paper (1997:91) outlines the transformation priority areas as "... rationalisation and restructuring to ensure a unified, integrated and leaner Public Service; institution building and management to promote greater accountability and organisational and managerial effectiveness; representativeness and affirmative action; transforming service delivery to meet basic needs and redress past imbalances; the democratisation of the state; human resource development; improving employment conditions and labour relations and the promotion of a professional service ethos".

In addition, the White Paper on Transforming Public Services Delivery (1997) was published on 1 October 1997, with the aim of providing a framework for the improvement of Public Service delivery. This framework can be implemented in a practical manner. It requires government departments at national and provincial level to undertake the following actions:

[To]

- Identify important improvements (irrespective of how insignificant they may seem to be) for immediate implementation;
- Follow the implementation strategy provided for in the White Paper by developing a service delivery improvement plan;
- Publish standards for services provided; and
- Monitor the standards of service delivery.

To render excellent services to the public against the background of transformation, PPMs should be committed to removing the obstacles that hamper effective service delivery. Section 5 of the White Paper makes provision for encouraging innovation and rewarding public officials who have shown that they are committed to quality service delivery. Section 6 is concerned with a partnership between the Public Service and the wider community in order to develop a service-orientated culture. Section 7 proposes the introduction of mechanisms and the implementation of a strategy to make effective

service delivery a reality. Section 8 requires that service standards and a statement of commitment be published, whereas sections 9, 10 and 11 respectively deal with the implementation of the "Batho Pele" principles; the role of the Department of Public Service and Administration in supporting the implementation of the Batho Pele principles; and the monitoring of the progress of implementation. Section 12 is entitled "No time to lose" and proposes the setting of time-frames for the implementation of specific aspects. However, section 12 is primarily concerned with the importance of the implementation of the principles, with a view to eventually reaching a stage where the public realise that they have the right to proper service delivery and where public servants are proud of the service rendered (SA: White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997).

Primarily, the role of the PPM in transforming service delivery should entail the establishment and sustenance of a service delivery improvement programme for each provincial department, as mandated by the Public Service Regulations (SA: Public Service Regulations, 1999). Secondly, the PPM should publish an annual statement regarding Public Service commitment, containing the department's service standards as well as the steps taken to fulfil each standard (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):33).

2.3.2.1 The Batho Pele principles

The SDIPs of the Free State Provincial Government are linked to the eight Batho Pele principles, of which service delivery standards are considered to be the most important (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):12). These principles include consultation regarding the level and quality of public services, service standards, equal access to services, courtesy, accurate information regarding services, openness and transparency, redress if services are not delivered and the economical and efficient delivering of services (SA: White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997:5 and Sekoto & van Straaten, 1999:105). Each of these eight principles can be related to PPMs, and ultimately impacts considerably on their involvement in service delivery:

- Consultation – PPMs should develop and implement mechanisms to consult the public regarding the level and quality of services they receive and, if this is feasible, the public should be given a choice about the services rendered. PPMs should take note of the public's views and take these into consideration when decisions are made about service provision;

❑ Service standards – the public should be aware of the level and quality of the Public Service that they will receive, and thus know what to expect. This implies that PPMs should have a clear vision regarding the set standards and must be able to manage the necessary resources and services according to the expected standards;

❑ Access – citizens should have equal access to the services to which they are entitled. This includes the creation of an effective management and resource infrastructure, implemented and managed by PPMs;

❑ Courtesy – treatment of citizens with consideration and respect. PPMs are mandated to serve the public without prejudice or discrimination;

❑ Information – the public are entitled to be given full, accurate information regarding services;

❑ Openness and transparency – the public should be aware of how national and provincial departments function, the structure of authority and how expenses are managed. This emphasises how important it is for PPMs to act objectively and manage effectively, in the best interest of the public;

❑ Redress – if the expected standard of service is not maintained, the public should be offered an apology, an explanation and a speedy and effective remedy. PPMs should react swiftly and sympathetically to complaints;

❑ Value for money – public services should be provided economically and efficiently in order to give citizens the best possible value for money.

Thus, the PPM should manage resources effectively and efficiently and be accountable for his/her actions and decisions.

2.3.2.2 Promotion of professionalism

Public institutions are predominantly made up of professional groups such as, amongst others, medical professionals, welfare counsellors and engineers (Lawton & Rose, 1994:82). Members of such a professional group can confer power upon employees in the institution because they have specialised knowledge and skills, developed over a period of time. Fox & Meyer (1995:103) explain professionalism as the tendency for public organisations to come under the authority of a single profession that sets itself up as a selected class within an institution in order to direct employment standards, administrative policy, and the methods of work.

Lawton & Rose (1994:202) argue that, for services to be delivered more efficiently and effectively, professionals should acquire management skills such as the managing of resources. The authors furthermore suggest that a combination of professional expertise and managerial competence is needed, and that professionals should not assume that because of their professional identities, they are unable to act corporately in the Public Service or display the necessary management skills. A distinctive feature of public sector institutions is that they are expected to be highly professional, thus combining Public Service values with the values and standards of the profession itself (Sekoto & van Straaten, 1999:106).

Professionalism is not merely freedom from malpractice but also embraces the quality of work performed by public servants (SAMDI, 2001:12). It is expected of PPMs in the Free State Provincial Government to promote the efficient, economic and effective use of resources in order to improve the functioning of the department. In addition, they should apply working methods such as the re-allocation, simplification and coordination of work and eliminate unnecessary functions (SA: Department of the Premier, 2000 (b):10).

The Human Resource and Organisational Development Directorate in the Department of the Premier, Free State Provincial Government, has further put forward a document suggesting guidelines in the management of diversity (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (a):7). The corporate values and principles that govern diversity management include, amongst others, commitment, accountability and professionalism towards clients, juniors and superiors. Another document, compiled by the Free State Provincial Government's Performance and Development Management Project Team, put forward two policies addressing performance and development management and the management of job descriptions (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (a)(b):2). Both these policies are aimed at improving service delivery, as well as the overall effectiveness of both the human resource component and the functional actions of the institution.

Other national initiatives addressing the issue of professionalism are the Code of Conduct for the Public Service (SA: Public Service Regulations, 1999:Chapter 2) and anti-corruption interventions. The Code of Conduct was drafted with the purpose of giving practical effect to the Constitution. In addition to acting as a guide for public

officials in order to clarify what acceptable conduct implies, it promotes professionalism and develops accountability (Mafunisa, 2001:327).

The Code of Conduct later culminated in a National Anti-Corruption Initiative aimed at minimising and addressing issues related to corruption (Du Toit, van der Walt, Bayat & Cheminais, 1998:156 and Sing, 2000:3). In 1998 the National Public Sector Anti-Corruption Conference (NPSAC) was held, followed by the National Anti-Corruption Summit in 1999. The NPSAC initiated an action plan for the implementation of the resolutions of the Summit and monitored inputs from all departments and provincial administrations related to this implementation (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2002 (b):3). In accordance with the resolution of the Summit, the Department of Public Service and Administration published a Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy in January 2002. The strategy proposes the establishment of a new legislative framework (Act) by July 2003 to fight corruption (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2002 (b)).

With service delivery in mind, the provincial government was obliged, in addition, to focus on internal affairs, specifically related to human resource management and development. PPMs are perceived as the primary initiators of professionalism and ethical conduct in the provincial government and are viewed as being responsible for the ethical standards that govern the behaviour and outputs of subordinates in the provincial government (Mafunisa, 2000:79).

2.3.2.3   Ethical conduct in the public sector

Within the context of the role of the PPM, ethics, according to Cloete (1995:29), may be defined as "... the collection of moral principles, norms, attitudes, values and obligations that serve as conduct and behaviour rules", to ensure that public servants stay focused on the promotion of the general welfare of the public. Ethics are thus the moral principles that should govern the conduct of all the role-players in the public sector and include aspects such as commitment to public trust, service delivery to society and protection for the disadvantaged (Fox & Meyer, 1995:45 and Skinner & Ivancevich, 1996:135).

Public sector ethics are concerned with actions and decisions that have a direct effect on the members of the public. Section 195(1) of the Constitution (1996) prescribes basic

values which the provincial government must comply with, such as impartiality, fair and equitable services, responsiveness, accountability and a high standard of professional ethics; and every citizen has the right to expect decent public services which are in keeping with these values. Unlike instinctive morality, ethics is a rational and conscious attempt to formulate the principles governing good and bad, right and wrong. Moreover, in contrast to instinctive morality, it has the advantage of being open to scrutiny, reflection and improvement. This is important, because codes of behaviour need to be periodically adjusted (Mafunisa, 2000:79). Ethical and moral standards thus go beyond the prohibitions of legislation and concern human obligations and the principles on which these obligations depend.

The ethical roles and functions of PPMs can be divided into two types of actions – those which are internal and those which are external to the institution. Internally, the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997) recommends that national and provincial departments give recognition to and reward staff for performing well in providing proper customer services. For this reason, performance management systems should include an assessment of the performance of an individual in respect of how much he or she has contributed towards improving service delivery (Sing, 2000:2 and SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (c):7). Provincial departments should furthermore ensure that staff work in an environment conducive to effective service delivery (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):9).

Externally, the White Paper accepts that the Public Service cannot develop a truly service-orientated culture without the active participation of the broader community. Future attempts will therefore have to be made to establish partnerships with the broader community in which all sectors can participate (Sing, 2000:5). To establish such partnerships, provincial departments should involve representatives of the broader community in all discussions about the future development of public services (Ministry for the Public Service and Administration, 1997:14). The Human Resource and Organisational Development Directorate in the Department of the Premier, Free State Provincial Government, has therefore put forward a customer-care strategy to address ethical behaviour regarding service delivery in particular. This strategy makes suggestions regarding, *inter alia*, the implementation of customer-care programmes. It also spells out the role and responsibilities of PPMs, addresses the management of

resources and proposes methods to evaluate customer-care programmes (SA: Department of the Premier, 2000 (b):1-12).

There are seven independent state institutions supporting constitutional democracy and ethical conduct (Mafunisa, 2000:38). These include the following institutions:

❑ The Public Protector (who investigates the conduct of state officials on behalf of the public);

❑ The Human Rights Commission (which promotes the protection of human rights);

❑ The Commission for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities (promoting respect for the rights of cultural, religious and linguistic communities);

❑ The Commission for Gender Equality (which encourages respect for and general protection of gender equality);

❑ The Auditor-General (who audits and reports on financial statements and the financial management of all national and provincial state departments and administrations); and

❑ The Independent Electoral Commission (which is appointed to co-ordinate free and fair national, provincial and municipal elections) (sections 182, 184, 185, 187, 188 & 190 of the Constitution and Parliament, 2002:On-line).

Finally, the Public Service Commission (PSC) functions as an independent body that monitors and arbitrates the activities, ethos and conduct of the Public Service (SA: Parliament, 2002:On-line). Officially launched on 1 July 1999, the PSC replaces the nine Provincial Service Commissions and the national Public Service Commission initially established in 1994 under the interim Constitution. The powers and functions of the Commission are set out in section 196 (4) of the Constitution (1996) and include the following:

❑ Promoting the values and principles of public administration, as set out in section 195 of the Constitution, throughout the public sector;

❑ Monitoring, evaluating and investigating human resource practices, service delivery and related organisational aspects to assess the extent to which they comply with constitutional values and principles;

❑ Supporting the efforts of the public sector to promote a high standard of professional ethics; and

□ Investigating grievances of officers and recommending appropriate remedies or actions, and reporting at least once a year to Parliament and provincial legislatures on its activities.

It can be concluded that the actions of public institutions and the conduct of PPMs should conform to specific ethical norms. Current and future demands on provincial government departments will guide the type of ethical behaviour and professional competencies required. The PPM should become sensitive to these needs and respect and comply with essential management principles, such as accepting differences, upholding ethics and values, balancing work and personal needs, being flexible and able to adapt, and exposing corruption (Dale, 1993:242). However, in its pursuit of effectiveness, the Government has a responsibility to facilitate the training of officials and PPMs in professional service rendering, thereby ensuring the development of the required skills and competencies (Penceliah & Moodley, 2002:36).

2.3.2.4 Training and development of public managers

Human resource development has become critically important in order to survive in a changing environment, as well as to ensure professional service (Mafunisa, 2001:327). This was the stated view of the Premier of the Free State during the 5th National Public Service Trainers' Conference held in Bloemfontein (SAMDI, 2001:9). The effects of human resource development on the public sector were also realised by the central level of government, which has launched many Acts and policies that address this issue since 1994 (also refer to section 2.2.4). Also during an address delivered at the 5th National Public Service Trainers' Conference, the current Minister of Labour suggested that the challenges and pressures that confront public servants in the endeavour to deliver service to millions of South Africans are enormous. Because the quality of service provided is directly dependent on the skills and knowledge of public sector employees, the role of training and development is crucial (SAMDI, 2001:11). The State President mentioned in the State of the Nation Address (2002) that the Government would devote itself to improving the efficiency of government, with particular emphasis on the improvement of professional competence in order to enhance the quality of service delivery (SA: Mbeki, 2002:On-line).

The Free State Provincial Government has faced this challenge and has produced several policy documents with a view to implementing and evaluating human resource development in the provincial sphere of government:

❏ A customer-care strategy focuses on human resource training and development as a resource that should be managed effectively. The aim is to sensitise public servants in respect of, *inter alia*, the code of conduct in relation to customer care and service delivery. The Training Subdirectorate in the Office of the Premier also offers formal training in customer care to all employees. PPMs should not only have knowledge regarding service delivery documents, but also be able to create a customer-focused climate in their departments (SA: Department of the Premier, 2000 (b):11).

❏ The performance and development management guide addresses performance planning, performance monitoring, reviewing and evaluation, development support and recognition and rewards. This document clearly spells out the roles and responsibilities of all role-players (MECs, heads of departments, supervisors and employees) (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (b):16-17). The policy document should assist in identifying performance shortcomings and development needs amongst PPMs.

❏ A diversity management document launched in February 2002 emphasises the importance of training and development of PPMs, as their behaviour can have a significant effect on employees. This document calls for a visible commitment from PPMs, including a commitment to awareness training in order to develop discernment in respect of prejudicial attitudes and behaviour (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (a):18).

The establishment of a Senior Management Service is also envisaged, in order to address the need to improve management capacity in the Public Service. The main aim is to professionalise the senior management echelon and to call on tertiary institutions to respond to Public Service management training needs (SA: Fraser-Moleketi, 2000:On-line).

2.3.2.5 Maintenance of productivity

Political and administrative heads of national and provincial departments are mandated to make the necessary institutional arrangements to communicate the Batho Pele concepts by means of their departmental strategic plans. In addition they must ensure

that each department possesses a Service Delivery Improvement Plan (SDIP). After each department's plan has been compiled, it must be approved by the relevant minister or member of the Executive Council and the Department of Public Service and Administration must be provided with an approved copy thereof (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):6). PPMs are responsible and accountable for the implementation of the approved SDIP. Supervisors, in turn, will be accountable to PPMs. Although the aim of the SDIP should be to redress past imbalances by focusing on the needs of the previously disadvantaged citizens, the maintenance of continued services to all levels of society should also be ensured (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):6).

Once each provincial department has its strategic and Service Delivery Improvement plans in place, PPMs should ensure the maintenance of productivity and the improvement of services (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):6). The PPM can achieve this by implementing five Alternative Service Delivery (ASD) options namely "public-private partnerships, rationalisation, entrepreneurship, re-engineering and privatisation" (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):19-28). A public-private partnership is defined as an agreement between a public sector unit and a private sector unit, in terms of which the private sector unit executes a public-unit task for every outcomes-based specification. Such a partnership can also exist between government departments (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):19). The skills required by the PPM to enhance productivity through a partnership are of a long-term nature and involve risk management, financial planning, technical expertise and human resource management (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):25).

Rationalisation as a second option to improve productivity is applied to less significant line functions or departments in an institution. In these cases the release of resources to higher-priority functions would be in the best interests of obtaining the institutional objectives (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):20). According to the Oxford English Dictionary (1986:697), to rationalise means to "reorganize, to lessen or get rid of labour or materials". PPMs who implement rationalisation should determine whether there are alternative institutions that could render the service and improve the cost-effectiveness thereof.

Thirdly, entrepreneurship should be aimed at shaping managers who are able to identify opportunities and use them to the benefit of their department and institution in a

holistic way. Characteristics common to successful entrepreneurs, such as drive, perseverance, energy and purposefulness, would become part of the institutional culture in this way, with the implication that such qualities can be created (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):25).

Re-engineering refers to the redesign of a business process in order to achieve improvement in crucial areas of performance and service delivery (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):28). The PPM should be able to relinquish past methods and overcome resistance to change. Finally, privatisation, as an option to improve productivity, entails the selling or relinquishing of a public sector function to the private sector, which will then continue the function according to its own manner (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (b):28). The latter method should be considered as a last resort only, since the function in question may ultimately be discontinued, which would hamper service delivery.

Provincial public managers should manage and review SDIPs on a continuous basis in order to maintain a high level of productivity. In this regard, the achievement of standards must never be seen as the end of a process but rather as an inspiration to continuously strive to reach optimal productivity. This ideal renders the improvement of service delivery a continuous, progressive, cyclic process.

2.4 TYPICAL MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS OF THE PROVINCIAL PUBLIC MANAGER

Since the post-1994 transitional period in South Africa, it is probable that many PPMs have increasingly been experiencing the new managerial environment in terms of a loss of power, since they were used to exercising authority from a hierarchically superior position. Now they have to negotiate before taking a decision, as departments have become more participative, team-orientated, open and accessible (Puth, 1994:8). This has also impacted on the values and principles according to which PPMs function (Sing, 2000:1). Present-day challenges for PPMs lie in two major fields, namely management functions and skills (chapter 2, section 2.5).

Several authors have shown that public managers at various institutional levels spend varying amounts of their time on management functions (Thornhill & Hanekom, 1993; Cloete, 1991; Robbins & De Cenzo, 1995; Rue & Byars, 1995; Barker & Rubycz, 1996;

Fox et al., 1997; Koehler & Pankowski, 1997; Du Toit et al., 1998; Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999). The directive dimensions of the enabling function, as indicated in table 2.1, for example, are considered to be the task of the top and senior managers and include policy-making, control and evaluation. Middle and junior managers execute the managerial functions and spend most of their time on the utilisation of resources. The concept of "function" is usually linked to a person or an object, such as the function of a teacher to develop the abilities of children, or the function of the heart to circulate blood (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:46). In all the functions linked to a managerial post, the manager is the activating element.

Van der Waldt & Du Toit (1999:180) emphasised that management functions differ from the generic administrative functions (policy-making, organising, personnel provision, financing, control, methods and procedures) in terms of their current application, and suggested the inclusion of coordination as an additional management function. A number of authors have regarded coordination as a separate function, whereas others have considered it to be part of the organising function. Fox et al. (1997:26), on the other hand, suggested the addition of policy-making as a management function and combined the functions of control and evaluation. Botes et al. (1996:303) regarded policy-making as part of the administrative rather than the management functions. However, as these management functions will always operate interactively, it should be possible to define each process individually, rendering it impossible to manage one without the other (Botes et al., 1996:303).

PPMs should thus have a sound knowledge of all managerial functions in order to be effective, although some functions may be more relevant to a specific profession. It was mentioned earlier in this chapter (section 2.3.2.2) that many professionals do not have the necessary managerial skills to perform effectively as managers, and that institutions should not take it for granted that all professionals and PPMs are equipped with the relevant knowledge concerning management functions.

For the purpose of this research, the following sections will deal with certain management functions and skills that are closely related to the performance of the PPM and which make an important contribution towards ensuring effective managers. To this end, PPMs should be able to function effectively and efficiently and are bound by performance contracts (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (c):3). These contracts

should be regarded as a source of quality assurance whereby the provincial government can evaluate the performance and potential of managers, and address deficiencies in order to achieve the institutional objectives.

2.4.1 Participation in policy-making and analysis

The policy-making process entails a series of pragmatic steps with the main purpose of addressing specific needs or problems such as external broad goals of government or internal operations of government institutions (Fox et al., 1997:36 and Du Toit et al., 1998:42). It is an enabling function aimed at providing the PPM with the means to render services, by virtue of policy, in order to promote the general welfare of the community (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:63).

Policy-making, according to Botes et al. (1996:307), can be effected in three different ways. Firstly, government may put legislation in place to guide a decision. The role of the PPM in this process would be to make comments and recommendations during the formulation stage (Botes et al., 1996:151). Secondly, a policy can originate from institutional difficulties experienced by the PPM. In this case, recommendations to the specific minister and provincial parliament may lead the way in drafting formal legislation to address the issue. The role of the PPM in this context would be to initiate a new idea or a solution to a problem. Thirdly, the community may put pressure on public institutions to conform, provide, change or adjust in order to meet the needs of the community. Pressure groups in the community include labour unions, organised industry and personnel associations (Botes et al. 1996:309). The PPM's involvement in policy-making can therefore be external, addressing broad issues such as health and education policies, or internal, focusing on intra-organisational administrative processes. Fox et al. (1997:37) caution the public manager in general not to neglect internal policy matters simply because they do not feature in white or green papers.

The PPM at various levels in the institution is confronted on a daily basis with the impact of policy-making and of being in contact with the policy-makers. This close association with policies and policy-makers creates an ideal situation for the PPM to render inputs as part of an advisory function (Botes et al. 1996:303). The PPM's advice is usually based on sound practical experience, serving as a solid foundation during the formulation of policies. Because politicians can, at times, lack technical and practical expertise, they need to rely on PPMs to refine policies (Roux et al., 1997:151).

Chapter two
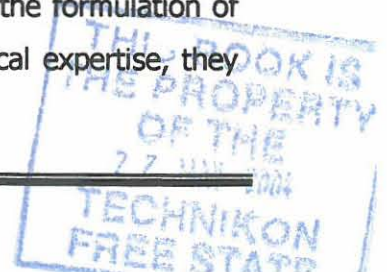
As part of his/her formulation function, the PPM thus has to be acquainted with the applicable policy of the governing institution, the viewpoints of opposition parties and other political dynamics that could have an impact on policy-making (Botes et al., 1996:309). However, the fact that the policy-making process has been completed does not necessarily secure the successful implementation of effective and efficient services, as this is strongly dependent on successful planning and programming by the PPM, in order thus to address the policy analysis function (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:79).

Policy analysis is a multidisciplinary approach that seeks to generate applicable information as a foundation for policy decisions (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:83 and Roux et al., 1997:149). The generating of information, according to Roux et al. (1997:150), includes policy-issue analysis (structuring of policy issues), advocacy of policy alternatives and policy outcomes analysis (monitoring and evaluation). Since the term "analysis" refers to the separation or breaking down of a problem into basic elements, policy analysis thus refers to the exposition of activities and the evaluation of the effectiveness and efficiency thereof (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:85).

Policy analysis is an activity performed by heads of governmental departments or specific agencies. At grassroots level, PPMs are responsible for implementing the policies and are therefore in a favourable position to identify the shortcomings in existing policies and to bring them to the attention of policy-makers (Lawton & Rose, 1994:185). PPMs act as an important link between the legislature and the community in the policy process. They should communicate and share information with colleagues, policy-makers and communities. They are therefore important role-players in the execution of policies (Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:59).

2.4.2 Planning actions

Lewis et al. (1998:121) define planning as a process that focuses on the formulation of institutional goals and objectives and includes the means and methods of achieving these objectives. Planning, one of the basic management functions, is of the utmost importance if changes in the macro-environment, such as in the South African situation, cause a degree of instability. It is expected of the PPM in such circumstances to apply conceptual and technical competencies. Conceptual competencies refer to those areas of proficiency that should be employed to minimise threats and optimise opportunities, whereas technical competencies refer to issues such as who is responsible, what

activities need to be executed, how activities should be performed, when activities should take place, where they should take place and why a need for them exists (Thompson and Strickland, 1998:36).

Although every PPM will be involved in planning to some extent, the more senior the post, the more time and money are involved and the more important the scope of planning will be. Senior PPMs, for example, will put plans forward and delegate authority to middle management to focus on achieving the strategic objectives (within 6 to 12 months). Middle PPMs thus spend most of their time on production processes. Junior PPMs, in turn, are responsible for the day-to-day planning of a department or division and, together with middle management, perform utilising management functions (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:182).

The planning process starts with the formulation of clear objectives and the putting forward of suitable plans by the specific PPM (Lawton & Rose, 1994:122 and Rue & Byars, 1995:156). If the objectives of a plan are not clear, tasks, resources and responsibilities cannot be allocated to that plan (Lewis et al., 1998:136). External factors that could influence the plan should be anticipated and in addition, the necessary actions should be taken to avoid possible interruptions (Auriacombe, 1999:130). As planning forms the basis of all departments, for example finance, provisioning and personnel departments, the PPM should promote cooperation between various departments and employees and involve them from the outset (Human & Hofmeyer, 1985:56). The final two crucial steps in the planning process require a PPM to prepare a budget for the specific plan and evaluate it afterwards.

In general, knowledge concerning the following three management techniques is deemed to be necessary during the planning process (Roux et al., 1997:227). Firstly, the Gantt chart is a graph that is used to guide the planning of long-term projects and which provides a work-breakdown structure with definite time-frames (Stoner & Wankel, 1990:186). For more complex projects, the PPM should apply a network-based schedule such as the PERT (programme evaluation and review technique) or the critical path method (CPM) (Rue & Byars, 1995:201). These three techniques prioritise activities in logical sequence and determine a critical path, or the longest route permitted for the task to be performed (Robbins & De Cenzo, 1995:42). Within all three techniques a project can be visualised and a deviation can immediately be detected when processes

are plotted on the charts. Finally, strategic planning can be used to evaluate, select and implement alternatives for a plan - a process that can often be seen as a tool of an overall strategic management process (Lawton & Rose, 1994:122 and Rue & Byars, 1995:146). Although strategic planning can be used as a method of evaluation, the evaluation process should not be restricted to the end of a plan, but rather viewed as a continuous process through all the phases of planning (Human & Hofmeyer, 1985:60).

According to Stoner & Wankel (1990:117) and Lewis et al. (1998:126), strategic management can be viewed as an alternative to traditional public planning and taken into account the importance of proactive management and planning to keep up with the changing environment. Du Toit et al. (1998) are of the opinion that strategic planning and management have proved to be valuable in public sector institutions, although the principles thereof should be adapted to the unique environment of the provincial government. The strategic management process entails three phases: strategy formulation, strategy implementation and strategy evaluation. The PPM should have knowledge regarding strategic management processes and their applicability to provincial government-related challenges and problems. Van der Waldt & Du Toit (1999:287) are of the opinion that failure to consider the unique circumstances of an institution will lead to difficulties in the implementation of strategic management models. During such unique circumstances, for example the current period of vigorous transformation in the public sector, the PPM may find short-term planning more effective than long-term planning, as the short-term plan can be rapidly adjusted as the need arises (Du Toit et al., 1998:176).

The planning function also provides PPMs with a benchmark for control, thus providing direction and reducing risk-taking, for example overspending of the budget (Stoner & Wankel, 1990:92). It further provides opportunities for participation management, promotes cooperation between departments and thereby reduces duplication. Ultimately planning assists institutions to adapt to changing circumstances and environments (Du Toit et al., 1998:177).

2.4.3   Organising

Once planning has been performed as a management function, it constrains the PPM to organise internally in order to execute the plan. One of the organising actions is the active grouping of functions and the allocation of these functions to institutions and

workers in such a manner that all the workers are able to align their work in order to achieve the institutional objectives (Cloete, 1991:112 and Lewis et al., 1998:263). This is an extensive task, entailing that individuals should be organised in such a manner that all role-players are aware of their responsibilities, the amount of authority they have and the reporting hierarchy they work in (Stoner & Wankel, 1990:4). However, organising is not merely the arrangement of people in order to reach a common objective, but is also aimed at creating interaction amongst instructions, tasks and responsibilities – this is where the PPM plays a major directive role (Skinner & Ivancevich, 1996:244).

Cloete (1996:133) indicates that internal organisation involves five aspects, namely the horizontal division of work; the assignment and delegation of authority; coordination; maintaining lines of communication; and finally, exercising control (Thompson & Strickland, 1998:426). It is expected of every PPM to be acquainted with these aspects of organising as well as to perform with the highest degree of efficiency within the institutional structure. The horizontal division of work means that the various fields of activities are divided into a number of smaller sections on the same level within the institution (Rue & Byars, 1995:226). For example, in the corporate services subdirectorate of a provincial government department, there are staff concerned with personnel matters, whilst other staff may be responsible for finance and others for labour relations. The challenge facing the PPM is that of organising these internal aspects within this subdirectorate so as to give effective execution to each individual plan and action (Fox et al., 1997:68).

Furthermore, the PPM should be acquainted with the two categories of division of work, namely job specialisation which refers to the division of functions into line functions by organisational units, and auxiliary functions (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:104 and Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:189). The division of work consequently leads to the assignment and delegation of authority, as the PPM could not possibly be responsible for the effective execution of all functions (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:112 and Du Toit et al., 1998:51). Although the public manager also has authority that enables him/her to strive towards the accomplishment of objectives, he/she should group organisational units for the purpose of effective supervision and leadership (Fox et al., 1997:68).

When the PPM delegates tasks and manages a division of work, he/she must coordinate all activities of the various divisions within an institution in order to prevent duplications and delays in the accomplishment of objectives (Stoner & Wankel, 1990:5). The delegation and coordination of tasks include extensive verbal and written communications. Lewis et al. (1998:26) are of the opinion that the effective utilising of human resources necessitates effective communication within the organisation, as this is also the means whereby information is shared. Policies, procedures, regulations and guidelines are regulators of communication within an institution (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995:90). It may be concluded that the communication skills required from the PPM should focus on effective communication and interaction amongst employees within project teams and the multicultural institution.

The PPM should have knowledge relating to methods of organising personnel and functions. The most practical and operational of these methods is the organisational chart, which comprises an annually reviewed exercise that gives a clear picture of the lines of authority in an institution (Skinner & Ivancevich, 1996:250). A second method of organising is the departmentalisation of functions, which refers to the process during which all governmental activities are grouped logically, with the implication that people who perform the same task are grouped in departments (Rue & Byars, 1995:250 and Skinner & Ivancevich, 1996:250). In a larger institution, divisionalisation is frequently used as a method of organising and focuses on areas which each have their own division (production, marketing, provisioning and human resources) and public manager. Finally, the matrix organisational method is used to second personnel to temporary project teams, whilst they still report to their functional heads of department. These teams dissolve when their task is completed (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:195).

Selected application areas for PPMs to apply organisation as a management function are project management and organisational development. The PPM may either form part of a project team or act as the project leader. The project management process entails three interrelated parts, the first of which is the planning action of the project. This initial stage of the process requires strong leadership from the project manager in defining the scope of the project, developing plans to reach the project's goal, establishing a project organisation structure, and determining resources and methods of control. Secondly, once all these steps are in place, the project manager should lead the

project team in carrying out responsibilities including organising, executing and managing project activities and resources, solving project-related problems and facilitating communication with all the stakeholders. Finally the project manager is expected to conduct all project activities to their completion and evaluate the effectiveness of the project planning and implementation (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995:114 and Du Toit et al., 1998:229).

The PPM should also focus on organisational development as a management application to enable the specific institution to respond to change and manage change effectively (Charlton, 2000:115). The PPM can increase the success of institutional development by conducting an organisational analysis which will shed light on the organisational hierarchy and the way in which all the workers contribute to the holistic approach of the institution. This analysis will lead to the choice of a change strategy in respect of aspects such as career progression and opportunities which should motivate employees to improve their own work performance in order to achieve self-fulfilment, self-growth and career success (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:290).

Organising is a holistic and dynamic process that takes place in order to enable institutions to execute the policies of legislative institutions and achieve objectives along the way. Although it is essential that the PPM should have the ability to organise, the coordination of the activities is also of the utmost importance. If the PPM neglects to coordinate activities, duplications and delays may hinder the achievement of objectives and negatively impact on the successful organisation of resources.

2.4.4 Coordination function

Van der Waldt & Du Toit (1999:191) view coordination as an important component of organising as a management function, but also as a basic management function on its own, whilst Cloete (1996:136) is of the opinion that organisation also involves coordination (chapter one, section 1.5 and chapter two, section 2.4). Botes (1994:147) defines coordination as the carrying out of incompatible and sometimes opposite activities in a combined effort and identified three aspects related to coordination. These are: the balancing of various activities between sections and individuals; the simultaneous synchronisation of work processes to ensure cooperation; and the incorporation of activities to ensure that all are directed towards the set objective. The larger the public institution grows, the more difficult it becomes to coordinate functions.

It is therefore of particular importance for the PPM to coordinate functions effectively in order to prevent duplications, overlapping and fragmentation of functions (Hilliard, 1995:2).

Although government determines broad guidelines and lays down objectives, it is the task of the executive authority to achieve these objectives through the coordination of functions. The PPM operates at the level where governmental policy is implemented and coordinated. The manager, in charge of a number of workers, uses the resources under his/her supervision to achieve the set objectives (Lewis et al., 1998:121). The PPM is furthermore responsible for the effective execution of the work allocated to his/her department. In order to achieve the objectives in the most effective way, it is essential that the PPM should coordinate the work being performed (Skinner & Ivancevich, 1996:246). Coordination is a constructive action because as a result thereof, the PPM can anticipate what should be done, as well as where, when and by whom a task should be done. Coordinated actions will ensure that the PPM embarks upon each task functionally, in a rational order and according to a coordinated plan to ensure effectiveness.

Once the planning has been done and employees have been allocated their tasks, objectives and resources, and once the coordination of functions has taken place, a system is needed that will assist the PPM to monitor progress. This system is known as control and comprises, *inter alia*, the process that ensures that the actual activities correspond to the planned activities. Roux et al. (1997:75) stated that control, together with the evaluation function, is the final element in the management functions.

2.4.5 Involvement in control and evaluation

Although the control function could be discussed as a independent function, it is intertwined with, and relatively important to, other managerial activities such as delegation of authority (Lewis et al., 1998:535). Since PPMs are ultimately responsible for achieving institutional objectives, they should know whether subordinates are performing and whether objectives are being met, hence the necessity for control (Roux et al. 1997:76). The PPM should develop measures to exercise control before the actions commence and, without exception, before the completion of a task (Botes et al., 1996:363). Meiring & Parsons (1994:188) are of the opinion that the exercising of control starts simultaneously with the commencement of the work, whilst Thompson

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and Strickland (1998:42) state that it is imperative to take continuous control measures throughout a task. Generally the control process involves informal communication, by means of internal meetings, discussions, memorandums, circulars and non-verbal expressions, as well as formal control consisting of measuring, comparing and correcting (Rue & Byars, 1995:454). In addition, the PPM will have to engage in regular evaluation of personnel performance, since this is prescribed by the internal performance management system used in government departments (Rue & Byars, 1995:454). Together with the comparing of actual performance with desired performance and the final adjustment of actual performance or the correction of the standard or both, performance management requires that the PPM should bear knowledge of what the standard entails, how to measure actual performance and how to take corrective measures (Roux et al., 1997:77).

An effective control system necessitates the taking of suitable actions to prevent serious deviations from approved goals and policies and must be flexible enough to adjust to change while still continuing to be cost-effective. As it is not always possible to control all activities, a strategic control system should give attention to aberrations when they occur. According to Roux et al. (1997:79), the larger the degree of delegation, the greater the requirement to use a sophisticated control system. This control system must moreover be clear and understandable, as the implementation of complex control mechanisms makes the measurement thereof difficult and unreliable (Rue & Byars, 1995:456). Control can, however, create dysfunctional effects when it is manipulated to make results "look good". The PPM can prevent this occurrence by using "multiple criteria" – allocation of weight to criteria. However, political control is exercised by the legislature through the political executive office-bearer, the accounting officer, the state treasury, the state auditor, budgets, cash-flows and an "early warning system" (Halachmi & Bouckaert, 1995:439).

Lewis et al. (1998:540) discussed the importance of evaluation as part of a control system and concluded that the aim of evaluation is to evaluate the results produced, as well as what the costs and benefits of alternatives would amount to. Through monitoring, financial auditing, investigations and public debating, this relevant programmes can be scrutinised (Fox et al., 1997:126). This technical and complex process of evaluation requires that the PPM should know the stages through which evaluation proceeds, including the defining of decision-makers' needs, designing,

implementing, reporting and dissemination. According to Botes et al. (1996:363), reporting is one of the most common control measures and is used without exception by public managers to control subordinates' activities.

In conclusion, it is evident that the role of PPMs in the control of resources comprises re-examination, supervision and assessment. Although PPMs may perceive the control process as negative in the sense that they are obliged to perform fault-finding actions, they should, according to Du Toit et al. (1999:78), rather view control as a process to rectify deviations. It is imperative, before control can be exercised, that reliable control standards and measures should be assessed (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:183).

2.4.6   Leadership of the PPM and involvement in motivation

Mosley, Pietri & Megginson (1996:360) are of the opinion that management and leadership involve three activities: encouraging potential employees to join the institution; stimulating current employees to work more effectively; and finally, encouraging current employees to remain with the institution. The main difference between management and leadership lies in the manner in which a task is viewed. A leader creates a vision for an institution and strategies for achieving that vision, whilst the manager creates a resource system that can implement plans as effectively and efficiently as possible (Puth, 1994:147 and Halachmi & Bouckaert, 1995:291).

Leadership involves driving change within an institution, whereas management provides strategies and structures through which change can take place (Rue & Byars, 1995:375). The main aim of leaders is to encourage workers to take up challenges and to achieve goals, whereas to the manager, planning and making decisions are sufficient aims (Charlton, 2000:52). In the public sector, PPMs should have the potential to lead employees in achieving objectives and rendering effective service delivery (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995:27). Regardless of the above-mentioned views, it can be generally accepted that to lead is an important element of management (Lawton & Rose, 1994:90).

PPMs should be viewed as being in a unique position to assist in the rectification of past failures such as autocratic decision-making approaches. To be successful leaders, PPMs should display and be aware of their leadership characteristics and influence the behaviour of their subordinates in order to achieve institutional objectives (Lawton &

Rose, 1994:93). Examples of such characteristics are problem-solving abilities, self-confidence, internal locus of control, a sense of humour, vision, courage and the ability to set standards (Morrison, 1994:63). Cloete (1996:211) is of the opinion that a leader in the public sector should also have the following characteristics:

❑ Specialised knowledge, intelligence, expertise and skills pertaining to the functional area in which the PPM works;

❑ Sensitivity to the personal and professional needs of subordinates, as well as the ability to communicate information and instructions to subordinates in a clear and understandable manner;

❑ The ability to identify training needs of subordinates, to identify training interventions and provide the means to acquire such training;

❑ The ability to develop subordinates to the extent that they can take responsibility upon themselves and exercise authority, without the manager feeling threatened;

❑ Integrity to recognise own limitations and the willingness to undertake development interventions to equip him- or herself.

Cohen and Eimicke (1995:208) emphasise the importance of leadership skills on the part of the public manager, since the lack of efficient and effective public leaders in the public sector is well known. Furthermore, Mosley et al. (1996:395) are of the opinion that leadership is necessary, firstly in order to ensure the accomplishment of this sector's mandated purpose, and secondly because without leadership, employees in the public sector may focus on maintaining their own personal benefit and comfort zones. This mandate stems from the legislative branch of governance. PPMs must therefore also take the lead in pursuing sometimes-vague policies and legislation with limited resources (Charlton, 2000:30).

The public often lacks information surrounding these legislative and judicial policies and therefore, once again, the PPM should show leadership in dealing with the holistic concerns rather than merely focusing on individual issues. Cohen and Eimicke (1995:211) suggest that any system of governance is certainly not perfect and therefore, by exercising leadership, the PPM can assist in dealing with imperfections. But for the PPM to be able to fulfil all that is expected of him/her in order to function on this level calls for innovation, improvising initiatives, persistence to overcome obstacles and creativity in problem-solving (Charlton, 2000:117). Cohen & Eimicke (1995:212) ask the

question whether public managers, and therefore also PPMs, should be given such discretionary powers, as in the past they merely executed policies that had already been created. Although the 1996 Constitution does not stipulate clear boundaries within which the PPM should function, it does give him/her more power which, in combination with own initiatives, may have significant implications. Society expects the PPM to seize own initiative and to use his/her power to meet the mandate of governance to the benefit of the entire society.

In general, leadership traits and skills refer to social skills, sociability and motivation. Leaders should be able to obtain cooperation from colleagues and should function well in group activities, thus necessitating an additional management function – motivation (Charlton, 2000:80). During the past five decades various motivational theories have been proposed. Maslow's hierarchy of needs was divided into lower-order needs (physiological, safety, social) and higher-order needs (esteem and self-actualisation). According to Maslow's theory, although no need is ever completely fulfilled, a satisfied need no longer motivates (Maslow, 1954).

McGregor's theory implies that managers view their subordinates as either mostly disliking work and having to be mandated to perform it (Theory X), or as basically self-controlled and hard-working (Theory Y) (McGregor, 1960). Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory proposes that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction but "no satisfaction", and that the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction but "no dissatisfaction". Therefore, the elimination of factors that cause job dissatisfaction will lead to harmony but will not be a motivating factor as such (Herzberg, 1966) (see chapter five, section 5.4.3). McCelland postulated three relevant motives or needs in work-place situations, namely the need for achievement, the need for affiliation and the need for power. The characteristics of each of these can be traced to qualities inherent in people (McClelland, 1961).

Motivational factors found to be important in the private sector are just as important in the public sector. There should therefore be no difference in the applicability of motivational theories to employees in the public sector. Knowledge of the principles of these motivational theories will assist the PPM in understanding why people work and what will increase their efficiency and effectiveness (Fox et al., 1997:108).

In addition the PPM needs to be aware of employees' values, needs, interests and self-image in an attempt to get them motivated to achieve set objectives (Lawton & Rose, 1994:104 and Morrison, 1994:84). Studies have shown that factors such as autonomy, variety, opportunities for creativity, challenge and a sense of belonging and worth, are examples of motivating agents that are important to public employees (Fox et al., 1997:113). Factors such as remuneration and job security are also important to employees and are ranked amongst the seven highest motivational factors (Fox et al., 1997:113). The present-day PPM should be able to recognise differences in principles and values amongst employees in the institution and to lead accordingly. Finally, leadership refers to activities that involve facilitating productive behaviour (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995:207). Any productive work force will thus have a leader who does not fear giving direction. Being able to take firm decisions is a skill of the PPM that forms part of developing a vision for the future.

2.5 MANAGEMENT SKILLS REQUIRED OF PROVINCIAL PUBLIC MANAGERS

Having theoretical managerial knowledge does not imply that a PPM can function effectively in practice. Effective and efficient management is derived from the application of managerial skills or expertise - an attribute that a PPM can only acquire through experience. A skill can thus be defined as professional expertise such as management entrepreneurship, or a capability to perform a series of actions that relate to a definite outcome (Barker & Rubycz, 1996:156 and Koehler & Pankowski, 1997:77). According to Du Toit et al. (1998:199), the term "skill" encompasses the qualities of the individual (what he/she can do), as well as his/her abilities (what he/she knows). Dale (1993:28) agrees by referring to skills as an individual's personal abilities that may be applied to practical tasks. Selected managerial skills that are expected of PPMs include decision-making, communication and negotiating abilities, as well as the ability to manage conflict, change and diversity.

2.5.1 Decision-making ability

The effective PPM is required to have a thorough knowledge of the steps in the decision-making process. A PPM should be able to define the problem, investigate and examine the facts, consider alternatives, take the opinions of other role-players into consideration, decide on the course of action and finally evaluate the results (Puth, 1994:118; Roux et al., 1997:121). In addition, knowledge regarding decision-making

models is also of importance. Such models include the organisational process model (outputs of large institutions), the optimising model (selection of alternatives) and the "satisfying" model (search for alternatives) (Roux, 1997:139). Because decisions are taken either in groups or individually, knowledge regarding group dynamics and techniques is also of importance. Group techniques may be improved by the Nominal Group technique (exhausting ideas), the Delphi technique (distributing information) and synectics (creative decision-making) (Puth, 1994:116 and Fox et al., 1997:145).

Information continually becomes more available and its quality improves constantly through technology. Nowadays, the possession of information necessitates the ability to respond rapidly to a situation if necessary (problem-solving) and to make intuitive decisions (Lawton & Rose, 1994:185). The availability of information will furthermore allow decisions to be taken lower down in the institution, which, in turn, will reduce risks and uncertainty (Lawton & Rose, 1994:185). PPMs should moreover be able to take rational decisions that are objective and judiciously designed to reach organisational objectives (Du Toit et al., 1998:210). For example, the PPM should develop his/her subordinates to enable them to find solutions to problems, which in turn will give them confidence in taking decisions.

Decision-making, which can be seen as the essence of the PPM's task, is a very technical skill that requires technical knowledge because, without exception, management functions involve the taking of decisions. Examples of PPMs having to take decisions include the drawing of conclusions regarding performance appraisals, the approval of requests, as well as approval of the expenditures of his/her division or department. Additional decisions typically include the implementation of regulations and policies, the appointment of employees, the management of resources and skills development initiatives. In a broader sense, the PPM will be expected to take a firm stance on sensitive issues such as HIV/Aids.

2.5.2   Sound communication and negotiation skills

Taking into account that a PPM has to inspire workers on a daily basis, make presentations, take decisions and evaluate personnel performance, communicate and negotiate, it is imperative that he/she should boast an array of interpersonal skills (Lewis et al., 1998:9). Communication occurs between individuals when facts, emotions and attitudes are transmitted in such a way that the conveyed message generates a

reactive process (Mosley et al., 1996:329). This reactive process necessitates specific arrangements to assist communication between employees. It is thus defined as an enabling function as part of the organisational process (Meiring & Parsons, 1994:115). As PPMs are involved at the micro-organisational level of communication, negotiation is part of their management task on a daily basis. Negotiation can be regarded as a specialised field of communication, since it requires more skills from a manager than merely communicating (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:229). Communication primarily involves the transfer of information to inform, persuade or remind, whereas negotiation focuses on reaching consensus (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:224).

It is evident that in every institution, there should also be an informal but very active communication system (grapevine) that arises spontaneously amongst employees (Mosley et al., 1996:332 and Rue & Byars, 1995:156). This network not only conveys information but also encourages debating, expressing views and drawing conclusions about organisational information. Therefore, PPMs should recognise and tap into this network to accomplish their goals (Charlton, 2000:91). The PPM can improve communication by controlling emotions to a certain extent, exploring non-verbal cues, listening actively, simplifying language, using feedback and utilising the so-called grapevine (Puth, 1994:56 and Skinner & Ivancevich, 1996:233).

Once the gap between future organisational requirements and existing capacity has been identified, a communication strategy should be developed to enable the institution to meet its strategic objectives within the limitations of the resources available and should include aspects such as public relations and marketing (Mafunisa, 2000:86). The processes of public relations and interaction between parties, directed at reaching an agreement based on common interest with the purpose of resolving conflict, most probably comprise the best way to link the communication and negotiation skills required from the PPM (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:3).

Management skills required by the PPM during the negotiation process include the identification of circumstances that have necessitated negotiation as well as the negotiation process itself (Mafunisa, 2000:88). If PPMs are able to evaluate all variables during negotiations they will have considerable control of the active processes (Du Toit et al., 1998:207). Key managerial skills for negotiation involve commitment to the viewpoint and opinion of the team by means of a positive approach and attitude.

The PPM should be able to summarise and analyse the negotiation situation and put forward creative tactics and strategies to achieve a mutually positive outcome (Morrison, 1994:154). Through this process the PPM should furthermore apply positive communication skills and guard against prejudice and false perceptions (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:234). In addition to effective communication and negotiation, interpersonal relationships between a manager and subordinates may at times involve an active focus on labour relations (Pendlebury, Grouard & Meston, 1999:276). Guided by legislation, the PPM should therefore have knowledge regarding labour unions, labour unrest and collective bargaining and use selected labour relation procedures and rules to resolve grievances and disputes (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:15).

2.5.3 Ability to manage conflict

Conflict in the working environment of the public sector is usually resolved within the framework of policy-making. The PPM is thus constrained to be familiar with the organisational viewpoint on conflict resolution and management. The task of the PPM is not to suppress conflict but to manage it in such a way that the constructive application thereof can benefit the institution (Rue & Byars, 1995:403). PPMs need to familiarise themselves with the sources and consequences of conflict by establishing effective communication channels to air grievances and suggest solutions (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:249).

After conflict has been diagnosed the PPM should initiate the positive confrontation thereof. Throughout this process active listening plays a very important role, along with the final steps in problem-solving which entail putting forward constructive suggestions (Morrison, 1994:152). The management of conflict requires a clear understanding of its dynamics, destructive abilities and re-emerging patterns (Puth, 1994:104). It is of the utmost importance, however, that the PPM should realise that there will always be a potential for conflict; that conflict occurs naturally; and that it must be dealt with rather than ignored (Dale, 1993:235; Puth, 1994:94 and Mafunisa, 2000:4). Apart from external conflict the PPM may also be in a position where he/she is constrained to deal with personal conflict. It is vitally important that he/she should deal with it in a constructive manner.

2.5.4　Managing the challenges of change

The vision of an institution guides its actions and, therefore, the employees should bear knowledge of how this vision is to be implemented (Pendlebury et al., 1999:54). Each employee and PPM has potential and could make a unique contribution in accomplishing the institutional vision. The public sector thrives on having a diverse workforce that is rich in culture, potential, tradition and innovative ideas. The PPM is expected to manage this diverse potential of the workforce in the most effective way possible so as to achieve the vision and thus act as an agent for change (Ferlie, Asburner, Fitzgerald, & Pettigrew, 1996:104).

As previously mentioned, the whole sphere of government in South Africa changed after 1994. A new and innovative approach was adopted, which brought about a set of changes to be managed by the PPM. Much of the new legislation mandated institutions to adapt their policies to make provision for principles such as employment equity, transformation, skills development, performance management and service delivery. In this regard the PPM should have conceptual skills as well as the ability to view the institution from a holistic perspective (Puth, 1994:141 and Pendlebury et al., 1999:64). This does not mean that the PPM should necessarily have an exhaustive knowledge concerning change but rather that he/she should create a climate for change, encouraging employees to partake in change and facilitating the seizing of opportunities (Dale, 1993:235).

Fortunately for PPMs, change management is a skill that can be acquired which, if applied correctly, can be used to concentrate on positive and innovative attitudes (Dale, 1993:145). Ferlie et al. (1996:108) mention that technical, communication, teaching and coaching skills can assist managers in their role as change agents. An important implication for change agents during a period of change is the need to balance strategies for change with the human factor in an institution (Pendlebury et al., 1999:197). Change may be stressful to employees who have become used to a certain level of performance. This should always be taken into account by the PPM, as a lack of cooperation stemming from such stressful experience of the working environment could prevent successful change.

The success of the management of change will depend to a large extent on the process and techniques that are followed by PPMs in order to move from the current to the desired situation. Success in this regard will not happen automatically (Barker & Rubycz, 1996:149). The change management process firstly involves unfreezing (preparation for change), followed by transition (modification or adaptation) and refreezing (maintaining the momentum of change) (Pendlebury et al., 1999:127). In order to make change more acceptable to employees, change management techniques should refer to non-directive counselling, sensitivity training, attitude surveys and team-building exercises (Puth, 1994:141; Pendlebury et al., 1999:199 and Charlton, 2000:94).

2.5.5   The management of diversity

According to Thomas (1991:92) and Sunday Times (2002:2) diversity management is a comprehensive managerial process aimed at developing a workplace environment that is conducive to sound human relations and increased productivity. Diversity management therefore focuses on the creation of an environment that exploits the potential and appreciates the diversity of every employee, and not just women, blacks and people with disabilities (Greybe & Uys, 2001:194). The PPM should thus have to involve all individuals in the institution, aiming to utilise their potential in the pursuit of the institution's objectives. For example, younger employees can add value by contributing new technological expertise, whilst older employees can contribute through hands-on institutional experience.

Any institution has elements of consistency and inconsistency, equality and inequality in the process of goal achievement. Consistency is what makes all the human resources work together to achieve a common objective and is important in any institution. However, inconsistency is also important as it creates a climate for change and development (Pendlebury et al., 1999:22). PPMs should be aware of a prevailing sensitivity that exists in a diverse work force, encompassing equalities, perceptions and cultural backgrounds (Ferlie et al., 1996:110). Cultural differences and sensitivity comprise a crucial issue that the PPM should be able to identify and manage (Pendlebury et al., 1999:25). Owing to the diverse nature of the work force in the public sector, it is unavoidable that there will be differences between cultures (Greybe & Uys, 2001:19). An example of these is encountered in attitude problems, which are manifested in the form of corruption, sluggishness, intolerance and racism (Levitz, 1995:21).

A diverse environment demands that the PPM should adapt his/her management style and approaches so as to be tolerant and transparent and establish an atmosphere of trust and respect (Sekoto & van Straaten, 1999:111). PPMs should apply management skills such as tolerance and empathy and avoid judging employees (Greybe & Uys, 2001:198). In addition they should facilitate working towards a common vision in a system that accommodates a wide spectrum of employees (Du Toit et al., 1998:232). Van der Waldt & Du Toit (1999:262) conclude that PPMs should integrate and unite the work force in the institution and promote participatory management.

2.5.6 Entrepreneurial skills in the new environment

Charlton (2000:173) defines entrepreneurship as doing things in a new way, with reference to things that are already being done. Cohen & Eimicke (1995:39) are of the opinion that being an entrepreneur requires specific skills of PPMs, of which the first is the ability to handle uncertainty. Public sector entrepreneurs should have the skill to handle and endure uncertainty as well as to take risks in pursuing opportunities. Risks should, however, be qualified and quantified before a project is initiated (Skinner & Ivancevich, 1996:77). Public sector entrepreneurs should furthermore act in response to challenges and display creativity and innovation to achieve more effective and efficient service delivery.

According to Du Toit et al. (1998:212), the current performance management system in the public sector should reward PPMs who apply entrepreneurial skills to improve quality management. Similarly, Auriacombe (1999:129) is of the opinion that competition in service delivery should be promoted amongst service providers. Finally, public sector entrepreneurs should be able to work in a team and share knowledge and skills in order to develop people, rather than working by themselves. In the public sector, entrepreneurs should be motivated to utilise their knowledge and skills to the benefit of themselves and the institution – they must be need-driven and not constrained by rules and regulations (Auriacombe, 1999:129). Present-day PPMs should think and act like businessmen, in contrast to traditional managers who focused on the short term, strove for seniority and security, and depended on an abundance of internal processes. Entrepreneurship became a managerial necessity as public institutions realised the importance of innovation in order to achieve service excellence (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995:256).

2.5.7 General management skills

On the operational level, a number of additional management skills are required of the PPM. These skills, together with the previous skills outlined in this chapter, form the expected repertoire of an ideal and effective PPM in the present-day Public Service:

❑ Efficiency - Effective public managers should be able to set challenging goals, plan activities in a logical fashion, make certain that resources are available to solve problems and have clear standards of excellence. PPMs are thus accountable for management decisions. According to Lawton & Rose (1994:22), efficiency can only be achieved if management responsibility is delegated to those employees nearest to the point of service delivery, as these officials are in a position to take the best decisions.

❑ Proactivity – According to Fox & Meyer (1995:102), "pro-active" is a term used to describe the "personal action that transcends reactive responses to external stimuli". The effective manager should act instead of reacting, in order to accomplish tasks, gather information from more than one perspective, take calculated risks and take ownership of his/her mistakes.

❑ Adaptability and endurance - The PPM should be as enthusiastic at the end of a long-term project as at the beginning, as well as adaptable to changes in the workload. Adaptability and endurance are, respectively, proactive and reactive processes which, even under difficult circumstances, keep the institution in harmony with the changing environment (Charlton, 2000:124). According to Cook, Hunsaker & Coffey (1997:16), however, this should not encourage managers to rule out unpredictable circumstances, as the latter could bring forth new opportunities and initiatives.

❑ Managing group dynamics – From time to time the PPM may form part of a project team or act as a project leader. Managing group dynamics implies much more than merely being a leader or adjusting a specific leadership style to a situation - it is a managerial philosophy that should become part of the public manager's repertoire (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:195).

❑ Social adeptness - Thornhill & Hanekom (1995:88) note that managers nowadays are predominantly involved in workshops, discussions and forums

with different stakeholders and are responsible for the initiation of programmes and projects. The relevant process refers to the utilisation of a broadly-based network of contacts to manage and evaluate the relationship between the institution and the environment.

- Empathy – This is a particular form of showing sensitivity to other people - the ability and willingness to step into the shoes of members of the public and acknowledge their feelings and needs by identifying with them (Charlton, 2000:152). Empathy requires that the PPM should actually "walk the talk" and provide the service that the community expects (SA: Public Service Regulations, 1999:10).

- Self-confidence – PPMs may lack self-confidence and feel inferior owing to political treatment in the past. Davidson (1997) is of the opinion that black women have not been in the institutional management echelon for long enough, or in sufficient numbers, to receive recognition and trust from senior management. The PPM must avoid regrets about the past, look ahead to new experiences, and be forceful, assured, and unhesitating. A PPM's positive attitude towards her management style, as well as a good self-image, will support her in this.

- Mentoring - The PPM acting as mentor should relate well to a new employee and facilitate his/her personal development (Carrell, Kuzmits & Elbert, 1989:304). Formal mentorship programmes are increasingly being applied in present-day public sector institutions. PPMs should display confidence in subordinates and give them authority and, where applicable, resources to complete assignments, and should provide constructive feedback.

- Oral skills - The effective PPM should have the ability to communicate unequivocally and persuasively with subordinates, using innovative concepts to explain concrete ideas. Communication is a very important aspect that is part of participatory management (chapter two, section 2.5.2) (Skinner & Ivancevich, 1996:229).

❏   Innovative ability - The public manager is constantly faced with limitations, problems and challenges such as financial cutbacks, having to increase productivity, poor ethical conduct, unstable labour relations, privatisation and restructuring (Skinner & Ivancevich, 1996:233). Innovation refers to the ability of PPMs to improve the functioning of a unit by initiating productive change or improving results (Stoner & Wankel, 1990:17). The PPM should be able to take pride in the fact that, with limited resources, he/she renders a service to meet the demands of the public, communities and country as a whole. This is seldom done in isolation but rather in close consultation with interest groups (Sekoto & van Straaten, 1999:119).

2.6   CONCLUSION

Challenges to the public sector to improve the utilisation of available resources and improve productivity were high on the agenda during the last decade. White papers, strategies and statements resulted in a variety of programmes and actions in all spheres of government (central, provincial and local government). Several of these programmes addressed productivity improvement, manpower training and development, rationalisation, financial management, service delivery, labour relations and restructuring.

From the above it can be established that there are a multitude of policies, strategies and programmes directed at the rendering of effective services to the citizens of South Africa by the public sector. The political environment, which directs and governs these policies, can thus be regarded as the main force that drives the public sector towards improving the quality of life for all citizens. The executive government departments have been structured to achieve this objective. Every executive institution was established around certain core functions, the so-called line functions; and the existence of the institution depends to a large extent on the effective management and administration of these line functions to make the rendering of services possible. Each of the administrative functions boasts enabling characteristics (to provide means) and utilisation characteristics (to ensure use or application of the means). The administrative function thus includes the management function which is usually undertaken by PPMs, although in practice it may happen that the same official has to deal with both the enabling and management components of administration.

PPMs experience extensive managerial challenges in the public sector environment and therefore have to apply appropriate managerial functions and skills to counteract obstacles in an effective and efficient manner, for example rapid planning that can be adapted when necessary. Public management planning is a necessity in the new environment of change, because it assists public institutions in the handling of change, provides a framework, direction and control and improves participation. After the planning phase the PPM needs to proceed with an action by entering the organising phase of a project or task. The organisational function includes aspects such as the determination of authority, delegation, communication, coordination and control. Control involves, *inter alia*, leading people and motivating them to achieve an acceptable level of performance. Thus, the necessity of control forms part of each management function, in order to guarantee effective management. The PPM should have a basic understanding of human behaviour in order to influence the actions of the workers.

Levitz (1994:21) is of the opinion that sound human relationships, communication ability, creativity, flexibility and tolerance are crucial skills for the PPM. Employees look up to managers in order to follow their example and seek inspiration from them. If PPMs do not succeed in being inspiring leaders, all of the above-mentioned qualities become ineffective. These managerial skills should be applied on a daily basis in a changing and transformational environment, requiring the PPM not to stagnate but rather adapt to these changes. Because challenges create strenuous circumstances and criticism, they should be transformed into innovative ideas, leading to innovative actions.

The art and science of management are thus essential. On a personal level the PPM should keep abreast of new political policies, current legislation and the administrative framework in which he/she operates, which often calls for personal re-orientation. The PPM should start with self-investigation and identify his or her own limitations. This will allow him/her to develop competency up to the standard that is expected. To conclude, it is essential that own management skills, development, acceptance and willingness to change must be addressed before the PPM can focus on the needs of the society, institutions and employees.

Finally, management entails purposeful actions in the application of human and other resources for the achievement of organisational objectives. In this regard, therefore, management skills and specialised applications play a significant role. There has been a

marked movement in the South African public sector away from traditional administrative and management activities towards processes that are characterised by efficiency, quality and productivity. Management skills such as decision-making, communication, entrepreneurship, change management and management of diversity serve as positive attributes to enable PPMs to manage the changing institution more effectively. Management applications such as policy analysis, project management, information management and total quality management, are aimed at improving organisational performance and the quality of services and products. Improving overall Public Service delivery can only be accomplished through skilful PPMs and the availability of resources. It is also evident that contemporary public management is not a homogeneous set of practices that can be applied across the entire public sector.

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CHAPTER 3

PERSPECTIVES ON THE RIGHTS, ROLES AND ENDEAVOURS OF WOMEN IN THE WORK ENVIRONMENT

3.1   INTRODUCTION

African women in South Africa have been oppressed both sociologically and economically for decades (Flood et al., 1997:19). African women who find themselves in jobs as domestic workers (± 80% of all domestic workers are African women), while simultaneously acting as heads of their households, are particularly disadvantaged, because they earn far less than African men (SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:18 and Forgey et al., 2001:345). Faced with the responsibility of caring for their families, these women constitute the majority of the poor and they are the most significant burden on the economy of South Africa (African National Congress, 1994:17).

Widespread economic and political change in South Africa through the 1980s and 1990s has forced the present government to review its strategy towards the effective application of the African work force (Van Rooyen, 1984:21 and Flood et al., 1997:19). South Africa was pressurised by foreign investors and global countries, supported by increasing demographic changes, to expedite the absorption of African labour into the business sector (Human, 1991:71). To maintain a degree of economic growth, South Africa had to transform by placing the emphasis on the advancement of workers, predominantly through "black advancement" (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line). Although Human (1991:66) reported that this focus mainly targeted the private sector and that the public sector was neglected, the government nevertheless made a change in 1994 towards extensive appointment of skilled African labourers and managers, preferably African women.

Many obstacles such as educational, economic, institutional and social factors hampered this shift in the business and public sectors towards the involvement of African labour (Human, 1991:72). A further obstacle was the pre-1994 legislation that was maintained for a considerable period of time (Charoux, 1986:5). This legislation had a

negative influence on the availability of jobs, education and independence. Hence, it was not merely the lack of income resulting from unemployment that oppressed African women but also their inability to meet the educational level and skills required by the professional sectors of the day.

3.2   EVOLUTION OF WOMEN'S RIGHTS AND ROLES

Many authors point out that women worldwide have always been considered secondary to men. Feminism today advances the argument that this was probably the single most important issue that culminated in the drive for the materialisation of power for women (Wetzel, 1993:34; Rustin, 1996:101; Primo, 1997:32 and Thom, 1999:1). The former way of thinking, in terms of which women were relegated to second place, continued unchallenged for centuries (Mkalipe, 1984:8). This attitude comprised the reason for the historical viewpoint that women are born exclusively to be housewives and mothers (Primo, 1997:34). Particularly in South Africa, their role in the development of the country was limited and this, in turn, prevented their access to employment, health and education (Wetzel, 1993:34). These barriers were the reason why the integration of women in decision-making processes in the various spheres of life was limited. This situation was not to the advantage of anyone. On the contrary, it limited progress in the emancipation of women and deprived women of their human rights and the country of economic growth (Wetzel, 1993:34 and Carrell et al., 1998:25).

Over the centuries the role of women in society has always differed from that of men (Smit, 1978:1; James, 1984:28 and Santho, 1995:4). God first created man and then another human being, whom He called woman. God unambiguously spelled out the woman's role in society when He declared: "I will increase your trouble in pregnancy and your pain in giving birth. In spite of this, you will still have desire for your husband, yet you will be subject to him" (Good News Bible, 1977). If this testimony had been the only prospect that women could look forward to in their lives, the gender would have been condemned. In contrast, however, the Bible also gives evidence of the important part that women are meant to play both as homemakers and breadwinners (De Vries, 1991:1). Proverbs 31 (Good News Bible, 1977) portrays a woman as an individual whose "price is far above rubies" and presents her as a highly-prized partner to her husband, involved in the purchase of land, the trading and manufacturing of textiles, as well as a diversity of other enterprises besides housekeeping (Smit, 1978:3). Women play an important part as homemakers and breadwinners, since Jesus Christ, by

His death, removed the curse that mankind had brought upon itself - including the one inflicted on women. Thus, according to Galatians 3:28, although women still have different roles from those of men in the family and in certain contexts, Jesus redeemed mankind, including women. Women are thus no longer "second class" citizens in relation to men (Good News Bible, 1977).

The woman's roles have always revolved around her presence in the family and home, which was expected of her in society (Lillicrap, 1987:8; Weaver & Hill, 1994:1 and Santho, 1995:5). The African value system, in particular, does not distinguish women as individuals, but always as supplements to a greater society (Santho, 1995:6). Traditionally, in Western marriages, the woman progressed from being a housewife to being a "happy homemaker" where her time was dedicated to supporting her husband's career (Smit, 1978:36 and De Vries, 1991:68). Although the majority of women would agree that this type of life was fulfilling, many have moved beyond the role of homemaker (Smit, 1978:5 and Weaver & Hill, 1994:2). As circumstances changed, women stepped into the economic world to find means by which they could contribute to their families' subsistence (Mkalipe, 1984:8). During recent decades the family structure across Southern Africa has been in a process of considerable change as old structures, both economic and ideological, were increasingly subjected to outside pressure having a direct influence on women's rights and roles in the community.

3.2.1 African women's rights prior to 1994

The African family during the colonial regime in South Africa was by no means static, as it always could and did respond to changing circumstances (Johnson, 1992:101). During this period in South Africa colonialism was responsible for major and lasting shifts that led to the deterioration of the position of African women. Mission schools and legislators, for example, showed little understanding of, or respect for, the African society and the role of women therein. The colonists systematically ignored women in the process of creating a class of compliant men, through the dishonouring of the position of women in the community as well as all their political and economic rights (Johnson, 1992:102).

Examples of legislation that reinforced the above state of affairs were the **Land Settlement Act, Act 12 of 1912** and the **Group Areas Act, Act 36 of 1966** of

South Africa, which prevented Africans from owning land in South Africa (De Vries, 1991:93 and SA: Department of Labour, 1996:On-line). Together with influx control and migration regulations, this had a serious impact on the labour market for African women (De Vries, 1991:94; Sewpaul, 1994:348; Levitz, 1995:26 and Budlender, 2002:3). Furthermore, legislation forced men to search for work away from home primarily because of a lack of land as well as the imposition of stringent taxes. A tax system, called "head tax", was introduced throughout Africa under the colonial system mandating villages and settlements to pay tax for every individual living there (De Vries, 1991:107). The result was that men migrated to towns to search for paid work with the direct consequence of alienating themselves and dividing their families (Johnson, 1992:101 and Flood et al., 1997:19).

In the towns the men engaged in new relationships, which led to a perception that has become part of the consequence of migration, namely that a man had the right to multiple sexual relationships. Although this was unknown at the time, this behaviour of having casual sex with other women increased the risk of wives becoming infected with HIV (Van Dyk, 2001:54). This lifestyle had a disastrous effect on African women and their families because many men ceased providing financial support and also ceased to visit their families (Johnson, 1992:103). It was, therefore, seldom by choice that women raised their children as single parents. As a result of the above-mentioned circumstances women at home had to take control and become the heads of their families (De Vries, 1991:107; Johnson, 1992:105; Sewpaul, 1994:348 and Budlender, 1998:14).

Apart from the negative influence that colonialism and migration had on African women, a climate of obedience towards men prevailed. This climate was maintained over centuries and reinforced by the media in advertisements and official reports (James, 1984:20). Even women's organisations propagated the belief that the woman's role within her community should always be sympathetic and supportive towards her husband, and women who ignored this role were portrayed as "bad women" (De Vries, 1991:19 and Johnson, 1992:105).

Traditional African societies maintained a clear distinction between the roles of women and men (SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:18). Although both contributed to the household in different ways, giving birth to children was one of the woman's most

important objectives (James, 1984:21; Lillicrap, 1987:8 and Santho, 1995:5). Since African women traditionally raised children and performed domestic tasks while men watched over the belongings and hunted, women have consistently played a minor role in any decision-making processes in the community (James, 1984:21 and Bonnin, 1996:379). When women did resist decisions made by men they had to deal with consequences such as physical reprimands or isolation (Johnson, 1992:105). Men occupied positions from which they controlled resources and had the freedom to choose and do whatever pleased them. The result was that men held dominant positions in business and industry whilst female African labour was abundant and cheap (Lillicrap, 1987:3; Johnson, 1992:106 and Rustin, 1996:101).

Because of this situation many women with families experienced endless problems in attempts to make ends meet (Johnson, 1992:106). It was not only the irresponsible behaviour of men that played a major role, but also their violent nature (Van Dyk, 2001:54). It was, according to Van Dyk (2001:54), of no avail to report rape cases to the police, as members of the police force were themselves men who treated women in a similar manner. Even in the courts it was a hopeless battle, as women had no supportive legislation and had to struggle on their own with virtually no assistance from the church, the community or the government. These circumstances had left women with a disposition of utter powerlessness and no rights at all (Johnson, 1992:107).

3.2.2   Educational transformation of African women

It was not merely unfaithfulness on the part of husbands and the increased chance of contracting sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), the break-up of marriages and the presence of needy children that stood in the way of the empowerment of African women. Another major problem that they faced was difficulty in finding paid labour owing to lack of education and training. Prior to 1994 the black community (Africans, coloureds and Indians) in South Africa had little access to proper and effective education (girls even less than boys) and therefore the discriminatory educational policy was the first barrier that had to be overcome (Johnson, 1992:118 and Budlender, 1998:16). At that time, institutions that offered formal education guided girls to be prepared for wife- and motherhood (Mkalipe, 1984:10; Flood et al., 1997:31 and Johnson, 1992:119). This brought about a very high dropout rate among girls, primarily as a result of teenage pregnancies (SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:18).

Teaching, furthermore, was mainly regulated by the **Bantu Education Act, Act 44 of 1953**, which left young Africans with a lack of self-confidence and poorly developed communication skills (Lillicrap, 1987:19). Early schools consisted only of a chair for the teacher under the shade of a tree while he or she had to teach groups of children of both genders and various ages (SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:21). During the previous dispensation the access of races other than whites to university campuses was strictly controlled (Bonnin, 1996:379). By the 1960s there was only one centre that catered for higher education for blacks in South Africa, namely the University of Fort are (Mandela, 1994:51). By 1977 only one out of fifty African teachers had a formal qualification and only nine out of fifty had a matric certificate (Lillicrap, 1987:19 and O'Brien, 1993:3).

Compulsory education for African women only came into effect during the late 1980s (De Vries, 1991:48 and Santho, 1995:42). Women who managed to receive an education were limited to nursing and teaching schools, while only a small percentage underwent courses in mathematics and technical skills (O'Brien, 1992:29; Levitz, 1995:25 and SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:18). This low degree of representation in mathematics and technical skills could primarily be attributed to the fact that black languages were considered "emotive" and "non-technical" and that teaching was done in a second language (Lillicrap, 1987:19 and SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:22). The teaching material favoured boys and their needs and portrayed their roles as economically active or leadership-related, whilst girls were depicted as passive or fulfilling traditional roles. This perception was supported by a number of educators who shared discriminatory viewpoints, as well as traditions that encouraged boys rather than girls to enhance their education (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line).

It was only when appropriate legislation was passed in the 1990s that African women gained access to resources that could advance them, bringing about a reassessment of gender issues and a repositioning of the roles and rights of women (Primo, 1997:31). The National Commission for Higher Education is currently making proposals on how to address race and gender equity in a new higher education framework (Flood et al., 1997:54). The struggles of African women over recent decades to secure gender equality in South Africa gained active momentum during this period and ultimately contributed to the Conference for a Democratic South Africa (CODESA), where multi-

party negotiations began with the aim of creating a new dispensation. The increasing participation of African women in the liberation movement, especially women who had been in exile, secured a strong foundation for the liberation of women and the actualisation of women's rights, as well as the roles that women were able to fulfil (Primo, 1997:38).

3.3   WOMEN IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN LABOUR FORCE

When the political, economic and social structure of South Africa changed in 1994, so did the nature of culture and customs in respect of women (Talley-Ross, 1995:101). Nowadays the "liberated" women in the workplace can be clearly differentiated from those with a more traditional disposition. Liberated women view their superiors merely as managers to be treated equally and professionally, whereas traditionally oriented women tend to view their superiors as being similar to the head of the household, whilst they themselves take on the role of the submissive wife (Roosevelt, 1991:11).

The fact that women are able to partake in the labour force while also, nevertheless, still having to fulfil fundamental domestic and marital roles has prevented gender equality in society (Lillicrap, 1987:10; De Vries, 1991:32 and Wetzel, 1993:35). In the past, if women could not live up to these expectations, they had to choose between a career and a family, a choice that, according to Lillicrap (1987:10), no man has to make. Not only in developing countries but also in developed countries, insufficient services existed to support women in their struggle for equal recognition (Wetzel, 1993:35). As the struggle for the recognition of women's rights came to be recognised as legitimate, actual strategies were needed for the elimination of their secondary status (Wetzel, 1993:35 and Primo, 1997:32).

Specific strategies would only be supportive of women's struggle if the society or the government authorised them (Wetzel, 1993:19). It was thus of the utmost importance that economic, political and social structures in South Africa should be involved in this freedom struggle. If women were integrated as full partners into the society, they, in turn, could influence structural changes positively; but to make this a reality the rights of women had to be entrenched in the constitution of the country (Wetzel, 1993:20). While the Constitution has, since 1994, provided a framework within which to work, legislation in itself was not sufficient to provide equality for women, especially with

regard to the labour force. There were still too many attitudes and perceptions that needed to be changed.

It was only as recently as the 1950s that a significant number of South African women in general started to become economically active in the labour force (Hirschowitz & Cilliers, 1987:3 and Lillicrap, 1987:22). During the following decades the psychological conflicts suffered by professional white women came under the spotlight. In the period from 1970 to 1980 women's careers and family lives, as well as their social systems and occupations in society, came under investigation (Hirschowitz & Cilliers, 1987:17).

By the 1980s African women had to prove themselves in all spheres of life for recognition as individuals with feelings, abilities and rights (James, 1984:121). Regardless of their achievements, qualifications or status, African women were still perceived as merely being responsible and skilled for domestic chores. More educated African women, in particular, experienced immense frustration with regard to job opportunities and promotions. This situation was amplified by the absence of supportive legislation (James, 1984:122 and Lillicrap, 1987:2).

However, according to Lillicrap (1987:2) and De Vries (1991:56), although a few laws indeed restrained the upward movement of African women, their own customs and traditions also limited their progress. This was emphasised by James (1984:123), who further touched on the problem experienced by African women of the middle-income class, pointing out that working women were subject to harassment from within their own culture, and that classes were emerging within tribes (James, 1984:124). The reason for partition within African societies and tribes was seen to be a lack of intervention by the ruling government, as the latter did not contribute to solving the problems through the adjustment of legislation (James, 1984:125). All these factors contributed to the already low self-esteem of the African woman (James, 1984:122 and O'Brien, 1992:34).

According to James (1983), O'Brien (1992:33) and Santho (1995), an African woman in the work force had to face far more problems and discrimination than she could hope to overcome, particularly injustice as a result of culture, class and gender. As a black woman she was firstly exploited by a sexist and racist work environment, and secondly

she had to compete with whites, especially white males, and prove herself amongst African men (James, 1993:28). The latter have all had more educational opportunities than women, making the above-mentioned predicament even harsher (James, 1984:121). African women were, without exception, last in line after white men, white women and African men when company appointments and promotions had to be made (James, 1984:121). Being an African and female was said to promote the experience of "double jeopardy" during the process of career development prior to 1994 (De Vries, 1991:119; Sewpaul, 1994:348; Talley-Ross, 1995:101 and Davidson, 1997:3). African women in South Africa were oppressed both for being black and for being female (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line).

Until the 1980s, professional women were restricted by the lack of legislation from partaking in the workplace on an equal basis (Flood et al., 1997:20). Apart from the Wiehahn Commission report, which clearly stated that South Africa had a discriminatory society and that discrimination against all women was prevalent, it was only from 1 September 1988 that gender discrimination in the workplace was acknowledged as an unfair labour practice (De Vries, 1991:48). One example of inequality in the labour environment was the fact that women received lower remuneration than men (SA: Department of Labour, 1996:On-line and Truter, 2001 (b):39). Very few women held top positions, and the private and public sectors invested far less time, as well as fewer resources, in management training for women than for men (Smit, 1978:117; Lillicrap, 1987:26 and Carrell et al., 1998:47). The low degree of participation of women in general in managerial decision-making processes and in high-ranking positions in the work environment was a worldwide phenomenon, and in 1993 only six countries could boast that they had appointed women as heads of government (De Vries, 1991:39 and SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line).

If this trend of under-representation of women in managerial positions in other countries is taken into account, it suggests that the situation in South Africa cannot be attributed entirely to the unique social conditions prevailing in the country (Lillicrap, 1987:2). It is evident from the statistics of South Africa that it is only in the past seven years since 1994 that a notable increase in the labour-force participation of women has taken place (Flood et al., 1997:26). Today, South Africa is amongst those countries with the highest percentage of women in Parliament (29.7%) who are in a position to voice their demands and to influence decisions (Primo, 1997:37; SA:

Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line). Currently the Cabinet consists of nine (9) women ministers out of a total of 29. There are ten (10) female deputy ministers out of 15 deputy ministers (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2002:On-line).

3.4 LEGISLATION IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

When the abolition of the ban on black liberation movements, especially the African National Congress, was announced on February 2, 1990, South Africa underwent a political revolution (Primo, 1997:31 and Van der Waldt & du Toit, 1999:106). It was such a comprehensive change that it brought about a diversity of emotions for all cultural groups in South Africa, whilst some groups struggled to come to terms with it (Sparks, 1995:9). A society that had been divided for decades by the Apartheid system now had the opportunity to vote for the Government of National Unity on 27 April 1994 - and thus began a new era for professional African women.

Although the stage was set for transformation and change early in 1990, the history of South Africa had left deep-rooted traces of discrimination on the grounds of race and gender. The **Black Administration Act, Act 38 of 1927** stated that: " a Black woman who is a partner in a customary union and who is living with her husband shall be deemed to be a minor and her husband shall be deemed to be her guardian" (Robinson, 1995:461; Abrahams, 1997:4 and Budlender, 1998:11). An additional burden on African women was the obligatory carrying of a pass (reference book) which was instituted in the late 1950s. Failure to produce the pass in an urban area could result in a fine or even imprisonment (Mandela, 1994:257; Flood et al., 1997:29 and Budlender, 1998:2).

Throughout the seventies the lack of legislation supporting South African women with regard to their rights as professionals was an example of harsh discrimination (Smit, 1978:155; Hirschowitz & Cilliers, 1987:69 and Flood et al., 1997:20). In the past the concept of gender equality, especially with regard to the advancement of women in managerial positions in South Africa's public sector, was not satisfactorily addressed when policies and programmes were developed, and the issue was often very low on the agenda (Lillicrap, 1987:3; Santho, 1995:36 and Primo, 1997:32).

It was only in 1981, by which time a woman's compensation amounted to about 73% of that of her male counterpart, that wage discrimination was officially abolished (De Vries, 1991:32). The **Wage Act Amendment Bill** has made discrimination against women in wage agreements illegal. Job segregation further discriminated against women in South Africa (James, 1984:29 and Santho, 1995:7). For example, very few women were found in technical posts or acting as medical practitioners or in managerial posts in businesses and the public sector. One was more likely to find women in professions such as nursing, teaching and clerical work (Erwee, 1986:175 and Sibiya, 1994:15). As a result of prolonged petition, two bills were amended in 1983. The Conditions of Employment Bill lifted a ban on night-time and overtime employment of women. The labour relations Amendment Bill, in addition, aimed to provide stable working conditions and more protection to employees whilst eliminating discriminatory clauses (Erwee, 1986:180).

The unfair treatment of pregnant women who wished to apply for jobs was probably the most severe form of discrimination (Santho, 1995:8). During this period in South Africa, laws did not prohibit unfair treatment on the basis of circumstances such as pregnancy (Primo, 1997:32). If, for example, a woman took a short break in her career to take up the responsibilities of motherhood, she had to face the almost inevitable consequence of being forced to seek re-employment (Lillicrap, 1987:10 and De Vries, 1991:61-62). The taxation system was an additional disincentive for married and skilled women who wished to enter the labour market, as they had to pay higher taxes if they were married. This was detrimental to the recruitment of high-level womanpower. As recently as 1990 the tax legislation in South Africa penalised professional women by increasing household tax (De Vries, 1991:78 and Abrahams, 1997:5).

The provision of housing subsidies to working women was an issue that was debated in the early 1990s. The Public Service discriminated against them in the area of housing allowances and pensions, which favoured male civil servants (Flood et al., 1997:53). Fortunately, this led to the launch of the **Housing Act in 1997 (Act 107 of 1997),** allowing working women to qualify for housing subsidies (De Vries, 1991:77). Women civil servants are today eligible for 100 percent housing loans and for equal pensions.

Another development materialised in 1992 when the government removed the final remainder of the marital power of men, although African women living under customary law still have little power against their partners or husbands (Erwee, 1986:177 and Flood et al., 1997:31). Late in 1993 the South African Government introduced further legislation that made it possible for women to obtain interdicts against their partners in the case of abuse. In addition, the **Domestic Violence Act, Act 116 of 1998** empowered the police with the authority to arrest an abuser without a warrant (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line). During 1998 the power of traditional leaders in respect of land tenure and within local government came under attack by women, as the latter perceived these leaders as working against gender equality. The co-existence of statutory law with customary law in any State is referred to as "legal pluralism" (Flood et al., 1997:51). The Constitution, however, stipulates that when customary law and the equality clause are in conflict with one another, equality should obtain precedence – the Constitution is supreme (Budlender, 1998:12).

Although much has been done by the government to improve the lives of women, there are still laws that violate women's rights. The **Unemployment Insurance Act, Act 29 of 1988** and the **Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act, Act 130 of 1993**, for example, do not include farm and domestic workers, the majority of whom are women (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line). In general these forms of discrimination against women, which forced them into subjection, were based on political status, land rights, employment, education and income (James, 1984:28). Since 1990 comprehensive legislation has been passed to address these imbalances.

3.4.1 Significant legislation and supportive actions

The first phase in the transformation of South Africa was the establishment of affirmative action, which can be traced back to 1977 with the introduction of the Sullivan Code, operating in American institutions (Grobler, Marx, v.d. Schyf, & Coetzee, 1999:12). At that stage there were 146 United States institutions operating in South Africa which adopted the Sullivian Code – the latter aimed to end racial discrimination in companies. These international companies made a very substantial contribution by providing equal opportunities in respect of securing education, community facilities, housing, unrestricted union participation as well as the freedom to locate to where jobs were available (Erwee, 1986:183). The Sullivan Code focused mainly on improving the employment conditions of black employees, thus also positively influencing the upward

movement of black women in these companies. The Sullivan Code, as well as the South African Chamber of Business Charter, paved the way for independence away from discrimination, as a result of the implementation of affirmative action programmes (De Vries, 1991:40).

This positive example of the United States has positively influenced policies in South African institutions. Discriminatory practices in the occupational arena changed dramatically after 1994 under the Government of National Unity (SA: Office on the Status of Women, South Africa, 2001:2). Concurrent with these changes was the birth of a new Constitution for South Africa, implemented in February 1997. The **Constitution (Act 108 0f 1996)**, the supreme law of South Africa, directs the country in the values of human dignity, the achievement of equality, the promotion of human rights and freedom, non-racialism and non-sexism. It further directed the efforts of the South African Government to restructure the Public Service so as to render more effective goods and services to the public and previously disadvantaged citizens (Penceliah & Moodley, 2002:26). Section 9(1) of the Constitution (1996) states: "everybody is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law". Section 9(3) states: "the state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth" (SA: Constitution, 1996). The Constitution (1996), as well as political changes, have also impacted significantly on the lives of African women, but even more so on the work environment where changes have translated into the new **Labour Relations Act, Act 66 of 1995**, the **Basic Conditions of Employment Act, Act 75 of 1997** and the **Affirmative Action Act, Act 66 of 1995**.

A first important component of the new Constitution (1996) is the Bill of Rights (Chapter 3), which protects the individual against discriminatory practices in terms of equality before the law and equal protection under the law (Primo, 1997:38 and SA: Office on the Status of Women, South Africa, 2001:3). The Bill of Rights furthermore includes a Charter of Fundamental Rights, which aims to protect all citizens against discrimination on ".... one or more of the following grounds: race, gender, ethnic or social origin, colour, age, disability, sexual orientation, religion, conscience, belief, culture or language" (section 8(2) of the Constitution, 1996 and SA: Parliament,

2002:On-line). The Charter of Fundamental Rights furthermore addresses affirmative action by designating "persons disadvantaged by unfair discrimination" (section 8(3)(a) of the Constitution, 1996). The Equality Clause, clause 9 of the Constitution in the Bill of Rights, primarily aims to enable previously disadvantaged citizens to experience their full and equal participation in all rights and freedoms (SA: Parliament, 2002:On-line).

In addition to the Constitution, the RDP was the Government's strategy to assist in mobilising all the people of South Africa and the country's resources towards the building of a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist community (African National Congress, 1994:1). The RDP especially viewed the position of women in society in a very serious light and, therefore, the Government recognised the struggle of women over the years by declaring August 9th as National Women's Day (Flood et al., 1997:50). Robinson (1995:465) mentioned that the involvement of African women in achieving the programme's objectives was of the utmost importance, as these women often constituted the poorest of the poor in South Africa.

Since the early 1980s, a number of processes have been initiated to integrate the development of women's concerns, not only in the political arena but also with regard to academic representation (Albertyn, 1995:2). These processes are often called the "national machinery" for gender equality, with the objectives of promoting political commitment to women's empowerment and gender equality, and transforming all legislative documents so as to take account of the needs and aspirations of all women (Albertyn, 1995:5 and SA: Department of Welfare, 2000:On-line).

Although "Speak" magazine was founded in 1982 with the aim of representing professional working women in particular, it was the launching of the journal "Agenda" in 1987 which focused, *inter alia*, on feminist issues (Bonnin, 1996:383). In 1984, the University of South Africa opened a centre for women's studies, but was not allowed to offer a formal enrolment course (Bonnin, 1996:381). The University of Natal offered the first formal women's studies course in 1989. In 1994 "Agenda" commissioned a study to gather information on gender-related courses at tertiary institutions. A questionnaire, the so-called "Budlender questionnaire", gathered significant information on the status of formal academic courses offered at universities (Bonnin, 1996:380). Bonnin (1996:387), however, argued that there was little correlation between women's studies

and women's movements. Further initiatives have emerged out of a process that began with the United Nations Decade for Women (1975-1985) and the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies in 1985. The process continued with the United Nations World Conference (1990), the Human Rights Conference (Vienna, 1993), the Population and Development Conference (Cairo, 1994) and the Social Development Summit (Copenhagen, 1995) (Bonnin, 1996:389).

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) was endorsed in 1995. This is an international agreement aimed at abolishing discrimination against women (Flood et al., 1997:50). South Africa presented its first CEDAW report to the United Nations in June 1998 (Budlender, 1998:11). South Africa also participated in the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995 (Abrahams, 1997:2). At this Conference the South African Government committed itself to addressing specific concerns of the Beijing Platform Action (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2000:On-line). The first priority was the development of an enabling environment to advance gender transformation, whilst the second was the conversion of policies passed since 1994 into significant actions that would enhance the proposed changes envisaged for women (Albertyn, 1995:7 and SA: Department of Welfare, 2000:On-line).

A more significant improvement for women was the establishment of the Commission for Gender Equality (CGE), an independent body that promotes gender equality, and advises and makes recommendations to Parliament and other legislatures with regard to any laws or proposed legislation that affect gender equality and the status of women (Flood et al., 1997:49 and Forgey et al., 2001:517). The Women's Budget Initiative (WBI) started functioning in 1995. It was mandated to examine ways in which national and provincial budgets could be applied to empower women and promote gender equity, especially for poor women (Budlender, 1998:25). Early in 1997, the Government established the Office on the Status of Women (OSW) (Flood et al., 1997:49). Its functions included developing a national gender policy, promoting affirmative action in government and organising gender training in governmental departments (Budlender, 1998:5). This Commission was established in accordance with the **Commission on Gender Equality Act, Act 39 of 1996** (Budlender, 1998:4 and SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line).

In September 1997 the heads of state and government of the Southern African Development Community (SADC), including South Africa, endorsed a declaration recognising the totality of human rights of women, as well as the addendum on the "Prevention and Eradication of Violence Against Women and Children" (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line and SA: Office on the Status of Women South Africa, 2001:14). Apart from the SADC declaration, South Africa has made considerable progress in implementing actions relating to women's issues, such as a national campaign for non-violence against women, poverty alleviation programmes, primary healthcare programmes, the National Partnership Against AIDS Programme and the Human Resource Development Programme (SA: Department of Welfare, 2000:On-line). Table 3.1 summarises the most significant legislation on the empowerment of women in South Africa since 1994:

Table 3.1: Summary of important legislation introduced to empower women in South Africa since the 1994 general democratic elections

	Family	Legal	Employment	Health	Property	Education and Training
1995			- Labour Relations Act, Act 66 of 1995			
1996						- National Education Act, Act 27 of 1996
1997	- Marriage Act, Act 50 of 1997 - Divorce Courts Amendment Act, Act 65 of 1997	- Criminal Procedure Amendment Act, (Nos. 76 and 85 of 1997) - Criminal Law Amendment Act, Act 105 of 1997	- Unemployment Insurance Act, Act 30 of 1997 - Basic Conditions of Employment Act, Act 75 of 1997	- Choice on Termination of Pregnancy Act, Act 92 of 1997	- Housing Act, Act 107 of 1997 - Land Restitution and Reform Laws Amendment Act, Act 63 of 1997	- Higher Education Act, Act 101 of 1997
1998	- Maintenance Act, Act 99 of 1998 - Domestic Violence Act, Act 116 of 1998 - Recognition of Customary Marriages Act, Act 99 of 1998 - Adoption Matters Amendment Act, Act 56 of 1998	- Witness Protection Act, Act 112 of 1998	- Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998 - Labour Relations Amendment Act, Act 127 of 1998	- National Water Act, Act 36 of 1998	- Prevention of Illegal Eviction from and Unlawful Occupation of Land Act, Act 19 of 1998	- Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998 - Further Education and Training Act, Act 98 of 1998
1999		- Prevention of Organised Crime Amendment Act, Act 24 of 1999			- Reform Laws Amendment Act, Act 18 of 1999	- National Student Financial Aid Scheme Act, Act 56 of 1999
2000			- The Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act, Act 4 of 2000			

With the implementation of the **Labour Relations Act, Act 66 of 1995**, the selection and recruitment process itself has become critically important to the public sector in

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South Africa for the redressing of imbalances in respect of race and gender. This Act is aimed at improving the quality of life of all workers, as well as enhancing productivity in the workplace (National Action Plan for the Protection and Promotion of Human Rights, 1998:95). The **Basic Conditions of Employment Act, Act 75 of 1997** further ensures that women have the right to perform any type of work or to practise any profession they prefer. This Act further aims to create a family-friendly work environment (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line).

The **Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998**, prohibited unfair discrimination in the workplace and compelled every employer to take steps to promote equal opportunity by eliminating unfair discrimination in any employment policy or practice (SA: Commission on Gender Equality 2000:On-line). This Act focuses on the redressing of imbalances, especially with regard to black people (Africans, Coloureds and Indians), women and people with disabilities (Penceliah & Moodley, 2002:27). The **Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act, Act 4 of 2000**, on the other hand, fosters equality, prevents unfair discrimination and is applicable over a wide range of fields including the employment sector (Forgey et al, 2001:498).

A dramatic change in women's lives was brought about by the **Choice on Termination of Pregnancy Act, Act 92 of 1997**, which safeguards women from the dangers of unsafe and dangerous abortions (Primo, 1997:39). This Act promotes women's rights to control their own bodies, allowing them abortion on demand until the 12th week of gestation. Finally, the legislation that has almost certainly made the most significant contribution towards facilitating development for women is found in the Acts that promote education and skills development, namely the **National Education Act, Act 27 of 1996**, the **Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998** and the **Further Education and Training Act, Act 98 of 1998**.

3.4.2 Is legislation the answer?

Today the composition of the South African work force is strongly reminiscent of the changes that occurred in the 1890s, when South Africa was faced with the challenge of changing from an "agrarian" to an industrial nation and accommodating thousands of immigrants who had entered the country after the discovery of diamonds and gold (Grobler et al., 1999:11). Because South Africa has always been highly conscious of

differences between individuals, it appeared unlikely that legislation would be sufficient to enforce equal opportunities for women (Smit, 1978:158 and Carrell et al., 1998:24). This situation has been aggravated by the fact that authoritarianism and bureaucratic hierarchies have dominated many institutions in the past, and women have lacked the courage to challenge their employers (Levitz, 1995:27). The new dispensation demands much pioneering and a dynamic move toward change by the leaders of institutions (Primo, 1997:38 and Carrell et al., 1998:4). Therefore this research is also aimed at demonstrating that instead of legal instructions alone, additional strategies should create more comprehensive labour opportunities for African women, to contribute to the effectiveness of service delivery in the public sector.

After the 1994 election, the Government implemented its policies in terms of the specified legislation in order to remove discriminatory customs and policies in employment, especially with regard to women managers in the public sector (SA: White Paper on Affirmative Action, 1995:5). To improve the situation for African women, changes in their position and status had to be introduced, together with the utilisation of women as an important human resource (Smit, 1978:153; James, 1984:30; De Vries, 1991:4 and Carrell et al., 1998:4). Institutions that had traditionally discriminated against women were forced to restructure their way of thinking, which has been partially effectuated through institutional diversity programmes (Grobler et al., 1999:11).

It could well be that the private and public sectors have been equally exposed to the changes in the environment, but their approaches to adapting to the new work environment have differed to a large extent. Approaches applied in the private sector, for example, cannot merely be applied in the public sector with equal success, but should be adapted so as to address the particular needs of the public sector, such as providing the community with specific services and deriving its funds through legislation (Van der Walt & Knipe, 1998:17). The Constitution further propagates the establishment of a non-racial and non-sexist state that recognises representativeness of gender and race within the public sector of South Africa as one of the main foundations of a democratic society (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:6 and SA: Office on the Status of Women, 2001:3).

Apart from the fact that it only holds advantages for women in a general sense, legislation could have a very negative connotation if women came under the impression that they were being appointed only to meet quotas and fulfil the Employment Equity and Affirmative Action policies (Smith, 1998:160). Affirmative action may often be the sole strategy for including women in institutions. On the other hand, institutions may also be induced to appoint women because of legal requirements, moral beliefs or a sense of social responsibility, or a combination of these (Roosevelt, 1991:17). However, when women feel that they "have arrived", they need to realise that once they are employed their progress and development depend on their own abilities and not legislation (Smit, 1978:160).

3.5 CONCLUSION

From the review of the literature, it is clear that over the centuries, women worldwide have had to endeavour to earn their place in society, apart from their roles as child-bearers, supporters, educators and contributors to the community. For South African women, this endeavour was intensified by the discriminatory regime governing the country for the largest part of the 20th century. The struggle for liberation was partially resolved after the new government was elected in 1994, bringing forth support for women as well as legislation to improve their position.

The predicament that African women found themselves in has led to their considerable under-representation in managerial positions during the post-1994 era. This under-representation came to light as a result of the sudden demand for female appointees in such positions, owing to the implementation of legislation that sought to radically address the imbalances in the representation of women in the managerial echelon of both the public and private sectors. Women who were inappropriately appointed in such positions, soon found themselves to be short of the necessary skills and expertise and could not live up to the expectations and the responsibilities attached to the positions. It soon became evident that the years of discrimination against women had had an extremely damaging effect on their ability to successfully act as managers. It also became clear that without the provision of the proper induction, training and education programmes by the institution, the competence of such individuals would not be up to the standard required to achieve the level of effectiveness demanded by the general public. Despite the tremendous effort on the part of the public sector to address gender

inequalities since 1994 through legislation, the degree of success of this legislation and its benefits to women are significant aspects that should be investigated and closely monitored.

CHAPTER 4

DOMESTIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC INFLUENCES ON THE PERFORMANCE OF AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS IN THE FREE STATE PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Colonialism, racism, apartheid, sexism and oppressive legislation in South Africa have created a system of separate and unequal development in all social, economic and political spheres (Primo, 1997:42). African women have been the victims of many of these disparities. This has placed them in a subordinate position and hampered their contribution to the economy (Flood et al., 1997:14 and Forgey et al., 2001:403). A zealous political commitment to gender equality after 1994 has resulted in numerous accomplishments for the advancement of women. Especially in South Africa, women can increasingly make provision for their individual needs nowadays, because affirmative action, equality and women's rights are being addressed from governmental level in terms of appropriate legislation.

Although the achievement of national liberation was the most important event for African women, they have still been faced with conflicting responsibilities and traditional customs when becoming managers. In addition, women are still under-represented in management positions in both the private and public sectors and seem to experience a great deal of performance pressure, stereotyping and occupational isolation (Davidson, 1997:38 and SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:18).

It may be hypothesised that the prevailing domestic and socio-economic circumstances impacted considerably on the role of African women as managers in the past and that they will continue to do so in the new dispensation (Van Rooyen, 1984:22). This chapter investigates African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration and their domestic environment, in order to put the factors that impact on their managerial effectiveness, such as domestic, marital and community responsibilities, into perspective.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC REALITIES OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN LABOUR MARKET

South Africa is characterised by a high but declining fertility and population growth rate and has a growing number of elderly people, a high dependency ratio and a high rate of immigration (SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:26). The population of South Africa is relatively youthful, comprising an estimated 13.0% aged four years and younger; 37.3% below the age of 15; 58.3% between 15 and 65 and 4.4% aged 65 and older (SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:27). In 2000 the racial composition in South Africa consisted of 77.6% Africans, 10.8% whites, 8.7% coloureds and 2.5% Asians and Indians (Forgey et al., 2001:49). Women constitute 51.9% of the total population of South Africa whilst African women account for 52.0% out of a total of 33 879 852 Africans (SA: Commission on Gender Equality, 2001:On-line; Statistics South Africa, 2000 (b):64 and Forgey et al., 2001:64).

Levitz (1995:25) reported that by 1995 the majority of African women in South Africa were unemployed and lived in rural areas while the majority of coloured, white and Indian women lived in urban areas. One in every five African women (20.0%) had received very little or no formal education and because African women were generally inadequately educated, they found themselves in jobs with low remuneration, thus dominating the informal sector (SA: Department of Labour, 1996:20; Statistics South Africa, 1999:9 and SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:18). Fifty percent of African women were performing unskilled labour such as domestic employment, street vending and agricultural labour (Statistics South Africa, 1999:14; SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:24 and SA: Department of Welfare, 2000:On-line). Owing to the above-mentioned reasons African women had, until recently, received relatively little exposure to the managerial environment and associated managerial skills in South Africa. This lack of managerial experience most likely impacted negatively on their ability to be effective managers.

With the exception of the Gauteng Province in South Africa, all the provinces boast a larger percentage of females than males (table 4.1). If this is considered in conjunction with the current labour-force participation of the economically active female population of 45.5%, the situation in respect of women's economic participation is far from ideal (Statistics in Brief, 2000:40). Although South Africa is classified as an upper to middle-income country with an average level of human resource development, the development

in terms of training and growth for the majority of the population (Africans) appears to be quite slow (SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:17).

Table 4.1: The percentage of women in each province and in South Africa

Province	Male	Female
RSA	48.1%	51.9%
Western Cape	48.0%	51.1%
Eastern Cape	46.1%	53.9%
Northern Cape	49.1%	50.9%
Free State	49.3%	50.7%
KwaZulu-Natal	46.9%	53.1%
Gauteng	51.0%	49.0%
Mpumalanga	48.6%	51.4%
Northern Province	49.1%	50.9%
North West	49.2%	50.8%

Statistics South Africa, 2000 (b):9

Considering the gap in the managerial sector relating to the representation of African women, as well as equity targets, which were mandated by the Department of Labour during the 1980s and 1990s, the demand for African women managers is constantly increasing. Whether the supply of competent African women managers to fill these posts will be adequate remains to be seen. The situation is further intensified by the HIV/AIDS pandemic that is expected to cause a decline in the annual South African population growth rate to 0% by 2011, as one in five Blacks is currently HIV-positive (Forgey et al., 2001:69). According to estimates, HIV/AIDS will affect between 5.0% and 10.0% of the 1.1 million South African public servants over the next five years (Forgey et al., 2001:214). In February 2000 more than 100 000 public servants were infected with HIV and it is anticipated that about 270 000 will be infected by 2004 (Forgey et al., 2001:248). According to Whiteside & Sunter (2001:51), there does not appear to be a marked difference in the epidemic between urban and rural areas, as a result of the South African population being relatively mobile, thus contributing to the spreading of HIV throughout the country. The provincial breakdown of the HIV-prevalence rate in women attending antenatal clinics in South Africa reveals that the Free State Province had the second highest percentage of 27.9% in South Africa in 1999 (Whiteside & Sunter, 2001:51).

4.3 AGE, NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND FINANCIAL DEPENDANTS AS INFLUENCES ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS

It takes an average of 18 years to produce a high school matriculant in South Africa because of the high rates of failure and consequent dropping out of school (Forgey et al., 2001:584). In general, in the Public Service, graduates enter an occupation holding a degree, a National Diploma or a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) qualification at Level 6 (**South African Qualifications Authority Act, Act 58 of 1995**). The occupation will initially require an entry or junior level qualification but as the employee gains experience and progresses in terms of the number of responsibilities, she advances to higher posts with increased responsibilities. In such higher posts employees often spend vast amounts of time and money on personal development, such as in-house training and possibly further post-graduate or post-diploma studies. This is also the most productive period during which a career is built (Cox, 1996:267). Often the main aim of this progression is a high-ranking managerial position with associated remuneration and benefits, which enables the individual to settle down.

The response group in this research was relatively young with a mean age of 39 years, the youngest respondent being 27 and the oldest 59. Seventy percent of the assistant directors, 28.6% of the deputy directors and 60.0% of the directors were younger than forty (data not shown). African women managers appointed to managerial positions at a relatively young age will have to compensate for not having the hands-on experience of older women managers by focusing on gaining managerial experience by any means possible. When the Free State Provincial Government appoints African women with limited hands-on managerial experience, the institution should provide an applicable induction programme supported by a mentorship programme (Mosley et al., 1996:308). The latter is an essential continuation of the induction programme but focuses specifically on a specialised field of management expertise. The purpose of the induction programme should be to orientate new managers towards their environment, the skills required for the specific managerial post and the means to gain this knowledge. Induction programmes within the South African private sector have proved to be highly successful (Hurter, 2002:Personal Interview).

From the focus group, it once again became clear that the Free State Provincial Government should assist women managers by offering induction programmes specifically for managers and by making sure that they are given all the necessary information about the institution on arrival. The focus group participants were of the opinion that although induction programmes are considered a priority for the Free State Provincial Administration, they tend to be brushed aside in practice because of time constraints. It further transpired that African women managers are constantly put in situations in which they need orientation, but because of a lack of commitment from fellow managers, they are merely thrown in at the deep end. Therefore they end up never receiving formal orientation or mentoring.

Being a manager at a young age could have positive or negative outcomes for both the institution and the individual. Younger managers are often innovative in their management strategies as well as highly ambitious and motivated (Abrahams, 1997:21). In contrast, older managers with years of experience might be of the opinion that it is not worth wasting energy on proposing new initiatives, as these are often "shot down". Although this might be the predicament in which many older managers find themselves, there is little that could replace the value of managerial experience. Skills and problem-solving techniques that have mainly been acquired through practical experience may well be worth much more than a mere academic qualification in the end. Experience should not only be measured against the length of an individual's career, however. For example, although being employed by the Free State Provincial Administration for a number of years would present some opportunities for managerial exposure, it may happen that a particular manager finds herself in a rut and avoids opportunities to develop, whereas younger managers may be more likely to grasp development opportunities, especially if they partake in a mentorship programme.

The need for social and professional commitment changes during different stages in a woman's career. Some professional women prefer having children at a young age and then building their career, whilst others prefer to invest time and effort in a successful career and have children at a later stage (Muller, 2000:67). It is thus important not to evaluate the management experience of women managers in terms of age. Table 4.2 shows the mean ages of the respondents grouped according to the number of children given birth to.

The respondents had not given birth to many children (table 4.2). None of the respondents had five children, whereas only one respondent (2.6%) had given birth to six children. Three respondents (7.9%) had no children and the majority of the respondents had either one or two children (median=2). To evaluate whether older women had more children, Spearman's Correlation Coefficient was calculated showing a moderate positive correlation (r=0.48) between a respondent's age and the number of children birthed (n=37; p=0.002).

Table 4.2: The age of African women managers and the number of children given birth to

Mean age	Age range	Number of children	Total respondents (n=37)
32.3	27-39	No children	3
37.5	27-59	One or two children	21
43.9	34-58	Three to six children	13

The fact that the majority of the respondents had birthed one or two children is supported by current statistics which show that the average family in South Africa consists of 2.22 persons and that the birth rate of 1.2 million during 1999 had dropped to one million by 2000 (Forgey et al., 2001:53). This has most likely resulted from increased control exercised by African women over the number of children they give birth to, as well as the fact that the number of women who are single parents has increased (James, 1983:109 and Mkalipe, 1984:10).

Several factors, such as supportive legislation, the rising phenomenon of single parenting, the social upliftment of women, increased job opportunities, improved education, a decline in fertility, the existence of HIV/AIDS, increased participation of females in the labour force and more access to health care services, have all influenced the preferences of women regarding parenthood (Flood et al., 1997:42). The effectiveness and availability of modern and more widely-used contraceptive methods that are more effective than traditional methods further contribute to women having fewer children (White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:30). For example, the usage of contraceptives amongst African women increased from 44.0% to 66.0% between 1984 and 1994. It was found that African women were far more likely to use contraceptive methods than African men, as the latter felt that this was the women's responsibility (Flood et al., 1997:42).

A comprehensive awareness campaign has been conducted over recent years promoting the use of condoms to prevent the spread of the HIV virus, especially to newborns. Notwithstanding the promotion of the use of such contraceptives, statistics have shown that HIV holds a disastrous future for young African women who often become infected with the virus through older men (so-called "sugar daddies"). The risk of becoming infected with HIV during unprotected intercourse is two to four times higher for women than for men (Van Dyk, 2001:55). This situation poses a grave problem with regard to the children who are birthed, and are sometimes orphaned by the death of the mother owing to HIV. The estimated number of orphans (children under the age of 15 who have lost a mother or both parents) in South Africa in 1998 was 180 000 (Whiteside & Sunter, 2001:54). When entering the pathological phase of the disease, AIDS sufferers have to rely on physical health care in addition to assistance with the logistical aspects of taking care of their children and dependants. Apart from the loss of a valuable work force, the level and nature of assistance from the institution in this regard remains an urgent matter to be addressed.

The importance of the contribution of an employee assistance programme (EAP) that addresses issues concerning HIV and AIDS cannot be emphasised enough. These issues include medical-aid planning, financial care for dependants, emotional assistance and retirement during an earlier phase of the disease for infected African women managers (Van Dyk, 2001:417). Since HIV testing is not compulsory in the public sector and many employees fail to disclose their status, it would be difficult for the Free State Provincial Administration to determine accurate statistics and measure the void left by the loss of expertise. However, on the basis of the current estimates that are available, the institution should invest pro-actively in the appointment of women managers so as to maintain its employment equity targets in the future.

Table 4.3 shows the number of full and partial financial dependants of the response group. Although the total exceeds the number of children birthed, the responses (n=39) showed a median of two full and one partial financial dependants. The number of fully and partially dependent individuals ranged from 0 to four; and apart from the three respondents who had no children, the majority had dependants (table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Number of full and partial financial dependants

Number of dependants	Fully dependent: Percentage (n=39)	Partially dependent: Percentage (n=39)
0	15.4%	28.2%
1	15.4%	25.6%
2	35.9%	10.3%
3	15.4%	10.3%
4	15.4%	15.4%
5	2.5%	0%
6	0%	5.2%
7	0%	0%
8	0%	0%
9	0%	2.5%
10	0%	2.5%

Although it is likely that the respondents had more individuals to support compared to their white counterparts, this can be attributed to extended families rather than the number of children birthed. Nearly a quarter of African households have at least one pensioner to take care of (Budlender, 1998:24). A classical family is defined as a unit controlled by a decision-maker who primarily seeks to secure the well-being of the family (De Vries, 1991:71). It is generally accepted that financial dependants are reliant on the breadwinner not only to provide for basic needs such as food, clothes, shelter and medical aid, but also to assist with any other expenses that dependants may incur (school fees and social activities). This places a financial burden on African women managers in the sense that they cannot merely resign from their work or make career changes without seriously considering the financial implications, as they seldom have a second income to fall back on. In addition, dependants often need continuous care, thus forcing the African woman manager to invest in domestic assistance that further contributes to her expenses.

Often not having a second income to rely on, these women are forced to maintain, at all costs, a position from which they can provide for the financial needs of their dependants. Bearing the continuous increase of inflation and the cost of living in mind, remuneration packages of African women managers should keep up with these factors. Although the public sector has in the past been pinpointed as a poor remunerator, much effort has been made in recent years to address this aspect and adjust salaries so as to make them more competitive with those of the private sector (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 1 July 2002). Annual general salary increases awarded by

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8	0%	0%
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the Free State Provincial Government, using the inflation rate as a minimum guideline, have also contributed to the improvement of the financial position of public servants.

4.4 MARITAL AND PARENTAL STATUS: A BURDEN FOR AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS TO BE INDEPENDENT?

Apart from assisting with the establishment of fundamental morals and principles, a husband or partner plays a pivotal role in terms of time and finance, particularly as head of the household. Depending on the nature of the marriage and the paradigm in terms of which each of the married parties approaches the relationship, being in a marriage may be either beneficial or detrimental to African women managers. From a modern, eurocentric perspective marriage is generally perceived to be a partnership between two individuals who have equal rights, opportunities and responsibilities (Weaver & Hill, 1994:2). However, this has not been true from an African perspective as women have for centuries been seen as men's subordinates and wives have been treated with a fair amount of disrespect by their husbands (Bonnin, 1996:380). Nowadays being in a position of autonomy regarding the choice as to whether or not to marry, the modern African woman has to consider the advantages and disadvantages of marriage in general, and also with specific reference to the work environment.

4.4.1 Influence of unmarried status and children

Hirschowitz & Cilliers (1987:18) point out that although marriage was once a highly important institution, in modern society there are significant numbers of single women, divorcees and widows. The authors are of the opinion that this phenomenon is indicative of a new and alternative opinion of marriage. Women also tend to get married at a later age or prefer to engage in a partnership rather than a legal relationship. In this study 16 of the respondents (42.1%) were married and one respondent (2.6%) indicated that she was in a traditional marriage (table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Marital status of African women managers

Marital status	Percentage (n=38)
Married	42.1%
Divorced	21.1%
Widowed	0%
Unmarried	31.6%
Living together	2.6%
Traditional	2.6%

Until recently an African woman engaging in marriage immediately had to revert to the status of a minor and was henceforth controlled by her husband (Robinson, 1995:458 and Rustin, 1996:100). Many women accepted this traditional position in marriage and did not stand up to their husbands (Rustin, 1996:100). African men regarded the existence of professional women who excelled in their careers and received equal pay, as a form of discrimination. Although from an economic and equitable point of view, equality between the husband and the wife was the ideal, it was hampered by husbands' attitudes and cultural traditions in respect of women's roles (James, 1983:114). The man was traditionally perceived as the head of the household and the woman had to be subordinate to the man (Mazibuko & Struwig, 1993:66).

A distinguishing characteristic of modern relationships is that both partners earn an income. Twelve of the 17 respondents (70.6%) who were married, living together or engaged in traditional marriages indicated that their husbands/partners were employed full-time. The remaining four husbands or partners (23.5%) were self-employed and one husband or partner (6.0%) was employed on a part-time basis. This arrangement allows the couple to fulfil additional socio-economic needs such as owning property, providing proper education to their family, and having access to first-class health facilities. Furthermore, having a second income to rely on puts the African woman manager in a position to utilise a portion of her own income to enrol for development initiatives that could enhance her managerial effectiveness.

To conclude, although 21 respondents (n=38) were not married (55.1%), 34 respondents (91.9%) had given birth to one or more children. These figures should be viewed against the background of African culture where childbirth is a prerequisite for marriage, as well as the belief that immortality can be acquired through children and their descendants (Mazibuko & Struwig, 1993:66 and Van Dyk, 2001:226). Nowadays African women, being increasingly brought up to be independent and earn an income, are not reliant on husbands or partners for financial support. Already in 1983, James (1983:109) concluded that African women perceive the status of husbands and partners as being very similar. This could be a definite reason not to engage in legal marriage. Mkalipe (1984:10), in addition, is of the opinion that black women do not have any objection to marrying late or not marrying at all, as long as they can fulfil their careers.

Today African women own property, acquire credit without collateral and start businesses without the consent or control of their husbands. This was a human right that was violated by the previous **Black Administration Act, Act 38 of 1927** (Sewpaul, 1994:349 and Robinson, 1995:461). This tendency was demonstrated by 21 of the respondents (58.3%), who viewed themselves as the head of the household, whilst 11 respondents (30.6%) indicated that their husbands were the head of the household. The remaining four respondents (11.1%) responded to the question as to who was the head of the household with: "We are both regarded as [the] head of [the] household because of shared responsibility"; "both my husband and I are equal partners"; "both my husband and me"; and "both, not clearly defined, it's a partnership". According to Budlender (2002:53) the concept of "head of the household" is defined as the "main decision-maker". Budlender (1998:15) furthermore pointed out that the term "female-headed households" could refer to a variety of situations and conditions. It may be that in such a household an adult male of senior status is absent; or that there is, in fact, such an adult male but he is absent for most of the time; or that the woman is the main income provider.

Being a single parent while also having to act as head of the household poses many challenges (Abrahams, 1997:8). In the case of a woman, apart from the increased burden of responsibilities, it also implies having to take care of tasks that are generally regarded as being the man's (Johnson, 1992:103). This predicament may, on the one hand, cause the number of responsibilities both at home and at work to be overwhelming and impossible to handle, or alternatively, it may present more opportunities for exposure and development regarding aspects that she might never have had to deal with before. Ultimately, the performance of a particular African woman manager depends on her mental and physical ability to cope with, and manage her time and responsibilities effectively.

Taking into account that 55.3% of the respondents (n=38) were either divorced (21.1%), unmarried (31.6%) or living with their partners (2.6%) (table 4.4), it is assumed that apart from being the heads of their households, they are in many instances also the sole breadwinners. In 38% of African households the female head is seen as the source of the "largest income" (Budlender, 2002:6). In South Africa, households headed by women have been reported to be 42.0% more common amongst the rural African population than in any other grouping (SA: Department of Welfare,

2000:On-line). Amongst urban African women, however, only 29.7% are heads of the households (Flood et al., 1997:21).

A similar situation has been encountered amongst women worldwide. Davidson (1997:6) noted that smaller families, consisting in the majority of cases of single-parent families predominantly headed by women with dependants, were common in the United Kingdom. In instances where women opt not to engage in formal marriage, the absence of a man in the family is likely to leave a definite void with obvious consequences, such as the lack of a father figure and male role-model (Davidson, 1997:27). Having only one income to fall back on puts additional pressure on the income provider. This situation is amplified in the case of women, who traditionally have not been regarded as breadwinners.

In terms of the conflict between traditional roles and the functions that are expected of African women managers in the present era, the institution should offer emotional support programmes in order to equip these women with the means to deal with such expectations. The question arises, however, as to whether male-manager-dominated institutions would be sensitive enough to take this issue seriously, especially if they themselves prefer to sustain traditional African beliefs. Furthermore, Taylor (1999:8) concluded that attempts by employers to improve the circumstances of women usually focus on the professional capacity of female employees and neglect the provision of support regarding their personal or domestic environment.

4.4.2   The independence of African women managers

A final question posed in this section of the survey (pertaining to the demographic milieu of the respondents) touched on the aspect of the amount of encouragement that respondents received to be independent. (According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English 1986:433, "independent is defined as "not dependent on or controlled by (other persons or things); not relying on others".) A total of 30 respondents (90.9%) indicated that they received encouragement to be independent (details of this response are presented in table 4.5). Six respondents did not answer this question.

Table 4.5: Responses to the question: "Are you encouraged to be independent?"

Explanation of respondents who answered yes	Percentage (n=24)
Was always encouraged to be totally independent	41.7%
Husband, family, children support and encourage me	25.0%
My family depends on me, breadwinner, husband relies on my salary	12.1%
I live on my own / do not need support	8.3%
Husband sees me as partner / co-head	8.3%
Single-parent scenarios	4.2%

From table 4.5 it can be concluded that the respondents' parents and families, in particular, encouraged them in some or other manner. Responses were as follows: "My parents have always encouraged me to study further"; "my parents encourage me to prepare for my own future independently"; "there's always support from my family"; and "I am already independent through the encouragement from my parents who supported me in my divorce and assured me I can make it as I am intelligent and worthy". Six respondents (25%) consulted their husbands and family in decision-making and discussed and shared ideas on important matters with them (table 4.5). One respondent from this group mentioned that her "husband does not do what is traditionally regarded men's role" (*sic*), as she for example "bought the house we live in, take my car for service[s], etc." Another respondent replied with: "I do not have to get permission from my husband before doing other things for example studying. We mostly discuss and share ideas on important matters".

Being independent could be a valuable asset to a manager, provided that the independency is backed up by support from peers and supervisors. Independency throughout the initiation and management of projects, decision-making and problem-solving is an acknowledged platform for growth. Having the freedom to be independent allows the African woman manager to operate without restraint, continuously accumulating managerial experience.

The majority of the respondents (90.1%) received support from various sources, whilst three respondents (9.9%) replied that they are not encouraged to be independent. In contrast to those respondents who received support, three respondents indicated: "I live on my own and do not need support". The responses to this section of the questionnaire confirmed previous observations by the respondents that they can

function successfully on their own, not because they are particularly strong individuals, but rather because they receive encouragement and support from a variety of sources.

Taking the comments regarding the influence of parents into consideration, it appears that the respondents' ability to consult others and gather support has been developed already during childhood. The traditional African approach regards the group as more important than the individual and whatever has an effect on the individual also affects the group (the "ubuntu" principle). This custom fosters a joint consciousness, emotional dependence, collective identity and group solidarity and prescribes the behaviour of one human being towards another (Lillicrap, 1987:18 and Van Dyk, 2001:228). The managerial environment in the public sector does not always facilitate opportunities for group consultation. In fact, managers are often required to make solitary and rapid decisions (Du Toit et al., 1998:210). The African woman manager is thus once again confronted with an anomaly as far as her professional career and traditional milieu are concerned.

Twenty-three of the respondents with partners/husbands (95.8%) received career encouragement from either a husband or partner. Reasons for this high percentage are given in table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Responses to the question: "Does your husband or partner support your career?"

Explanations of respondents who answered yes	Percentage (n=17)
Encourages me to study and enhance career	35.3%
Positive answer, totally, all the time	29.4%
My husband motivates me to enhance my career and supports me	11.7%
My husband motivates me to study	5.9%
Fifty-fifty	5.9%
He will ensure meals, fetch documents from work	5.9%
He does not interfere in my job	5.9%

Six of the respondents (35.3%) were encouraged to improve both their educational and career levels. Five respondents (29.4%) enjoyed encouragement for a broad spectrum of development activities and did not specify a particular area, whilst two respondents (11.7%) were encouraged exclusively in aspects relating to their careers (table 4.6). The respondents who were encouraged to improve both their educational and career levels received motivation, support, understanding and acceptance from husbands and

partners. Responses included: "My husband will sit with me until late and will ensure that we have our meals"; "he always encourages me to do my best all the time"; "he always listens to me or asks me questions regarding my career" and "he challenges me to build myself up not to put [myself] down".

Relating to the occupational environment, encouragement and support from partners/spouses play a fundamental role in the emotional well-being of managers. Thus, having a sounding-board with whom to discuss job-related stresses, share ideas and unwind is essential in today's highly competitive working environment. Bouwer (1993) conducted a study amongst 30 married African women enrolled at Vista University in the Free State Province and investigated the amount of support that they received from their husbands. The research led to the conclusion that the degree of support that the husbands offered was linked to their own educational status, so that the higher a husband's qualification, the more support he provided. Hence, Bouwer (1993:54) concluded that although husbands supported their wives to various extents, the wife's educational level could influence the marriage negatively and create stress if the husband experienced it as a threat. It often happens that women in managerial positions find themselves in a conflicting situation, having to decide whether or not to accept a higher promotion and bear the consequences of their husbands'/partners' envy. In cases where the husband/partner has poor self-esteem, this predicament may be so extreme that it may even threaten the marriage/relationship (Bouwer, 1993:55). Under these circumstances the damage inflicted on the managerial confidence of African woman is considerable, whereas confidence is a characteristic that is essential in the occupational environment of the PPM. It directly influences the assertiveness with which orders, tasks and delegations can be assigned.

It is evident that the respondents make their own choices as far as their domestic situation is concerned. Common to the nature of women aged between 20 and 40, most of them chose to have children. African women managers do not, however, always commit themselves to the fathers of their children through legal marriage but prefer to settle for a partnership instead. It appeared that professional women choose to devote their time to building a career rather than a marriage and often find themselves in a position of having to head the household. In general, the survey respondents were independent and those who were married had chosen husbands who treated them in a

more westernised manner, supporting them emotionally, contributing financially and assisting with child-rearing.

4.5   THE INFLUENCE OF ROLES AND WORK OVERLOAD ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS

Because men and women fulfil different roles in life, they have different responsibilities and needs. Taylor (1999:7) classified women's needs into "practical gender needs" and "strategic gender needs". Practical gender needs include those that are derived from tradition and culture as well as the roles that society attributes to the feminine gender such as physical needs, needs of a mother, a wife or a caregiver. Strategic gender needs, on the other hand, refer to those elements that are essential in order to counteract the commonly inferior position of women in relation to men in the social, economic and political context, such as in the case of inequalities in employment (Taylor, 1999:16). Because women have always tended to spend excessive time and energy on practical gender needs they do not have adequate time to initiate transformation in respect of strategic gender needs (Moser, 1993:49). Cox (1996:44) concluded in this regard that women have partially moved into the public sector and have adjusted their roles, although still "carrying the household". Statistics revealed that across all population groups, employed women spend far more time than employed men on unpaid domestic tasks such as housework (Budlender, 2002:6). This often leads to conflict owing to frustration and stress amongst women, which in turn can influence their effectiveness in the work environment.

Role conflict can occur between individuals as a result of various expectations that they have of one another (Van Rooyen, 1984:23). This usually takes place when one of the individuals faces an unacceptable series of demands (Fox & Meyer, 1995:115). However, not all career-orientated mothers experience role conflicts, mainly because some of these mothers have more spouse support (Hirschowitz & Cilliers, 1987:23). This observation was also noted in the results of this study regarding African women managers. Davidson (1997:27) found that the single status of professional women was considered an advantage because of the absence of the role conflict that was often concomitant with being a wife. However, acting as a single parent, although it frees a woman from the demands of being a wife, introduces additional burdens and responsibilities (Hirschowitz & Cilliers, 1987:23). According to Davidson (1997:29) single women may have more responsibilities as parents but experience less role conflict than

married women. It became clear during the course of this study that the survey respondents have a multiplicity of roles and responsibilities to fulfil, although it transpired that the majority did not experience any problems in respect of being both a mother and wife on the one hand and being a manager on the other, and fulfilling diverse roles (table 4.7). This apparent ability of African women to fulfil the roles of wife, mother and career woman is to the advantage of the family and the institution and will therefore have a positive influence on their effectiveness as managers.

Table 4.7: The different roles of African women managers

Different roles performed by respondents			Percentage (n=36)
Career woman only			3.0%
Career woman, mother and wife			15.2%
Career woman, mother and wife	Student		3.0%
Career woman, mother and wife	Community projects	Political activist	3.0%
Career woman, mother and wife	Community projects	Lecturer	15.2%
Career woman, mother and wife	Community projects	Student	9.1%
Career woman and mother			9.1%
Career woman and mother	Student		3.0%
Career woman and mother	Community projects	Political activist	27.3%
Career woman	Wife		3.0%
Career woman	Student		3.0%
Career woman	Community projects	Support family	3.0%
Student	Community projects	Support family	3.0%

Thirty-three respondents (91.7%) agreed that their lives consisted of many roles. Table 4.7 shows the various roles that these respondents had to fulfil. The majority indicated that they primarily fulfilled the role of career woman, in addition to other roles such as mother, community developer, political campaigner, wife and educator. The survey respondents thus viewed themselves first and foremost as career women and secondly as mothers and wives, although it cannot be concluded on the basis thereof that they regard their roles as career women as being more important. The respondents' involvement in the community and the political arena was notable. For example, as may be seen in table 4.7, categories with relatively high percentages of involvement included community and political roles (15.2% - career woman, mother and wife; community projects; lecturer; and 27.3 % - career woman and mother; community projects; political activist).

An open-ended question was asked to assess the respondents' ability to cope with being women managers. Twenty respondents (58.9%) replied positively, with answers such as "good"; "well"; "fine"; "with confidence"; "without difficulty"; "exciting" and

"challenging". They indicated that these attitudes relied on the successful prioritising of daily responsibilities, support from families, setting clear objectives, having good relationships with colleagues and being flexible. Two respondents (5.9%) obtained inner strength through regular exercise, practising meditation and religion. This inner strength was noted in a number of responses in which the respondents highlighted aspects such as having confidence in themselves, taking a decision not to quit and being motivated by a sense of achievement as a result of having successfully coped with responsibilities. Responses to the above-mentioned question, however, were not always positive. Three respondents (8.3%) replied that they did not cope, experienced problems, had to rely on others, were dependent on assistance and had to network with other women.

Having responsibilities as well as having to cope as professional women leads to a tendency to spend as much of their free time with their families as possible, leading to the isolation of their friends and weakening of their social network (Cox, 1996:300). To compensate for the loss of social interaction and support from friends outside the working environment, African women managers counteract this lack of close relationships by forming friendships with colleagues at work, so that the workplace becomes a place of important interaction (Cox, 1996:301). This tendency could contribute towards the establishment of a professional support and network system that would contribute to managerial effectiveness. Davidson (1997:89) reported that women managers are more likely than men to utilise networks for domestic and professional support.

Although the variables discussed earlier in this chapter were included in the focus group facilitation session, the participants elaborated more on the occupational aspects than on the domestic. Participants in the focus group were of the opinion that their ability to cope was without doubt influenced by the attitudes of male colleagues towards them. This was confirmed by two survey respondents (5.9%) who mentioned that gender problems were experienced. Responses included the following: "Male counterparts like to prove women cannot manage and failed to support them". Focus group respondents referred to such problems as "silent constraints" from the opposite gender. Men thus gave the impression that they were "better" than women. The fact that very few respondents (5.9%) mentioned problems related to gender may be indicative of the fact that many males have adjusted so as to accept women in management positions, whilst women, in many cases, do not regard males as a threat to their managerial

effectiveness. Alternatively, having to cope in a male-dominated workplace and compete with male counterparts may serve to motivate women – or, in some cases, may even move a woman to misuse her femininity as a means to get her way.

A number of studies have shown that women are of the opinion that it is possible to combine the roles of worker, wife and mother, although not without problems (Hirschowitz & Cilliers, 1987:20 and Davidson, 1997:26). The various roles that women engaged in were categorised by Moser (1993:49) as follows: the "productive role" of women, referring to any form of production that generated an income; a second role signifying the "reproduction" responsibility of women to bear children; and finally, the "community role", referring to activities that provide resources to the community.

One of the problems which women experienced, according to De Vries (1991:81), was that of work overload when professional women were required to contribute and perform both in society and domestically (De Vries, 1991:81). Davidson (1997:68) defines the term overload as "too much to do", and also refers to the qualitative aspect of overload which includes the difficulty of the work. Professional married women may suffer from such a work overload if, for example, the husband is involved in working overtime, travels and attends social events which develop his career (De Vries, 1991:85). Role conflict as such may thus not be the main factor that has to be managed, but rather the woman's lack of ability to cope with diverse tasks.

From an employer's point of view the reduction of the external stressors (such as the influence of roles and work overload) would be beneficial, enabling the employee to handle increased work-related responsibilities more effectively. Thus, the ideal solution would be to ease the burden of social and discriminatory responsibilities of African women managers, in order to alleviate stress and channel energy into professional responsibilities. Previously mentioned logistical support programmes (paragraph 4.3) to assist managers with responsibilities included provisioning of child-care facilities at work, introducing EAP programmes and allowing flexible working hours. The EAP programmes should, in addition, provide counselling sessions focusing on matters influencing the lives of managers, such as family planning, coping with divorce, loss of loved ones and handling various roles and responsibilities. If such services could be facilitated during working hours, it would save valuable time and ensure that women managers were available when urgently needed, and thus able to be more productive and effective.

4.6 DOMESTIC FACTORS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS

Although considerable, the value of the time spent by women and the contribution that they make in respect of general social upliftment is difficult to assess. African women managers fulfil diverse roles (both domestic and professional) with accompanying responsibilities. Often these responsibilities accumulate to such an extent that the weight thereof becomes unbearable. However, it may also be the case that some of these responsibilities do not influence managerial effectiveness at all. The following section investigates the domestic factors that may influence the effectiveness of African women managers.

Table 4.8 illustrates the results of the domestic factors that influence African women managers. The initial set of questions was grouped into four categories, including factors relating to the spouse/partner, self-behaviour, culture and socio-economic influences. In its final form, however, the questionnaire did not show this distinction, as this could have influenced the responses by leading the survey respondents into a possible direction. It was noted that the "no" response percentages exceeded the "yes" response percentages with regard to all the given variables.

Concerning the influence of their spouses or partners on the respondents' effectiveness as managers, table 4.8 indicates that in all five categories the "no influence" percentages were consistently higher than the "yes" percentages. Two variables that had no influence (0%) on the survey respondents were "fear of my husband/partner" and "verbal victimization [by] husband/partner". In the case of the former, 17 respondents (47.2%) indicated that this had no effect whilst 19 respondents (52.8%) reported that it was not applicable. Fifteen respondents (40.5%) indicated that "verbal victimization [by] husband/partner" had no effect and 22 respondents (59.5%) were of the opinion that it was not applicable. The relatively small influence that the husband/partner had on the managerial effectiveness of the African women managers in terms of destructive behaviour and victimisation was both encouraging as well as surprising. Reference made to men in terms of their controlling and dominating of women thus appears to be becoming increasingly unfounded amongst African women managers (Mazibuko & Struwig, 1993:66). The fact that increasing numbers of women choose not to be involved in a legal marriage, and therefore refuse to be in a position of subordination and abuse, may be one of the reasons for this.

Table 4.8: Domestic factors and their influence on the effectiveness of African women managers

Influential factors	Percentages		
Spouse or partner	Yes	No	Not applicable
Fear of my husband/partner (n=36)	0%	47.2%	52.8%
Husband/partner does not share responsibilities (n=37)	10.8%	37.8%	51.4%
Destructive behaviour from husband/partner, e.g. bodily harm (n=36)	2.8%	38.9%	58.3%
Verbal victimization [by] husband/partner (n=37)	0%	40.5%	59.5%
Husband/partner refuses further education (n=37)	2.7%	37.8%	59.5%
Self-behaviour			
Lack of self-confidence (n=37)	10.8%	59.5%	29.7%
Emotionally too tired (n=38)	10.5%	63.1%	26.3%
Inability to exploit new opportunities (n=37)	13.5%	64.9%	21.6%
Inability to express myself (n=38)	7.9%	68.4%	23.7%
Culture			
Cultural traditions (n=37)	5.4%	62.2%	32.4%
Religion (n=37)	2.7%	70.3%	27.0%
Community's perceptions about a woman manager (n=36)	13.9%	66.7%	19.4%
Way of dressing (n=37)	10.8%	67.6%	21.6%
Finance (n=37)	21.6%	64.9%	13.5%
Socio-economic			
Family commitments (n=37)	35.1%	59.5%	5.4%
Have young children (n=39)	30.8%	51.3%	18.0%
Lack of time (n=37)	32.4%	56.8%	10.8%
Too many responsibilities at home (n=36)	22.2%	55.6%	22.2%

With relation to the effect of self-behaviour, three (7.9%) to five (13.5%) respondents replied that this category influenced their effectiveness as managers (table 4.8). Twenty-six respondents (68.4%), however, indicated that an inability to express themselves did not influence their effectiveness, whilst 24 respondents (64.9%) replied similarly to the question relating to "inability to exploit new opportunities". Twenty-four respondents (63.1%) were of the opinion that emotional tiredness did not influence them, whereas 22 respondents (59.5%) indicated that "lack of self-confidence" did not influence them.

In the category relating to cultural influences, all the "no influence" percentages were above 60 percent in respect of the respondents' effectiveness as managers. The variable that had the highest percentage for "no influence" was "religion" (70.3%). It therefore seems that the survey respondents regarded religion as a personal issue that existed separately from their everyday professional life, thus having neither a detrimental nor a beneficial effect. Religion was followed by the variables "way of dressing" (67.6%), "community's perception about a woman manager" (66.7%), "finance" (64.9%) and "cultural traditions" (62.2%)". Eight respondents (21.6%) did, however, report that "finance" had an influence on their effectiveness.

The category of socio-economic influences showed the highest "yes" percentages, although the "no influence" percentages were still higher in this category. Thirteen respondents (35.1%) reported that family commitments influenced them to a certain extent. One response was: "My mother's ill health sometimes affect (*sic*) me especially if I'm told she's not well - it is as if I should leave everything and go to see her in Qwa-Qwa". Twelve respondents mentioned that having young children (30.8%) and a lack of time (32.4%) influenced their managerial effectiveness. One respondent reported that having young children had limited her opportunities in terms of seeking employment in the "private sector" whilst another felt that having a sick child who needed attention from time to time had negatively impacted on her. Another reported that she did not spend enough time with her child, since she sometimes had to take work home. With reference to Davidson's (1997) definition of the term "work overload", eight respondents (22.2%) mentioned in the open response category that their workload influenced their effectiveness as managers negatively. The majority of the responses indicated that the workload had no influence, possibly because the respondents' support structures were well in place.

Further comments by the survey respondents on the influence of domestic factors in general included the following: "Having to balance my full-time job with my part-time studies has for the past year been a challenge as I had never done it before"; "I am divorced therefore I plan my work as I like and have no interferences from my children or partner". One respondent referred to "lack of Departmental vision, unwillingness to take decisions or to recognize women". In general the responses from the survey respondents on the variables listed in table 4.8 showed high percentages for the "no influence" category almost without exception. It can thus be concluded that the listed influential factors ("spouse/partner, self-behaviour, culture and socio-economic") did not have a marked influence on the effectiveness of African women managers. This was also confirmed by the focus group participants who did not refer to any of these factors as having an influence on them.

4.7 EDUCATIONAL AND TRAINING ASPECTS INFLUENCING THE PERFORMANCE OF AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS

Owing to discriminatory practices in South Africa during the period prior to 1994, only a small number of African women (837 to be exact) were in possession of a B.A. degree by 1980 (Hirschowitz & Cilliers, 1987:138). In 1995, 23.0% of African women aged 25

years and above had no formal education, whilst 28.0% had not advanced to Grade 5 (Budlender, 1998:16). African women's struggle for independence has increasingly promoted an assertive stance with regard to further education and career advancement (Talley-Ross, 1995:107). Between 1995 and 2001 there was a decrease in the percentage of African women who did not have formal schooling (Budlender, 2002:4). African women nowadays perceive education as a prerequisite for extended job opportunities, increased income and the enhancement of their social status (Talley-Ross, 1995:24). The public sector, being one of the largest employers of African women managers, has increasingly benefited from the improvement of the educational status of these employees.

4.7.1   Education statistics in the new South African educational system

Access to education amongst Africans has increased proportionately during recent years (De Vries, 1991:110 and Statistics South Africa, 1999:12). The number of degrees, diplomas and certificates obtained by Africans increased by 161.0% between 1991 and 1997 (Flood et al., 1997:34 and Forgey et al., 2001:274). This resulted in a substantial growth in the extent of female education and furthermore evoked an increased entry of African women into educational institutions (Bouwer, 1993:52). Table 4.9 shows the number of students who were enrolled for studies at universities and technikons in the various provinces in South Africa in 1998. The difference between male and female enrolments is not as profound as it is generally perceived to be (table 4.9). Universities, however, have more female than male enrolments whereas at Technikons the reverse is true.

Table 4.9: Students enrolled at Universities and Technikons in South Africa in 1998[1]

	Number of institutions	Universities			Number of institutions	Technikons		
		Number of students				Number of students		
		Males	Females	Total		Males	Females	Total
Free State	1	4737	5050	9787	1	3258	2889	6147
Eastern Cape	4	9068	12555	21623	3	7742	7984	15726
Gauteng	6	93423	116491	209914	5	73808	52282	126090
KwaZulu-Natal	3	14316	16368	30684	3	13249	12154	25403
Mpumalanga	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Northern Cape	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Northern Province	2	8098	9835	17933				
North-West	2	8751	11635	20386	1	1304	2606	3910
Western Cape	3	21738	20674	42412	2	9678	8240	17918
Total	21	160131	192608	352739	15	109039	86155	195194

[1] – Provinces with no numbers do not have universities or Technikons (Statistics South Africa, 2000 (b):30)

Education of its citizens should be viewed as one of the basic responsibilities of a country and equal opportunities in education for girls and women comprise a fundamental right. Although Davidson (1997:21) emphasised the significant role of parents in creating a learning culture as well as the importance of educating their children accordingly, the former black education system has been considered inferior and apparently influenced women's choices of careers. According to Lillicrap (1987:18) this situation was further reinforced by fear of success, lack of role-models and the influence of teachers. In the field of education, care should be taken to ensure that at primary school level, girls are brought up with positive and non-stereotyped attitudes towards careers. Moreover, at secondary level, adequate career guidance should channel them towards new opportunities (De Vries, 1991:56 and Santho, 1995:37). Educators should also address the need for greater cross-cultural sensitivity in their curricula (Talley-Ross, 1995:109). Female learners should already be given the opportunity to discover and develop their managerial and leadership abilities at tertiary level, so as to gain self-confidence and experience for future careers in the managerial field.

4.7.2 Current realities regarding the education of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration

With regard to education, one of the objectives of the White Paper on Population Policy, 1998 is to: "improve the quality, accessibility, availability and affordability of education from early childhood through to adult education, emphasizing gender sensitivity, vocational education and the promotion of women's educational opportunities at tertiary

level" (SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:44). The policy thus proposes a number of logistic measures such as ensuring the accessibility of schooling to pregnant schoolgirls in order to enable them to continue with their education. In a 1995 survey, 31.0% of African women responded that they had not continued with education after dropping out of school owing to pregnancy (Budlender, 1998:16). This issue is also addressed by the **South African Schools Act, Act 84 of 1996**, which makes provision for access to schooling for young mothers and pregnant women (Department of Welfare, 2000:On-line). The Department of Education has further established gender equity structures with regard to student and youth programmes that envisage a 60.0% enrolment of women. The Department also incorporated Constitutional and Human Rights Education into their "curriculum 2005" (SA: Department of Welfare, 2000:On-line). A working group on "Values in Education" produced a report in May 2000, emphasising six core values to be encouraged in schools, including equity and equal rights. These values were regarded as moral aspirations, which schoolchildren should respect.

In this study, 28 of the survey respondents (73.7%) had received their qualifications at a university, whilst smaller percentages had studied at community colleges, private schools and technikons (table 4.10). This explains the relatively high percentage (56.4%) of degrees compared to certificates and diplomas (table 4.10). It should be noted that it was only relatively recently (1996) that technikons started to award degrees in addition to diplomas and certificates. Four respondents (10.3%) had no post-school qualifications. Fifty-eight percent of the respondents had qualifications in the fields of the social sciences and humanities, including disciplines such as social work, the Arts, communication, law, secretarial studies, librarianship and management. The respondents who had performed their studies in the field of the health sciences (16.7%) predominantly possessed a nursing qualification (table 4.10).

Table 4.10: Post-school qualifications of survey respondents

Institution (n=38)		Type of qualification (n=39)		Field of study (n=36)	
University	73.7%	Certificate	5.1%	Social Sciences & Humanities	58.3%
Other institutions	13.2%	Diploma	35.9%	Health Sciences	16.7%
Technikon	10.5%	Degree	56.4%	Managerial & HRD	13.9%
None	10.5%	Honours	38.5%	Finance & Business	8.3%
		Master's	17.9%	Natural Science & Biology	2.8%
		Doctorate	0%		

The data further showed that 22 respondents (56.4%) had proceeded with post-graduate studies. Fourteen respondents (66.7%) were financing their own studies, whereas other sources of funding included employers (23.8%), financial aid from the particular tertiary institution (4.7%) and a combination of own funds and assistance from the employer (4.7%) (data not shown).

The cost of registering for a qualification, the duration of the course, the stressful circumstances concerning examinations and deadlines, as well as the need to maintain a professional career, do not make the furthering of one's studies an easy task, and bear witness to the respondents' dedication to enhancing their formal education. Twenty-one respondents (56.8%) were registered for studies at the time of the survey. It appeared that these respondents knew that the passage to an improved dispensation for women is undoubtedly through education.

The majority of the respondents had carried out their studies in the fields of the social sciences, the humanities, management and human resource development, all of which offer a sound academic foundation for managers. The fact that African women in managerial positions seldom possess the exact qualification pertaining to these positions underlines the importance of in-service training in order to supplement their existing knowledge with hands-on knowledge of the required managerial functions and skills.

According to Smit (1978:137), a considerable number of graduate employment opportunities existed in the professions of education, social welfare and librarianship by 1978 in South Africa. A decade ago the majority of women involved in tertiary studies were registered for a Bachelor of Arts degree. As a result, this group of women entered the labour market with diverse skills in human relations disciplines, while only a few women had undergone management training at business schools (De Vries, 1991:124). Bonnin (1996:379) found, in an assessment of postgraduate degree enrolments in the managerial field, that the number of women was still very low in proportion to men. Few women studied in the scientific fields. In 1996, a mere seven percent of engineering students were female (Bonnin, 1996:379).

This state of affairs could impact negatively on future career opportunities if the increased appointment of women in jobs traditionally ear-marked for them, such as clerical and secretarially-related jobs, is maintained in all sectors (De Vries, 1991:28 and

Grobler et al., 1999:11). An example of the under-representation of African women is the legal profession. In 1998, one out of ten Constitutional Court judges was an African woman, whilst out of 186 judges only three were African women (Budlender, 1998:13). If women generally prefer certain professions above others, this could well be as a result of the fact that they have considered their future goals and chosen the career path that would suit them best. Professional African women are predominantly found in the nursing and teaching professions and are thus more likely than men to be employed by the public sector (O'Brien, 1992:30; Levitz, 1995:25 and Budlender, 1998:20). It may also be, however, that certain professions are not sensitive enough to address women's needs and that tertiary institutions do not market their courses so as to attract more female students. African women managers, being emancipated and eager to live out their own individuality, have more opportunities to educate themselves in the 21st century than a decade ago. Currently, it may appear that they prefer certain careers above others, but it is anticipated that the next generation of African women managers will prefer to follow a variety of careers on the basis of interest and not prejudice.

The educational level of a mother plays a fundamental role in determining the financial and social welfare of her children (Sewpaul, 1994:347). Thus, if women in South Africa could be provided with adequate opportunities for educational development, they should be in line for increased professional employment, which in turn would make a contribution to the sustainable development of the country (Sewpaul, 1994:368 and SA: White Paper on Population Policy, 1998:20). Sustainable development is of considerable importance as it influences the economic development of South Africa directly. Thus, not only does a formal qualification enable an African woman manager to pursue a professional career, but it also contributes directly to the quality of life of those in her care. She is thus placed in a position to provide them with knowledge as well as the means to gain such knowledge.

4.8   CONCLUSION

In the last decade women worldwide have made a quantum leap towards a change in their status in society through the establishment of structures to assist, guide and support them, and to enhance their self-esteem and quality of life. This is also true of African women, and more specifically the African woman manager working for the Free State Provincial Administration. Keeping in mind the ages of the respondents, it may be noted that most of them are in that period in a woman's life during which she bears

children in addition to building her career. Parenting clearly has a greater influence on working women than on the lives of working men. Being both a manager and mother calls for a strong sense of responsibility in terms of a woman's career, commitment and perseverance and, equally important, in terms of nurturing and caring for her children and/or other dependants.

In present-day South Africa, managers in the public sector enter the managerial echelon at a much younger age than was the case ten years ago. Apart from the fact that women managers with adequate formal qualifications in the managerial field have only been entering the work force since the beginning of the last decade, there appears to be a tendency in the public sector to appoint younger applicants who show potential to develop, rather than individuals who have many years of experience. Thus, the question arises as to who would be more successful: a young manager, with limited managerial experience, who is eager to learn, adapt and contribute to the effectiveness of the institution; or an older manager with vast managerial experience, who is of the opinion that she has enough knowledge to do the job, is hesitant to try out new ideas and strategies and is reluctant to contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation. The Free State Provincial Administration should, as a priority, reaffirm the importance of orientation and mentorship programmes both for young, inexperienced appointees and - equally importantly – for experienced individuals who are appointed in new posts. If human resources within the institution are limited, outsourcing to an independent service provider should be considered.

With regard to the issue of institutional assistance to African mothers, the focus group respondents were of the opinion that the Free State Provincial Administration had failed to provide the necessary support with regard to their children. The National Office on the Status of Women, which is to be established within Government, will need to closely monitor the public sector to ensure that gender needs are addressed. Having child-care facilities and working flexible hours are seemingly minor factors that could have a great impact on the effectiveness of African women managers who are also mothers. Thus, this is one area which, without much input from the institution, could ensure favourable outcomes for professional mothers and contribute to their managerial effectiveness.

The majority of the survey respondents who were unmarried had chosen to have children, were engaged in a partnership-relationship or were single parents and

accepted the responsibility of being the head of the household. It was also evident that without exception the respondents had dependants whom they had to support financially. This situation necessitates the putting in place of a support structure for professional African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration, in order to enable them to maintain a satisfactory social life and to devote themselves to a full-time career. On the other hand, the respondents confirmed the contributions and support provided to them by their families, husbands and partners, whether financial, social or logistic in nature. Taking into account that more than half of the African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration were not married, this factor had introduced an unprecedented status and an all-new repertoire of responsibilities. Those who did marry expected that the traditional role of the husband should be exchanged for a more westernised partnership relationship. These adjustments could be attributed to the fact that African women managers earned a competitive income and enjoyed particular privileges. This brought about a conflicting situation between the traditional African cultures on the one hand and the expectations of African women managers on the other.

As previously mentioned, a significant number of respondents who were married described their spouses as being supportive towards their careers. This included the sharing of domestic responsibilities and tasks, and mutual respect between the partners. The men assisted with practical aspects such as preparing food and caring for the children when the women were tied up with professional responsibilities. These men have thus adopted a more westernised culture and have accepted and begun to practise the principle of equality between husbands (men) and wives (women). According to this study these men not only contributed financially to the family but also preferred to fulfil the role of husband and father in addition to assisting their wives with domestic responsibilities. It should be emphasised, however, that such support is usually strongly dependent on the husband's own status, self-esteem and level of success (Bouwer, 1993:54). The higher the levels of the men's own education and work professionalism, the more assistance and support they offered their spouses (Bouwer, 1993:54 and Mazibuko & Struwig, 1993:66).

Even with the support of a husband/partner, married women contributed substantially to the family income in addition to taking the primary responsibility for domestic issues such as sick children, assisting with homework and resolving conflict amongst children.

Although men are nowadays increasingly being challenged to become involved in these tasks, the responsibility still appears to remain the woman's. In spite of this, however, the respondents were not of the opinion that they were emotionally drained or that various roles and responsibilities such as family commitments and domestic factors (table 4.8) had a significant influence on their independency and effectiveness as managers.

Being part of the westernised paradigm, independency opposes, to a certain extent, the African custom which considers group involvement to be a prerequisite for decision-making. If African women managers hold on to the belief that they should engage in consultation whenever a managerial decision should be made, this will impact directly on their managerial effectiveness. The end result could be a manager who cannot or will not make immediate decisions, relies on others to influence her reasoning, consults parties who may not always be knowledgeable, confers with individuals who do not necessarily take circumstances into consideration, delays the decision-making processes and never gains confidence in her own managerial judgement.

If the culture of inter-dependency were that of the majority of appointees within an institution, it would ultimately prevail and would gradually become part and parcel of the institutional culture and rhythm. In contrast, if employees found themselves within an institution where their effectiveness directly influenced their yield, they would contribute to a culture of hard work and commitment that would eventually become part of the institutional culture. When employees work in a secure environment where they are compensated regardless of their effort and commitment, they may find themselves in a comfort zone where they can perform at the minimum level, thus contributing to a relaxed organisational culture. Therefore, through the independence of their management style, or alternatively, through their lack of independence, African women managers will undoubtedly have a direct influence on the decision-making culture and effectiveness of the institution.

Independency originates, to a large extent, from the successes experienced by African women managers in the workplace, whilst these successes are determined by their competency and experience when tackling a specific task. Education governs such competency and experience. The survey respondents are generally well educated and career-orientated and boast an array of tertiary qualifications. The majority had

obtained a tertiary qualification, while 56.4% boasted post-graduate qualifications. The fact that 66.7% of those currently studying further were funding their own studies made it clear that these women perceive education as an investment, since immeasurable commitment is required to pass assignments, tests and examinations the first time around.

The South African education system was also briefly reviewed. It was emphasised that this system should be well-organised, with a strong focus being placed on the function of women as important role-players who are equal to men when it comes to decision-making, especially regarding matters pertaining to their own welfare. Education is regarded as a fundamental enabling activity by means of which one gains access to opportunities for applying what one has learnt (Roosevelt, 1991:39). Respondents in this study appeared to have achieved clarity in respect of their expectations from life, as well as the sacrifices that they were prepared to make.

It was clear that the domestic and socio-economic factors discussed in this chapter influenced African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration to a considerable extent. However, these women have adapted and developed various mechanisms through which to overcome these challenges. In general, the survey respondents as well as the focus group participants were positive towards the variables impacting on their everyday life such as parenting, marriage, dependency and education. They do not perceive these variables as unassailable obstacles but rather as hampering factors to be dealt with in order to be able to achieve managerial effectiveness. It is thus evident that the Free State Provincial Administration should address these variables, as a matter of urgency, in order to ensure an effective and streamlined Public Service.

THE OCCUPATIONAL MILIEU OF AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS IN THE FREE STATE PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The White Paper on Human Resource Management (1997) makes it clear that in order to adhere to effective service delivery, the public sector has to rely on a dedicated and effective work force (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 1997 (a)). It further stipulates that, because African women have been increasingly appointed in managerial positions in the public sector, it has become essential that the management ability of these individuals be optimised (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 1997 (a):26). In the pursuit of effective management in the public sector, the mentioned stipulations also impacted in a significant way on the functional, structural and legislative environments and called for purposeful and proactive management actions to transform the public sector from its previous and current status to the required and mandatory status, in order to achieve service excellence. To transform any sector with an extensive personnel corps and comprehensive resources, without jeopardising effective service delivery, is an extremely complex process. The employees within the public sector remained the means whereby change had to take place. Without adequate support and involvement from the work force of any institution, deficiency may be anticipated in the process of transformation (Van der Walt & Knipe, 1998:6).

Legislation (**SA: South African Qualifications Authority Act, Act 58 of 1995; SA: Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998; SA: Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998** and **SA: Skills Development Levies Act, Act 9 of 1999**) as well as the implementation of the Reconstruction and Development Programme were the main causes for the improvement of the position of African women managers in the public sector, and facilitated the entry of African women into the managerial ranks to a large xtent (African National Congress, 1994). The RDP was the initial strategy of the African

National Congress to address inequalities in South Africa. During the same period the Department of Finance proposed a new economic strategy entitled Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), that would, amongst other things, enhance human resource development and create flexibility in the labour market (Sekoto & van Straaten, 1999:107). In many ways, GEAR emphasised the goals of the RDP and proposed increased development opportunities for women (Flood et al., 1997:19-20). However, the effectiveness of GEAR has been debated, and it appears that it may not have produced the growth and employment initially predicted (Budlender, 1998:25 and Forgey et al., 2001:421).

The appointment of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration, without paying attention to their career development, is detrimental to the effectiveness of the institution. The emphasis should be placed on service delivery, not only to the public but to employees as well. Charlton (2000:194) is of the opinion that development is aimed at removing unnecessary regulations and procedures that could hamper the achievement of organisational goals. African women managers are part of the organisational structure that strives towards the attainment of institutional effectiveness.

Employment circumstances, such as equal pay, longer maternity leave and inclusion in managerial posts, have thus gradually improved for African women, as have employment opportunities. Today African women are in a position to study and to initiate and build a career in a managerial field in the public sector, while receiving support with a view to becoming managers within specialist disciplines. Chapter five investigates the occupational milieu of African women managers and related aspects such as employment circumstances, hierarchical positions and accountability, as well as operational influences. Conclusions will be drawn in this chapter concerning the impact of these influences on the effectiveness of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration.

5.2 EMPLOYMENT CIRCUMSTANCES OF AFRICAN WOMEN IN SOUTH AFRICA IN GENERAL

Although the Industrial Revolution was primarily responsible for creating job opportunities for women, the Second World War, and also, especially, the period during

the 1960s and 1970s, could be regarded as the peak periods for women's involvement in formal employment (Erwee, 1986:175 and Cox, 1996:300). It was during these times and circumstances that women were used to supplement the labour shortage in South Africa. In pre-colonial society, rural African women had been responsible for working the land in order to provide for their families. Later, during the 1800s and early 1900s, they fulfilled the domestic tasks at home and often had to take care of children as single parents, either by choice or because of the migration system that did not allow the settlement of Africans in white urban areas and forced men to seek employment away from home (De Vries, 1991:107; Johnson, 1992:101 and Budlender, 2002:5).

By 1930 African women began to seek employment in urban areas, a very difficult venture, as laws and regulations prohibited them from moving to "white" cities (Budlender, 1998:2). The most common methods of earning money were domestic employment and casual work. However, as time progressed, employers came to realise that African women were trustworthy, conscientious, productive and skilful (De Vries, 1991:107). A decade later, in the 1940s, African men performed domestic services in garment and textile industries, whilst during this time white women emerged as supervisors and moved into lower-level managerial posts. At this stage in South African history, African women were found predominantly in the agricultural sector and domestic services, and because of their low level of education, were dependent on vacancies that were left by African males (De Vries, 1991:100 and Flood et al., 1997:20).

Later on, in the 1980s, African women constituted the biggest and fastest-growing component of the South African female labour force, accounting for almost two-thirds of all active women (De Vries, 1991:26). Although women were entering the work force rapidly, by 1995 there were still very few in managerial positions, representing a mere 0.6% of managerial personnel in national governmental departments at the time (Flood et al., 1997:22 and Forgey et al., 2001:518). Recently (2002), statistics revealed that African women currently comprise the lowest proportion of employed women in South Africa (Budlender, 2002:33). When statistics from the 2000 Persal system (SA: Department of the Premier, 2000 (a)) are compared with a formal study done by Santho (1995) in the Free State Provincial Administration, a clear increase in the number of African women in management positions can be discerned, especially at deputy

director's level, although it is evident that there were a relatively small number represented at directorship level and above (table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Positions held by African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration in 1995 compared to 2000

Positions	1995	2000
Assistant Director	11	40
Deputy Director	1	17
Director and Chief Director	4	5

Santho, 1995:28 and SA: Department of the Premier, 2000 (a)

Although the level of employment of African women continued to improve, by 1998 most employed African women (51.0%) worked in elementary or unskilled jobs. Only one in five African women held semi-professional occupations and less than 2.0% occupied managerial posts (Budlender, 1998:19; Ministry for Welfare and Population Development, 1998:On-line and Statistics South Africa, 2000 (a):14). It appeared that it was relatively easy for women to gain employment in lower ranks, although still difficult to enter senior ranks in an institution (Davidson, 1997:7 and Taylor, 1999:21). Doubt still surrounded the acceptability of the managerial competencies of "blacks" and women, and questions were raised as to why African women managers struggled to compete with their male counterparts for opportunities in the managerial sector (Davidson, 1997:48; Carrell et al., 1998:25 and Truter, 2001 (b):39).

According to Statistics South Africa, out of an estimated total population of 43.7 million in October 1999, the economically active population was estimated at 13 527 000, with 465 000 Asians, 1 519 000 coloureds, 2 103 000 whites and 9 420 000 Africans (Statistics South Africa, 2000 (b):40 and Forgey et al., 2001:338). Employed African women accounted for 2 746 000 of the population, whilst the unemployed African women represented 2 963 000 (Forgey et al., 2001:340). Fifty-four percent of African women can thus be considered unemployed. This factor is determined on the basis of the number of persons desiring to work, and not of whether those concerned have taken steps to seek employment (Forgey et al., 1999:13).
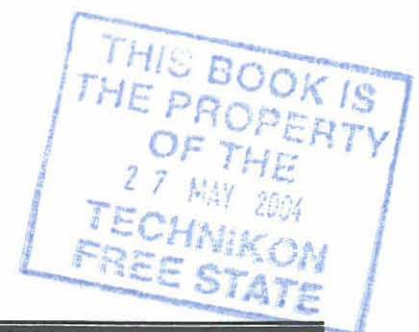
5.3 EMPLOYMENT FIGURES OF AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS AND THEIR INVOLVEMENT IN THE VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS OF THE FREE STATE PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION

The Free State Provincial Administration is comprised of 11 departments. In the two largest departments, Education and Health, African women of all ranks (administrative to managerial) occupy 15 845 and 8 088 posts respectively (table 5.2). Smaller departments, such as Local Government and Housing, Safety and Security, Finance, Expenditure and Economic Affairs and Sport, Culture, Science and Technology, each have fewer than 100 African women employees (SA: Free State Provincial Government, 2001:On-line).

Table 5.2: Administrative and managerial posts occupied by Africans in the Free State Provincial Administration in 2001

Departments represented (n=11)	Gender distribution (n=48 660)	
	African females	African males
Education	15 845	11 154
Health	8 088	2 614
Public Works, Roads and Transport	1 315	3 420
Welfare	789	360
Office of the Premier	752	889
Agriculture	402	695
Environmental Affairs and Tourism	107	482
Safety and Security	94	1 105
Finance, Expenditure and Economic Affairs	86	96
Local Government and Housing	74	204
Sport, Culture, Science and Technology	23	66
Total	**27 575**	**21 085**
Percentage	**56.7%**	**43.3%**

SA: Free State Provincial Government, 2001:On-line

It was evident that there was a relationship between gender and the appointments made in the different departments. The Department of Health, for example, consisted of more African females (75.6%) than males (24.4%). Education boasted 58.7% females and 41.3% males, while Welfare had 68.7% females and 31.3% males. All the other departments have fewer African females than males, with the lowest percentage of females occurring at Public Works, Roads and Transport (27.7%) and Safety and Security (7.8%) (SA: Free State Provincial Government, 2001:On-line). The employment percentages in the different departments suggest that there are still traditional roles and

responsibilities that are associated with the female gender, which culminate in the predominant appointment of women in related occupations. Because of the higher representation of women in such departments, their availability for appointment in managerial posts is correspondingly higher there.

The Free State Provincial Administration committed itself to affirmative action policies in the early 1990s, but it was only as recently as October 2001 that Employment Equity plans were formally introduced, as mandated by the **Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998**. The draft Employment Equity Plan of the Office of the Premier emphasises fair and equal access with regard to employment opportunities for all, including the improvement of employee representation (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (d):1). Each department in the Provincial Administration was further mandated to have a strategic document in place by 2001 which was aimed at transforming the gender profile of departments.

Although employment equity quotas are strictly mandated and monitored in the private sector, it was felt by the focus group participants that the Free State Provincial Administration was too lenient in respect of the appointment of African women managers. It further appeared that the accuracy of reports on employment equity targets was neither questioned nor verified. Current employment equity plans should incorporate strategies and positive steps to encourage and actively recruit more African women in leadership positions.

It was furthermore mentioned by the focus group participants that nepotism and "headhunting" for African males are common within the institution, and that political appointments are often made. Because of the lack of a supervisory body and the persistence of autocracy in management, African women managers are thus often in a position of powerlessness. The focus group further pointed out that the recruitment and selection processes for managerial positions are not supervised effectively and that interview shortlists are, in many instances, not representative of the demographics of the Free State Province. There are departments that still have few African women managers on their staff, and yet persist in the appointment of African male managers, whilst claiming that they are committed to affirmative action appointments.

5.3.1 Aspects relating to job retention and turnover

All 11 departments of the Free State Provincial Administration were targeted for this study. The majority of the completed questionnaires were received from the Departments of Welfare (20.5%), Finance, Expenditure and Economic Affairs (18.0%) and Health (15.4%) (table 5.3). A 100% response rate was acquired from the Departments of Safety and Security and Sport, Culture, Science and Technology. The Department of Public Works, Roads and Transport, however, did not return any questionnaires.

Table 5.3: Distribution and receipt of questionnaires directed to African women managers

Departments represented	Questionnaires distributed		Questionnaires received		Response rate
	(n=79)	%[1]	(n=39)	%[2]	%
Welfare	15	19.0%	8	20.5%	53.0%
Education	5	6.3%	1	2.6%	20.0%
Health	13	16.5%	6	15.4%	46.0%
Agriculture	5	6.3%	1	2.6%	20.0%
Environmental Affairs and Tourism	6	7.6%	4	10.3%	67.0%
Office of the Premier	11	13.9%	4	10.3%	36.0%
Safety and Security	2	2.5%	2	5.1%	100.0%
Local Government and Housing	8	10.1%	4	10.3%	50.0%
Finance, Expenditure and Economic Affairs	10	12.6%	7	18.0%	70.0%
Sport, Culture, Science and Technology	2	2.5%	2	5.1%	100.0%
Public Works, Roads and Transport	2	2.5%	0	0%	0%

[1] – Percentage of questionnaires distributed out of n=79 to each department
[2] – Percentage of questionnaires received out of n=39 from each department

Twenty-six respondents (72.2%) indicated that they had occupied their positions as managers for more than 24 months. Two respondents (a Director from the Department of Welfare and an Assistant Director from the Department of Health) had held their positions for a period of six and seven years respectively. Only three respondents (8.3%) had occupied their positions for less than 12 months (data not shown).

Regarding the period for which the survey respondents expected to remain in their present positions, ten (25.6%) respondents expected to remain in the same job for less than 12 months. Twenty respondents (51.3%) preferred to stay in their current management posts for a period ranging from one to five years, whilst nine respondents (23.1%) preferred to remain for longer than five years (table 5.4). Apart from the limited availability of managerial posts, possible reasons for their wishing to remain in

their positions for the mentioned periods may include a lack of confidence owing to insufficient management skills for other more senior positions and an unwillingness to accept increased work responsibilities. The threat of a new job and an unknown environment may also contribute to their resistance.

Table 5.4: Anticipated period during which respondents envisaged remaining in their present jobs

Period	Percentage (n=39)
Less than 12 months	25.6%
1 – 5 years	51.3%
More than 5 years	23.1%

From an institutional perspective these reasons for remaining in specific posts are unfavourable, pointing to job dissatisfaction and stagnation. In such instances the Free State Provincial Administration departments should rely on a performance appraisal system that accurately measures the inputs and outputs of these individuals so as to establish whether they are performing at the minimum, average or ideal level, and should supervise their performance accordingly (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002 (c):3). The motivation of ineffective employees who reside for lengthy periods in their existing posts is a challenge to any institution, but skilful strategic management, combined with elaborate training measures such as motivational courses, may be a solution towards improving both the attitude and performance effectiveness of such employees (Cook et al., 1997:248). In a more constructive sense, the motives for job retention may be positive and may include aspirations on the part of respondents to develop as effective managers in their existing positions, with a view to eventual promotion. The experience and associated effectiveness that are gained through lengthy service periods undoubtedly benefit any institution.

Two hypotheses exist with regard to the influence of the size of an institution on the advancement of women (De Vries, 1991:132). The first argues that a smaller institution favours the advancement of women because of the close inter-staff relationships, as a result of which the individual's potential is more rapidly noticed and invested in. Larger institutions, on the other hand, should have the infrastructure to ensure the advancement of women through policies, according to the second hypothesis (De Vries,

1991:132-133). The reality, however, is that although the survey respondents had relatively high career aspirations, the Free State Provincial Administration cannot offer unlimited managerial promotion opportunities. In a study carried out by James (1984:70), O'Brien (1992:31) and Abrahams (1997:33) it was shown that high career aspirations increased frustration and caused some respondents to abandon their aspirations owing to practical difficulties.

The limited availability of career opportunities for African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration was raised as a concern during the focus group discussion. The participants were aware that deputising in a higher position has never been a guarantee of success in obtaining that position once it has been advertised, and were offended that deputising candidates had not even been recognised for short-listing purposes.

5.3.2 The hierarchical milieu and operational involvement of African women managers

This study has shown that in the Free State Provincial Administration more African males than females are currently represented in both managerial as well as subordinate posts. According to the relevant literature, the appointment of African women as managers is progressing relatively slowly and the various departments of the Free State Provincial Administration have only recently submitted employment equity plans (SA: Free State Provincial Government, 2001:On-line and Free State News, 2002:5). Employment equity plans should be in place to facilitate the improvement of employee representation (in respect of both race and gender) within each department of the Free State Provincial Administration. Redress in respect of employment equity in the Free State Provincial Administration has not yet been achieved in terms of gender, whereas it has been addressed to a considerable extent in terms of race. A similar situation was mentioned in the research of Abrahams (1997:15).

A work force that is diverse in terms of race and gender poses tremendous challenges to institutions in the public sector such as the Free State Provincial Administration. A major challenge in diversity is the so-called "trust-gap" between employees which, according to Carrell et al. (1998:24), is widening, and which is especially eminent in the

public sector in South Africa. This is occurring despite the drastic restructuring that has taken place in the Free State Provincial Administration in recent years.

According to table 5.5 the survey respondents were supervised by (had to report to) 69.3% males (46.2% African men and 23.1% white men), compared to 30.8% females (20.5% African women and 10.3% white women). With regard to race, Africans held the majority of managerial positions (66.7%). The number of subordinates reporting to the survey respondents varied from nine to 25, with medians of one (African male), two (white females), two (African females) and 0.5 (white males). Twenty-six respondents (66.6%) indicated that the general level of support and encouragement from their supervisors varied from average to good. Although this research has shown that there are more African males in both managerial and subordinate posts (table 5.5), this factor was not mentioned in the survey responses as the cause of any inconvenience.

Table 5.5: Reporting status of African women managers

Report to (race and gender)	Frequency	Percentage (n=39)
African man	18	46.2%
African woman	8	20.5%
White man	9	23.1%
White woman	4	10.3%

The supervisor has a strong influence over the way in which the subordinate's performance is evaluated which, in turn, directly influences the subordinate's financial status and the amount of responsibility that is allocated to him/her (Davidson, 1997:49). The supervisor's attitude towards his or her subordinates is thus vital to the way in which the latter perform their work (Hilliard, 1995:41). In an institution with a culture of male domination, political agendas, mixed values and prejudice against females, women may be alienated and feel constrained to withdraw. An institutional culture comprises, *inter alia*, values and attitudes that shape employees' perceptions and behaviour. Values are relatively stable and enduring, and guide people in deciding how to behave and what to desire. Attitudes, on the other hand, are more specific and are subject to change. They include cognitive, affective and intentional components and influence the way in which people feel about other people, objects and situations. Attitudes concerning work and professional relationships influence behaviour such as attendance, turnover, commitment and productivity. Cook et al. (1997:178) pointed out that a

person's attitude and perceptions determine his/her behaviour more than the factual situation does.

Problems caused by attitudes can become even more of a predicament in environments where women are in the minority. The results in table 5.5 confirm that, in terms of gender, equity and redress have not been achieved whereas in terms of race, these goals have been addressed to a large extent. Preference should be given to the appointment of African women managers and not only of Africans, and this should be addressed as a priority in the Free State Provincial Administration's future equity strategies.

5.4 MANAGEMENT-RELATED ASPECTS FAVOURED BY AFRICAN WOMEN IN THE WORK ENVIRONMENT

White (1990:183) suggested that black professional women should apply three strategies when entering a career, namely "risk-taking", "campaigning" and "networking". Risk-taking relates to a person's confidence in his or her own abilities and the determination to achieve objectives, whereas campaigning and networking involve the assistance of superiors and colleagues in the accomplishing of career achievements. Integral to these processes is the confidence that women should have in their own abilities. These strategies are ways of dealing with the realities in the managerial environment.

Table 5.6 summarises certain management-related aspects in terms of the degree of favour with which they are regarded by African women managers. These results can be utilised to determine those aspects that are influencing their effectiveness as managers. The variables put forward in the questionnaire were derived from previous research that was carried out (Van der Walt, 1982; James, 1983; Hirschowitz & Cilliers, 1987 and Davidson, 1997) concerning preferences of women relating to the work environment. To accommodate responses that were additional to the variables that were provided, the category "other" was added to facilitate innovative ideas and to give an opportunity for respondents to elaborate. Thus, the amalgamation of responses given in table 5.6 originated to a certain extent from the survey respondents themselves.

5.4.1 Collegial relationships and institutional culture, and their influence on African women managers

In response to the question as to which aspects of their jobs they enjoyed most, ten respondents (25.6%) identified the opportunity to learn new things, whereas eight respondents (20.5%) indicated interaction with people. The latter factor, apart from being mentioned as an indicator by itself, also occurred in several combinations with other indicators, such as operational managing tasks (5.1%), taking decisions (2.6%) and travelling (2.6%). The aspects of the work that were least enjoyed included having power (32.4%) and travelling (27.0%) (table 5.6).

Table 5.6: Management-related preferences

What African women managers enjoy most in their jobs	% n=39	What African women managers enjoy least in their jobs	% n=37
Opportunity to learn new things	25.6%	Power	32.4%
Interaction with people	20.5%	Travelling	27.0%
Operational managing tasks	12.8%	Like everything about my job	13.5%
Taking decisions	10.3%	Red tape, organisational culture, paperwork	8.1%
Interaction with people, managing tasks, taking decisions	5.2%	Lack of financial support	3.0%
Interaction with people, managing tasks	5.1%	Managing tasks	3.0%
Interaction with people, managing tasks, opportunity to learn new things	5.1%	Expectations of supervisors, inconsistent supervisor, failure of supervisors to give direction	3.0%
Interaction with people, opportunity to learn new things	5.1%	People who are negative without reason	3.0%
Managing tasks, taking decisions	2.6%	Interference, gossip	3.0%
Interaction with people, taking decisions, opportunity to learn new things, travelling	2.6%	Interaction with people	3.0%
Power	2.6%	Taking decisions	3.0%
Managing tasks, opportunity to learn new things	2.6%		

Interpersonal relationships at work appear to be a popular theme for research, as a number of authors have reported on this aspect in relation to African women. The observations in table 5.6 are in general agreement with those of van der Walt (1982) who investigated the work motives of both black and white women in the private sector. According to his findings, the aspects which women appreciated most in their work were having contact with people and selling goods, whilst poor human relationships comprised the aspect which they disliked most (Van der Walt, 1982:20). James (1983) reported on the attitudes and experiences of female black professional and managerial

staff in South Africa and concluded that the respondents placed a strong emphasis on working and interacting with people, while also appreciating the opportunity for self-growth which their work offered them. In the study done by James (1983:62), 81.2% of the respondents indicated that the lack of acceptance from colleagues was the aspect of their work that they disliked most. According to Hirschowitz & Cilliers (1987), the factors that women most disliked were troubled human relationships and poor working conditions.

In all of the above-mentioned studies it was concluded that human relationships in the work situation have a significant influence on professional women, whether positive or negative. The importance of maintaining sound relationships with colleagues as a prerequisite for being able to cope is also confirmed a number of times in this study, where aspects of inter-collegial relationships are touched on (table 5.7). Sound labour relations, from a managerial point of view, are important in order to achieve institutional objectives. Managers benefit from such relationships with subordinates in respect of the achievement of objectives and, to an equal degree, also benefit from effective working relationships with colleagues and immediate heads in terms of motivation, assistance and advice. Non-constructive or poor collegial relationships, on the other hand, are likely to be detrimental to the effectiveness of women managers.

Van der Waldt & Du Toit (1999:231) are of the opinion that a well-planned diversity management strategy should be put in place to manage the uniqueness of human relationships at work. In addition, the authors suggest that human qualities and interpersonal skills of all groups should be recognised through institutional diversity programmes. Unfortunately in South Africa diversity management has not met with great success over recent years (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:231). Reasons for ineffective institutional diversity strategies, according to Grobler et al. (1999:10), include the lack of follow-up programmes as well as the absence of incentives for managers to promote diversity in their teams. Diversity management is also not regarded as a long-term goal in respect of the institution's success. From information provided by the focus group participants, it transpired that even though legislation supposedly mandates diversity training to assist African women managers in this regard, it is neither being enforced nor adopted into the institutional culture. The implication is that the Free State Provincial Administration is perceived as "changed but not transformed'.

5.4.2   The impact of authority and travelling

In this study, having power was the primary managerial facet that the survey respondents disliked most (table 5.6). Power is defined by the Oxford Dictionary as "the ability to do or act..."; and "those who are in authority" (The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, 1986:653). Since men, although not always experienced and competent, have traditionally taken charge in private and professional life, this has led to a stereotyped perception that men are more assertive and powerful than women (Thom, 2000:On-line). This correlates with the findings of Hirschowitz & Cilliers (1987:56) and Cox (1996:269), who point out that during the raising of boys and girls, the former were motivated to be adventurous and brave whereas girls were taught to be cautious. However, according to De Vries (1991:58), this stereotype is actually the result of a cultural belief, because many women nowadays successfully hold assertive positions (Muller, 2000:67).

Such assertive behaviour would be carried through to the workplace and reflected in a manager's management style. If a male manager acts in a goal-orientated manner and offends people's feelings in the process, he is regarded as assertive, whereas a woman manager acting in the same manner would be perceived as aggressive (De Vries, 1991:58; Cox, 1996:270 and Gender Unit of the Local Government Information Centre, 1996:5). Women, however, need to convey constructive assertiveness without being afraid to express how they would prefer to be treated (Truter, 2001 (a):18). An assertive disposition should, however, always be aimed at standards and systems and not individuals (Mol, 1990:122). If a manager develops a reputation for being assertive in a cruel and unsympathetic sense, this could have an extremely negative influence, resulting in a decrease of effectiveness amongst subordinates.

From the focus group it transpired that African women would often be given less demanding tasks and responsibilities than their more junior and less experienced male counterparts, because the skills of the latter are valued more highly than those of African women. This is corroborated by the following response from one of the survey group respondents: "Although in a senior position, you get paid to do junior work". In some instances African women managers would not even be consulted in decision-making. The focus group participants felt that they had merely been appointed to meet

employment equity targets without being assigned any real power. This concern was also raised in the answers to the questionnaires, in which women managers were described as fulfilling the function of "window dressers". Abrahams (1997:15) and Maphunye (2001:321) reported that some women experienced exclusion by male colleagues, who cling to traditional roles. The latter state of affairs could well be the reason why having power was one of the facets of their work that the respondents least enjoyed.

This may also contribute to African women managers experiencing a sense of inferiority in relation to other races and to the opposite gender, including African "brothers and sisters". It was again mentioned during the focus group, as emphasised earlier in this study (chapter three), that this sense of inferiority stemmed from two situations, namely being African and being a woman. Truter (2001:39) suggested that clients were often not satisfied with a black woman in a professional or managerial position consulting with them on issues, but preferred to engage in such consultation with a male staff member. This situation leads to stress and has a severely negative influence on the morale of African women managers.

Another important work component that was disliked by survey respondents in this study was travelling. In the context of the Free State Provincial Administration, travelling implies having to travel far distances and be absent from home for one or more days at a time (table 5.6). According to Smit (1978:207), irregular hours away from home make the situation of the manager who is also a mother increasingly difficult. Davidson (1997:29) found that because women managers worked long hours and had to travel far distances, they felt torn between their work and family, because they could not devote as much time to their motherhood as they would have liked to. The fact that 55.3% of the respondents in this study were unmarried with dependants (table 4.4, chapter 4) could lead to logistical problems in cases where the respondents were expected to travel away from home. Apart from taking care of dependants, several daily responsibilities such as transporting children to and from school have to be performed. It is evident from the responses that a well-equipped support structure is of the utmost importance if a woman manager is expected to travel in her work. Another factor that should be kept in mind, especially by women, is the risk attached to travelling alone by car and the dangers involved if the car breaks down. Travelling by aeroplane is

generally highly expensive and most of the time this option is not offered as a safe alternative in the public sector.

Having to travel may be considered part of being a manager. The fact that African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration predominantly perceive this aspect as very negative may be a reflection of the fact that they have not yet fully committed themselves to their tasks. Possibly they are not prepared to make such sacrifices for the sake of effectiveness. Resolving this issue would imply addressing the attitude of African women managers towards unfavourable aspects of their work such as travelling, rather than addressing the logistics of the issue by, for example, applying for other jobs or avoiding having to travel. This aspect of a manager's task discourages women from applying for more senior management positions that involve extensive travelling. It may also happen that a woman manager neglects liaison visits and functions that take her away from her home, thus reducing her own effectiveness.

Apart from the issues specifically outlined above, including interaction with people, travelling and having power, the remaining management-related issues were liked or disliked to smaller extents (ranging from 2.6% to 13.5%; see table 5.6). Addressing all these issues in an attempt to maximise the aspects that were liked and minimise the aspects that were disliked, should play a major role in contributing to an improved working environment for the African woman manager.

5.4.3 Operational factors influencing the effectiveness of African women managers

The public sector in South Africa is increasingly being subjected to changing policies, regulations and legislation and has to manage its resources accordingly to ensure improved performance and service delivery (Penceliah & Moodley, 2002:36). African women managers are part of the process of managing resources, adapting to legislation and operational processes. During the management of these operational processes there are certain influences that may impact directly on the effectiveness of the African woman manager.

A final question was posed to the survey respondents concerning operational factors to address this very issue. The purpose of this question was to stimulate survey

respondents to identify any variables relating to their work that could influence their managerial effectiveness in a positive or negative sense. They were furthermore given the opportunity to point out any other factors which had not been mentioned in this question and to elaborate on any of the given variables. The respondents had to give an indication as to whether the selected operational variables (human relations, as well as extrinsic and intrinsic factors) had an effect on them, or had no effect, or were not applicable to them (table 5.7). The original questionnaire, however, did not show this division into human relations and extrinsic and intrinsic factors, as this could have influenced the respondents by leading them into a possible direction.

The high percentages allocated by the survey respondents to the importance of having good working relationships with their heads, peers and subordinates, support previous observations made in table 5.6 regarding the aspects that are most favoured by African women in their work (particularly with regard to interaction with people). Three variables that appeared to have a significant influence on the effectiveness of the survey respondents (table 5.7) were "having good working relationships with colleagues in general" (67.6%); "good working relationship with immediate subordinates" (62.2%); and "good working relationship with the immediate head" (57.1%) (table 5.7). The following variables did not seem to have a significant influence on the survey group, as their "no influence" percentages exceeded the "yes" response percentages without exception: lack of cooperation between workers; unwillingness of workers to share knowledge; destructive behaviour such as gossip; racism against the respondent as a black woman manager; sexism against the respondent as a woman manager and stereotypes concerning women as managers (table 5.7).

From the results pertaining to human relations, it may thus be concluded that survey respondents in this study have not experienced marked discrimination from colleagues, in contrast to the findings reported by Davidson (1997). According to the latter, black women managers often experienced deliberate attempts on the part of peers to prevent career development. As a result of prejudice, women were given limited responsibility and decision-making power, which left them highly frustrated (Davidson, 1997:77). However, Truter (2001 (b):39) reported that discrimination towards women managers was predominantly unconscious and not deliberate, making it more difficult to identify and overcome. According to the research of Smit (1978:32), racism and sexism were

not so eminent, indicating that women were becoming less tolerant while men were becoming more accommodative. In this regard De Vries (1991:140) argued that any plan addressing equality and redress in an institution would have little impact if the stereotyping of women in terms of an inferior sexual status were allowed.

Although it has been shown that in the past, role-stereotyping influenced employment and promotion opportunities for women, gender stereotypes are now less readily accepted in the workplace (De Vries, 1991:21). Carrell et al. (1998:51) defined a stereotype as a fixed, distorted generalisation about the members of a group. Myths and stereotypes that are deeply imbedded in culture and religion could be one of the reasons for the short supply of women in high management positions (O'Brien, 1993:35; Ouston, 1993:4 and Truter, 2001 (b):39). Santho (1995:48) mentioned that the stereotyped attitude that women are not suitable in certain jobs may be one of the reasons why more women were employed in lower ranks than men in the Free State Provincial Administration during 1995. According to James (1984:83), women expressed a need for recognition as individuals, which would be in sharp contrast to merely being stereotyped as "black women" who struggled to gain credibility.

In general, co-worker relations (the so-called "hygiene factors") form part of the Motivation-Hygiene theory of Herzberg (1966), who argued that co-worker relations will not motivate people as such, but are necessary for preventing dissatisfaction (Fox et al., 1997:110 and Carrell et al., 1998:107). Thus, if good working relationships could prevent dissatisfaction, it is important that the Free State Provincial Administration should support such relationships though active initiatives such as diversity awareness and training, as well as a zero tolerance for any form of discrimination. Good human relationships are thus conducive to an effective occupational environment.

Table 5.7: Operational factors in the African woman's work environment that influence her managerial effectiveness

Influential factors	Percentages		
	Yes	No	Not applicable
Human relations			
Good working relationship with colleagues in general (n=37)	67.6%	32.4%	0%
Good working relationship with immediate subordinates (n=37)	62.2%	35.1%	2.7%
Good working relationship with immediate head (n=35)	57.1%	40.0%	2.9%
Lack of cooperation between workers (n=37)	24.3%	64.9%	10.8%
Unwillingness of workers to share knowledge (n=39)	30.8%	46.2%	23.1%
Destructive behaviour like gossip (n=39)	35.9%	53.8%	10.3%
Racism against me as a woman manager (n=38)	26.3%	55.3%	18.4%
Sexism against me as a woman manager (n=38)	29.0%	57.9%	13.2%
Stereotypes towards women as managers (n=37)	37.8%	51.4%	10.8%
Extrinsic			
A confined budget to work from (n=39)	69.2%	20.5%	10.3%
Too much is expected from me at work (n=37)	46.0%	46.0%	8.1%
Not sufficient training to do the work (n=39)	30.8%	59.0%	10.3%
Implementation methods of policies not clear (n=38)	39.5%	55.3%	5.3%
Too much information to absorb (n=38)	29.0%	63.2%	7.9%
Experience a lack of role-models (n=38)	29.0%	65.8%	5.3%
Experience a lack of career guidance (n=37)	13.5%	73.0%	13.5%
No administrative support (n=38)	34.2%	52.6%	13.2%
Heavy workload (n=38)	39.5%	52.6%	7.9%
Intrinsic			
Lack of control over my time (n=38)	26.3%	68.4%	5.3%
Vocal strength (n=37)	27.0%	64.9%	8.1%
Lack of management experience (n=37)	27.0%	62.2%	10.8%
Chronic fatigue (n=36)	16.7%	63.9%	19.4%
No interest to develop myself (n=38)	2.6%	76.3%	21.1%
Not computer literate (n=38)	23.7%	57.9%	18.4%
Fear [of] new interventions (n=38)	5.3%	84.2%	10.5%
Too proud to show I need to study (n=38)	2.6%	84.2%	13.2%
Do not communicate effectively as a manager (n=38)	15.8%	76.3%	7.9%
Ability to express myself (n=38)	34.2%	60.5%	5.3%
Problems with business language (n=38)	0%	86.8%	13.2%

Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene theory of need satisfaction at work suggests that job dissatisfaction and satisfaction are not two opposite ends of a continuum (Herzberg, 1966). Conditions relating to work, supervision, salary and fringe benefits, if unfair, may lead to job dissatisfaction. However, even if these conditions are satisfactory, leading to an absence of dissatisfaction with one's work, this will still not necessarily lead to job satisfaction. Similarly, poor working conditions will result in dissatisfaction; but perfect working conditions will not automatically lead to satisfaction or motivation (Herzberg, 1966 and Carrell et al., 1998:107). Herzberg called these aspects that prevented dissatisfaction the "hygiene" or extrinsic factors. These hygiene factors reflect the context of the job and are external to the employee and also to the job, because they

are in actual fact controlled by someone other than the employee (Carrell et al., 1998:107). Therefore, Herzberg asserted that hygiene factors are difficult to control and only provide short-term motivation, but are nevertheless necessary for preventing dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966 and Carrell et al., 1989:73).

Selected operational factors highlighted in table 5.7 are extrinsic by nature, controlled by the institution. If these factors are managed effectively, this could contribute to an absence of dissatisfaction among African women managers. This would not, however, ensure job satisfaction and managerial effectiveness. In table 5.7 the following variables are mainly controlled by factors outside of the respondents: "a confined budget to work from", influencing 69.2% of the respondents; "too much is expected from me at work"; "not sufficient training to do the work"; "implementation methods of policies not clear"; "too much information to absorb"; "experience a lack of role-models"; "experience a lack of career guidance"; "no administrative support" and "heavy workload". Except for the influence of "a confined budget to work from" (69.2%), none of the above-mentioned factors received "yes" response rates of higher than 46.0%.

Top management should increasingly involve African women managers in the processes related to these aspects and allow them to give inputs, thereby reducing the extrinsic nature of issues by giving African women managers increased control over them. For example, it transpired that the budget was not under the control of the focus group participants and that they merely had an idea of the estimated budget allocations for the following financial year. One response was that "you learn to do more with less, as managers that is the way to go". Therefore, by facilitating access to the above-mentioned hygienic or extrinsic factors and by allocating participatory functional authority over these factors to African women managers, the institution could assist the latter in experiencing more control and thus less job dissatisfaction.

Herzberg's theory further describes how job satisfaction could be accomplished. Job satisfaction occurs as a result of a sense of fulfilment in the type of work one does and the challenges it holds. The fulfilment of intrinsic needs at work leads to job satisfaction, which in turn leads to admirable performance. Herzberg called those factors leading to job satisfaction "motivators" (Carrell et al., 1989:73). These motivators reflect the actual contents of the job, which are organised and managed by each individual employee in

person (Carrell et al., 1998:108). Such job satisfaction can only come from within oneself, for example if one has accomplished a challenging task successfully. The following selected operational variables discussed in table 5.7 are intrinsic factors and thus, according to Herzberg (1966), personal control or alteration of these factors could lead to job satisfaction: "lack of control over my time"; "vocal strength"; "lack of management experience"; "chronic fatigue"; "no interest to develop myself"; "not computer literate"; "fear [of] new interventions"; "too proud to show I need to study"; "do not communicate effectively as a manager" and "the ability to express [myself]". None of the above-mentioned factors received "yes" response rates of higher than 34.2%.

Numerous justifiable questions have been raised regarding the complicated relationship between satisfaction and motivation. However, Herzberg's theory is worth taking into consideration as a guideline for building motivators into job content, an approach called job enrichment (Carrell et al., 1998:108). It is worth noting that De Vries (1991:58) also mentions that women are more highly motivated by hygiene factors (money and security of work) than are men, who place a higher value on achievement and responsibility. There are, however, many theories regarding the motivation of an employee's performance and it is important to bear in mind that no single theory will or can address all motivational problems. The bottom line which should receive attention from the Free State Provincial Administration is the importance of allowing increased participation in the extrinsic factors and providing support to African women managers to enable them to overcome their shortcomings regarding the intrinsic factors. By successfully achieving this, the institution will effectively reduce job dissatisfaction and at the same time promote job satisfaction. This will ultimately lead to increased managerial effectiveness on the part of African women managers.

5.5   THE INFLUENCE OF THE JUDGEMENT AND COMPETENCY OF AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS

People have various views about themselves as they grow older and gain more life experience, professional competence and self-confidence. It is thus natural to perceive oneself differently as time passes and as circumstances change. Major milestones that influence women are graduation, marriage, the commencement of a successful career and giving birth to a child (Lillicrap, 1987:13). When becoming mothers, professional

women may even prefer to take up a part-time job for a few years while their young children are at home. This may result in impediments when these women are ready to re-enter the occupational arena, as institutions do not give credit for life-skills or experience gained through raising a family. Many women may experience a lack of self-confidence and self-esteem owing to absence from the work force (Van der Walt, 1982:35 and Cox 1996:301).

In general, this study indicated that the survey respondents viewed their own competencies in a positive light and trusted their instinct and judgement as managers. Thirty respondents (90.9%) replied that they trusted their judgement when they had to make a work-related decision whereas only three respondents (9.1%) indicated that they did not trust their own judgement. Six respondents did not reply to this question. The majority of the survey respondents relied strongly on their own capabilities, such as coming up with solutions and achieving set objectives and results. They also appeared to have a relatively strong support system in place, leaned strongly on networking with other colleagues and relied on personal and professional support – the reliance on a support system was also mentioned by Abrahams (1997:25).

Throughout this study it transpired that African women managers who are also mothers are dependent on a variety of support structures. It appeared that there are simply too many responsibilities, domestic tasks, institutional expectations and pressures from society for these women to cope with. It commonly occurs that professional mothers exploit the structures, systems or services that are available to assist them in achieving their personal and professional goals. The survey respondents, apart from being career-orientated, are also goal-orientated and seek only the best for themselves and their families. It was to be expected that the respondents would have confidence in their own judgement, because they had to generate solutions in order to achieve their personal objectives.

From the responses of the focus group participants it appeared that their faith in their own judgement is sometimes influenced by their colleagues' perceptions of them. One response from the focus group was as follows: "... with all [your] skills and capabilities, you are rendered ineffective because of a lack of trust in you and in some instances you as an individual [...] even lose that self-confidence because your black brother or sister

will actually rate you inferior". According to the focus group participants, the perception exists that being a black woman is tantamount to having a lack of skills. It was furthermore highlighted by the focus group that competencies (relating to whether a manager can really do the job) are in fact more important than academic qualifications. One response was as follows, for example: "A person with standard ten can even operate on a Director['s] level with the skills and all that but the most important thing [is] that [the] person must be given some exposure". It was striking that the issue of the lack of exposure provided to African women managers surfaced again; and it is possible that because of this factor, African women managers may sometimes doubt their own judgement.

A definite relationship between trusting one's own judgement on the one hand and competency on the other, was noted, as 34 survey respondents (94.4%) viewed themselves as competent managers, which was in direct correlation to the high percentage (90.9%) who trusted their own judgement. The fact that the respondents had a degree of work experience, as well as management qualities, formal qualifications and managerial skills, appeared to provide a partial explanation as to why the respondents evaluated themselves as competent managers. From the open responses it was clear that the survey respondents evaluated themselves on the basis of output, bringing about positive change and being promoted, as well as meeting targets and objectives and achieving the expected results. Qualifications, former training and general knowledge also appeared to have created a sense of confidence in their ability.

According to Mol (1990:92), a major contributing factor to the self-confidence of a manager is positive feedback from subordinates, colleagues and peers. Regarding feedback on management performance in the Free State Provincial Administration, a well-defined job evaluation system is currently in use to appraise whether tasks have been performed according to expectation, better than expected, or much better than expected (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (b)). This evaluation system concentrates on outputs, positive change initiatives that are brought about, value added and additional contributions that enhance the quality of performance. The amount of effort to be put into achieving objectives and results in an occupational environment is, however, debatable. Standards vary in such a way that a particular manager can

achieve many effortless results whilst another may struggle to accomplish a single complicated task.

If 94.4% of the survey response group view themselves as competent managers, they are either setting achievable objectives or are simply competent. This high self-esteem most likely originated from feedback received in the work environment such as support, respect, positive assessment and promotion. Cox (1996:302) stated that respect and recognition directly contributed to a positive sense of the self. Survey respondents who did not view themselves as competent predominantly held institutional structures responsible. Likewise, a response from the focus group implied that the Free State Provincial Administration maintains a male-dominated culture which is to the detriment of African women managers: "There is no place for a Black [woman], it is there you have all the policies, you sit around the table with them, you even participate at a level, I am even above some of them around the table, but still you find that you don't have any place". In any institution, cultural issues comprise the most sensitive and difficult area in which to promote transformation. Often the employer avoids this obligation by placing full responsibility on the shoulders of the woman manager to compromise. In the workplace, an open channel of communication between African women managers and management is indispensable.

Regarding trusting one's own judgement and viewing oneself as competent, the issues of autonomy and independency should be taken into account. According to Lillicrap (1987:13) African women managers are not prone to operating as part of a group because they were not involved in team games as children, and thus tend to be more individualistic. However, Mazibuko & Struwig (1993:68) found in their research that African females prefer to work with others and to experience group cohesiveness, rather than working alone. In addition, Whiteside & Sunter (2001:54) conclude that the African cultural belief that a person is only a person through other people (the so-called "ubuntu" principle), implies that consultation with others before taking a decision is preferable. Thus, trusting one's own judgement should not be confused with being individualistic and autonomous. Taking distinctive independent decisions, from the African perspective, already presupposes that collective consultation with peers and colleagues has taken place.

Cox (1996:276), however, suggests that the attribution of certain characteristics to African women managers on the grounds of their membership of a group is highly questionable. Streamlining the whole process of effective managerial decision-making by facilitating adequate collective consultation would be to the benefit of the institution. This is, however, not an ideal solution because during such collective processes, valuable time is lost. In addition, group consultation promotes emotional dependence, an attribute that is in conflict with the process of developing independence and self-confidence (also refer to chapter four, section 4.4.2).

Although the majority of the respondents viewed their own judgement and competencies as positive and adequate, the further question may be asked as to whether the extent of these competencies is adequate mainly from a personal or institutional perspective. The level of performance perceived by African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration as adequate may not be sufficient from an institutional viewpoint. What African women thus perceive as effectiveness is the exclusive effective management of their various responsibilities and maintaining a healthy balance between personal and institutional roles, whereas this may be perceived as performing only at the minimum level from the institution's point of view. Having managers who trust their own judgement and who are able to take firm decisions is a significant benefit for an institution, because this ensures a steady and rapid flow of completed outcomes without unnecessary elaboration or consultation.

5.6 REQUIREMENTS SET FOR AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS IN TERMS OF MANAGEMENT RESPONSIBILITIES AND SKILLS

In research carried out over the last three decades on the responsibilities of the public manager, a number of authors have reported on the ideal repertoire of the typical public manager, and have either differed or agreed, to varying extents, on the categorising of the various responsibilities (see chapter two). The majority of authors agreed, however, that the sub-sections of the various actions should be categorised into functions and skills (Fox et al., 1997; Du Toit et al., 1998; Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999). Keeping in mind the variety and diversity of responsibilities, it was essential, in this study, to revisit the frequency and extent of the involvement of the respondents in managerial functions, the skills required from them and the resulting influence on their effectiveness. The multiplicity and multifaceted nature of the manager's tasks were

emphasised by Cook et al. (1997:16), who reported that 50.0% of managers' activities continued for less than nine minutes and over 90.0% of their verbal contacts were *ad hoc*, short, unplanned incidents that rapidly shifted from one topic to another. This managerial setup requires African women managers to be able to manage a variety of activities, give input and take decisions in a relatively short period of time.

The survey group had notably limited exposure to, and involvement in selected managerial actions in their respective working environments (see table 5.8). The results furthermore showed that the survey respondents were primarily involved in particular management actions on a weekly basis. Weekly involvement in accountability (74.3%), effective and efficient management (63.9%), as well as in information management (51.4%), was exceptionally prominent. The participation of the survey respondents in project management appeared to be the lowest, with 44.4% of respondents indicating no involvement at all (column five, table 5.8). Participation in policy analysis and strategic management varied from weekly involvement for a number of respondents to a total absence of involvement in the case of a high percentage of respondents.

Experience of and involvement in all the actions listed in column one (table 5.8) is expected from an African woman manager. Her work, for example, requires being predominantly accountable for the achievement of set objectives. It is also imperative that the African woman manager stays abreast of, and where applicable gives input in respect of, relevant legislation, policies and regulations that mandate and guide the provincial government. African women managers are involved in continual strategic planning whilst acting as project managers or whilst conducting daily managerial tasks. Also on a daily basis, African women managers are confronted with information through telecommunication, circulars, acts, policies and regulations. The administration, delegation and coordination of this information remain the primary responsibility of the African woman manager, who is also accountable for institutional development through effective and efficient management.

Table 5.8: Frequency of involvement in important management actions

Actions	Frequency percentages			
	Weekly	Monthly	Yearly	Never
Accountability (n=35)	74.3%	8.6%	8.6%	8.6%
Policy analysis (n=37)	21.6%	24.3%	27.0%	27.0%
Strategic management (n=37)	10.8%	27.0%	37.8%	24.3%
Project management (n=36)	19.4%	25.0%	11.1%	44.4%
Information management (n=35)	51.4%	20.0%	5.7%	22.9%
Effective and efficient management (n=35)	63.9%	20.0%	0%	17.1%
Institutional development (n=34)	38.2%	20.6%	17.7%	23.5%

A reason for concern is the fact that managerial involvement in the mentioned strategic areas of management appears to be extremely low, especially in view of the fact that such involvement is the starting point and foundation of every task (table 5.8). If African women managers are serious and concerned about projects and policies, they should become involved in these inter-dependent processes. However, merely to be involved in the function of institutional development is unfortunately not sufficient. Emphasis should be placed on the participation of a manager in all of these management actions (column one, table 5.8).

Women managers should, furthermore, not need to be requested by top management to participate, before actually becoming involved in these identified actions, but should rather continually seek opportunities to gain exposure and equip themselves with knowledge as to how to initiate these actions themselves. The focus group participants contested this, being of the opinion that they are often not given the opportunity to initiate new ideas, voice their opinions and implement their suggestions in practice. This situation leads to women managers often withdrawing, suppressing their innovativeness and abdicating their responsibilities. Participants of the focus group stated unambiguously that discrimination against women managers is the order of the day.

Mere involvement in management actions is not enough to maintain effective service delivery. Without the required skills, managerial efficiency in executing these actions would only be nominal in character. Table 5.9 illustrates that the respondents were of the opinion that they apply communication (86.5%), decision-making (86.1%) and professional conduct (66.7%) skills on a weekly basis. Skills in the management of conflict (46.0%), negotiation (46.0%) and change management (44.4%) are not applied to such a high degree on a weekly basis, according to the respondents (column two,

table 5.9). In fact, some of these skills have, to a certain extent, never been applied at all (column five, table 5.9). Entrepreneurial skills, in particular, seem to be utilised to a very limited extent.

Table 5.9: Application of management skills in the work environment

Responsibility	Frequency percentages			
	Weekly	Monthly	Yearly	Never
Decision-making (n=36)	86.1%	5.6%	2.8%	5.6%
Communication (n=37)	86.5%	8.1%	0%	5.4%
Change management (n=36)	44.4%	16.7%	11.1%	27.8%
Managing conflict (n=37)	46.0%	27.0%	2.7%	24.3%
Negotiation skills (n=37)	46.0%	18.9%	8.1%	27.0%
Professional conduct (n=33)	66.7%	3.0%	0%	30.3%
Entrepreneurial expertise (n=33)	30.3%	9.1%	3.0%	57.6%

A number of reasons may be suggested for the relatively low application of some management skills, including these skills not being part of the post description; the respondents not having subordinates who require feedback; and/or sheer ignorance of the need for such involvement. In corroboration thereof, one of the survey responses to the relevant question posed in table 5.9 was: "Because of structural problems in our department I would not say I'm competent because we are not given a chance to [prove] ourselves". One response that emanated from the focus group was: "We go to all these courses and when you come back with all these new ideas, someone somewhere there will actually stop you or rather prevent you [from applying] what you have acquired on the course".

A variety of skills are already required from a novice manager and these intensify during the promotional steps to a senior level. The difficulty lies in the fact that these managerial skills should be acquired through experience and not merely memorised theoretically (Taylor, 1999:13). The only way in which a manager can acquire these precious skills is through continually performing managerial actions and applying the acquired knowledge. Often, managers experience personal incompetence in a certain field of expertise and instead of grasping the opportunity to learn, opt to withdraw from the situation. It may also happen that a manager, once having realised that a skill has been mastered, continues to concentrate only on enhancing the skill, or skills, that she already excels in. Hence, a balance between the managerial actions (table 5.8) and

managerial skills (table 5.9) is a necessity, since the majority of tasks, almost without exception, require more than one application and skill.

The original perception of a public manager as one who engages in reflective planning, takes time to carefully organise systems and structures, directs, coordinates and orchestrates the flow of activities and exercises control individually, is rapidly fading (Puth, 1994:8). This approach places excessive emphasis and responsibility on the public manager and inadequate emphasis on teams and non-managers within the institution. The previous base of managerial hierarchical authority is collapsing, since managers are increasingly establishing project teams that involve collaboration across functions, divisions, status and resources. Managers are nowadays predominantly involved in workshops, discussions and forums with different stakeholders and are responsible for initiating programmes and projects (Du Toit et al., 1998:228).

This managerial approach depends on communication and interaction amongst individuals partaking in a project. Managers are increasingly encouraged to recognise the abilities of the subordinates whom they manage and to cascade decision-making and the accompanying accountability. The emphasis should fall on participation in management by both the public manager and the subordinates. Managers should therefore familiarise themselves with the performance management system of the Free State Provincial Administration, not only to be able to evaluate their subordinates and ensure quality service delivery, but also in order to measure their own performance against the required standards for managers (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (b):4).

In conclusion, the Free State Provincial Administration should identify shortcomings in the involvement of African women managers in the identified management actions, as well as in their application of management skills amongst African women managers by using the performance management assessment system. The concurrent implementation of the performance management and work-plan systems is vital and should, as a matter of priority, replace the current redundant system of merely using job descriptions. Identified shortcomings should be addressed through tailor-made management development programmes such as "in-basket" exercises, group discussions, managerial support groups, case studies, mentorship programmes, regular information sessions on the latest policies and regulations, and workshops.

The Free State Provincial Administration should furthermore provide opportunities for African women managers to apply what they have learnt. The institution is in an excellent position to cultivate a culture where innovative ideas can be shared and applied to enhance managerial effectiveness. It should, furthermore, encourage African women managers to partake in higher and more intricate managerial decisions, and provide further support to encourage formal education by means of bursaries, as well as training by means of in-house courses.

5.7 TRAINING REQUIREMENTS FOR AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS IN THE FREE STATE PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION

Given the challenges confronting African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration, such as the unpredictability of the environment in which they have to perform and the expectations of the public in respect of the quantity and quality of service delivery, the institution will need specific managerial skills from African women managers. A managerial post in the provincial government has evolved into a profession that should be able to compete with a similar position in the private sector. To live up to these challenges, authors have proposed novel managerial functions, skills and application areas as an extension of the existing generic management functions and skills required from a manager (see chapter two).

Until 1996, the Training Subdirectorate in the Premier's Office was mainly responsible for the training of all the personnel in the Free State Provincial Administration (SA: Direko, 2002:On-line). The managerial training focused on all levels of management and included orientation in management, junior management training for first-level supervisors and senior management training for assistant directors and more senior directors. The Free State Training Subdirectorate operates in close association with the SAMDI (South African Management and Development Institute) (Hurter, 2002:Personal Interview). The latter fulfils a quality control function as well as providing course material, guidance and training to the entire public sector. Apart from the training previously provided by the Training Subdirectorate, independent training service providers are also occasionally contracted by the respective departments in the Free State Provincial Administration to present managerial training (Hurter, 2002:Personal Interview).

Since 1996, the managerial training offered by the Training Subdirectorate has been discontinued in anticipation of the establishment of an Institute for Training and Development, with effect from 2003. The Institute for Training and Development is mandated to provide in-house training programmes for all personnel in the Free State Provincial Administration and will offer generic courses focusing on leadership and management, project management, information and communication technology, adult basic education and training (ABET), as well as financial management (SA: Department of the Premier, 2002:On-line).

5.7.1 Current managerial training interventions undergone by respondents

In the process of promoting skills development, the focus in the public sector has shifted to personal development plans that do not only focus on formal training but also on alternative methods such as coaching, skills transfer, on-the-job training, job rotation and mentorships. Nevertheless, public sector institutions should regard career development and in-house training as the responsibility of both the institution and employees (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (b):9). Twenty-five survey respondents (64.1%) indicated that they had received training for managerial purposes. The relevant question facilitated the indication of the specific training area in which the survey respondents had received training; rating of the effectiveness of this training; and specification of whether it was formal or informal training.

Regarding the effectiveness of training received (columns two, three, four and five, table 5.10), the training in the areas of change management (52.6%), managing of conflict (55.6%), negotiation skills (55.6%) and communication (65.0%) was perceived to be the most beneficial for the improvement of management skills (column five, table 5.10). Training in project management (57.9%) and institutional development (44.4%) was reasonably effective (column four, table 5.10). Without exception, all the training courses listed were perceived as effective, totalling at least 50.0% when the "reasonable extent" and "very much" columns were added up (columns four and five, table 5.10). When the "not at all" and "little effectiveness" columns (columns two and three) are considered, it becomes clear that the training in information management (25.0% and 25.0% respectively) and policy analysis (21.1% and 26.3% respectively) was perceived by the survey respondents to be of the least effect. It thus appears that although the survey respondents benefited from the current training offered by the institution, a

marked number of in-house courses were perceived as ineffective (columns two and three, table 5.10). The most effective training received (column five, table 5.10) was related to those issues that touched on current and relevant topics of the day, and reflected matters that have been on the agenda in the public sector during recent times, such as negotiation skills, managing of conflict, change management and communication.

According to Roosevelt (1991:38), learning takes place once knowledge, acquired from a formal course, has been applied to a work-related matter. In the field of adult learning (androgogics), the principles that apply to adult learners focus on action, observation, participation and implementation (Fox & Meyer, 1995:7). Adults learn optimally when learning is applied in a context where prior learning and experiences direct the application thereof. Adult learning thus entails two facets: i) the development of human capabilities; and ii) the development of opportunities for adult learners to apply the learnt capabilities (Nellmapius, 1992:34 and Taylor, 1999:13). It is thus important that the Free State Provincial Administration should not only provide once-off formal courses, but also present opportunities in the work situation for African women managers to apply what they have learnt in a less formal manner.

A clear distinction exists between formal (institutional) and informal (person-to-person) training; and it was apparent in this study that both techniques are being used (columns six and seven, table 5.10). Computer training, for example, would be carried out in a more formal environment than training in decision-making, since the latter is an integral part of the daily management task. Computer training (84.6%) and project management training (76.9%) thus took place through formal tuition (table 5.10). The latter type of tuition requires that certain concepts and applications should be mastered before effective application of the knowledge can take place.

However, some training can be carried out in a less formal setting, for example professional conduct (46.2%) and the managing of conflict (46.2%), as this training predominantly takes place whilst a task is in progress. The results showed that informal managerial training was lacking, as the percentages for informal training in general were lower than those for formal training (final column, table 5.10). With the exception of the training in policy analysis (57.1%) (final column, table 5.10), the training was predominantly formally based. Computer training (84.6%), project management

training in policy analysis (57.1%) (final column, table 5.10), the training was predominantly formally based. Computer training (84.6%), project management (76.9%), communication (73.3%) and change management (73.3%) predominantly comprised formal training (column six of table 5.10). The highest percentages for informal training, apart from policy analysis (57.1%), applied to training in professional conduct and the management of conflict (both 46.2%) (table 5.10).

Table 5.10: Summary of training in the field of management

Informal and/or formal training courses	Effectiveness of training				Type of training	
	Not at all	Little	Reasonable extent	Very much	Formal training	Informal training
Professional conduct - The extent to which a manager conducts herself in a professional manner. (n=18)	16.7%	11.1%	38.9%	33.3%	53.9%	46.2%
Policy analysis - Policy analysis produces knowledge of, and insight into, the policy process. (n=19)	21.1%	26.3%	36.8%	15.8%	42.9%	57.1%
Strategic management – The determination and execution of long-term goals and objectives of an institution. (n=20)	5.0%	5.0%	55.0%	35.0%	60.0%	40.0%
Project management - Refers to a project team responsible for the overall management of a project. (n=19)	10.5%	5.3%	57.9%	26.3%	76.9%	23.1%
Information management - The planning, organising, development and control of the information and data in an institution. (n=20)	25.0%	25.0%	20.0%	30.0%	64.3%	35.7%
Effective and efficient management - The extent to which your work conforms to standards. (n=20)	15.0%	15.0%	40.0%	30.0%	66.7%	33.3%
Institutional development - To increase institutional effectiveness. (n=18)	5.6%	22.2%	44.4%	27.8%	61.5%	38.5%
Decision-making - This is a management technique to enable you to decide on the correct alternatives in order to achieve institutional objectives. (n=18)	11.1%	5.6%	38.9%	44.4%	69.2%	30.8%
Communication - The mutual exchange of thoughts, ideas or information in a written, verbal or non-verbal way. (n=20)	5.0%	5.0%	25.0%	65.0%	73.3%	26.7%
Change management - Involves a process where the manager strives to improve the activities of the institution to adjust to new challenges. (n=19)	10.5%	0%	36.8%	52.6%	73.3%	26.7%
Managing of conflict - Process in which an effort is purposely made to deal effectively with institutional challenges. (n=18)	16.7%	0%	27.8%	55.6%	53.9%	46.2%
Negotiation skills - Ability to define/maintain a point of view and to listen to and show understanding for others. (n=18)	16.7%	0%	27.8%	55.6%	61.5%	38.5%
Computer courses - (n=20)	15.0%	15.0%	30.0%	40.0%	84.6%	15.4%

5.7.2   In-house training requirements and limitations

Although more than half of the survey respondents had received training in the field of management, 12 survey respondents (30.8%) were of the opinion that they did not have sufficient training to perform their duties. Nine survey respondents (23.7%), for example, were concerned that not being computer-literate was detrimental to their effectiveness. Computer and Internet technology is indispensable for the effective functioning of any African woman manager who finds herself in the post-2000 era.

Both the survey respondents and the focus group participants experienced a need for more informal training aimed at women managers in particular. It was mentioned by the survey respondents that training aimed at the development of women managers for senior positions and focusing on skills such as perseverance, communication, professional behaviour and attitude, was in high demand. It was suggested that training programmes should focus on support for affirmative action appointees because in practice, it seemed as if "employees were thrown in at the deep end without the appropriate training". According to the focus group participants, the institution places excessive emphasis on the level of qualification for the purposes of entering a job, instead of focusing on the experience and competencies required for delivering service excellence.

An effective education, training and development system in the Free State Provincial Administration should identify the knowledge and capabilities of managers against specific standards and qualification requirements. In-service managerial training, carried out by the institution itself or with the assistance of service providers outside the institution, should encompass the functions and skills required by African women managers (see chapter two). Knowledge of the relevant managerial functions and skills is critical in preparing the African woman manager to function independently and effectively. However, the institution should ensure that this knowledge is practically applicable in the work situation of the African woman manager. This implies a coordinated approach to professional development, from the establishment of post requirements to the coordination of personnel processes such as recruitment, selection, placement, promotion and training and career development.

Attention is firmly focused on obtaining quality guarantees from providers of educational services. Quality assurance is concerned with many facets, of which learning material,

training providers and andragogic principles are among the most important (South African Qualifications Authority, 2000:15). The Free State Provincial Administration should demand a high level of quality in training programmes, particularly where employers and employees have to invest financially in such learning. Providers will also have to meet the requirements set by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) by having their learning material accredited (**South African Qualifications Authority Act, Act 58 of 1995**).

5.7.3 Ensuring quality and effectiveness in training

The National Skills Development Strategy, launched in 2001, sets clear priorities for skills development and quality assurance in public sector institutions until 2005, and will be supervised by the Minister of Labour (**Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998**). To execute the National Skills Development Strategy, 25 national Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) have been identified. During 2000 each SETA presented a skills plan, which provided an overview of trends that might affect job prospects and skills development and also identified priority development areas within each sector. The Public Service Administration and Premiers' Offices are aligned to the Public Services Education and Training Authority (PSETA). Prospects envisaged by the PSETA include: i) restructuring of the Public Service, leading to the retraining of employees; ii) improving service delivery; iii) making managers more accountable; and iv) improving the representation of black people, women and disabled people in management positions (SA: Department of Labour, 2001:48). The new management framework of the Public Service, which emphasises decentralisation, flexibility and accountability, accentuates the need for African women managers. One of the main focus areas of the PSETA is therefore management development (The Business Bulletin, 2002:7).

A second area focuses on education, training and development and is watched over and monitored by the Departments of Education and Labour. The Department of Education established the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), which in turn oversees and monitors the work of the following sub-structures: the National Standards Bodies (NSBs) as well as the Education, Training and Quality Assurors (ETQA) (**South African Qualifications Authority Act, Act 58 of 1995**). The responsibilities of these sub-structures are respectively to create an integrated National Qualifications Framework for sub-fields, and to enhance the quality of education and training.

The Department of Labour, on the other hand, functions primarily in terms of the **Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998**) (SDA), of which the focal points are: i) developing skills; ii) meeting the needs and demands of the economy and society; and iii) complying with SAQA and NQF requirements (**Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998**). The aim of the SDA is to develop the South African work force by ensuring quality of life and quality services, as well as by improving workplace productivity. The motivating forces driving this vision are the National Skills Authority (playing an advisory role to the Minister of Labour regarding skills development) and the SAQA (responsible for implementing this vision) (SA: Department of Labour, 2001:48). All of the above-mentioned endeavours are aimed at enhancing the quality of services and effectiveness.

The Institute for Training and Development in the Free State Provincial Administration should be responsible for implementing the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), whilst creating an integrated national framework of learning achievements and establishing a climate of life-long learning. All these aspects are fundamental to the new South African perspective regarding standards in training and development in order to ultimately ensure quality. Finally the Institute should facilitate mobility and progression within education, training and career paths; ensure quality management training; provide opportunities to apply management functions and skills; and develop a measurement system to measure such application.

5.8 THE INFLUENCE OF ROLE-MODELS AND MENTORS ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AFRICAN WOMEN MANAGERS

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1986:544) defines a role-model as "...a person to be copied; ...deserving to be imitated...". The Bible gives examples of many admirable women such as Ruth and Naomi, Esther and Mary Magdalene who were known for their distinct characteristics. Cox (1996) reflects on the influence of ancient goddesses and Greek and Roman myths. Athena (the goddess of wisdom), Venus (the goddess of love and beauty) and Hera (the wife of Zeus) were some of the first female role-models - women who have set an example of qualities that many women worldwide can relate to.

Since African working and married women with children entered the labour market only a few decades ago (with their numbers increasing from 19.4% in the 1960s to 40.0% in the 1980s), there has been a lack of professional black women role-models (De Vries, 1991:24). This lack of role-models was also referred to in the research of Lillicrap

(1978:18), De Vries (1991:109) and O'Brien (1993:80), who reported that only male managers were seen as role-models and that there was a need for women managers to look up to as role-models. Later, in 1997, Davidson (1997:42) reported that black women experienced a lack of role-models at work and this directly influenced their employment performance. Davidson (1997) added that the lack of role-models might restrict African women when they made career choices because they experienced isolation and a lack of support. This factor may be linked to the late entry of professional African women into the labour market.

In modern-day South Africa, a lack of role-models still appears to exist - a need that was also reflected in this study (table 5.7). Eight survey respondents (20.5%) did not give examples of role-models, whereas the majority of respondents (n=27) who indicated that they do have role-models assigned very clear attributes to them. The respondents were asked to identify role-models and provide reasons for their choices. Three particular African women, namely the Premier of the Free State, Ms W. Direko (n=10), the Chief Director in the Department of Welfare, Ms R. Sempe (n=4) and the former vice-chancellor of the University of Cape Town (UCT), Dr M. Ramphela (n=4), were listed as role-models by a number of respondents. Apart from one respondent who mentioned Jesus Christ as her role-model and two respondents who cited white women as role-models, the respondents all specified various African women (n=27). Most of the names provided were those of African women managers working in the Free State Provincial Administration. However, public figures such as Oprah Winfrey and Tina Turner, as well as politicians (Minister Geraldine Fraser- Moleketi and Minister Nkosazana Zuma), were also mentioned. Although the names of the role-models were not crucial for the purpose of this study, the survey respondents were given the opportunity to motivate their choice of role-models.

The variety of responses motivating the survey respondents' choice of role-models can be grouped into the following three categories:

❑ The first category of responses reflected characteristics related to a professional manager (n=10). The role-models in this category were seen as successful in their careers and therefore it was assumed that they would have characteristics such as being career-orientated, hard-working, committed and in possession of a clear vision. The perceived attitudes of the role-models towards colleagues were notable. Individual responses included "prepared to acknowledge and empower her support staff"; "is sensitive to people"; "open to communication"; "commands respect" and "is objective". With regard to inner strength, the role-models were perceived as "motivated", "dignified" and "respectful" individuals. To be a professional manager while also being regarded as a role-model implies much more than merely being a leader or adjusting a specific leadership style according to a situation. Rather, it involves a managerial philosophy of participatory management combined with inherent characteristics such as dignity, graciousness, resolve and willpower. Moreover, without open and honest communication, a relationship of mutual trust between the manager and the subordinate will seldom develop. An African woman manager with a positive attitude as part of her management style, in addition to a good self-image, will be more successful in achieving effectiveness whilst managing staff (Thornhill & Hanekom, 1995:13). True managerial professionalism lies in the ability of the public manager to bring out the best in her subordinates. Employees are often blamed for labour unrest, poor morale and low productivity, but Mol (1991:99) places workers' behaviour and attitudes squarely on the doorstep of the managers' management style.

❑ A second category of responses reflected the ability of role-models to fulfil and balance their various roles (n=7). Although two respondents mentioned that "all women" and "all women politicians" were role-models by virtue of the fact that they were "unique" and contented to be female, there were specific responses regarding the managing of different responsibilities. Some role-models were seen as being successful in life because of the way they balanced responsibilities such as community involvement, family and marriage. It was pointed out earlier (chapter three) that having other dependants in addition to having children, being a single parent, being the breadwinner and being the head of the household, are all factors that contribute to a considerable emotional and financial burden on

women managers. The survey respondents succeeded to a large extent in managing their responsibilities in such a way as to cope with the different roles they had to fulfil. In this sense African women managers in the Free State Provincial Government are regarded by many black women outside the institution as role-models.

❑ Finally, it appeared that "confident and strong-willed women" who acted assertively when faced with challenges and criticism were seen as role-models (n=15). These women were in charge and were not threatened, "especially by men". They could take decisions when they had to and persisted with these decisions even if they were unpopular. The role-models were furthermore experienced as "knowledgeable", "well-informed', "competent", "experienced" and "professional". Examples of such role-models were those who "fought against Apartheid" and were adaptive, strong and brave. The fact that many African women managers increasingly demonstrate initiative, use resources optimally, seek and accept managerial challenges and take a firm stance with regard to self-empowerment, places them on a pedestal that many younger black women look up to.

From the focus group discussion it transpired that African women managers generally experience a need for women managers to lead the way. It was proposed by the focus group participants that mentorship programmes could serve the dual purpose of promoting mentorship and providing a platform for developing role-models. In addition, the focus group voiced a need for institutional support in the form of a mentorship programme, confirming that this concept is well-known to the respondents and is perceived as a positive means to address their need for leadership. They identified a need for exposure, a need to be assisted in their managerial responsibilities and a need to be coached and commended if they have accomplished a task successfully. One of the responses from the focus group was: "Affirmative action is being saying that, it is not that you walk around with a tag on your back but it is all about saying how do we empower such a person" *(sic)*. The respondents viewed the above-mentioned issue in a serious light and suggested that, in the absence of an institutional mentorship programme, they should initiate a mentorship support group that could utilise both younger and older African women managers as role-models within the Free State Provincial Administration. If an institution such as the Free State Provincial

Administration expects women managers to commit themselves to significant involvement, it should bear in mind that if these women experience a lack of support, especially from older women, this could constitute a barrier to such commitment on their part (Lillicrap, 1987:18; De Vries, 1991:109 and Abrahams, 1997:32).

However, a mentor should not be confused with a supervisor. Contact with the former is usually shorter in duration, with the emphasis on outcomes-based development. The Free State Provincial Administration has recently introduced a mentorship system and identified mentors, but this system only focuses on service-delivery outcomes. Mentorships for African women managers should facilitate assistance, guidance, objective feedback and identification of performance shortcomings. Davidson (1997:92) concluded that women managers expressed a greater need than men for psychological support from their mentors in order to foster their own self-confidence. Davidson (1997) was furthermore of the opinion that because of the absence of women in senior positions to act as mentors and role-models, institutions might have the problem of "cross-gender" misconceptions as a result of men often not having knowledge of women's roles, trials and tribulations.

5.9   CONCLUSION

During the last decade, the employment circumstances of African women in South Africa have been transformed into an environment that is conducive towards the prosperity of women in the workplace, and which contributes to the economy of the country. For many years the private and public sectors were structured in such a way that they prevented women from achieving their personal and professional goals. However, many institutions are putting plans and strategies in place to accelerate the development of women, especially as managers. To accommodate women, male-orientated institutions and cultures will have to adapt and become sensitised towards employees. In all spheres of private and public institutions, women have indicated that they can and want to contribute to the economy as professionals; it is now up to institutions to welcome them and form effective, professional partnerships.

It is apparent from the demographics of the Free State Provincial Administration that African women in managerial positions are fewer in number than their male counterparts. It also appears that certain departments in the institution are male-dominated. Although affirmative action policies (SA: White Paper on the Transformation

of the Public Service, 1995 and SA: White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, 1998) and employment equity legislation (**SA: Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998**) have focused on enhancing work opportunities for women in general, the reality is that, owing to institutional restructuring, smaller and flatter structures (owing to the wider distribution of hierarchical management) have led to a reduction in managerial job opportunities (Halachmi & Bouckaert, 1995:71). Although it might appear that the Free State Provincial Administration supports strategies for employee development, being such a comprehensive institution it nevertheless faces unique challenges. For example, the focus group participants held the Free State Provincial Administration primarily responsible for persisting with a discriminatory culture, which influenced African women managers and their collegial relationships negatively. It was reported that even though African women managers were competent, participated in management decisions and made suggestions, their male counterparts regarded their input as inferior. To accept the fact that men and women differ, and focus on optimising these differences to the advantage of the institution, will not only improve interpersonal collegial relationships but also contribute to a diverse and effective work force.

The issues of inferiority, racism, sexism and diversity will always form part of a diverse work force such as the Free State Provincial Administration. Problems regarding racism and sexism, however, were not highlighted in significant percentages in this study. The survey respondents placed a strong emphasis on proper working relationships and interacting with peers, colleagues and subordinates. Since the respondents desired social relationships inside as well as outside of the institution, these women managers tended to surround themselves with a crowd of other women amongst whom they experienced empathy and belonging, and whom they could consult for advice (Abrahams, 1997:10 and Davidson, 1997:42). In this study the respondents clearly indicated that they would prefer constructive interaction, including networking, support and sharing of information within the work environment.

Although networking with stakeholders on a project as well as making use of support structures should be encouraged, independency should be an ability that is sought after by the African woman manager. Managers who are independent and confident are the backbone of an institution because their presence facilitates rapid, decisive actions. Despite a partial lack of selected managerial skills, to a large extent the survey respondents in this study trusted their managerial judgement and were of the opinion

that they were competent regarding aspects such as their work experience, management qualities and formal qualifications. Although they had several responsibilities, they generally experienced their work as a challenge.

In addition to the above-mentioned aspects, positive attitudes on the part of managers towards their work are an asset to institutions which have had to adjust to several changes in the last decade. Apart from personnel restructuring and transformation, the Free State Provincial Administration has had to comply with new legislation in a new political dispensation. A positive work force would directly contribute creativity to problem-solving, tolerance in conflicting situations, adaptability when flexibility is requested and commitment when work pressure requires this. For this reason the Free State Provincial Administration should invest in developing the positive self-image and confidence of its African women managers. Constructive human relationships, however, go beyond a mere friendly atmosphere in the institution - they encompass career guidance and pathing as well as the provisioning of relevant training opportunities to develop employees (Levitz, 1994:21).

Since change has become a priority in South Africa, African women managers responsible for the implementation of change have been compelled to adapt to rapid and often unexpected adjustments in order to succeed. To be skilled at managing change, African women managers should identify their own performance limitations and understand how their effectiveness, or the absence thereof, might affect the effectiveness of the institution. Thus, taking personal responsibility for identifying her own development needs and also for acquiring the means to address these needs effectively, is expected from a manager (Abrahams, 1997:25). The institution, however, remains co-accountable for assisting African women managers to be effective and efficient.

The Free State Provincial Administration offers assistance in turning out more effective managers through formal (institutional) and informal (person-to-person) training. As mentioned earlier, it was evident from this study that both techniques were used. However, the survey respondents as well as the focus group participants indicated that informal managerial training was lacking to a large extent. In many instances the institution is unaware of the lack of skills amongst certain managers because the latter are often too embarrassed to request training in areas of incompetence, owing to a

perception that admitting to a lack of competencies may reflect negatively against them. Therefore, all management functions and skills should be addressed by means of proper training at some stage or another, especially in areas such as policy implementation, institutional development, strategic planning and entrepreneurship, in which training is not presented as frequently. On the basis of a well-managed training schedule, managers should be guided to attain the repertoire of required skills over a specified period. Training in some of these skills should be obligatory. As a result of such an approach, the African woman manager would not feel as if her incompetencies were being exposed, but would rather see such training as an opportunity to develop skills that would otherwise have been untapped.

The Free State Provincial Government should supervise managerial performance strictly, but in a consultative and supportive manner, in order to improve the rendering of quality services by African women managers. The process should be closely linked to broad and consistent plans for skills development as set out in the institution's strategic plan. The main aim is to have the correct number of people, with the required competencies, in the right places to fulfil mandates and achieve strategic objectives.

In addition, the managerial effectiveness of African women managers could be addressed from an institutional point of view through mentorship programmes. Active, successful role-models should be regarded as useful instruments and the Free State Provincial Administration should encourage existing role-models to partake in a support and development system and share their experiences in a more tangible and transparent manner. It is noteworthy that survey respondents who indicated names of role-models predominantly mentioned women within the institution. The role-models will thus benefit from their own work experience, trials and successes in the institution and contribute to the well-being of other women managers in the same situation.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

Prior to 1990, black political parties in South Africa were forced to operate in exile and their active engagement with the state, its institutions and personnel was limited. Politics took the form of protests and attempts to form alternative state structures, rather than seeking to change the existing structures from within.

It is not a new phenomenon that in South Africa, in the process of embarking on major democratic transformation after 1994, more attention has been placed on the need to consolidate a coherent vision of intergovernmental relations than on the practical implementation of that vision. This is because of the tendency in the Government sphere to focus on the development of comprehensive policy frameworks without giving attention to the implementation and evaluation thereof. Education policies, for example, have been severely criticised from within and outside of Government for generating a multitude of reports, Green Papers, White Papers, Bills and Acts, all with good intentions. However, all of these documents seemed to have little effect on what was happening at schools at ground level (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2002:On-line). This is not to say that policies and legislation are unimportant, but rather that the implementation of a clear vision of the desired system would yield more results. Implementation and evaluation are not the mere technical translation of policy into practice. Rather, these aspects should comprise an integral component of all stages of the policy process if the policy in question is to become effective.

In the aftermath of the 1994 elections, some time passed before the Government of National Unity developed substantive frameworks and policy documents to bring about increased efficiency and effectiveness on all levels of governance. This could partially have been the result of inexperience and a lack of capacity. Compared to other issues concerning governance, the Presidential Review Commission felt that the Department of

Public Service and Administration's White Papers on Public Service Training and Education, a new Employment Policy for the Public Service and Human Resources Management, provided good frameworks and policies. However, they were not being translated into proper legislation and activities (SA: Department of Public Service and Administration, 2002:3).

Especially after 1994, South Africa has witnessed a flurry of legislation designed to secure a more effective and decentralised system of governance as well as to address issues pertaining to gender equality (Penceliah & Moodley, 2002:25). However, all systems of governance rest on their political character and are never merely comprised of a set of technical arrangements, but rather revolve around political processes. Thus, when examining the question of which policies have and which have not been implemented, it must be realised that priorities remain a political choice.

It would appear that the central sphere of government has generated enough paperwork to facilitate effectiveness access and the resolution of gender issues in the public sector, but that the implementation process tends to fall behind and, because of a lack of implementation and assessment strategies, several limitations occur. This study was primarily aimed at addressing the problem in respect of effectiveness of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration ... respect of service delivery.

The African woman manager, who entered the management echelon only recently, plays a major role in promoting effectiveness within the public sector (Weaver & Hill, 1994:2). This study has focused on African women as managers in the Free State Provincial Administration and specifically investigated determinants which influence their effectiveness as managers. This concluding chapter will firstly provide a summary of the main findings derived from chapters two, three, four and five. Anomalies and unantici... will be pointed out and recommendations will further be made with a ... es to address the factors mentioned above, in an attempt ... effectively manage and counteract the negative ... ective on future research.

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6.2 MAIN FINDINGS IN PERSPECTIVE

The main findings derived from this study are presented in the following section. Chapter two commenced with an investigation on the requirements for an effective public manager in the South African provincial government. This was carried out against the backdrop of the central, provincial and local spheres of government as a contextual frame of reference. Focus areas were considered in order to shed light on service delivery and requirements for service excellence in the South African public sector. Finally the chapter presented an overview of typical managerial functions and skills required from provincial public managers. Strong emphasis was placed on identifying the legislative support that had been provided by Government since 1994. The role of legislation was further elaborated on in chapter three, with specific reference to African women. It is apparent that service delivery and gender issues within the government sphere have received and are still receiving attention through legislative initiatives.

The main findings of chapters four and five are presented in table 6.1. This table gives the distinctive characteristics derived from the survey responses in a nutshell. The table does not present new data but rather attempts to give an "at-a-glance" representation of the main findings of this study. Table 6.1 will thus facilitate a concise and to-the-point identification of the most significant observations, as well as the proposal of possible recommendations in further sections (sections 6.3 and 6.4). Furthermore, the data presented in table 6.1 will facilitate the effective evaluation of the main findings of chapters four and five, in terms of the norms for an ideal PPM as put forward in chapter two (section 6.3.1).

Table 6.1: Selected characteristics derived from the survey responses

Demographic and occupational profile of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration	Section	Percentage
Age	**(chapter 4)**	
Mean age: 39 years	(section 4.3)	-
Children/dependants	**(chapter 4)**	
Had given birth to one or more children	(section 4.3)	91.9%
Median of 2 full and 1 partial financial dependants respectively	(table 4.3)	-
Marital status	**(chapter 4)**	
The majority of respondents were not married	(table 4.4)	55.3%
Employment status of husbands/partners - employed full-time (receive income)	(section 4.4.1)	70.6%
Received career encouragement from either a husband or partner	(section 4.4.2)	95.8%
Fear of my husband/partner - "no influence"	(table 4.8)	0%
Verbal victimisation by husband/partner - "no influence"	(table 4.8)	0%
Domestic influences	**(chapter 4)**	
Survey respondents acting as the heads of the households	(section 4.4.1)	58.3%
Encouraged to be independent	(section 4.4.2)	90.9%
Coping with responsibilities	**(chapter 4)**	
Agreed that their lives consisted of many roles	(table 4.7)	91.7%
Ability to cope with being women managers	(section 4.5)	58.9%
Education	**(chapter 4)**	
Qualifications at a university	(table 4.10)	73.7%
Degrees	(table 4.10)	56.4%
Qualifications in the fields of Social Science and the Humanities	(table 4.10)	58.3%
Proceeded with post-graduate studies	(section 4.7.2)	56.4%
Majority financed their own studies	(section 4.7.2)	66.7%
Involvement in important management actions and skills	**(chapter 5)**	
Most involved in accountability on a weekly basis	(table 5.8)	74.3%
Least involved in strategic management on a weekly basis	(table 5.8)	10.8%
Mostly applied decision-making on a weekly basis	(table 5.9)	86.1%
Applied entrepreneurial expertise least on a weekly basis	(table 5.9)	30.3%
Employment	**(chapter 5)**	
Have served more than 24 months in present job	(section 5.3.1)	72.2%
Anticipated period of further service in current job, 1 – 5 years	(table 5.4)	51.3%
Majority on Assistant Directorship level	(table 5.1)	61.5%
Africans held the majority of supervisory positions	(table 5.5)	66.7%
General level of support from supervisors is average to good	(section 5.3.2)	66.6%
Human relations at work influencing managerial effectiveness	**(chapter 5)**	
Good working relationships with colleagues in general	(table 5.7)	67.6%
Good working relationships with immediate subordinates	(table 5.7)	62.2%
Good working relationship with immediate head	(table 5.7)	57.1%
Work performance	**(chapter 5)**	
Trusted own judgement when they had to make a decision related to work	(section 5.5)	90.9%
Viewed themselves as competent managers	(section 5.5)	94.4%
Aspect of the work most enjoyed was the opportunity to learn new things	(table 5.6)	25.6%
Aspect of the work least enjoyed was having power	(table 5.6)	32.4%
A confined budget to work from influenced managerial effectiveness the most	(table 5.7)	69.2%
Problems with business language do not influence managerial effectiveness	(table 5.7)	100.0%
Work-related training	**(chapter 5)**	
Survey respondents had received training	(section 5.7.1)	64.1%
Most effective training was in communication	(table 5.10)	-
Least effective training was in information management	(table 5.10)	-

Chapter four discussed the typical African woman manager working in the Free State Provincial Administration. The age of the survey respondents ranged from 27 to 59

years. Many of them are single and most have at least one child (see table 6.1: age; children/dependants). The typical African woman manager prefers to engage in a partnership where both members earn an income. Whether in a legal marriage or partnership, such a relationship appeared to hold definite advantages for the African woman manager, since 95.0% of the respondents with husbands/partners received career encouragement from them. Violent behaviour (verbal victimisation) by husbands/partners had no influence on the survey respondents and the incidence thereof is therefore regarded as negligible (table 6.1: marital status).

This choice of relationship was corroborated by the fact that 58.3% of the respondents viewed themselves as the head of the household, whilst 30.6% indicated that their husbands were the head of the household. The results further portrayed a significant degree of independence. Ninety percent of the survey respondents indicated that they received encouragement, particularly from parents and family, to be independent (table 6.1: domestic influences).

African women managers' lives consist of many roles that pose major challenges to the effective balancing and managing of domestic and work responsibilities. However, notwithstanding this predicament, 58.9% of the respondents replied that they do, in fact, manage (table 6.1: coping with responsibilities).

The majority of the survey respondents were in possession of tertiary qualifications, while 22 respondents (56.4%) had proceeded with postgraduate studies. Fourteen respondents (66.7%) were financing their own studies (table 6.1: education).

Chapter five investigated the occupational milieu of African women managers. Although it was possible to derive significant information from this investigation concerning other aspects, the lack of involvement of the African women managers in the managerial functions and related actions and the insufficient application of specific skills posed a particular concern (table 6.1: involvement in important management functions, related actions and skills). Although researchers may differ in respect of the importance of the concerned managerial functions, related actions and skills expected from a provincial public manager, the findings in chapter five should be evaluated against the theoretical background set out in chapter two.

The profile of African women managers shows that they are appointed in managerial positions (predominantly as Assistant Directors) at a relatively young age and do not necessarily have the managerial experience of older women managers. Therefore, they tend to have occupied their positions as managers for more than 24 months. However, the limited availability of career opportunities for African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration could also be a reason for this (table 6.1: employment).

In general, the respondents reported to 69.3% male heads, compared with 30.8% female heads. There are more African males in the positions of both supervisors (managers) and subordinates (chapter five: table 5.5), clearly implying that the management echelon of the Free State Provincial Administration is male-dominated. Notwithstanding the fact that the institution is male-dominated, 66.6% of the respondents indicated that the general level of support and encouragement from their managers was average to good (table 6.1: employment).

It was apparent that maintaining sound human relations at work was important to the majority of respondents - it was mentioned as one of the aspects in their jobs that they favoured most. Other aspects that had a significant influence on the effectiveness of the survey respondents were "having good working relationships with colleagues in general" (67.6%), "good working relationships with immediate subordinates" (62.2%) and "good working relationship with the immediate head" (57.1%) (table 6.1: human relations at work influencing managerial effectiveness).

From the focus group participants it appeared that in some instances African women managers are not consulted in decision-making processes and that their inputs as managers are often not valued. African women managers are often appointed merely to meet employment equity targets. However, this factor did not influence the opinion of the African women managers in respect of their own judgement, as 90.9% of the survey respondents replied that they trusted their judgement when they had to make a work-related decision. It was also apparent that 94.4% of the survey respondents viewed themselves as competent managers (table 6.1: work performance). The fact that the respondents had a degree of work experience, as well as certain management qualities, formal qualifications and managerial skills appeared to partially explain why the respondents evaluated themselves as competent managers.

With regard to their work performance, the aspect of the survey respondents' work that they most enjoyed was the opportunity to learn new things, whilst the aspect that they least enjoyed was that of having power. Having to work within a confined budget was the most detrimental factor pertaining to their managerial effectiveness. The aspect that least affected their managerial effectiveness was that of problems with business language (table 6.1: work performance).

The majority of the survey respondents (64.1%) had received in-house training offered by the Free State Provincial Administration. The most effective training was in the field of communication, whilst the least effective training was in information management (table 6.1: training).

This section concludes with critical inputs from the focus group participants that have not already been mentioned in table 6.1. The focus group identified an urgent need for proper induction and mentoring programmes for new appointees in managerial posts (chapter four: section 4.3). Although induction and mentoring programmes (chapter five: sections 5.6, 5.7.1 and 5.8) are supported by legislation, the Free State Provincial Administration has apparently failed, up to this point, to provide proper development assistance, especially to inexperienced employees. Mentorship programmes were specifically mentioned as a tool for the development of role-models, receiving of objective feedback, identification of performance shortcomings and development of managerial competence.

During the focus group discussion, a lengthy debate took place concerning employment equity, affirmative action, recruitment, selection and placement of African women managers. The focus group respondents were of the opinion that the Free State Provincial Administration does not monitor these processes closely enough. It was pointed out, *inter alia*, that nepotism and bias were common during the appointment of employees (chapter five: section 5.3). The issue of disparities concerning deputisation in higher posts was a major point of deliberation; it was mentioned that African women managers often found that despite their having acted in a post, they were not shortlisted nor invited for an interview in respect of such posts. Moreover, no explanation or constructive feedback was provided to them regarding their performance

in the acting capacity (chapter five: section 5.3). These issues of nepotism, political connections and networks that often dominate the recruitment and promotion processes of senior public servants, were also highlighted by O'Brien (1992:32) and Maphunye (2001:316).

Finally, the issue of gender discrimination was raised as a matter of significance – the focus group participants experienced a marked degree of this type of discrimination. It was mentioned that the opinions of junior males are valued above those of the African women managers. The focus group participants were furthermore of the opinion that this problem caused them to lose confidence in themselves and negatively affected their self-esteem, confidence and effectiveness as managers.

6.2.1 Anomalies and unanticipated results

The following anomalies and disparities were identified and have been divided into those that may have a beneficial outcome and those that are regarded by the researcher as causes for concern. The contradictions listed below are useful because they differ both from the general belief and from the reports of authoritative researchers on the topic. Moreover, these disparities may originate either from the fact that the Free State Provincial Administration is unique and peculiar regarding a number of issues investigated in this study, or from the fact that the public sector has changed faster than expected over the last decade - and also since recent research was carried out concerning women managers. The issues surrounding each disparity will not be debated in the following section, since they have been discussed comprehensively in chapters four and five. However, an overview of these issues is necessary to identify the most important beneficial and detrimental factors impacting on the effectiveness of African women managers, with a view to further improvement.

6.2.2 Two categories of contradictions pertaining to previous findings and anticipated results

6.2.2.1 Contradictions that may be regarded as beneficial

❑ Seventy percent of the Assistant Directors, 28.6% of the Deputy Directors and 60.0% of the Directors were younger than forty years. It thus appears that the traditional situation in which managers are older than their subordinates is changing. Managers are younger than in the past and often have to manage

subordinates who are older than they are and who have been involved with the institution for longer than they have been.

❑ The respondents had not given birth to many children (chapter four: table 4.2). Because childbirth has always been regarded as imperative in the African culture, it appears that African women have become considerably westernised with regard to this issue. One of the benefits of having fewer children is that a single parent is in a more favourable financial position to provide for them. The parent is also in a position to give more quality attention to her children. From a professional perspective, women managers with fewer children will also be able to invest more time in a professional career.

❑ The survey (pertaining to the demographic milieu of the respondents) touched on the aspect of the amount of encouragement that respondents received to be socially independent. Thirty respondents (90.9%) indicated that they received encouragement to be independent (details of this response are presented in chapter four: table 4.5). The partner/husband plays a fundamentally beneficial role in this regard, as 23 of the respondents (95.8%) received career encouragement from either a husband or partner (chapter four: table 4.6). Respondents who were married had chosen husbands who treated them in a more westernised manner, supporting them emotionally, contributing financially and assisting with child-rearing.

❑ It was expected that aspects such as "cultural traditions, religion, [the] community's perceptions about a woman manager and [the] way of dressing" would have an influence on the managerial effectiveness of the survey respondents. However, all the factors in the category relating to cultural influences received "no influence" responses of above 60 percent pertaining to the respondents' effectiveness as managers. It was thus concluded that these issues are becoming increasingly obsolete whilst African women managers, and Africans in general, are becoming more westernised.

❑ The majority of the survey respondents had post-school qualifications and 22 respondents (56.4%) had proceeded with post-graduate studies. Fourteen respondents (66.7%) were financing their own studies (table 6.1: education). The

survey respondents are thus relatively well educated and place a high value on enhancing their current level of education. This holds marked positive outcomes for the African woman manager as well as for the institution.

❑ It was expected that problems related to gender discrimination would have been experienced and that these problems would have had a negative influence on African women managers. However, very few survey respondents (5.9%) mentioned gender discrimination as having an effect on them. The survey respondents were nevertheless of the opinion that their ability to cope was influenced by the attitudes of male colleagues who regarded African women in managerial positions as inferior.

6.2.2.2 Contradictions that are a matter of concern

❑ It was expected that a reputable institution such as the Free State Provincial Administration would offer induction programmes, especially programmes focusing on entrée managers, as well as formal mentoring programmes for established managers. From the focus group it transpired that women managers do not receive such assistance and that the institution moreover does not perceive it as important. The Free State Provincial Administration rather tends to view such programmes as a time constraint. It further transpired that African women managers are constantly put in situations in which they need orientation, but because of a lack of commitment from fellow managers, they are merely "thrown in at the deep end". Therefore they end up never receiving formal orientation or mentoring. Apart from the fact that this impacts negatively on the self-esteem of African women managers, the negative influence of deficient induction and mentoring programmes on the effectiveness of the institution is obvious.

❑ The "ubuntu" principle (the traditional African approach regarding the importance of group cohesion and decision-making) raises a concern with regard to the independent functioning of African women managers. This custom fosters a united responsiveness, emotional dependence, collective identity and group solidarity. Managerial responsibilities do not always facilitate the practising of "ubuntu", as managers are often required to make independent (autonomous) and rapid

decisions. The African woman manager is thus again confronted with an anomaly as far as her professional career and traditional beliefs are concerned.

❑ Adequate and well-managed plans for the implementation of redress and equity in the Free State Provincial Administration are lacking. According to the focus group participants it appeared that transformation, equity and diversity are being addressed on a short-term basis; moreover, a number of departments in the Free State Provincial Administration have only recently submitted employment equity plans. It also transpired that the accuracy of current reports on employment equity targets is seldom questioned or verified; that nepotism and "headhunting" for African males are common within the institution; and that political appointments are often made. The question arises whether this state of affairs is the reason why there are currently more African males than females in the positions of both managers and subordinates, and why the appointment of African women as managers is progressing relatively slowly. It furthermore appeared that the recruitment and selection processes for managerial positions are not supervised effectively and that interview shortlists are, in many instances, not representative of the demographics of the Free State Province.

❑ Although the struggle for liberation in South Africa has focused, amongst other aspects, on securing freedom for women, establishing women's rights and granting power and authority to women, one of the aspects that African women managers least enjoyed about their occupations was that of having power (32.4%) (table 6.1: work performance). The traditional role of women in the community and in their relationships with their husbands/partners could be regarded as one of the major stumbling blocks preventing women from seizing the power (authority) they deserve. In addition, the misuse of women in authoritative positions as a means of "window-dressing" to fill equity targets, has also impacted negatively on the African woman manager's perception of, and attitude towards, having power. One of the responses from the focus group accurately describes this predicament: "The organization has change but it has not transform they just put faces there with no power to say we have affirm some of the Black managers in those position whereas the actual powers are not in those people, they have put in on other people to decide" *(sic)*.

Apart from the above-mentioned issues that have been listed, a number of other factors that deviate from what would have been expected from the Free State Provincial Administration after almost a decade of being in a new dispensation and having been subjected to transformation, can also be deduced from the data. These include the absence of commitment to the implementation and follow-up of plans to deal with gender issues; the existence of an inherited male bureaucracy and an indirect work ethic that is not sensitive towards African women managers' needs; the fact that new policies are most often instituted without consideration of women managers and that women are therefore often left out of consultative and bargaining processes; the absence of an effective monitoring and evaluation system to establish effectiveness (quality assurance) of managerial performance; the absence of an effective performance management system; and inappropriate training and education or a total lack thereof. Abrahams (1997:22) was also of the opinion that the Public Service lacks firm commitment towards developing and advancing women in managerial ranks. The issue of using quality assurance as a tool to enhance managerial effectiveness will be discussed in section 6.4.6 of this chapter.

6.3 INTEGRATION OF RESULTS AND THEORY AND AN APPRAISAL OF THE IDEAL PPM

A major challenge for the PPM is that of implementing and developing the policies approved by the Free State Provincial Government. However, Hanekom (1995:88) noted that managers today are predominantly involved in more activities than policy implementation alone, such as workshops, discussions and forums with different stakeholders, and are responsible for initiating programmes and projects. Chapter two of this study investigated a theoretical framework of typical managerial functions and management skills required of the PPM. As a norm for the African woman manager in the Free State Provincial Administration, the following appraisal of the theoretical requirements as a foundation for the practical reality of effective management, also referred to as performance management, can be identified:

❑ **Appraisal model for the ideal PPM**

Performance management is aimed at improving performance by directing attention to key areas of activity, which are identified through strategic planning processes (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (b):4). Performance management is furthermore based on the theory that people participate in formulating and agreeing on what is

expected from them in order to achieve institutional objectives and that they understand and perform in accordance with those expectations (Nellmapius, 1992:34 and Taylor, 1999:13). It was concluded in chapter two of this study that technical and functional skills, although important to the PPM, are becoming less significant on their own and that they should rather be mastered and practised as part of a complete repertoire of competencies. PPMs need managerial competence, which assists them to plan strategically, lead beyond boundaries and adapt continuously. Such competence should also be directed at enhancing service delivery. Managerial competence, which stems from the application of certain fundamental functions, actions and skills, does not merely comprise an academic exercise involving generic administrative processes, but rather a holistic and practical involvement to ensure quality assurance in the institution.

Management in government comprises a combination of elements over a wide variety of activities that are closely linked to a specific occupation, as well as general commonalities such as motivation and communication. The managerial task is further convoluted by the influence of the constitutional dispensation as well as community values (Du Toit et al., 1998:96). These influences require that democratic principles be applied, that the political authority should remain supreme and that the Government should accept public accountability (Du Toit et al., 1998:98).

The management task is therefore an intricate entity that embraces various dimensions and covers a wide spectrum of functions and skills (chapter 2). Table 6.2 suggests a checklist of competencies required by African women managers. The layout of the table summarises the management functions and skills previously analysed (chapter 2), focusing on the most important aspects that are particular to the African woman manager in the Free State Provincial Administration. The purpose of the checklist is to provide a means to evaluate the performance of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration against an established benchmark. Performance, according to Fox & Meyer (1995:94), is "the way in which planned action takes place or objectives are reached", whereas operational behaviour is directly related to the institution's effectivity, that is: "performance + ability x motivation".

The contribution of the checklist in table 6.2 is twofold: Firstly, African women managers could utilise it to measure their own performance shortcomings, prioritise those actions

that they would like to develop and finally, identify means and support programmes that could assist them. Secondly, in addition to the listing of these competencies, the checklist makes provision for key performance areas (KPAs, column one, table 6.2), outputs (results, column two, table 6.2) and indicators (evidence, column three, table 6.2) that may be used by the institution in the applicable performance appraisal of the manager.

❑   The key performance areas (KPAs, column one, table 6.2) are derived from recent research that was carried out concerning the functions and skills required of public managers in order to ensure effective performance, as well as from the Performance and Development Management Guide (April 2001) of the Department of the Premier (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (b)).

❑   The outputs (results, column two, table 6.2) are a combination of theory and practice, to be applied in the public sector.

❑   The indicators (evidence, column three, table 6.2) are a continuation of the concept of performance and development plans. This specific concept was introduced with the new Performance and Development Management System in the Free State Provincial Administration in 2001 (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (c):3).

An example of a typical application of table 6.2 in practice is as follows: An African woman manager would be expected to determine whether she participates in policy-making and analysis. Column two of table 6.2 should be used to measure whether she has delivered the required outputs related to the specific KPA. Proof of participation in policy-making and analysis, such as implementing the plans of a policy, inputs made towards the formulation of a policy or examples of newly formulated policies, will have to be presented (column three, table 6.2). Having to provide evidence in a performance and development management system should motivate the manager to accumulate examples for such performance appraisal, as well as to provide information to her mentor to be used as a starting point of further development.

Table 6.2: Appraisal model for performance measurement of PPMs using a competencies checklist[1]

	Key performance areas	Managerial outputs (results) needed	Indicators (evidence)
MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS	**Policy-making and analysis participation**	❑ Advising in policy-making processes by providing inputs relating to service rendering. Scrutinising policy documents in order to provide means for policy decisions and implementation.	❑ Implementation plans. ❑ Revised policies. ❑ Newly formulated policies.
	Planning actions	❑ Defining objectives and means of attaining them.	❑ Strategic plans.
	Organising	❑ Establishing a systematic course of action for self and/or others to ensure accomplishment of targets.	❑ Continuous improvement.
	Coordination function	❑ Organising and synchronising incompatible and sometimes opposite activities in a combined, effective and efficient effort.	❑ Project management report.
	Control and evaluation involvement	❑ Monitoring and assessing actual organisational activities to ensure that they conform to planned activities.	❑ Performance management reports.
	Leadership and motivation	❑ Directing and inspiring employees in such a manner that outcomes will be positive and of an empowering nature.	❑ Actual performance of employees.
MANAGEMENT SKILLS	**Decision-making ability**	❑ Ability to apply decisive judgement regarding managerial activities.	❑ Actual progression.
	Sound communication and negotiation skills	❑ Capability of expression; exchanging of information; interpreting of policies; intercession.	❑ Increased productivity. ❑ Excellent human relations.
	Ability to manage conflict	❑ Objectiveness; problem-solving ability; arbitration, mediation and conciliation ability.	❑ Resolving of employee dissatisfaction.
	Managing the challenges of change	❑ Future-orientated approach to managing institutional processes proactively and reactively to succeed in achieving objectives effectively.	❑ Completed change strategies.
	Managing of diversity	❑ Aptitude to manage the uniqueness of all employees within the institution.	❑ Staff turnover trends.
	Entrepreneurship skills in the new environment	❑ Initiating and implementing new ideas in an innovative manner.	❑ Organisational growth.

GENERAL MANAGEMENT SKILLS	**Efficiency**	❏	The ability to minimise the use of resources in achieving organisational objectives.	❏	Maximum usage of resources.
	Proactivity	❏	During performance of tasks, acting instead of reacting to a challenge and taking calculated risks if necessary.	❏	Sustained self-reliance.
	Adaptability and endurance	❏	Behaviour that accommodates new circumstances or a changed environment; maintaining a positive outlook.	❏	Innovative strategies.
	Managing group dynamics	❏	Capability of improving organisational effectiveness at team level by diagnosing barriers to team performance and improving team relationships.	❏	Constructive team spirit.
	Social adeptness	❏	Ability to utilise a broad-based network of contacts to manage projects, influence decisions and accomplish goals.	❏	Professional network assistance.
	Empathy	❏	Understanding other people and being sincere towards them in a professional manner.	❏	Physical and psychological participation and compassion.
	Self-confidence	❏	Belief in one's own strength or powers and ability to predict what one is capable of.	❏	Involvement in managerial decisions.
	Mentoring	❏	Ability to teach employees and guide them towards gaining experience and knowledge in a specialised professional field.	❏	Successful mentoring programmes.
	Oral skills	❏	Adequate exchange of thoughts, ideas and information on a professional level.	❏	Verbal participation during discussions.
	Innovative ability	❏	Contributing new and sometimes conflicting ideas to enhance effectiveness.	❏	Successful projects.

[1] – The majority of variables and concepts used in this model have been previously discussed in chapter two of this study

Finally, the managerial competencies checklist can assist with the setting of clear objectives and serve as a basis for the reviewing and evaluation of managerial performance. It is thus development-orientated, as it addresses poor performance through a personal development plan and obliges the employee and employer to share responsibility for initiating development opportunities. This holistic approach to the appraisal of managerial performance is ultimately aimed at improving the effectiveness of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration.

6.4 INADEQUACIES, SOLUTIONS AND REMEDIES IN THE WORK ENVIRONMENT OF THE AFRICAN WOMAN MANAGER

In order to address the inadequacies, difficulties and obstacles on the basis of the experiences and responses of the survey respondents and focus group participants in this study, the following recommendations, solutions and remedies are suggested:

6.4.1 Towards a new socio-economic dispensation for African women managers

Professional women who have to take care of children will undoubtedly have a need for support on various levels in order to successfully balance domestic and professional responsibilities. The Free State Provincial Administration is obliged to provide support to professional mothers, such as child-care facilities and flexible hours. Because these issues are not necessarily new to the Free State Provincial Administration, a question may be raised as to the degree of priority that has been accorded to them by the institution. An employee assistance programme (EAP) that addresses the needs of African women managers within the institution should initiate and guide such support systems. An Office on the Status of Women already exists and has been tasked to produce policies to address the needs of professional women and mothers (SA: Office on the Status of Women, South Africa, 2001:10).

Recommendations:

❑ Establishment and expansion of child-care facilities;

❑ Establishment of healthcare facilities;

❑ Making provision for flexible working hours;

❑ Development and implementation of comprehensive employee assistance programmes focusing on the specific needs of African women managers through the utilisation of mentors and role-models;

❑ Mobilising the Office on the Status of Women to address issues such as social and life skills.

6.4.2 Solutions in important areas to enhance managerial effectiveness

Public demands on the PPM can be summarised as follows: internal and external environmental awareness, activation of public management functions and skills, performance of line-function activities, rendering of supportive activities that include

auxiliary processes such as planning and technology management. African women managers should demonstrate innovative thinking, in order to ensure that their performance meets the standard that is expected by the Free State Provincial Administration to achieve effective service delivery.

Regarding institutional support and support structures, reference was made to the constant changes in politics that directly influence the efficiency of management performance, especially if changes occur within short periods of time. Therefore, a particular need was identified for women managers to be equipped with the means to carry out policy interpretation and implementation, as well as financial control. It was evident from this study that African women managers were eager to improve their management skills through training. The institution should utilise this opportunity to benefit the individual, which in turn will enhance the effective delivery of services to the community.

Although, generally speaking, various work-related documents are regularly made available to managers, this does not necessarily mean that they study the information and familiarise themselves with the content in order to apply it in practice. Managers are bombarded with loads of information on paper, yet it has been demonstrated that this is not an effective method of ensuring communication and effectiveness. Personal communication cannot be replaced; and nor can individual attention with regard to the development of employees.

Personal computers equipped with application software programmes are essential for the effective functioning of the contemporary and competitive public manager. However, without the knowledge and skill to use this technology, the availability of this infrastructure would be useless. Thus, the institution has a responsibility not only to supply the necessary technology infrastructure, but also to facilitate the relevant training in aspects such as word-processing programmes, the composing of presentations and the utilisation of database programmes (Penceliah & Moodley, 2002:31). Competence in the use of e-mail facilities and the Internet should form part of the repertoire of any present-day public manager (Greybe & Uys, 2001:209). The speed and ease with which the gaining of information and the conducting of transactions can be effected via the

Internet would give any manager a competitive edge over counterparts who are not yet able to apply this technology.

Recommendations:

- Utilisation of the managerial competencies checklist (table 6.2) to determine the degree of proficiency in managerial functions and skills;
- Provision of proper in-house training in policy interpretation and implementation as well as financial control;
- Sharing of information mainly through the circulation of paper documents should be discouraged and, where possible, replaced with short debriefing sessions;
- Provision of adequate computer infrastructure and related training.

6.4.3   Towards independent decision-making

Independent decision-making in the African paradigm takes into account the "ubuntu" principle. In the present-day Free State Provincial Administration a balance should be reached between collective participation on the one hand and the promotion of independent decision-making by managers on the other. As the former tendency gradually declines, the effectiveness of the African woman manager in terms of time and expertise should increase. The institution must carefully supervise any collective facilitation and must be wary of allowing external role-players to influence African women managers in such a way as to prevent them from becoming independent decision-makers, since such an eventuality would be detrimental to effective management.

Recommendation:

- The institution should promote and facilitate individual decision-making by constructing tasks and responsibilities in such a way that a solitary decision is the method of choice. This should, however, not discourage collective decision-making processes in cases where participatory management is required. The PPM should master the skill of individual, independent decision-making, as well as that of collective decision-making.

6.4.4 Towards optimal performance and development management of African women managers

The performance and development plans for managers that were recently introduced in the Free State Provincial Administration provide clear measurable outcomes, as well as further assistance to African women managers to evaluate whether their own performance is in line with the strategic objectives of the institution (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (c):4). The institution also has a responsibility to ensure that women managers are knowledgeable about the performance and development management system (SA: Department of the Premier, 2001 (b)). Performance evaluation should furthermore be viewed seriously and performed regularly according to institutional policies. It is, however, essential that performance management should not be viewed as a means to financial gain, but rather as a method of enhancing managerial performance and service delivery (SA: Department of the Premier 2001 (a):3).

Recommendations:

❏ The institution should present regular information sessions on the performance and development management system;

❏ Performance evaluation should be carried out regularly according to institutional policies.

6.4.5 Towards the expansion of career opportunities for African women managers

It was mentioned in chapter five that there are fewer African women in managerial posts than African men. According to the focus group participants, however, African women do receive the opportunity to deputise in more senior posts, but they are not appointed once such posts are advertised. The focus group participants made the following apt suggestions regarding deputisation in higher posts:

Recommendations:

❏ The Free State Provincial Administration should be clear on its policy regarding the duration of the period in which a person can deputise in a post;

❏ The institution should further provide tangible feedback to a woman manager who has been deputising, in respect of her performance;

❑ When managerial posts are advertised, the institution should compile the advertisements in such a manner that they will appeal to more women. The institution needs to become more orientated towards the needs of women, and to let women know that there are career opportunities for them.

6.4.6   Towards quality assurance in management

The **South African Qualifications Authority Act, Act 58 of 1995** defines "quality assurance" as the process of ensuring that the degree of excellence that is specified is achieved. Thus, it can be deduced that quality assurance is a formal guarantee of a degree of excellence. In the public sector, attention is firmly focused on obtaining quality guarantees both from within and outside of the Free State Provincial Administration. The quality assurance system has thus moved away from an inspection system towards internal quality management systems that are developed and owned by the supplier. The supplier of quality assurance in the case of the Provincial Administration, in terms of this study, is the African woman manager. The latter must therefore be committed to quality management in respect of her own practices and procedures.

Areas which the Free State Provincial Administration should focus on include a holistic quality assurance model for managers (table 6.3) - suggesting that quality assurance in the mentioned areas should be separated into performance standards to be achieved by the PPM (column one, table 6.3) - as well as specification of the applicable documents that will be required to serve as quality assurance evidence (column two, table 6.3) (**South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995** and South African Qualifications Authority, 2000:7). It is imperative that a quality assurance system should emphasise preventative actions (column four, table 6.3) that preclude the occurrence of problems, as well as actions to respond to and correct failures, should they occur. All three of the above-mentioned columns in the table could be adjusted to meet the specific needs of the Free State Provincial Administration.

Quality assurance (table 6.3) has the following purposes: i) providing standards of service excellence for the measurement and subsequent improvement of the actual level of managerial competence within the institution; and ii) creating an integrated human resource skills development framework for managers.

□ When managerial posts are advertised, the institution should compile the advertisements in such a manner that they will appeal to more women. The institution needs to become more orientated towards the needs of women, and to let women know that there are career opportunities for them.

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Areas which the Free State Provincial Administration should focus on include a holistic quality assurance model for managers (table 6.3) - suggesting that quality assurance in the mentioned areas should be separated into performance standards to be achieved by the PPM (column one, table 6.3) - as well as specification of the applicable documents that will be required to serve as quality assurance evidence (column two, table 6.3) (**South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995** and South African Qualifications Authority, 2000:7). It is imperative that a quality assurance system should emphasise preventative actions (column four, table 6.3) that preclude the occurrence of problems, as well as actions to respond to and correct failures, should they occur. All three of the above-mentioned columns in the table could be adjusted to meet the specific needs of the Free State Provincial Administration.

Quality assurance (table 6.3) has the following purposes: i) providing standards of service excellence for the measurement and subsequent improvement of the actual level of managerial competence within the institution; and ii) creating an integrated human resource skills development framework for managers.

Table 6.3 summarises the important aspects that form part of the proposed quality assurance system. Each manager should have an occupational job profile which reflects the inherent job requirements, expected performance standards and required competencies to perform the job (no. 1, column one, table 6.3). In order to achieve these set objectives a comprehensive and accurate skills audit should be implemented in the institution (South African Qualifications Authority, 2000:8). Skills auditing (no. 2, column one, table 6.3) is essentially a process for measuring and recording the skills of an individual or group and is usually carried out to determine training needs so that an institution can improve its skills and knowledge. However, skills auditing can sometimes be applied for other reasons, such as restructuring and retrenchments (South African Qualifications Authority, 2000:8). Regular individual performance appraisals, competence assessments and recognition of prior learning (RPL) assessments should be used as sources in the skills audit (no. 3, column one, table 6.3). This holistic approach should be conveyed through a communication system to ensure informed managers (no. 4, column one, table 6.3). This process of performance management, however, is not complete if a final report has not been submitted to the Department of Labour.

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Table 6.3: Quality assurance model for the appraisal of the PPM in the Free State Provincial Administration

Performance standard	Quality assurance evidence	In place?		Preventative actions to be taken	Target date		
		Yes	No		Year	Month	Day
1. Occupational job profiles of managers should reflect the inherent job requirements, key performance standards and requirements to perform the job.	❑ Occupational profile for each manager. ❑ Work plans. ❑ Performance agreement.						
2. Implementation of a skills auditing system.	❑ Skills auditing system. ❑ Skills audit questionnaires. ❑ Skills audit report.						
3. Individual performance appraisals, competence assessments and recognition of prior learning (RPL) assessments should be used as sources in the skills audit.	❑ Needs assessment report. ❑ Skills auditing system. ❑ Individual performance appraisals. ❑ RPL assessment report.						
4. A communication structure for information sharing.	❑ Communication system. ❑ Communication briefs. ❑ Minutes of meetings. ❑ Communication reports. ❑ Communication policy.						
5. Implementation and monitoring strategy for the workplace skills plan.	❑ Implementation strategy. ❑ Action plans. ❑ Minutes of meetings. ❑ Progress report.						

The potential advantages for the Free State Provincial Administration of establishing a quality assurance system are the following: i) training programmes will be of national standard; ii) employment equity plans will directly link up with effective development strategies; iii) individual development plans for managers will be based on actual skills

required; iv) these individual plans can be monitored in a structured and efficient manner; and v) a culture of life-long learning within the institution will be established (South African Qualifications Authority, 2000:4).

Recommendations:

- The Free State Provincial Administration is mandated by legislation (**South African Qualifications Authority Act, Act 58 of 1995**) to implement a holistic quality assurance system for managers. In order to run and sustain such an assurance system, the following should be put into practice:

- A comprehensive and accurate skills audit should be applied to managers and should include individual performance appraisals, competence assessments and recognition of prior learning (South African Qualifications Authority, 2000:3);

- Each manager should have an occupational job profile which reflects the inherent job requirements, expected performance standards and required competencies to perform the specific job;

- The institution should invest in an effective communication system specifically focusing on managers;

- Mandated reports on quality assurance should be certified for legality and accuracy and should be communicated to the highest authority.

The research indicated that initiatives to enhance managerial effectiveness should come from both the employee as well as the institution. Legislation mandates the Free State Provincial Administration to address women's concerns. The Government has seemingly put structures in place to address issues that are related to women in general; but the specific needs of women managers have not really been addressed. Problems occur when these initiatives must be executed, since the relevant processes are often hampered by a lack of commitment on the part of qualified personnel, as well as persons in authority, to guide the implementation. The question remains whether such initiatives are the responsibility of the department that deals with gender-related issues, or that of each department itself, or of each woman manager ... or all three.

6.5   FUTURE RESEARCH

The following section provides an exposé of possible future research prospects stemming from this study as well as research that is currently being conducted in South Africa on the theme of African women in management, which has not yet been officially published. The purpose of this information is to pave the way for future research that may be carried out to complement the existing data.

Results from this study suggest the following future research:

- Studies to investigate the managerial aptitude of the next generation of African women managers who have been raised by pioneering, passionate professional mothers in the post-1994 era;

- A qualitative evaluation of the present-day managerial competencies required from public managers;

- An investigation into the influence of the implementation of the National Skills Development Strategy on the managerial effectiveness of public sector managers;

- Research into the establishment of a culture of accountability within the parameters of a public sector institution such as the Free State Provincial Government;

- Studies investigating the influence of institutional reform and change in the central sphere of government, on the expectations of the public manager;

- Research into the challenges faced by large public institutions during downsizing and in the process of becoming less authoritative, more flexible and more community-focused.

Relevant research by the following persons commenced between 1998 and 2001 and has not yet been concluded: Temane, M.A. (Facilitating the mental health of black executive women in the business world); Dhlamini, S.T. (Black female managers and gender at the Greater Johannesburg Metropolitan Council); Sathabridge, J.A. (Black women in management: an investigation into the organisational experiences of Black women in managerial positions); and Moodley, R. (The effectiveness of mentorship programs, aimed at black men and women managerial recruits, in facilitating a change in the culture of an organisation, using a case study of Telkom) (NEXUS Database System, 2002).

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ADDENDUM A

FREE STATE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Office of the Director General

P. O. Box 517 • Bloemfontein • 9300 • South Africa
Second Floor • North Wing • Lebohang Building • St Andrew Street • Bloemfontein
Tel.: + 27 (0) 51-405 5801/2 • Fax: +27(0) 51-405 5671

Prof A.J. Geldenhuys
Department of Government Management
Private Bag X20539
BLOEMFONTEIN
9300

Dear Prof A J Geledenhuys

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AMONGST
WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITION IN THE FREE STATE
PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION**

Your letter dated 31 of August 2000 refers.

I hereby grant Mrs Lues permission to conduct her doctoral research on the above-
mentioned subject. I think it is a timely intervention. I will appreciate it if Mrs Lues
can share the findings of her research project with the Provincial Administration.

I suggest that Mrs Lues contact Mrs Daphne Chipfupa in the Office for Status of
Women and Mrs Mabitle in our Human Resource Directorate. Our contact number is
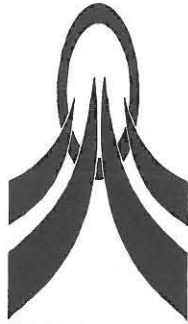Tel.: (051) 405 5801/2
Fax.: (051) 405 5671

I thank you.

Yours sincerely

Mr KHOTSO DE WEE
DIRECTOR GENERAL

DATE: ....

ADDENDUM B

Central University of
Technology, Free State

Vrystaat • Free State • Foreistata

PRIVATE BAG X20539
BLOEMFONTEIN 9300

TELEPHONE (051) 507 33
FAX   (051) 507 31

RESEARCH SURVEY
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNMENT MANAGEMENT
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT

Dear respondent

Many studies have recently investigated the factors, which influence the effectiveness of women as managers. This research, however, mainly focus on European and American countries, whilst the situation in Africa, including South Africa, is still unclear. Locally the role of women has been subjected to considerable change.

The purpose of this study is to:

a)   Establish the demographic milieu of women managers (Assistant Directors and above) in the Free State Provincial Administration in the year 2000.

b)   Investigate the occupational description and extent of the current position held by the woman manager in a typical South African governmental institution such as the Provincial Administration.

c)   Identify main factors influencing the promotion of effectiveness of women as managers in the Provincial Administration.

d)   Develop a module for the empowerment of women as managers in the Free State Provincial Administration.

The envisaged title of the study is: **"Women as Managers in the Free State Provincial Administration: Addressing Performance Factors"**.

Pertaining to the above, the following are kindly requested from you. Please complete the attached questionnaire as accurately as possible and return it to the address on the envelope. It should take you between 20-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Although each questionnaire contains a respondent number, this is only for administrative purposes. Your feedback will be treated as highly confidential. The information from the questionnaires will only be used in a summary format.

Thank you in advance for your kind contribution to the research.

Mrs L Lues
Date: 06/11/00

Addenda

Central University of Technology, Free State

TECHNIKON FREE STATE
RESEARCH SURVEY
NOVEMBER 2000

Department of Government Manageme
Kamelia Annex Office Compl
Office I

INSTRUCTIONS
- You are to choose the one response that best matches the description. There is no right or wrong answer.
- Mark the response that you agree with, with a circle. If you do not get a suitable statement, respond by filling in your response next to "Other".

For example
1. **Please indicate the institution where you have studied.**

Technical college	1
Technikon	(2)
University	3
Other, specify	4

- You are welcome to direct any inquiries about the content of this questionnaire to:
Mrs L Lues
Tel.: 082 801 3567
E-mail: luesl@dwaf.ncape.gov.za

SECTION 1: Main factors influencing the effectiveness of women as managers in the Free State Provincial Administration.

Official use

Respondent number

| 1 | 6 | 5 | 1-3 |

1. **How old are you?** _____ **Years**   4-5

2. **State your ethnicity.**

African	1
Coloured	2
Indian	3
White	4
Other, specify	5

6

3. **What is your highest level of school education?** _____   7-8

4. **If you have obtained post-school qualifications, please mention:**

Institution e.g. Technikon SA	Qualification e.g. MBA	Year

5. **Does your life consist of many roles?**
   If "Yes" explain.

Yes	1
No	2

34

_____
_____
_____   35-36
_____   37-38

Addenda

6. How do you cope as a woman manager?

_____

_____

_____

_____

| | | 39-40 |
| | | 41-42 |

7. Does the following family factors influence your effectiveness as a manager?

	Yes	No	Not applicable	
Too much responsibilities at home	1	2	3	43
Fear of my husband/partner	1	2	3	44
Husband/partner do not share responsibilities	1	2	3	45
Destructive behaviour from husband/partner, e.g. bodily harm	1	2	3	46
Verbal victimisation from husband/partner	1	2	3	47
Husband/partner refuse further education	1	2	3	48
Lack of self confidence	1	2	3	49
Emotionally too tired	1	2	3	50
Inability to exploit new opportunities	1	2	3	51
Inability to express myself	1	2	3	52
Culture traditions	1	2	3	53
Religion	1	2	3	54
Community's perceptions about a woman manager	1	2	3	55
Way of dressing	1	2	3	56
Finance	1	2	3	57
Family commitments	1	2	3	58
Have young children	1	2	3	59
Lack of time	1	2	3	60

Other, specify _____

		61
		62
		63

8. Does the following operational factors in your work environment influence your effectiveness as a manager?

	Yes	No	Not applicable	
A confined budget to work from	1	2	3	64
Lack of control over my time	1	2	3	65
Lack of management experience	1	2	3	66
Chronic fatigue	1	2	3	67
Too much is expected from me at work	1	2	3	68
No interest to develop myself	1	2	3	69
Not sufficient training too do the work	1	2	3	70
Not computer literate	1	2	3	71
Problems with business language	1	2	3	72
Implementation methods of policies not clear	1	2	3	73
Too much information to absorb	1	2	3	74
Fear for new interventions	1	2	3	75
Too proud to show I need to study	1	2	3	76
Experience a lack of role models	1	2	3	77
Experience a lack of career guidance	1	2	3	78

	Yes	No	Not applicable	
Do not communicate effectively as a manager	1	2	3	79
Lack of co-operation between workers	1	2	3	80
Unwillingness of workers to share knowledge	1	2	3	1
Destructive behaviour like gossip	1	2	3	2
Good working relationship with immediate head	1	2	3	3
Good working relationship with colleagues in general	1	2	3	4
Good working relationship with immediate subordinates	1	2	3	5
Racism against me as a women manager	1	2	3	6
Sexism against me as a women manager	1	2	3	7
Stereotypes towards women as managers	1	2	3	8

	Yes	No	Not applicable	
Vocal strength	1	2	3	9
Ability to express yourself	1	2	3	10
No administrative support	1	2	3	11
Heavy work load	1	2	3	12

Other, specify _____ 13

_____

_____

9. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each statement?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree	
My work provides good opportunities for advancement	1	2	3	4	5	14
My current work responsibilities are challenging	1	2	3	4	5	15
The amount of work I am given to do, is fair	1	2	3	4	5	16
I have the freedom to decide what I do in my work	1	2	3	4	5	17
It is mostly my responsibility to decide how I do my work	1	2	3	4	5	18
I am responsible for a number of tasks	1	2	3	4	5	19
I can see the results of my work	1	2	3	4	5	20
I can find another job with the same salary and fringe benefits	1	2	3	4	5	21

SECTION 2: The demographic milieu of women managers.

10. How many children have you given birth to? _____ 22-23

11. What is your marital status?

Married	1
Divorced	2
Widowed	3
Unmarried	4
Living together	5
Traditional marriage	6
Other, specify	7

24

If you are not married or living together / traditional marriage, proceed to question 13.

Central University of
Technology, Free State

12. **If you are married/ living together/ traditional marriage, what is the employment status of your husband/partner?**

Employed full time (receive income)	1
Self employed	2
Retired by choice	3
Unemployed	4
Other, specify (part-time, piece job)	5

25

13. **How many financial dependants do you have?**

	Number of dependants
Full dependant	
Partially dependant	

26-27
28-29

14. **Who is seen as <u>the</u> head of the household?**

Self	1
Husband	2
Children	3
Own parents	4
Parents in law	5
Other, specify	6

30

15. **In my family, I am encouraged to be independent.**
Explain.

Yes	1
No	2

31

32

16. **My husband/ partner supports my career.**
Explain.

Yes	1
No	2

33

34

17. **Are you currently enrolled for studies?**

Yes	1
No	2

35

If "No" proceed to question 20.

18. **If yes, in which field of study are you enrolled?**

36-37

19. **Who is financing your studies?**

Own	1
Organisation for which you work	2
The institution where you have enrolled	3
Other, specify	4

38

SECTION 3: The occupational description and extent of the current position held by the woman manager.

20. **In which Department are you currently employed?**

Welfare	1
Education	2
Health	3
Agriculture	4
Environmental Affairs and Tourism	5
Office of the Premier	6
Safety and Security	7
Local Government and Housing	8
Finance, Expenditure and Economic Affairs	9
Sport, Culture, Science and Technology	10
Public Works, Roads and Transport	11

39-40

21. **Which rank/ position do you hold presently (2000), and for what period have you been in this position?**

POSITION	PERIOD - months
Assistant Director	
Deputy Director	
Director	
Chief Director	
Other, specify	

41-4:

22. **Have you received any training in managing this position/ department?**

Yes	1
No	2

44

If "No" proceed to question 24.

23. **If yes, specify the informal and/or formal managerial training that you have completed and how this training helps you in your work.**

		Not at all	Little	Reasonable extent	Very much	
Professional conduct - (The extent to which a manager conducts herself in a professional manner.)	1	1	2	3	4	45-46
Policy analysis – (Policy analysis produces, knowledge of and insight into the Policy process.)	2	1	2	3	4	47-48
Strategic management - (The determination and execution of long-term goals and objectives of an institution.)	3	1	2	3	4	49-50
Project management - (Refers to a project team who is responsible for the overall management of a project.)	4	1	2	3	4	51-52
Information management - (The planning, organising, development and control of the information and data in an organisation.)	5	1	2	3	4	53-54
Effective and efficient management - (The extent to which your work conforms to standards.)	6	1	2	3	4	55-56
Organisational development - (To increase organisational effectiveness.)	7	1	2	3	4	57-58
Decision making - (This is a management technique to enable you to decide on the correct alternatives in order to achieve organisational objectives.)	8	1	2	3	4	59-60
Communication - (The mutual exchange of thoughts, ideas or information in a written, verbal or non-verbal way.)	9	1	2	3	4	61-62

		Not at all	Little	Reasonable extent	Very much		
Change management - (Involves a process where the manager strives to improve the activities of the organisation to adjust to new challenges.)	10	1	2	3	4		63-6!
Managing of conflict - (Process in which an effort is purposely made to deal effectively with organisational challenges.)	11	1	2	3	4		66-6{
Negotiation skills (Ability to define/ maintain a point of view and to listen to and show understanding for others)	12	1	2	3	4		69-7
Computer courses	13	1	2	3	4		72-7
Other, specify	14	1	2	3	4		75-7;

Please state, which of the above-mentioned training were formal courses.

24. **Do you always trust your judgement when you make a decision related to your work?**
Explain.

Yes | 1 |
No | 2 | 78

79-80

25. **Do you see yourself as a competent manager?**
Explain.

Yes | 1 |
No | 2 | 1

2-3

26. **To whom do you report directly?**

African man | 1 |
African woman | 2 |
White man | 3 |
White woman | 4 |
Other, specify | 5 | 4

27. **How do you rate the general level of support and encouragement from your supervisor?**

Good | 1 |
Average | 2 |
Poor | 3 |
Other, specify | 4 | 5

28. **How many subordinates do you have?**

	Number of subordinates	
African male		6-7
African female		8-9
White male		10-11
White female		12-13
Other, specify		14-16

Addenda

29. Why do you do this specific work? Choose one statement that describes your feelings the best.

I am best trained for this type of work	1
I take great interest in this area	2
It is a challenge for me	3
I am bored to sit at home	4
I am the breadwinner	5
My husband forces me to work	6
Other, specify	7

17

30. What do you like most in your work?

Interaction with people	1
Taking decisions	2
Managing tasks	3
Power	4
Opportunity to learn new things	5
Travelling	6
Other, specify	7

18

31. What do you like least in your work?

Interaction with people	1
Taking decisions	2
Managing tasks	3
Power	4
Travelling	5
Other, specify	6

19

32. How long do you expect to stay in your present job? Please give a reason in the following question.

Less than 3 months	1
3 – 6 months	2
7 – 12 months	3
1 – 5 years	4
More than five years	5

20

33. *BECAUSE (Choose more than one if applicable).*

I would like to settle down	1
I like my job	2
Gives me opportunity to develop	3
I want to move to a higher position	4
Better opportunity in private sector	5
I do not cope in this position	6
Want to retire	7
Other, specify	8

21

34. **Indicate how frequently are you involved in the following management responsibilities?**

	Weekly	Monthly	Yearly	Never	
Accountability	1	2	3	4	22
Policy analysis	1	2	3	4	23
Strategic management	1	2	3	4	24
Project management	1	2	3	4	25
Information management	1	2	3	4	26
Effective and efficient management	1	2	3	4	27
Organisational development	1	2	· 3	4	28
Other, specify					29

_____

_____

_____

35. **Indicate how frequently do you apply the following management skills?**

	Weekly	Monthly	Yearly	Never	
Decision making	1	2	3	4	30
Communication	1	2	3	4	31
Change management	1	2	3	4	32
Managing conflict	1	2	3	4	33
Negotiation skills	1	2	3	4	34
Professional conduct	1	2	3	4	35
Entrepreneurial expertise	1	2	3	4	36
Other, specify					37

_____

_____

_____

36. **Whom do you see as a role model for women managers?** *Explain.* _____

_____ | 38 |

37. **If there are any other factors that we have not addressed in this questionnaire, please comment on these issues in the space provided.**

_____ | 39-40 |

_____ | 41-42 |

_____ | 43-44 |

_____

_____

Thank you for your contribution to this research project.
- Please return your response to the address on the white envelope.

ADDENDUM C

Central University of
Technology, Free State

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RESEARCH SURVEY
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNMENT MANAGEMENT
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

AFRICAN WOMEN AS 21st CENTURY MANAGERS IN THE FREE STATE PROVINCIAL
ADMINISTRATION: ADDRESSING PERFORMANCE DETERMINANTS

Group:	African women managers: Free State Provincial Administration
Location:	Room 2203, CR Swart, Bloemfontein
Job level:	Level 9 and above
Date:	10 May 2002
Number of participants:	2 Directors, 3 deputy directors and 5 assistant directors.

	CONTENTS	TIME AIDS
1.1 **1.1.1**	**INTRODUCTION** ❑ **Facilitator and observer** Mpho Jama – Lecturer: General Skills (Division of Student Learner Development, University of the Free State). Role as facilitator with experience in focus group facilitation and dynamics. Liezel Lues – Student: Public Management. Role as observer. ❑ **Participants.**	15 min 14:00 - 14:15
1.1.2	**Welcome and clarification of the rest of the programme**	
1.1.3	**Clarification of the purpose of the focus group** ❑ To generate tangible proposals and recommendations to address factors that can enhance managerial effectiveness. The feedback from this focus group will pivot around results gathered in previous chapters and recommendations will be implemented in the Free State Provincial Administration to address the shortcomings identified in the study.	
1.1.4	**Reassurance and explanation of what is expected from participants** ❑ Confidentiality / tape recorder / notes. ❑ The facilitator will summarise the results of the questionnaire and then invite participants to make suggestions regarding factors that would enhance their performance as managers.	

Addenda

1.1.5 Clarification of any questions from the participants concerning logistics

2.1 FINDINGS

The demographic composition of African women in the Free State Provincial Administration and the influence thereof on management performance.

2.1.1	**Family size:**	- The size of families has become smaller and the average family consists of one or two children.
2.1.2	**Marriage:**	- 42.1% were married. - One respondent was in a traditional marriage.
2.1.3	**Head of household:**	- 58.3% perceived themselves as heads of households whilst 30.6% indicated that their husbands were the heads of the households.
2.1.4	**Dependants:**	- The majority of the respondents had dependants. - A median of 2 full and 1 partial financial dependants respectively.
2.1.5	**Education:**	- The majority are in possession of tertiary qualifications. - 56.8% indicated that they were registered for further studies at the time of the survey. - 58.3% took an interest in business and managerially related fields.
2.1.6	**Roles:**	- 91.7% said that their lives consisted of many roles. - The majority indicated that they fulfilled the role of career woman. - In addition, the roles of mother and wife, community intervener as well as political campaigner were added. - 41.2% replied that they coped as women managers. - Being able to cope depended on the prioritising of daily responsibilities, support from families, setting clear objectives, having good relationships with colleagues and being flexible.
2.1.7	**Domestic influences having an effect:**	- Family commitment, having young children and a lack of time have an influence on some respondents.

2.1.8	**Domestic influences not having an effect:**	- Fear of my husband/partner. - Verbal victimisation by husband/partner. - Inability to express myself. - Ability to exploit new opportunities. - Emotional tiredness. - Self-confidence. - Cultural influences.	
2.2	**DISCUSSION** ❑ State solutions/ recommendations to enhance managerial effectiveness from an individual perspective.		**20 min** **Tape recorder on.** 14:20 - 14:30
	❑ State solutions/ recommendations to enhance managerial effectiveness from an organisational perspective.		14:30- 14:40 **Tape recorder off.**
2.3	**BREAK FOR REFRESHMENTS**		**10 min** 14:40 – 14:50

	CONTENTS		**TIME** **AIDS**
2.4	**FINDINGS** The occupational profile of African women managers in the Free State Provincial Administration.		**10 min** 14:50 - 15:00
2.4.1	**Managerial posts:**	- The Departments of Welfare and Health have the largest number of African women managers. - The Departments of Safety and Security, Sport, - Culture, Science and Technology, Public Works and Roads and Transport have the smallest number of African women managers. - There are only a relatively small number of African women managers represented at Directorship level and above.	**Transparency**
2.4.2	**Job profile:**	- 51.3% would prefer to stay in their current posts for a period ranging from 1 to 5 years. - The main reasons for this were to receive the opportunity to develop and to move to higher positions. - 36.0% indicated that they perform their current work because it holds a challenge for them.	
2.4.3	**Liked most in work:**	- The opportunity to learn new things. - Interaction with people.	
2.4.4	**Disliked most in work:**	- Having power. - Travelling.	

2.4.5	**Reporting structure:**	- The respondents reported to 69.3% males in comparison to 30.8% females.
		- 66.7% of the respondents indicated that the level of support and encouragement from their supervisors was average to good.
		- The number of subordinates of the respondents varied from 9 to 25 with a median of 1 African male, 2 white females, 2 African females and 0.5 white males.
2.4.6	**Operational influences having an effect:**	- Working within a confined budget.
		- Having good working relationships with colleagues in general.
		- Relationships with immediate subordinates had a significant influence on respondents.
		- Lack of role-models.
2.4.7	**Career outline:**	- Respondents agreed that they are responsible for a number of tasks.
		- They could see the results of their work.
		- Their current work responsibilities were perceived as challenging.
		- Work provided good opportunities for advancement.
		- Could find the equivalent jobs elsewhere.
2.4.8	**Resources:**	- 90.9% trusted their judgement when they had to make a decision related to their work.
		- The majority relied firmly on their own capabilities, for example coming up with solutions and achieving set objectives and results.
		- Respondents appeared to have a strong support system in place, leaned strongly on networking with other colleagues and relied on personal and professional support.
2.4.9	**Capability:**	- 94.4% viewed themselves as competent managers.
		- Work experience, management qualities, formal qualifications and managerial skills appeared to be the reasons.
		- Respondents who did not view themselves as competent held organisational structures responsible.
2.4.10	**Management responsibilities:**	- The results showed a frequent weekly involvement in accountability, effective and efficient management as well as information management.
		- It appeared that the respondents are not so frequently involved in strategic management and policy analysis; these aspects are experienced as an annual exercise.

2.4.11	**Management skills:**	- The respondents applied communication (86.5%), decision-making (86.1%) and professional conduct skills (66.7%) on a weekly basis. - Management of conflict (46.0%), negotiation (46.0%) and change management skills (44.4%) were not applied in such high percentages on a weekly basis. - Entrepreneurial skills in particular seemed to be utilised to a very limited extent.
2.4.12	**Training:**	- 64.1% had received training. - 10.5% of the respondents had no post-school qualifications. - The formal and informal training provided by the Provincial Administration assisted the respondents in some cases to a reasonable extent and in others to a larger extent. - Training focusing on skills such as perseverance, communication, professional behaviour and attitude are needed. - Respondents were keen to enhance their management skills.
2.4.13	**Role models:**	- One respondent mentioned Jesus Christ as her role model and two respondents mentioned white women as role-models. - The rest of the respondents all specified various African women (n=27). - Most of the names were those of African women managers working in the Free State Provincial Administration. - Public figures such as Oprah Winfrey and Tina Turner as well as politicians (Ministers Geraldine Fraser-Moleketi and Nkosazana-Zuma) were also mentioned. - The reasons given related to career aspirations, the ability to balance dual roles and aspects of assertiveness and self-assurance.

2.5	**DISCUSSION** ❑ State solutions / recommendations to enhance managerial effectiveness from an individual perspective.	**30 min** **Tape recorder on.** **15:00 - 15:15**
	❑ State solutions / recommendations to enhance managerial effectiveness from an organisational perspective.	**15:15- 15:30**
2.6	**FINAL DISCUSSION** Elaborate on and clarify any of the above-mentioned topics or discussions.	**15 min** **15:30 – 15:45** **Tape recorder off.**

Addenda

	CONTENTS	TIME AIDS
3.	**CONCLUSION**	**5 min** **15:45 -** **15:50**

3. **CONCLUSION**
- ❑ The effectiveness of the woman manager in the Public Service is playing an increasingly important role in service delivery, as more and more women are being appointed in managerial posts.
- ❑ Reports on research conducted amongst women managers in South Africa are limited and the information that does exist is based primarily on personal experience and perceptions rather than scientific research.
- ❑ In addition, the majority of the research was performed prior to the 1994 general election and therefore does not account for the legislative and socio-economic impact that this election has had on African women managers today.
- ❑ The purpose of this study is to shed light on, and suggest methods of rectifying, the factors that hamper the managerial effectiveness of African women, in order to contribute to the establishment of a successful and dynamic work force.
- ❑ A questionnaire was used for data-collection. Concurrently, a comprehensive literature survey was carried out. The sample consisted of women managers (assistant directors and above) in the Free State Provincial Administration.