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**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE PERCEPTIONS OF  
INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL CAREER BARRIERS  
AMONGST FEMALE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE  
OFFICERS IN THE WESTERN CAPE**

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FLXALI002

**A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the award  
of Masters Degree in Organisational Psychology**

**Faculty of Humanities  
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2005**

This work has not been previously submitted in whole or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

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## ABSTRACT

This research explores the perceptions of internal and external career barriers from the perspective of female South African police officers in the Western Cape. This research is primarily informed by Swanson and Woitke's (1997) translation of career assessment theory into practice for women; Swanson, Daniels and Tokar's (1996) focus on the perceptions of career-related barriers and Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1988, 1995 & 1997) research findings that relate to the construct of self-efficacy and beliefs that individuals hold about their own capabilities. The research provides an overview of Career Development theories. It highlights that these theories are mainly based on males experiences and fails to take into account women's experiences or that the theories compare women in terms of how they depart from men in their career development. Hackett and Betz's (1981) theory of career development, which investigated how women's careers deviate from established theories based on men's career development, was introduced. This theory indicates that the differing factors are the barriers that women experience when choosing, implementing or advancing in their career. Hackett and Betz's 1981 application of Bandura's social cognitive theory to women's perception of career barriers is another piece of research that informs this dissertation and provides a theoretical framework for the career barriers construct. A mixed method research design utilising 68 surveys and a focus group was employed to collect data from women officers. Results indicate that the women officers, who were married, had children and lower levels of academic qualifications perceived these to be career barriers. Sex discrimination, lack of confidence, inadequate career preparation, multiple-role conflict, conflict between children and career demands, discouragement from choosing a non-traditional career and difficulty making decisions were also perceived by the women officers as barriers to their career advancement in this non-traditional career of policing.

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## CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

Women have made substantial gains in terms of opportunities for employment and career advancement, yet many internal and external barriers continue to impede women's career advancement. This view is supported by Harmon (cited in Hackett and Betz, 1981), who proposed that women's career development is affected by both internal (psychological) and external (sociological) constraints. Women are moving into professions that were in the past regarded as being part of 'the man's world'. Women who work in non-traditional occupations face multiple-role conflicts, career barriers and other forms of discrimination. This is because the positions are structured around society's expectation of working men rather than working women (Aaron-Corbin, 1999). It is hoped that this thesis will highlight these barriers and contribute to an understanding of why women's choices and achievements have been limited.

### 1.1 CONTEXT OF RESEARCH

An organisation like the South African Police Services (SAPS) epitomises a male-dominated environment, and despite many recent developments, policing is still considered to be a non-traditional career for women. The SAPS was officially established on 1 April 1913, yet the first women were only recruited on 1 January 1972 (SAPS official yearbook, 1992). In terms of the SAPS' present transformation, women's empowerment issues have been placed high on the agenda. However, gender representation is not reflective in the top management echelon of the SAPS, and despite gender equity policies, the management of the SAPS Western Cape is mainly comprised of men. This is reflected in the region's employment equity statistics: Women between ranks 6 and 13 (Sergeant to Director) in the SAPS only make up 29% of the total number of employees in the region (SAPS Western Cape Employment Equity Report, October - December 2003).

Consequently, the SAPS has identified, through its national equity statistics, that women between ranks 6 and 13 are not being attracted, promoted or retained within the following business units of the SAPS: the Forensic Science

Laboratory, the Commercial Crime Unit, the Organised Crime Unit, the Criminal Record Centre (LCRC), Financial Services, Human Resources, Operational Response Services (ORS), the Dog Unit and the Management and Information Service. This has caused a shortage among occupations, such as pilots, polygraphists, communication interception officers, internal auditors and Internet and forensic analysts (SAPS - Western Cape Employment Equity Report, October - December 2003). Reviewing the history of women's integration into the SAPS will help to provide an understanding of the organisation's culture and practices, and how these create specific perceived career barriers for their women police officers and which they and the SAPS now experience as a real threat to the advancement of gender equity.

## **1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE PRESENT STUDY**

It is important to identify the factors that affect women's entry into non-traditional, male-dominated careers and their experiences after entering the organisation because it will assist organisations that host these non-traditional careers in attracting and retaining women and assist the women who choose these non-traditional careers to have a more pleasant experience of the career. Stringer and Duncan (1985) indicate that little is known about either barriers or facilitators to women's entry into these fields; little is known about how women make decisions to enter these jobs, or how they view non-traditional careers once they are actively employed in such occupations. Such investigation would not only increase the understanding of women's career development, but would facilitate the design of systematic programmes of intervention capable of increasing the status of women and their potential for achievement in the labour market (Hackett & Betz, 1981).

There is a need to answer questions that relate to women's perceptions about their career in terms of why some perceive barriers to exist and why others do not, as well as why some women perceive barriers but do not regard them as a hindrance in their career progress. In attempting to address these questions, the research will assess what female officers in the SAPS perceive career barriers to be. However, the barriers construct has lacked a firm theoretical

framework and this is evidenced by a lack of consensus in the literature regarding both a clear conceptualisation of the barriers construct and potential barriers people may perceive (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar, 1996). As a result of this, this research will use the Lent, Hackett and Brown's (1996) adaptation of Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory to create an understanding of how women's perceived career barriers are informed by the formation of their self-efficacy beliefs and their external environment at home and at work.

Previous studies about perceived career barriers (Hackett & Betz, 1981; May & Naidoo, 2000; Swanson et al., 1996; Swanson & Woitke, 1997) have focused on the perceptions of college students and women academics. There is a need, however, for further research into the perceptions of women employed in other occupations. This research will thus focus on the perceived career barriers of women police officers in the business units mentioned above, ranging from the rank of Sergeant to Director, as no studies yet exist within the SAPS on actual or perceived career barriers amongst men or women officers.

### **1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The aim of the study was to investigate the perceptions of internal and external career barriers of female South African police officers in the Western Cape. Career barriers have always been viewed and addressed only as aspects external to the individual that influence the gap between career aspirations and attainment (Swanson et al., 1996). The study addresses perception of career barriers, as opposed to actual barriers, because, according to Swanson et al. (1996) it is believed that perception of events provides a more influential force on career behaviour. In other areas of psychology, research has demonstrated that one's perception of an event is far more important than the reality of the event (Swanson & Woitke, 1997). These researchers go on to indicate, that asking an individual to report how much a barrier will hinder their career progress, is equivalent to assessing their self-efficacy beliefs. Perceived and real barriers could influence, moderate or cause an individual to compromise on his/her career goals and aspirations and eliminate viable career

alternatives. The types of barriers, particularly those perceived by women, operate in a wide range of situations (Swanson et al., 1996).

This research will thus attempt to uncover the perceived internal and external barriers to the women officers' career choice and advancement within their current profession which is often based on traditional gender roles. It will therefore study a sample of women in a career (that of the police) that is considered to be non-traditional for their sex.

This study is primarily based on several pieces of research: firstly, the research conducted by Swanson and Woitke (1997) and Hackett and Betz (1981), which focused on translating career assessment theory into practice for women with regard to their perceived career barriers; secondly, the research by Swanson et al. (1996), which focused on the perceptions of career-related barriers; and lastly, the research findings of Bandura (1977, 1986, 1988, 1995 & 1997), which relate to the construct of self-efficacy and the beliefs that individuals hold about their own capabilities and how this shapes their beliefs of career barriers.

This research adopts a mixed method investigation into the perceptions of career barriers amongst women officers, using a dominant-less-dominant approach to collecting data. This method will help the researcher to establish what the women officers perceive as barriers and also provide meaning to their perceptions. A survey that Swanson et al. (1996) developed and called the Career Barriers Inventory, which was later revised and called the Career Barriers Inventory Revised (CBI-R), along with a follow-up focus group discussion was the instrument used to gain insight into this phenomenon. At this stage, defining the dominant, specific terms used in the research will give the reader a better understanding of the topic under review.

## **1.4 DEFINITION OF TERMS**

### **1.4.1 Male-Dominated Work environment**

A male-dominated work environment is a work environment characterised by occupations that traditionally attract males, and where at least 70% of the workforce is male (Tearle, 2004).

### **1.4.2 Non-traditional careers**

The concept of non-traditional careers refers to societal views around the appropriateness of occupations for men and occupations for women. A variety of previous studies have described types of occupations that are perceived as masculine, feminine and neutral (Almquist, 1978; Getty & Cann, 1981; Kruczek & Brown cited in Murrell, Frieze & Frost, 1991). The examples they provided of male occupations include engineers, **police officers**, architects and fire fighters.

### **1.4.3 Career Barriers**

Early definitions consider career barriers to be explanatory concepts that may account for the gap between women's abilities and their achievements; they may also moderate the relationship between women's career aspirations and their perception about what career options are available to them (Farmer, Matthew & Tiedman cited in Swanson et al., 1996). More recently, Swanson et al. (1996) and Swanson and Woitke (1997) have defined career barriers as either external conditions or events and internal states that make career progress difficult, but that can be overcome. Brown (1999) indicates that barriers can be viewed as self-reflective processes or as self-referent perceptions of an individual's environment.

### **1.4.4 Social Cognitive framework**

The Social Cognitive framework used herein is derived from Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, and embraces a constructivist view of the person actively shaping his or her experience. It highlights social cognitive variables that enable the exercise of personal agency, and it incorporates the effects of other personal and environmental factors on career development outcomes (Lent & Brown, 1996).

#### **1.4.5 Self-Efficacy**

Self-efficacy beliefs refer to people's judgement about their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance. It is the ability to perform the necessary action to overcome the barrier (Bandura cited in Lent & Brown, 1996; Swanson et al., 1996). Swanson and Woitke (1997) define self-efficacy as the expectations an individual has about their ability to accomplish certain career-related activities. The types of barriers that an individual perceives as interfering with those accomplishments influence these beliefs.

#### **1.4.6 Multiple Roles**

The concept of multiple roles defines the number of activities (roles) that women fulfil in their lives and the impact that these roles have on one another and the woman herself. Women are simultaneously, formally or informally employed, are siblings, or are children, spouses, mothers and leaders. These roles, added to their other duties and responsibilities of managing childcare and carrying the major responsibility for traditional homemaking, is a potential cause for multiple-role conflict (Greenglass, Pantony & Burke cited in Ray & Miller, 1994).

#### **1.4.7 Social Support**

Social support is defined as the forms of support provided by other individuals and groups (significant or otherwise) that help an individual to cope with life. It emphasises help that meets various long or short-term needs, and it provides information that informs individuals that they are cared for, esteemed and valued and that they belong to a network of communication and mutual obligation (Cobb cited in House, 1981; Gore cited in Ivancevich & Ganster, 1987; Reber, 1985).

### **1.5 STRUCTURE OF THESIS**

This dissertation is structured into six chapters. Chapter One, the introduction, provides the context of the research, defines the core terms and provides an outline of the structure of this thesis. Chapter Two contains a review of the literature and research that is relevant to women's perceived career barriers

within the realm of organisational psychology. The literature reviews women's choice of non-traditional careers, dominant career development theories, perceived career barriers, organisational, societal and familial career barriers, as well as the self-efficacy construct that represents an internal career barrier for women. This construct is derived from Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, which provides a theoretical framework for this study.

Chapter Three outlines the mixed method research design of the dominant-less-dominant data collection method that was employed, as well as discussing the data analysis procedures. Chapter Four summarises the results obtained in the research, while Chapter Five provides an analysis, interpretation and discussion of the findings within the context of the relevant theory. Finally, Chapter Six provides recommendations to the organisation, career counsellors, women in non-traditional careers and for future research. The recommendations are intended to assist the organisation in managing and supporting women in these non-traditional careers and the women in terms of their integration and advancement within the organisation.

The following chapter reviews the salient literature and research around career development theory; explores the implications of a male-dominated, non-traditional career, perceived career barriers and self-efficacy, in relation to women in general, and more specifically women police officers.

## CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature and the research outcomes that are relevant to the perceptions of career barriers of women in male-dominated careers. Previous research suggests that women in non-traditional careers differ from women in traditional careers in terms of the barriers they perceive as well as in terms of their personality characteristics (Swanson et al., 1996). Such perceived barriers may influence the development of beliefs about how much an individual is capable of achieving (these are referred to as self-efficacy beliefs) and may thus have an impact on their career goals and aspirations.

The literature review is structured around two areas of research. The first of these examines the research conducted by Swanson and Woitke (1997) and Swanson et al. (1996), which focused on translating career assessment theory into practice for women with regard to their perceived career barriers. The second area relates to the social cognitive framework, which is derived primarily from Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). This theory, which has self-efficacy as its main construct, is used to position the perceptions of career barriers within a theoretical framework in this study.

The first section of this chapter investigates the implications of women working in a male-dominated environment, the South African legislation that has recently been implemented to assist gender equity, and specifically the history of women's engagement and integration into the SAPS. Social Cognitive Theory, the theoretical framework that has informed the research into women's internal barriers, will be discussed reviewing Bandura's 1977 construct of self-efficacy. Finally, the external barriers that women experience in society and their working environment, along with the impact of dual roles, the specific stresses relating to their work as police officers, and the influence of social support on women officers will be looked at, concluding with a summary of the key theoretical insights.

## 2.1 WOMEN IN MALE-DOMINATED CAREERS

This section discusses male-dominated, non-traditional careers and provides a context of the internal and external barriers that women perceive in such working environments and, more specifically, in the SAPS. The legislation introduced to advance gender equity is also examined herein.

The opportunities to enter occupations are different for men and women. So too are societal views about which jobs are more appropriate for women, and which are more suited to men. Society also tends to have strong views about women's chances of success in such jobs (Stringer & Duncan, 1985), as well as about the acceptability of specific gender roles, which have become entrenched in society (Alperson, 1993). These gender roles are an underlying factor in the distribution and determination of employment and promotion across occupational fields for women and men across occupations (Stringer & Duncan, 1985). Socialisation and learning experiences very often produce a set response among women, which limits them to consider only traditional roles and occupations. However, globally and in South Africa, a growing number of women are choosing to enter non-traditional male-dominated professions, largely because societal views are becoming more liberal in response as a result of the long-standing struggle of women for gender equality.

South Africa has a rich history of women resisting their oppression. As far back as 1954, a women's charter had been established by the Federation of South African Women, whereby women's demands were divided into claims for legal rights and demands for social services and amenities (Wolvaard, 2003). In the 1960's, women rallied together and, in protest against the Apartheid system, burned the passes that all Black people were required to carry. In the 1970's and 1980's, the 'women-in-development' and the 'gender-in-development' programmes were established (Arnfred, n.d.). It was not until January 1993, just before the new democratic dispensation came into power, that South Africa signed the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which was amended on 15 December 1995. This formed the basis for the implementation of the National Framework for Women

Empowerment and Gender Equality. Until as late as 1993, women were still prevented from and protected against doing shift and overtime work by law (Factories, Machinery & Building Act, 1980). This changed in 1996, with the amendment of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1983 (Wolvaard, 2003). The Constitution of South Africa also emphasizes the importance of equality for all people based on, but not limited to, race, gender, sex, age, religion and disability. It is largely because of the effort of women that these laws have been legislated at all; they grant all people, including women, freedom of choice and a better opportunity for access into careers from which they had previously been excluded, politically and socially.

Men and women select careers for many of the same personal reasons, namely, the need to feel competent, the need to make a contribution, the need to feel productive. According to Stringer and Duncan (1985), some factors, however, separate men from women who choose careers in non-traditional environments. The women who select these careers tend to have notably non-traditional attitudes about gender roles; moreover, they have fewer opportunities than men do to enter such jobs, and they receive less societal support and approval when they do so. Pfof and Fiore (1990) believe that women may nonetheless choose or aspire to non-traditional careers because they value "male" goals or because they have strong and positive self-efficacy beliefs.

Such women may furthermore have been exposed to more varied opportunities and different work models, perhaps because their mothers were working while they were young; they may also have received more support from external sources, especially from male familial and peer relationships. Murrell et al. (1991) argue that women who planned careers in male-dominated occupations had higher career and educational aspirations and motivation than women who desired careers in female-dominated careers. They also found that women who aspired to non-traditional careers experienced less conflict when combining the roles of career and family, and but still in fact had a strong desire to have a family even though they wished to advance along their chosen career path. Women's acquisition of multiple roles

does have a negative impact on the amount of time that they have available to address the demands of each of these roles. According to Greenglass, Pantony & Burke cited in Ray & Miller (1994), this is a potential cause for role conflict.

Although women today have as equal a right as men to choose a career in non-traditional professions, it is evident that they do not have an equal chance to succeed. Women still face many constraints to becoming integrated into a male-dominated environment along their entire career lifecycle. They continue to be viewed with suspicion and while competence in any career is called into question, nowhere is this more evident than with women employed in male-dominated work environments (Lemkau, 1983). Numerous researchers (Innes, 1993; Murrell et al., 1991; Stringer & Duncan, 1985) have indicated that the most frequently cited barriers to employment in non-traditional careers for women are lack of appropriate work experience, lack of previous exposure to non-traditional work, unequal work practices amongst the sexes, discrimination, sexism and lack of support or discouragement by the family.

In addition to the above, as most working environments are structured along male values, women have to work harder than men do and they have to achieve more in order to gain acceptance or promotion. Amongst the women in the SAPS, this is also the sentiment (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000). Furthermore, these work environments have previously not had to accommodate women's needs and circumstances as much as female-dominated work environments, and are therefore not as receptive to them. This is important information for women entering or seeking advancement in non-traditional, male-dominated environments.

Law enforcement epitomises a male-dominated environment and is thus considered a non-traditional career choice for women. It has also been recognised as one of the most stressful occupations worldwide (Anshel, 2000). This is particularly the case in South Africa, given the socio-economic and political turmoil of the past, and the major changes that have occurred after the dissolution of apartheid, as well as given the escalating incidence of crime and

violence (Marks et al. cited in Gulle & Tredoux, 1998). Police work creates unique forms of stress and requires the use of specific coping skills, especially among female officers. The police force is male-dominated and, as a result of this, the socially determined view in the SAPS is that female officers are not suited to operational police work (Berold, 1999).

The Employment Equity Act was promulgated in 1998 to overcome disparity in employment opportunities in South Africa. Its objective is to pursue employment equity goals in an attempt to correct past discrimination practices and to ensure that a more representative and balanced workforce is created (Employment Equity Act, No. 55, 1998). In the SAPS, similar laws and policies have been developed. The objective of the SAPS Affirmative Action policy, for instance, is to "contribute towards equity for all personnel, to establish representivity, and to transform the Service into an impartial professional and humane organisation, which can deliver high quality and accessible services" (Wolvaard, 2003, p. 6). Various formal and informal committees, structures, policies and initiatives have been put in place in the SAPS to facilitate progress around gender equity issues. These include the SAPS Promotion of Employment Equity and Elimination of Unfair Discrimination Policy; the SAPS Sexual Harassment Policy; the National Equity Plan; Equity Consultative Forums; Human Resource Committees; Gender Desks at a national level, and Business Units Women Forums.

There are both advantages and disadvantages for women who engage in non-traditional careers. A challenging work environment, the nature of work, advancing the women's movement, proving to men that women can do the job just as well as they can, better remuneration and fringe benefits are some of the advantages that women can look forward to on entering these non-traditional careers. There is an awareness that organisations are male-dominated at a senior level and that women who are successful in non-traditional occupations have deviated from societal norms and can suffer negative consequences for such success. Not only are there few women at higher management levels, but the interactions tend to fit negative stereotypes of men's behaviour (Boninelli, 2004). Many women remark that they feel they

are constantly being tested in these environments. They are in the spotlight and are judged against gender stereotypes. Holton (1998) states that many of the women stated that it was as if their colleagues and superiors seemed to take a step back to see whether (or if) they could manage in this non-traditional role without support. Women preparing for or already in male occupations thus risk isolation from other women, stereotyping, discrimination and harassment (Hagen & Kahn cited in Pfof & Fiore, 1990). Therefore, women's negative responses to various cues that portray women in non-traditional occupations may reflect a realistic expectation of negative consequences rather than women's generalised disposition.

Previous research suggests that women in non-traditional careers differ from women in traditional careers in terms of their personality characteristics and how they perceive barriers in their chosen profession (Swanson et al., 1996). According to Lemkau (1983), tough-mindedness and assertiveness are identified as realistic behaviours for negotiating male-dominated environments, which are often characterised by gender discrimination. If women perceive or expect negative interpersonal consequences for deviating from culturally accepted careers, it may influence their career choice or level of achievement and advancement within their already chosen non-traditional career (Pfof & Fiore, 1990). Nonetheless, despite such problems, women who do enter non-traditional careers represent the encouraging possibility of actually breaking through the barrier of occupational segregation (Lemkau, 1983).

The following discussion is an overview of women's integration into policing as a whole as well as into the South African Police (SAP) and South African Police Service (SAPS). This will generate an understanding of the foundation of the organisation's culture, and will operationalise the issues that have been discussed above about women's integration and success in a male-dominated, non-traditional environment.

### **2.1.1 Women's integration into the Police Service and the SAPS**

Throughout the ages women were rarely seen as capable of protecting themselves or their communities, therefore, policing was established in the

Middle Ages as an exclusively male occupation (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000). The first recorded appointment of a woman in the police service globally, was in 1845, when a woman was hired as a police matron by the New York City police for her domestic duties. The first woman to be given police powers, globally, also came from the USA. In 1905, she was hired to protect young girls and women against immoral behaviour. Since then, more women across the world have joined the police service as ranking officers, despite their male counterparts not liking the idea (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000).

As early as 1958, the South African Police Act, 1958, made provision for the appointment of policewomen, but it was only in 1969 that the then Minister of Police made a recommendation to appoint policewomen (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000). Before 1972, it was written into the SAP policy, that no women be allowed to join the Force since Government did not approve of a fully-fledged unit of policewomen. Unrelenting opposition to the appointment of women police officers prevailed, despite the National Women's Council of South Africa and the National Women's Council for Child Welfare making numerous requests to allow women to join. "The mere thought was entirely unacceptable and the magnitude of problems that would result should such a development be approved could not even bear consideration" (Van der Merwe, 2004, p. 2).

The dwindling numbers of ranking officers, caused by their abundant application for a discharge and the practical benefits and considerations, brought about a revision of the long-standing view taken by the reigning police authorities and the Government, to not enlist women as ranking officers. However, in early 1971, when the Minister of Police announced that the appointment of women into the Force was being considered, the average police officer did not really take this seriously; he felt it was impractical and he did not feel that their 'male bastion would be toppled' (There is still a steep road ahead of you, n.d.). They thought that no woman would be able to cope with the continuous pressure, stress and anxiety of being a police officer. Despite this resistance though, women were appointed and policemen had no option but to accept the situation and resign themselves to the prospect of

accepting women as ranking police officers (There is still a steep road ahead of you, n.d.).

In March 1972, 102 White women started their training as police officials and slowly but surely made their presence felt in almost all spheres of policing (Van der Merwe, 2004). They were appointed to the South African Police to perform duties where female accused, witnesses and complainants were involved. These women would receive basically the same departmental training as their male counterparts in the Force, although with less emphasis on the military aspect. The policemen were momentarily silenced. It was a case of the die having been cast (Van der Merwe, 2004).

Attempts were made to train women in the same way as men, but a patriarchal culture still prevailed and various restrictions were placed on their training and the work they were allowed to do. They were, for instance, restricted to administration tasks in the Charge Office (currently called the Community Service Centre), assisting where minor road accidents had occurred and with the frisking of female prisoners and crime suspects. If a women officer was called to a crime scene, she had to request permission from her superior to go, and if permission was granted, a male colleague had to accompany her (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000). This adaptation occurred between 1972, and continued until 1980. From 1980 onwards, under the previous political dispensation, the apartheid government recruited women of other races into the SAP. In 1981, the first Indian woman entered the Force followed by the first Coloured women being recruited and trained in the SAP, followed in July 1983 by the first African women (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000). The culture in the SAP was racially as well as gender biased because Non-White women were not offered employment opportunities as early as their White colleagues, who had already been allowed to enter the SAP in March 1972.

Since 1972, women have reached several milestones in policing, but it was not until 1994 that major changes came about (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000). Before the national elections in 1994, the police played a military role in addressing the political uprisings and struggles both in the neighbouring states

and in South Africa. Much effort was devoted to changing the communities' perceptions about the racial profile of the police in the Apartheid era. This perception was constructed around the image of a brutish, uneducated, working class, white, Afrikaans-speaking policeman (Pelser, Rauch, & Shaw, 2001). It therefore became important to transform the police before the elections. Consequently, at the time of the elections, although the SAP had 55% black employee representation, what characterised this old-order organisation was the dominance of white, Afrikaner males in senior ranks. In 1995, only one of 202 members holding the rank of Brigadier (currently named a Director) was a woman (Pelser et al., 2001).

Racism within the police forces was entrenched during the apartheid era in legislation, regulations and standing orders. For decades, official police policy prevented black members and women from being promoted into senior ranks. This included separate pay scales for white and black personnel, discriminatory promotions criteria and racially-based policies concerning benefits (Pelser et al., 2001). The representation of women in the police force was poor. They experienced the same discriminatory view as their non-white colleagues. In 1994, 53% of South Africa's population were women, but they only made up 11% of ranked police officers (Pelser et al., 2001). In 2001, women made up 16% of ranked officers (Van der Merwe, 2004).

With the onset of the new dispensation, the National Police Commissioner was committed to ensuring that women serve in all units of the South African Police Service and that racial and gender discrimination would not be tolerated (Van der Merwe, 2004). This sentiment has been carried through with the appointment of the new National Police Commissioners over the past decade. At a passing out parade of new recruits in 2004, 547 of the 1 987 police students on parade were women.

In March 2004, another first for women officers in the police service was achieved, when twenty-nine policewomen became the first group of women to complete the elite Special Task Force's gruelling eighty-six hour endurance test (Van der Merwe, 2004). On their return a senior ranking officer asked the

women to do an extra exercise to prove to their male counterparts that they were their equals in every way. They were asked to complete an additional task with the same equipment that their male counterparts would use to complete the same endurance test. The senior ranking officer thereafter indicated that the women's results were amazing. The officer clearly did not expect the women to be so tough and to have such high levels of physical and mental endurance and such unity among themselves. He declared: "In future I will allow the women to do the endurance test with the men, because each and every one of them have proved that they can stand their man in any situation" (Anonymous, personnel communication, 2004, p. 2).

Since the discussion has established a historical view on the employment of women in the SAPS, it is valuable to review career development theories. Career development is an ongoing process of assessing and integrating knowledge of the self and the world of work, as both change over an individual's lifespan (Super, 1980). Career development tasks or decisions are influenced by both internal and external factors (Herr & Cramer cited in May, 1999). The following section will review a few of the dominant career development theorists (Super, 1984), Levinson (1978) and Gottfredson (1981) and details how individual's careers are shaped. The section also reviews Hackett and Betz's (1981) career theory model which, more specifically, addresses the formation of career barriers and how the perception and formation of these shape women's' career choice and hinder their career development and advancement.

## **2.2 OVERVIEW OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES**

Career development theories have been characterised by content and process theories. Traits-and-factors form part of content theories which are based on the measurement of individual characteristics. Process theories, in contrast, focus on the developmental processes that take place around career choice and advancement from childhood to late adult life (Sharf, 1992 cited in Schreuder & Theron, 1997). These latter theories are also referred to as lifespan theories, and have been developed by theorists such as Super (1980) and Levinson (1978). They share a common understanding that one's self-

concept becomes more clearly defined with age, and that career choice is a process of matching self-concept with images of the occupational world (Osipow, 1983).

### **2.2.1 Super's Theory**

Super defines a career as the combination and sequence of roles played by a person during the course of their lifetime and therefore defines career development as a process that spans five life stages from childhood to old age (Schreuder & Theron, 1997). He distinguishes between these life stages but stresses the point that individuals do not develop uniformly. Career development is seen as comprising the formation and implementation of self-concepts in occupational contexts, which involves role-playing or a compromise between the individual's self-concepts and aspects of reality such as social, economic and cultural factors (Super & Bohn cited in Schreuder & Theron, 1997). Role playing is functional and may contribute to eventual career changes in career development, choices and advancement.

Super depicts careers in the life span as exemplified by the various roles played at any one time by an individual and; his theory in this regard is graphically portrayed as a model called the Life-Career Rainbow (Super, 1988, 1990, 1992 cited in Schreuder & Theron, 1997). He purports that a career is thus a changing collection of roles, some occurring sequentially and some simultaneously. Super (1980) proposed the following five stages in his model of career development: growth (birth - age 12-14), which is characterised by the development of capacity, attitudes, interests and needs associated with self-concepts; exploration (ages 14-25), characterised by a tentative phase in which choices are narrowed but not finalised; establishment (ages 24-44), which entails trial and stabilisation through work experiences; the maintenance stage (ages 45-64), is a continual adjustment process to consolidate work position and situation; and finally, the decline stage (ages 65+), denotes pre-retirement considerations, work output and eventual retirement (Schreuder & Theron, 1997). Super suggests further that these stages are not determined by age, but rather by an individual's circumstances and perceptions. Thus individuals can be in any stage at various points in their lives or careers and,

furthermore, can re-cycle through the stages when major changes or transitions occur (Swanson, 1992).

Super labels this as an individual's career pattern and indicates that there is no difference in the part that self-concept plays in male and female career development and therefore, career patterns of men are essentially applicable to women, if they are modified to take marriage and childrearing into account (White, Kruczek, & Brown, 1989). These authors also propose that both make decisions on the basis of their self-concept and their concept of the circumstances in which they live.

Super based his research on the career development stages of males' life stages and believed that his research findings could be transferred to women. Levinson, another process theorist, also based his career development research on males, but used age to define the life span categories.

### **2.2.2 Levinson's Theory**

In 1978 Levinson theorised that life-stages consist of four life eras that are determined by age: Childhood (ages 0-20), early adulthood (ages 20-40), middle adulthood (ages 40-60) and late adulthood (over 60 years) (Levinson, 1986). His theory is particularly relevant for work and family interfaces. The theory depicts male adult development as consisting of alternating periods of structure building and transitions, each of which usually lasts six to seven years. Levinson identified two major transitions in the adult development of men: one at age 30, where men direct their energy at improving their career situation; and one around age 40, being the mid-life transition, where men evaluate their over-investing in their career at the expense of their family life and now choose to increase their involvement in their family (Levinson, 1986). This stage is commonly referred to as the 'mid-life crisis'. Levinson's study drew considerable criticism because it did not include women. However, he did contend that women go through the same developmental periods as men do albeit in different ways (Levinson, 1986).

As a result of the above theorists' lack of focus on women's career development and Super and Levinson's *laissez-faire* assumption that women's career development stages are identical to those of men, several women undertook separate studies (Gottfredson, 1981; Hackett & Betz, 1981) in which they actually applied Levinson's theory to the adult development of women. The outcome was that part of Levinson's theoretical hypothesis, namely, that entry into adulthood involves four developmental tasks, was supported; nevertheless, the studies indicated that women's experiences are quite different from those of men (Levinson, 1986).

It can be seen then that career development theorists such as Super and Levinson have based their career development models on studies of men, respectively in 1980 and 1978. Two major criticisms of this are, firstly, that they are based on white, middle-class male values and assume that they can be generalised to pertain to minority groups and women, and secondly, that the life stages outlined by Super are not entirely applicable to women, especially as their roles have changed in the last decade (Naidoo, Bowman & Gerstein, 1998 cited in May, 1999; Sharf cited in Schreuder & Theron, 1997). On the basis of this, it is instructive to look at Gottfredson's subsequent career development theory, which examines both men and women's career development.

### **2.2.3 Gottfredson's Theory**

Gottfredson's (1981) theory of circumspection and compromise was one of the first frameworks to describe women and men's career development in an integrative manner. The theory proposed that both men and women were experiencing a narrowing of career options as a result of gender and societal influences which resulted in a compromise of their career choice. Gottfredson indicated that gender concept formation begins when children are socialised to classify behaviour as being either gender appropriate or inappropriate. This view of behaviour is generalised to occupations. This view, plus the impact of societal influences, adds pressure on women to choose traditional careers or not to avail themselves for career advancement into upper-management

levels. Galejs and King (1983) and Pryor (1987) suggest that gender self-concept is related to women choosing careers that are gender appropriate.

According to Gottfredson (1981), as the individual perceptions of themselves and the world of work develop, the range of occupational alternatives is successively defined (circumscribed). This applies to both men and women. However, as individuals face barriers to their career choices, they have to compromise, leading to a narrowing in the range of occupational alternatives. Both processes of defining occupational alternatives (circumspection) and compromising career choice and advancement opportunities (compromise) are believed to follow a prioritised order. In circumspection, the individual first develops alternatives based on their concept of gender appropriate occupational options, then they develop alternatives based on prestige and then those based on interests. In compromising occupational aspirations and alternatives, the reverse order occurs. Firstly, when individuals face barriers to implementing their occupational alternative, they realise that they may have to compromise their goals. The most strongly protected aspect of their self-concept is gender self-concept and so interests are compromised first, followed by prestige and lastly gender self-concept (Gottfredson cited in Swanson, 1992). He postulates that when people must compromise on their career choice, they will do so by choosing occupations that are less gender-appropriate than their original choice. Gottfredson's (1981) career development theory may provide a relevant framework for the examination of career related barriers and be relevant for women choosing non-traditional careers. However, one erroneous assumption that Gottfredson's theory of compromise makes is that women are homogenous. This implies that all women will respond in the same way if they have to compromise on their career choice or are unable to advance in their career.

Gottfredson provided a theory that researched male and female career development, however, a major criticism of existing career development theories is that they are mainly based on male experiences and fail to take into account the experiences of women; or compares women in terms of how they depart from men in their career development (Swanson, 1992). Fitzgerald and

Betz (cited in Osipow, 1983) indicate that there is a lack of theories which are capable of producing meaningful, testable hypotheses regarding the development of women's careers and the barriers that they perceive to exist. However, in 1981, Hackett and Betz introduced their theory of career development which added another dimension for women career choice and advancement.

Research regarding women's career development began to evolve from investigating how women's careers deviate from established theories based on men's development to an exploration of additional factors that uniquely affect women (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980). Women's work patterns differ from those of men and research variables not relevant to the study of men's career development was used. One of these factors is the barriers that women may experience during career choice, implementation and advancement (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). The barriers construct has however lacked a firm theoretical framework regarding both a clear conceptualisation of the barriers construct and potential barriers people may perceive (Swanson et al., 1996).

The following section explores Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory and Hackett and Lonborg's (1994) adaptation of this theory to provide a theoretical framework for the career barriers construct, and particularly for the formation of internal career barriers. It reviews the construct of self-efficacy, an internal barrier, which provides a link between women's career and advancement and their behavioural outcomes. The construct also helps to create an understanding of why women, who see themselves capable of succeeding in a non-traditional career, sometimes do not make those choices or apply for promotions and career advancement. In this regard, Hackett and Betz's (1981) career development theory will also be reviewed.

### **2.3 OVERVIEW OF THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

This section reviews the theoretical framework of the Social Cognitive Theory and one of its primary variables, the self-efficacy construct that underlies the perception of career barriers. Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, which

was adapted by Lent, Hackett and Brown in 1996, is useful in understanding perceived career barriers, especially among women.

The beliefs that people hold about their capabilities have a powerful influence on how they behave, what they chose to do and not to do, and what the eventual outcomes of their actions are. This view is supported by Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, which proposes that an individual's personal efficacy belief forms the basis of their action and human behaviour. The social aspect of this theoretical framework acknowledges that much of human thought and action is socially constructed; however, the cognitive aspect recognises and emphasises the influential contribution of thought processes in human action (Stadjkovic & Luthans, 1998). This implies that individual thoughts and consequent actions are also influenced by what people experience in the society in which they operate. Individuals still process, and act upon, available information differently depending on their unique personal characteristics (Stadjkovic & Luthans, 1998).

The Social Cognitive Theory offers a practical framework for career development, explaining the interplay between educational and vocational interests, career-related choices and performance. The theory is a useful approach to conceptualising women's vocational behaviour and their increased understanding of the relationships of socialisation experiences in relation to their subsequent career choice and achievement behaviours, which involves a focus on the cognitive processes mediating those behaviours (Hackett & Betz, 1981). It also offers a useful guide for assessment of and interventions for women (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

Placing the career barriers construct within the theoretical framework provides valuable insight into how an individual acquires perceptions of barriers. It offers hypotheses about relations between barriers and other career variables. It also provides insight into the background factors and mechanisms that contribute to or mediate the development of perception of barriers, and it provides a backdrop for the career barriers construct (Lent et al., 1996; Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

The theoretical framework is concerned with two primary aspects of career performance: firstly, the level of attainment that individuals achieve in their work tasks (measures of success and proficiency); and, secondly, the degree to which they persist, despite obstacles, at a particular work activity or on a chosen career path (Lent & Brown, 1996). It is this second aspect of perseverance, and the criteria that formulate it, which is of particular interest in this research, where women, despite perceiving barriers to entry and progress in their chosen, non-traditional careers, still persist in pursuing their career paths until they achieve success.

The Social Cognitive Theory provides a framework for understanding the effects of personal, contextual and experiential factors on career-related behaviour. It is important to note that personal inputs (race, gender, ability) directly influence perceived barriers and the choices that an individual makes about and in their careers (Swanson & Woitke, 1997). Contextual inputs (opportunity, emotional and financial support, discrimination) and experiential inputs (modelling behaviour, prior failures and success) all influence the development of self-efficacy and outcome expectations (Brown, 1999). The Social Cognitive Theory focuses on processes through which career interests are developed, namely, interest, promotion of career relevant choices, and how people attain varying levels of performance and persistence in their career pursuits.

The theory points to a feedback loop that depicts how self-efficacy converts to feelings of positive outcomes, which form goals and eventually result in particular activities. These activities give rise to attainment patterns that in turn reinforce and inform self-efficacy beliefs (Lent & Brown, 1996). Lent et al. (1996) postulate that the primary socio-cognitive mechanisms of the Social Cognitive Theory are self-efficacy, outcome expectations and personal goals. These variables guide women in their career development. They also emphasise the dynamic process that helps to shape and transform these three aspects of career-related behaviour.

The next section discusses the self-efficacy construct, which, according to Bandura (1997), promotes occupational interests that foster corresponding intentions to pursue a particular career path or not.

### **2.3.1 Self-Efficacy – An Internal Barrier**

Self-efficacy, an aspect of Social Cognitive Theory, is seen as the key concept in career decisions (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy refers to the individual's sense of having some control over the events that affect their life. It involves an individual's judgement of their capacity to use their skills effectively in performance, in other words, their judgement of what they are capable of doing with their skills, not judgement of their skills as such (Schreuder & Theron, 1997). This is not a singular, static trait, but rather involves dynamic self-beliefs that are linked to particular performance domains and activities, such as different tasks (Lent & Brown, 1996). Efficacy beliefs influence how people think, feel, motivate themselves and act. These beliefs contribute significantly to human motivation and attainments. Bandura (1995) explained that self-efficacy beliefs regulate an individual's functioning through the following four major processes: cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes.

*Cognitive processes:* The stronger the individual's perceived self-efficacy, the higher the goal challenges are that they set for themselves and the firmer is their commitment to them. This assists individuals to predict events and to develop ways to control those that affect their lives.

*Motivational processes:* Efficacy beliefs play a key role in self-regulating motivation. Individuals motivate themselves and guide their actions in an anticipatory way by exercising forethought. Causal attributions affect their motivation, performance and affective reactions mainly through beliefs of self-efficacy.

*Affective Process:* An individual's belief that their coping capabilities affect how much stress and depression they experience in threatening or difficult situations, as well as their level of motivation. Perceived self-efficacy exercises control over stressors and plays a central role in anxiety arousal.

*Selection Processes:* People are partly the product of their environment. Therefore, beliefs of personal efficacy can shape the courses individuals' lives

take by influencing the types of activities and environments in which they choose to become involved (Bandura, 1995). As a result of these four processes, perceived barriers will influence the development of beliefs about how much an individual is capable of achieving. Bandura (1997) explains that the degree to which people perceive barriers may be tied to their self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997).

Of the three variables identified in the Social Cognitive Theoretical framework, self-efficacy is considered as the primary cognitive determinant of whether or not an individual will attempt a given behaviour based on their beliefs that they can perform this given behaviour or task successfully (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy beliefs thus play a key role in career development and forming an individual's perceptions about career barriers. The self-efficacy theory provides a useful framework for understanding the learning and affective mediators of women's gender-role socialisation experiences, and the resulting gender differences in career choice patterns that can still be observed in the workforce (Hackett, 1995).

Hackett and Betz 1981 (cited in Schreuder & Theron, 1997) postulate that men and women differ with regard to expectations of self-efficacy. They indicate that these expectations determine whether or not behaviour will be initiated, how much effort will be expended and how long such behaviour will be sustained in the face of obstacles and adverse experiences. In contrast to men, women have low expectations of self-efficacy because their socialization experiences, current gender-role pressures and perceptions of gender-related tasks result in their having low expectations of success. Low self-efficacy beliefs amongst women are thought to reflect the limited and disadvantaged position that women still tend to have in the workplace and the limited range of career options presented to them (Brown, 1999). In early childhood, women are limited in their exposure to sources of information, which are necessary for developing strong efficacy beliefs in many occupational areas. This gives rise to internal barriers that prevent them from fully realising their capabilities and talents. Consequently, they limit their career choice to a narrow range of options, as well as limiting their career implementation and advancement.

The stronger the perceived gender linkage of an activity or occupation, the more likely it is that gender differences in self-efficacy will arise (Hackett, 1995). This could attribute to the reason why there are fewer women in traditionally male-dominated areas such as engineering, policing, maths and science. Low or weak expectations of self-efficacy are viewed as a major influence on which barriers are classified by women as internal and are manifested in career-related behaviours. External barriers to women such as, discrimination, sexual harassment and lack of support systems, represent obstacles that require strong self-efficacy expectations before they can be surmounted. The higher their level of self-efficacy to fulfil occupational roles, the wider the career options that they seriously consider pursuing and the greater the interest they have in them. They will simply eliminate the careers that they believe are beyond their capabilities (Betz & Hackett cited in Bandura, 1995).

The level and strength of efficacy expectations may be particularly important in understanding career development and advancement of women (Bandura, 1977). This necessitates the consideration that self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by various internal, external and interactive factors, which are reflected in career-related outcomes, expectations and performance (Brown, 1999).

Self-efficacy beliefs are a product of a complex process of persuasion that relies on cognitive processing of diverse sources of self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) identifies four sources from which self-efficacy is learnt and expectations are acquired and these sources of self-efficacy are determinants of why self-efficacy expectations are lower, weaker, and less generalised among women than among men. They are: performance accomplishments, vicarious learning, verbal persuasion and physical/affective status.

*Performance Accomplishments* refer to how accomplishments are received by the individual, and how this influences an individual's self-efficacy expectations and actions. In a work situation, discrimination, racism, sexism and prejudice

can do likewise. This is the most powerful source of shaping self-efficacy expectations. Performance accomplishments contribute to developing strong career self-efficacy, but the latter is a more powerful predictor of career-related behaviour (Lent & Hackett cited in Bandura, 1995).

*Vicarious Learning* occurs when beliefs are acquired through observation and interpretation. In observing the modelling behaviours of others, the individual will reflect on past experiences with such behaviour and make meaning of its relevance in a new situation. When non-traditional careers provide limited role models, then women's career interests, aspirations and perceived opinions may seem limited (Bandura, 1977).

*Verbal Persuasion* occurs when an individual's beliefs about him- or herself are influenced by the messages conveyed by others. If an individual receives encouragement, then their career-related self-efficacy is supported; conversely, criticism will hamper their beliefs in their ability to cope in a certain career (Bandura, 1977).

*Emotional Arousal* occurs when stress and anxiety have a negative effect on self-efficacy. Therefore, if individuals find themselves under conditions that cause conflict, low self-efficacy may develop, and this may result in the individual having low outcome expectations of a situation (Bandura, 1997). Women's career development can be understood and facilitated by taking into consideration the above-mentioned mechanisms that play a part in the development of personal efficacy expectations (Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

Perceived barriers are viewed as exerting a direct influence on self-efficacy beliefs. Self-efficacy is similar to, or more closely associated with, barriers that are internal in nature. There is a negative correlation between self-efficacy and perceived barriers. High self-efficacy results in less perceived barriers because the individual has the inherent confidence to overcome them. In other words, if high self-efficacy exists but the individual does not make their sought after career choice because they expect negative outcomes, then outcome expectations are being determined by self-efficacy (Swanson et al., 1996). Self-efficacy plays a different role in the career development process depending on the origin of the barrier (whether it is internal or external).

In conclusion, self-efficacy beliefs play a key role in the formation of perceived career barriers, especially among women. Low self-efficacy may predispose an individual to a higher number of perceived internal career barriers. Perception of internal barriers may in turn predispose an individual to perceiving a higher number of external barriers. In light of this, the following section examines the external barriers that women perceive. These barriers usually occur within the work and family environments.

## **2.4 EXTERNAL CAREER BARRIERS**

This section reviews the external barriers that women experience in their working environments and society, and examines the implications of social support in response to them. These external barriers are structured around several categories, namely, organisational culture, the glass ceiling, human resources policies and practices, societal and familial expectations, home/work stress multiple-role conflict, and role overload. The resultant stress, specifically in the police services, is also presented as an external barrier.

The role of career barriers has been discussed since the 1970's, but little attention has been paid to the theoretical implications of the construct itself (Swanson & Woitke, 1997). From the early stages of a woman's socialisation, and continuing through her time in the job market, the odds are stacked against her having the opportunity to develop to her full professional potential. Consequently, women have been excluded from many kinds of work. If and when they are admitted and even promoted, it is according to a set of terms and conditions that had been established at a time when the prevailing view dictated that work was no place for women (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1993). This traditional socialisation of women as home-makers and men as breadwinners has become one of the foremost obstacles that impact on women's advancement in the workplace.

One of the major ways in which women's career behaviour differs from that of men is observed in women's failure to fully utilise their individual talents, capabilities and interests in career pursuits (Farmer cited in Hackett & Betz, 1981). To achieve success in the workplace, women have to create a shift in

their own mindset and to act as if they are on an equal footing with their male counterparts. Women want the same out of their careers as men do, namely, opportunities, respect and responsibility (Boninelli, 2004). Van Esterick cited in Wolvaard (2003) states that men also have an important role to play in changing conditions for women in the workplace and in changing their own attitudes towards women's work.

The barriers construct plays a central role in explaining the career choice and further advancement of men and women, and is represented in the background factors that affect career development, as well as influential at crucial decision-making points. One such barrier is a form of achievement-related anxiety not experienced by men that may inhibit achievement in women, a paradoxical concept called 'fear of success' (Pfof & Fiore, 1990). The conflict between the need to be perfect and the fear of success results in a lack of confidence that contributes to the environmental factors limiting women's achievement in the workplace. Many of these environmental factors are tangible and visible, yet they can also be very subtle and insidious. The following discussion addresses some of the more common barriers, which include (but are not limited to) discrimination, organisational culture, discrepancies in remuneration and benefits, stereotypes, work/family stress, multiple role conflict and role overload, socialisation and police stress.

#### **2.4.1 Organisational Culture**

For many years, sexual discrimination was legally and socially entrenched in South African society. It encompasses any conduct that denigrates or ridicules, or is intimidatory or physically abusive of a person because of his or her sex. This discrimination may be direct – where a person is disadvantaged simply because of her race, gender, religion and nationality; or it may be indirect – when benefits are attributed on the basis of criteria, which appear to be neutral but which simply cannot be met by a disproportionate number of a certain group (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1993). Many women can provide countless stories of when they have been discriminated against, put down, labelled, stereotyped, ignored, harassed or simply insulted for being a woman (Tearle, 2004).

In response to the above-mentioned situation, the SAPS have adopted a code of practice containing measures to combat sexual harassment. Recent research has shown that women with a high level of hardiness against discrimination experience greater self-esteem and are less likely to experience sexual discrimination as such (Foster & Dion, 2003). This minimises the pervasiveness of discrimination.

An unexpected fear of success, based on the existence of stereotyped roles for women and men, also contributes to women holding back in the workplace. It prevents women from demanding their due for work well done; instead, they wait for someone else to notice their performance and reward them accordingly. A common belief is that the higher one's position in the company hierarchy is, the more effort will be required from the individual (Foster & Dion, 2003).

Individuals in higher management ranks behave according to a code. If employees want to progress up the organisation, they are usually encouraged (either implicitly or explicitly, although usually the former) to conform to such corporate codes (Thomas, 1996). These codes are ingrained in the existing corporate culture. This culture, which has evolved over time and makes people feel safe, comprises the norms that have become institutionalised, communicated and perpetuated, and reflects values, attitudes and behaviours. These are upheld by unspoken rules and behaviour in an organisation, governing how members communicate, what behaviours are rewarded and which are punished (Thomas, 1996). Organisations may, for instance, state in corporate documents and in other ways that they value diversity amongst their employees, however, hidden perils exist for those who are 'different' in an environment that values the comfort, safety and predictability of conformity (Thomas, 1996).

The discussion will now move on to consider the phenomenon of 'the glass ceiling', which has become a widely discussed and entrenched concept in recent career development theory. Simpson and Altman (2000) concur that the

concept of a glass ceiling for women in organisations has achieved the status of a well enshrined phenomenon.

#### **2.4.2 The Glass Ceiling**

The concept of a glass ceiling can best be described as an intangible concept that prevails in an organisation and is used in reference to the subtle barriers to advancement and development that often face women in organisations (Morris & Von Glinow, 1990). It exists in most organisations and consists of a complex web of management myths and values, which suggest that women are not fit for senior positions (Lessing, 1994).

Many women have complained, however, that this phenomenon has blocked their path to greater success and achievement far more often than happens with men (Alder, 1993a; Caswell & Walsh, 1994; Coe, 1992; Davidson & Cooper, 1992; Gregg & Machin cited in Simpson & Altman, 2000). Some of the barriers that can be attributed to the glass ceiling phenomenon are the fact that men's clubs and networking are important for facilitating progress in the organisation; fact that women are judged by more criteria than men; and the fact that family commitment often get in the way of women giving 100 percent commitment to the organisation. According to Goodman, Fields and Blum (2003), the only time that women are more likely to reach top-management levels and not experience the effects of the glass ceiling is when they work in organisations that have more lower level positions filled by women, there is a high turnover of management, there is lower average management salary levels and where organisations place a greater emphasis on training and development.

If the above-mentioned is not the situation in the organisation, then women are being put under great pressure to develop an acceptable image and management style. In South Africa, particularly, women are having an even tougher time than their counterparts in America in overcoming the attitudinal and organisational prejudices that keep them from promotions and key appointments (Ward, 1998).

The above findings suggest that the glass ceiling phenomenon still exists today, much in the same way as it has in the past and performs the same function, namely to exclude women from upper-level management in most organisations (Morrison, White & Van Velsor, 1992). As a result of such glass ceilings, women often change from one organisation to another in order to progress in their career path, which results in them having more dynamic careers. This can be positive in many ways where individual's learn new skills, adjust to new environments and transfer knowledge, but it can also be negative - if a potential new employer sees several job changes on an individual's curriculum vitae, the employer could regard them as lacking commitment or perseverance. Alternatively, if they find that their careers have plateaued early, they may give up work entirely (Simpson & Altman, 2000).

The glass ceiling concept comprises many of the external barriers that prevail in organisations, such as organisational culture, business practice, management style and male attitudes; when all of these are present together, this is a more powerful barrier for women.

#### **2.4.3 Human Resource policies and practices**

Many women do not work only by choice, but also out of economic necessity. And yet, they frequently do not receive the same remuneration and benefits as their male counterparts for equivalent jobs. This leads to unequal and disproportionate practices, with men and women perceiving human resource practices differently. Often, women are also too afraid to assert themselves and strive for a promotion or a higher salary, because they feel that men and other women in the workplace may frown upon them. Loughlin (1999) indicates that men also tend to be promoted faster than women because they make use of their informal networks, as opposed to women relying on formal promotion processes.

Recruitment and selection processes and the conditions of service could often provide a discriminatory environment, and constitute a disincentive for women to work in certain fields. Training and development, too, are not equal for men and women (Holton, 1998). In the SAPS, Western Cape, women make up only

30% of the total employees that were trained in this period; furthermore, 47% of the 30% fell in the ranks 6 – 13 (SAPS Western Cape Employment Equity report, October-December, 2003). When they do achieve success in their careers and get to the top, they may find that other women feel threatened by their abilities and that they are considered to be bossy and autocratic (Boninelli, 2004).

#### **2.4.4 Family and Societal Expectations**

Family, societal and cultural expectations and environments influence women's perceived career choices. Women's lack of belief in their quantitative and technical capabilities and their career aspirations are shaped by their families, occupational practices, the mass media and culture at large (Bandura, 1995). Most of the research into the effects of socialisation on the career choice processes and achievements of women has focused on the barriers faced by women (Hackett & Betz, 1981). The societal norms and culture in which they live generates these barriers, which may become stressors with resultant outcomes such as work/home stress and burnout.

However, the society and families provide a support mechanism that can aid or buffer these resultant effects. This support mechanism is referred to as social support. To help women address societal and familial expectations, it is important for them to receive social support, both in their private life and at work (Statt, 1994). However, women need to know that they have a strong enough relationship with someone at work and at home to talk to if such support is required (Lowe, 1995). The support provided is based on positive feelings of love, concern, affirmation, respect and trust for that person, and the awareness that this support exists has a buffering effect on individuals when they have to address family and societal expectations that are incongruent with their career choices.

Social support is understood to be an intrinsic and beneficial quality of social relationships, and its philosophical roots can be found in postulates of basic human requirements (Veiel & Baumann, 1992). This implies that beneficial environmental (societal and familial) conditions may moderate and even

compensate for the stresses that women perceive when their career choice is in conflict with society's expectations.

However, there can be no generic support system for particular individuals or individuals with similar or identical demographics. Each person is an individual after all, and will thus select a support system that suits their needs and the problems at hand (Statt, 1994). Argyle (cited in Veiel and Baumann, 1992) supports this view by stating that some people benefit much less than others from social support. A possible reason for this may be the individual differences in personality and social skills. They might have an internal support system or coping mechanism and so do not require an external form of support.

Women's perceptions that they can receive social support from one or more sources, are the outcome of an interpersonal transaction in which behaviours and acts of others are interpreted by them as supportive (House, 1981). Sources of social support span a wide range from spousal relationships to support from friends and family to sources of support in the workplace. Nonetheless, care does need to be taken when making use of these supportive relationships. They have the capacity to be stressful as well as supportive since the family members that are providing the support, might also be the cause of the stress; moreover, their support system may offer them conflicting advice that impacts negatively on their perceptions about their chosen career (Barrera cited in Ray & Miller, 1994).

#### **2.4.5 Multiple Roles, Role Conflict and Role Overload**

In present times it is an accepted norm for women to work, and to have the right to develop and follow their own careers. On the downside, this situation requires women to manage both work and family responsibilities, as their increasing participation in the labour market has not liberated them from family responsibilities (Brink, 1999). Ray and Miller (1994) indicate that women-time still means that women are trying to integrate professional life and personal life. In choosing work, women also have to retain their femininity whilst striving

for achievement (Brink, 1999). Questions regarding their personal wellbeing, coping and self-worth inevitably arise. This could result in multiple-role conflict.

Women tend to compartmentalise their work and family life. Time pressure between work and home responsibilities and meeting daily demands is enormous. There is seldom an environment that enables the woman to feel that both can receive equal priority (Brink, 1999). This leads to the 'superwoman' syndrome, where the woman feels she must be perfect in every capacity. Not surprisingly, her expectations of what can realistically be achieved tend to be too high, which often leads to burnout and feelings of inadequacy.

If women do have to adopt multiple roles (e.g. home responsibilities on the one hand and work on the other), the basis on which they choose between them will increase the amount of stress they experience. Crouter (cited in Perry-Jenkins, Repetti & Crouter, 2000) found that mothers and fathers who described more pressure at work also reported more role overload and expressed a feeling of being overwhelmed by too many commitments. This sentiment often leads to mothers withdrawing from their families if they have experienced greater workloads or interpersonal stress. Statt (1994) indicates that there is thus clearly a self-selection factor involved in how and why people enter certain occupations or make certain life choices.

South Africa's economic and social climate has fostered a situation of families that have numerous children and where both parents need to go out and work. The problem is more pronounced for women, as 'man-time' and 'woman-time' is still far from equal. According to Ray and Miller (1994) 'man-time' involves using their personal life as support for the professional life. Women who work outside the home will add this role of work to their other duties and to the responsibilities of managing childcare, as well as carrying the major responsibility for traditional homemaking. This can potentially cause role conflict (Greenglass, Pantony & Burke cited in Ray & Miller, 1994).

Family roles, such as those of spouse, parent and caregiver are considered to be more demanding for women than men, and because of this, are more strongly related as a source of distress for women than for men (Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1999). This may be because of the gender differences in the care giving tasks in which women focus more on interpersonal aspects of care giving and provide more hands-on help regularly. Women caregivers may also receive less support and assistance from others than their male counterparts. In their role as mothers, the majority of women, besides care giving, pay a great deal of attention to and expend an enormous amount of energy on educating the children. Children expect their mothers to take care of their daily needs, to assist with their studies, and to be a tutor, a good friend and an emotional confidante (Fan & Gu, 2000). These roles in themselves are diverse and require time, energy and prioritising. Add to this role of a mother, the role of an employee, especially one that has chosen a non-traditional career, and it is almost inevitable that the multiplicity of roles results in role conflict and overload and would certainly have a negative impact on the individual.

The greater an individual's role demands and incompatibility, the greater the role strain and conflict that occurs. According to Goode (cited in Voydanoff and Donnelly, 1999), role conflict is positively related to psychological distress. The manifestations of role conflict, for women, are tension and uncertainties as a result of the divergent demands placed on them by their different roles (Redelinghuys, Botes & de Wet, 1999). Tension may be experienced because work schedules interfere with family life. The conditions of role conflict and role overload are likely to produce burnout symptoms for the individuals who experience them.

Role overload can be physical and mental and is defined as too much to do in the time available for it to be done. Faced with a role overload situation, the individual often has to take three factors into account, namely, quality, quantity and time. The choice will be among doing less work than is expected, doing the work at a lower standard, or taking more time in which to perform the functions (Statt, 1994). Time is usually taken as a given and therefore individuals make a choice between quality and quantity. Kraut (cited in Statt,

1994) indicates that people underestimate the amount of overload they are being subjected to and go on to treat this phenomenon as their sole responsibility.

The helping professions, of which the police force forms a part, provide a fertile ground for investigating the issues of home/work stress, role conflict and role overload because of the increase in female recruits, the increase in the crime situation, and the abundance of stressors that most human service professions face (Ray & Miller, 1994). Women who work in nontraditional occupations face multiple-role conflicts even if the jobs themselves do not call for multiple roles.

#### **2.4.6 Home/Work Stress**

Home/work stress can result when there is incompatibility of demands between an individual's home and work roles (Greenhaus & Beutell cited in Ray & Miller, 1994). When family and work demands clash, the home/work stress is likely to spill over into other spheres of an individual's life. Job stress may spill over into family and life events, or life changes may spill over into work (Sutherland & Cooper, 1990). A survey undertaken by Dickinson and Levy in 1999 produced findings that acknowledge this spillover concept. The findings indicated that parents' job stresses tended to spill over into their home lives and that their children felt the effects and began to worry about them. The various research findings seem to imply that there should be a greater understanding of the reciprocal relationship between the work and home environments.

David and Cooper (1983 cited in Sutherland & Cooper, 1990) state that empirical evidence indicates that the interface between home/work stress is a significant source of stress for both men and women. Differences do exist as a function of gender. Work/home stress generates role conflict, which can be defined as the extent to which demands and responsibilities in one role interfere with meeting the demands in the other role (Frone, 1999). This role conflict creates problems for integrating work and home life and, as is known, the relationship between work and family is neither simple nor linear.

There are numerous sources that are antecedents for home/work stress that threaten the individual's ability to cope. To understand the dynamics of work and home interaction, it is necessary to focus on specific aspects of work and family life (Gutek, Nakamura & Nieva cited in Widrich & Ortlepp, 1994). Perry-Jenkins et al. (2000) indicate that a substantial body of research suggests that chronic work and life stressors influence families when they cause feelings of overload or conflict between the roles of worker and family member. Statt (1994) indicates that certain occupations are inherently more stressful than others.

#### **2.4.6.1 Police Stress**

Sutherland and Cooper (1990) indicate that there is growing evidence that suggests that certain individuals, in various occupations, are exposed to unacceptable levels of stress. Dantzer (1987 cited in Anshel, 2000) states that law enforcement has been recognised as one of the most stressful occupations worldwide. On the positive side, the work offers variety, challenge, responsibility and service to the community. In addition to experiencing stressors in the work environment of the police force, there is often abusive treatment in the workplace and a general lack of support (Violanti cited in Anshel, 2000).

Police work includes sources of stress and thus necessitates the use of coping skills, especially among female officers. Female officers have to face the role conflict between home and work, conflicts at work, as well as sexist attitudes and sexual abuse. These latter sources of stress are because the police force is male dominated and the pervasive view is that female officers are not suited to operational police work. Personal dispositions, such as a police officer's personality, could influence a their perception.

Police officers enrol in their profession with pride and inherent altruistic enthusiasm. Brown (1999) claims that there is an incredible amount of pride that comes with being a police officer. When there is lack of support and empathy for the stressors that these individuals face daily, this disillusionment coupled with the effect of the stressors, can lead to anxiety and even

depression. Once these symptoms manifest themselves, the individual knows that there is very little tolerance in the work environment for the affliction of stress. As a result of the stressful experiences of police officers, they will think and act differently under less stressful situations, and if these sources of stress are on going and long-term, it will result in burnout.

## **2.5 SUMMARY**

The chapter has addressed the implications of a male-dominated work environment that women who enter non-traditional careers have to face. It operationalised the barriers by providing background information on how women entered the policing services both internationally and in South Africa. External career barriers that exist for these women at an organisational, societal and familial level were discussed. Aspects such as the glass ceiling phenomena, discrimination, multiple-role conflict, role overload, home/work stress and police stress, discouragement by others in choosing non-traditional jobs such as policing are very real aspects that hinder women, in advancing in their chosen career. The Employment Equity legislation as well as the SAPS initiatives to address gender inequality was reviewed. The Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) was examined, and provided a framework within which to address the perceptions of the women officers' career barriers. The self-efficacy construct, one of the primary variables of the SCT, was discussed in great depth to explain how verbal persuasion, emotional arousal, performance accomplishments and vicarious learning assist in forming an individual's self-efficacy beliefs, positively or negatively. The formation of these self-efficacy beliefs impacts the women's perceptions of their capabilities and is said to be considered as an internal [career] barrier that exists in individuals. Given the importance of expectations of self-efficacy in the initiation and persistence of behaviour, it follows that psychological interventions designed to change behaviour should be appropriately focused on strengthening expectations of personal efficacy (Hackett & Betz, 1981).

In light of the literature, the next chapter will discuss the method that was used to conduct the research on women officers' perception of internal and external career barriers.

## CHAPTER THREE - RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter outlines the method and instruments that were used to conduct this research, as well as how the data were analysed, and the ethical considerations that the researcher considered when conducting the research. The research participants were reviewed by outlining the target population and the sample. A description of the dominant-less-dominant research design follows, examining the survey and focus group data collection methods. Once the instruments and materials used to collect the data have been discussed, the chapter assesses how the quantitative and qualitative data were managed and interpreted. Ethical considerations in the research are also reviewed.

### 3.1 PARTICIPANTS

#### 3.1.1 Population

The population targeted in this study are all permanently employed female police officers of the South African Police Service (SAPS) from the rank of Sergeant (rank 6) to the rank of Director (rank 13). All the participants work in the Western Cape. The research was conducted within the following business units of the SAPS Western Cape Region: Forensic Science Laboratory, Local Criminal Records Centre (LCRC), Organised Crime, Commercial Crime, Human Resources, Financial Services, Management Services, the Dog Unit and the Operational Response Service (ORS).

The SAPS in the Western Cape employs 16 077 permanent police officers, of whom 4 925 (30.6%) are women (SAPS Western Cape Regional Equity Report, October - December 2003). Access to the population was obtained by making application, in writing, to the SAPS National Equity Director, and receiving written approval (see Appendix A). The Western Cape provincial racial composition of women in these ranks (6 - 13) is as follows: out of a complement of 2 088, 85 (4.1%) are African, 588 (28.2%) are Coloured, 13 (0.6%) are Indian, and 1 402 (67.1%) are White.

### **3.1.2 The Sample**

The sample selected for the survey and the focus groups consisted of women who are police officers in the South African Police Services (SAPS). Seventy-four survey questionnaires were distributed but only 68 participants responded fully. The 68 participants that completed the survey ranged in rank from Sergeant (rank 6) to Director (rank 13), and have been employed by the SAPS for a minimum of two years. The 12 focus group participants were selected from the 68 survey participants who had completed the questionnaires. The researcher asked each of the 68 women to participate in the focus group on a voluntary basis. Sixteen of the 68 women initially volunteered; however, four were unable to attend the focus group because of work commitments.

The researcher had gained access to the participants names via departmental contacts in the SAPS and contacted the women directly. Creswell (1994) calls this process a single stage sampling process. The individuals in the sample were randomly selected and all had an equal chance of being selected (Creswell, 1994). This enabled the research findings to be generalised to the entire population of female police officers in these ranks. This random sample was pre-defined on the basis of specific ranks (Sergeant to Director) and a minimum of two years tenure within SAPS. Fowler (cited in Creswell, 1994) classifies this as a stratified sample as these specific characteristics represented in the sample reflect the true characteristics of the population.

## **3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Combining quantitative and qualitative techniques within a single research design represents a methodological union between two divergent research traditions within social research (Wolff, Knodel & Sittitjai, 1993). The research used a mixed method approach called a dominant-less-dominant research design. This means that the researcher gathered and analysed the research data using surveys, and presented the results from the dominant paradigm, in this case a quantitative paradigm. A component of the data was collected by means of a focus group, a method from the less dominant qualitative paradigm, which helped to explain the survey findings. This is referred to as a

"between methods" approach that uses different methods in relation to the same object of study (Brannen, 1992).

The combined use of the methods in this single study ensured the convergence of the results, by using each method's complementary strengths to capitalise on the strengths of the different techniques (Bryman cited in Brannen, 1992; Creswell, 1994; Neuman, 2003). Brewer and Hunter (1989) indicated that employing a mixed research method can also add to the strength of the evidence and can neutralise bias inherent in any one particular method.

The methods were employed sequentially (Neuman, 2003), first the surveys and then the focus group. The use of the methods sequentially ensured that the survey findings informed the focus group questions, thereby adding scope and breadth to the study. It is, however, unusual for the qualitative work to be done as a follow-up to the main quantitative project. The purpose of the focus group in this study was to clarify and extend the survey findings (Brannen, 1992). Such use of focus groups after the survey provided insight into the questions that remained after extensive analysis of the survey data (Fuller, Vorakitphakatorn & Sermsi, 1993), corroborating the findings and exploring in greater depth the relationships suggested by the quantitative analysis (Wolff et al., 1993).

A better understanding of the women officers' perceptions was thus gained when the survey findings were linked to questions in the focus group, because the women provided the researcher with more meaningful information about their perceptions of careers in the SAPS. This enabled the researcher to check the possible eccentricities of a particular technique in order to assess if any inherent bias was present. This helped to explain the factors underlying the broad relationships that had been established by the survey (Bryman cited in Brannen, 1992).

Quantitative (survey) and qualitative (focus group) methods are not mutually exclusive, as the findings from one type of study can be checked against the

findings of the other type. The quantitative survey readily allowed the researcher to identify what the career barriers were, but was weak when it came to exploring the reasons for them being experienced. Combining the survey with the focus group helped to fill the gaps and provided an explanation of the perceived barriers. The survey research component strengthened the external validity of the study, whilst the focus group component, through its integrated design, reinforced internal validity and the extent to which the conclusions from the analysis are said to be true of the original study (Wolff et al., 1993).

### **3.2.1 Surveys**

Surveys, the paragon of quantitative analysis, emphasise measurement and standardisation (Wolff et al., 1993). This research paradigm is an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether generalisations of the theory hold true (Creswell, 1994). This study, however, is descriptive, as the perceptions of career barriers by the female police officers have clearly been described as the phenomenon being studied.

The Career Barriers Inventory – Revised (CBI-R) survey (Appendix B), which was used in this study, falls under the functionalist paradigm (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). It takes on the assumption that the reality of the social world is objective, composed of concrete, empirical artefacts and is independent from the researcher. Quantitative (survey) research is based on observations that are converted into discrete units and compared to other units via statistical analysis, whilst qualitative (focus group) research examines the participants' words in narrative or descriptive ways, taking into account the contextual meaning of the words (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

The survey attempted to understand the female police officers' perceptions of career barriers. It identified the relationships, measured and studied them and provided a quantitative description of the career barrier perceptions of a sample of female officers who had been chosen from the total population

(Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Fowler, 1993). This survey data had to be obtained by the researcher because it did not exist in one form or another prior to this survey, and because it looked specifically at the respondents' perception of career barriers for female police officers (Schnetler (ed.), 1989). Surveys are appropriate for research questions that explain self-reported beliefs, behaviours and opinions (Neuman, 2003).

The researcher used surveys to attempt to control bias and to keep her own values out of the study. She attempted to be objective in assessing the situation, despite being aware of the selection bias that occurs when conducting surveys. The benefit of having used a quantitative paradigm, like the survey, was that it offered a low-risk, fixed method of research that lacked ambiguity. It moreover accommodates time constraints associated with the research (Neuman, 2003). The CBI-R thus identified and obtained information of the women officers' perceived career barriers in a rapid turn-around time, and had a minimal impact on their day-to-day functions. The researcher was consequently able to identify generalisable attributes from a small group of individuals, given the size of the organisation in which the research was being conducted (Fowler, 1993).

In survey research, the researcher is not concerned with why an observed distribution exists, but merely with what the distribution looks like (Babbie, 1990). Its purpose is to generalise from the sample (68 female officers between ranks 6-13 in the SAPS, in the Western Cape) to the greater population of female officers in the SAPS as a whole. This was done so that inferences could be made about the female officers' characteristics, attitudes or behaviour in respect of their perceived barriers to advancement and the demands placed on them to perform within the SAPS. The most effective types of surveys ask respondents for their informed opinions based on personal experiences, background, expertise, or for facts about themselves (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995). This applied to the current survey as well.

### 3.2.1.1 Procedure

Prior to conducting the survey research, the researcher telephonically made individual appointments with the participants and used this opportunity to reiterate the purpose of the research to them. In addition, a cover letter (Appendix B) attached to the survey questionnaire, as recommended by Neuman (2003), was also used to explain the purpose of the research. This cover letter could be detached from the survey questionnaires so that respondents could keep it, as it contained the researcher's name and contact details, explained their role as participants and addressed how the information would be treated confidentially. Respondents could address their questions directly to the researcher (O'Brien, 1993). Whilst making appointments, the researcher gained verbal consent from each of the research participants by verbally communicating to them that their participation was voluntary and that they should not participate under duress or obligation. The researcher had to make appointments with the respondents so that she could distribute the survey, and so that they could complete it. This required her to make many repeated telephone calls, at different times of the day, to re-arrange the completion schedule to accommodate the participants' work schedules. Despite this being a costly and time-consuming exercise, it did help to improve the overall survey response rate (Neuman, 2003).

The CBI-R used structured questions for data collection with the intent of generalising from the sample to the population (Babbie, 1990). Cross-sectional research was thus conducted, as the data was collected at a single point in time when the researcher made appointments with individual or groups of women in the sample, administered the survey questionnaire to the participants, and remained in the sessions whilst they completed the questionnaire. The researcher's presence ensured a higher, more timeous rate of return of the questionnaires, assisted with the clarification of information and instructions, and allowed the researcher another opportunity to reassure participants that their information would be treated confidentially.

Seventy four female police officers from nine business units in the Western Cape participated in completing the Demographic Questionnaire, which was a

self-administered questionnaire (Fink, 1995). The researcher provided the respondents with information and instructions on completing the questionnaire, and thereafter a simple stimulus-response of the question/answer pattern occurred (Neuman, 2003). Closed questions were used because the results that these generated lend themselves more easily to statistical analysis and interpretation and because the respondents' expectations would be more clearly and less ambiguously spelled out (Fink, 1995). The demographic questionnaire (Appendix B) used in the current study generated both nominal and numerical types of answers, in that respondents were asked to name themselves as belonging to one or another category. Once the respondents had completed the questionnaire, they returned it to the researcher immediately.

On completion of the survey questionnaire, the researcher briefly reviewed the participants' responses to ensure that all the questions had been answered. Thereafter, she organised the data by allocating numerical values to the categorical demographic variables and, after completion, transferred the data into an Excel spreadsheet in preparation for the statistical analysis. The original questionnaires were then stored (Neuman, 2003). The researcher maintained methodical record-keeping, keeping track of each respondent's questionnaire by providing each completed questionnaire with an identification number. This helped the researcher to check each questionnaire against the list of sampled respondents (Neuman, 2003).

Of the 74 surveys that had been conducted, 68 (92%) were fully completed and returned. A response rate of 70 percent or more is considered very good, since the response rate is a measure of the researcher's success in persuading sample members to participate (Babbie, 1990). External factors, like the female officers being summoned to a meeting or called out to an investigation, at times caused them and the survey environment to be inaccessible or disrupted. This affected the response rate, and thus provision for this had to be made in the fieldwork programme. Another reason that aided the positive response rate was that the researcher had established her credibility early on in the research process, both verbally and in writing. She

did this by providing the national, provincial and business unit leaders and the participants with a brief overview of the purpose of her research, including the theory on career barriers that underlies the study, and mentioned some of the actual circumstances that prevailed in the organisation. This helped to create transparency around the research topic (Schnetler (ed.), 1989). However, non-response was not a major problem for the current survey research and since only six (8%) of the respondents did not respond, the researcher is able to generalise the results (Neuman, 2003).

### **3.2.2 Focus Groups**

Focus groups are a structured research technique of interviewing that collects data through the simultaneous interaction of small groups about the topic of study (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995). They provide access to forms of data that are not obtained easily through other research methods (Morgan, 1997). The purpose of using the focus group in this study was to obtain in-depth, rich, experience-based views about the female officers' perceptions, attitudes and opinions of the career barriers that they face in the SAPS. Maykut and Morehouse (1994) indicate that personal meaning is tied to context, and thus it follows that the qualitative research (focus group) will produce contextual findings. Group interviews are an effective and relatively inexpensive means of interviewing several persons at once (O'Brien, 1993). By combining this with the researcher's focus, it allowed the process to produce concentrated amounts of data in an efficient way. Focus groups can, however, never claim to be representative of the much larger, inferential population studied by surveys (Wolff, 1993).

The focus group discussions were able to complement the survey data because they were conducted after the survey results had been analysed. This was particularly valuable because of the exploratory aspects of the follow-up data collection (Morgan, 1997), and was also used to enhance comparability between qualitative and quantitative analysis (Wolff et al., 1993). The focus group ensured that the researcher obtained as complete a picture of participants' thinking as possible, rather than simply relying on her assumptions about what was relevant. It furthermore allowed her to hear the

richly contrasting viewpoints that became evident when group members reacted to each other's comments (O'Brien, 1993), which gave depth to the research findings. The addition of the focus group thus allowed the researcher to examine the perceptions and reasons behind the information gathered in the survey (Wolff, 1993). Instead of the researcher assuming to know the answers, she used the focus group to ask the participants why they responded in that way (Morgan, 1997), and this enhanced the survey research findings.

Burrell and Morgan (1979) identified and defined four paradigms consisting of diverging meta-theoretical assumptions that may dictate the researcher's frame of reference, mode of theorising and action plan. The origins (epistemology) of focus group research is located in the subjective (anti-positivist) paradigm, which understands the social world from the point of view of the women officers that were directly involved in the research, and this focus is considered relativistic (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The researcher investigated the relationship between the participants and the environment in which they work, and realised that the participants are the controllers of the research environment, perceptions and experiences. The relationship is moderated because the researcher's own experiences of career barriers have also been encountered in the organisational setting. This type of relationship with the environment, in which the participants exist, assumes the human nature debate, which indicates that the women officers' interact autonomously with their environment (Klein, Dansereau & Hall, 1994).

The ontological view expressed by this research is that reality is the product of the participants' minds (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The researcher gained insight by occupying the individual's frame of reference, and observed the labels that they attached to concepts that created some structure or sense of how reality is determined through their experience of gender equity and perceived career barriers within the SAPS. This view of reality denotes that a nominalist position was assumed.

An idiographic approach to the study was employed (Burrell & Morgan, 1979) since the social world can only be understood by obtaining first-hand knowledge from the women officers about their personal perceptions of career barriers. The researcher thus built rapport with participants and gained insight from the individual's perspective and experience (Bryman, 1992); the rapport-building had already commenced with these focus group participants, whom the researcher had met whilst conducting the surveys. Qualitative data, with its emphasis on the participants' "lived experience", is well suited for locating the meanings that people place on events, processes and structures in their lives (Miles & Huberman, 1994). To avoid research biases and fallacies, the researcher ensured that the levels of theory, measurement and data analysis were congruent (Klein et al., 1994). This means that the researcher had to ensure that data collection, analysis and interpretation focused on the level of the individual and on their particular views and experiences.

Before conducting the focus group discussion, an outline (Appendix C) was prepared to address procedural issues and questions to guide the focus group interview (O'Brien, 1993). The structure of the discussion questions was influenced by the significant findings from the survey, which participants had completed the week before. The researcher used the guide as a resource to maintain the balance between the researcher's focus and the natural flow of the group's discussion (Morgan, 1997). The structure that the guide imposed on the discussion helped the researcher to channel the group interaction and to make comparisons in the analysis phase. Morgan (1998) recommends that a flexible format be used to organise the guide around a set of discussion topics that were only loosely phrased as questions.

Questions to guide the focus group interview were prepared in an open-ended, logical sequence (Appendix C). The questions started at a general level and then moved gradually to more specific aspects of the topic being probed (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995). The researcher paid close attention to the physical setting in which the focus group was held. To ensure that the environment met the participants' expectations, a conference room at one of the SAPS offices, which could adequately accommodate twelve participants, was used. As a

result of the room being spacious and out of the direct traffic of the normal office, this helped to make the participants feel more comfortable and thus generated meaningful information.

The process of recruiting participants for the focus group was time-consuming. Locating participants and getting them to show up was often not sufficient. It was essential to develop procedures that ensured that enough participants would in fact turn up on the day (Morgan, 1998). The researcher rigorously planned the participant numbers, the structure of the session and the venue. Appointments to confirm participation were made telephonically and follow-up telephone calls were made two days before the focus group as well as on the day, to ensure that the female officers were still available to participate. Logistical issues also had to be taken into consideration in this regard, as it was not practical for participants to travel too far to attend the focus group (Morgan, 1997). The geographical area over which the participants were spread, however, made it difficult to assemble enough of the right participants for the group, and therefore, in the end, only one large focus group was held.

This group consisted of twelve participants and one researcher. Focus groups typically bring together a small number of participants from a well-defined target population to discuss a set of pre-selected topics under the guidance of a trained researcher (Wolff et al., 1993). The participants were randomly selected from among the survey respondents based on them volunteering to participate, on convenience and on their suitability to contribute to the group discussion. The sample consisted of female officers of the SAPS and was relatively homogeneous with regard to their background information. This segmented approach to sampling allowed for more free flowing conversations among the participants (Morgan, 1997), because the group was more homogeneous in background. This led to a productive discussion that left the participants feeling that they were able to talk to each other openly and honestly.

The two-and-a-half hour session started with the researcher reading a statement of voluntary informed consent and stating the purpose of the

session. The researcher established and communicated ground rules, which included that all the participants need to speak in the session, that everyone's opinions had to be respected, that no interruptions should occur whilst others were speaking, and that they were permitted to build on the thoughts of others in the group. The researcher told the participants that she was there to learn more about their perceptions and experiences. To maximise the participants' responses (O'Brien cited in Morgan, 1993), the researcher stated that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions. She was interested in the participants' own perceptions and experiences and she wanted as many diverse perspectives as possible.

Thereafter, each participant briefly introduced herself to the group, which helped them to feel at ease and set the tone for actively speaking during the rest of the focus group session (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995). The researcher posed sets of questions in a funnelling sequence by beginning with general questions before moving into the specific interest areas (O'Brien, 1993). The structure facilitated transitions between questions and thus the discussion flowed smoothly. Successful groups discussed a range of topics that not only covered the issues that the researcher already knows to be important, but also brings up issues that the researcher does not anticipate (Morgan, 1997).

It was important to maintain the focus within the time frame of the session and not to explore too many topics (Morgan, 1997). The researcher thus followed a systematic process that allowed participants to become familiar with the topic, gave each individual a chance to recollect personal opinions and to listen to the opinions of others, whilst containing the discussion in the allotted time frame. Kreuger (1998) supports the less controlled process that focus groups use to generate data, indicating that participants tend to share very personal views and experiences in a group setting, especially when they feel comfortable with other similar participants. Where the discussion digressed, the researcher stepped in to summarise the discussion, to check if participants had anything further to say on the question and, if not, to introduce the next question. The researcher introduced general issues from the guidelines for discussion and probed or interjected to make sure that the group covered all

the essential points and to keep the conversation focused. The transcript records revealed that there was nonetheless considerable scope for free discussion on the issues, unsolicited opinions and unanticipated responses (Wolff et al., 1993).

Leadership of the focus group was important because the focus group session was a less structured and more fluid data collection method (Kreuger, 1998) than the administered surveys had been. The researcher ensured that she remained non-judgemental, created a supportive group atmosphere and listened well, observing both verbal and non-verbal behaviour of participants. To encourage the fluidity of the discussion, the researcher asked relevant questions that arose from the survey results and, as the focus group discussion unfolded. The discussion was summarised as the group progressed. The group discussion was repeatedly directed towards specificity of the participants' experiences (Morgan, 1997).

The group discussion was audio-taped and compiled into typed transcripts in order for the data to be properly analysed. Adequate equipment was made available to audio-tape and clearly captured all the meaningful discussions that took place in the focus group. The researcher briefed participants about recording their responses before commencing the session and obtained their verbal consent, which was recorded, and explained that they would hardly notice the recording equipment once the discussion was underway. The obtrusiveness of the taping did indeed rapidly diminish as the participants became more engaged with the questions (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995).

The individual and personal perceptions of participants were rooted in their individual experiences. Until they interacted with others on the topic, the participants had been unaware of their own implicit perspectives with regard to career barriers (Morgan, 1997). In the discussion, they thus responded to one another's experiences with reports of their own, quite different experiences, allowing the researcher to discover information that might not have come up in one-on-one sessions or surveys. The comparisons that participants made about each other's experiences and opinions are a valuable source of insight

into the complex behaviours and motivations of individuals (Morgan, 1997). Interaction was generally two-way between the researcher and the participants, but the group members also interacted with each other. At the end of the session, when the questioning was complete, the researcher briefly summarised the main discussion points and thanked the participants for their involvement.

### **3.3 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

The study used a Demographic Questionnaire, especially designed for the purpose of the study to gather data about the participant's demographic details. The Career Barriers Inventory - Revised (Swanson et al., 1996) was also used as a survey questionnaire for the purpose of identifying the women officers' perceived career barriers.

#### **3.3.1 The Demographic Questionnaire**

The Demographic Questionnaire consisted of nine questions and was designed by the researcher to obtain demographic data relevant to the sample description - age, race, marital status, number of children, children's ages, rank, business unit location, educational level and tenure.

#### **3.3.2 Career Barriers Inventory-Revised (CBI-R)**

The Career Barriers Inventory - Revised (CBI-R), a structured instrument, was used to obtain data about the perceived career barriers amongst female police officers in the sample. According to Hackett and Lomberg (cited in Swanson et al., 1996), this inventory has been increasingly recognised as a useful instrument in research regarding the potential role of perceptions as a barrier in career choice. However, the instrument has undergone several revisions and a brief overview of the preceding versions of this tool – the CBI and Career Barriers Inventory - Short (CBI-S) – will be discussed.

##### **3.3.2.1 Description**

The Career Barriers Inventory (CBI) (Swanson & Tokar 1991b, cited in Swanson et al., 1996) is a self-report instrument designed to tap into the career barriers construct from different career related perspectives (e.g.

choosing a career, job performance, discrimination). The initial pool of 112 CBI items (Swanson & Tokar, 1991a cited in Swanson et al., 1996) was derived from a thorough review of relevant empirical and theoretical literature on perceptions of barriers to career development (Farmer, 1976; Harmon, 1977; Matthews & Tiedeman, 1964; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; O'Leary, 1974; Russell & Rush, 1987; Swanson & Tokar, 1991a, cited in Swanson et al., 1996). Participants in the initial CBI sample were 313 female and 245 male college students who rated the potential impact on their careers of each of the 112 barriers, using a seven-point Likert-type scale. Responses spanned a continuum of answers from 'would not hinder at all' to 'would completely hinder' (Swanson et al., 1996). The questionnaire was an abbreviated attitude scale that consisted of a collection of statements about an individual's attitudinal perspective (Welman & Kruger, 1999).

The CBI measure represents a comprehensive, psychometrically sound tool for the assessment of career-related barriers and for the future investigation of the relationship of perceptions of barriers to other career-related constructs (e.g., career indecision, self-esteem, self-efficacy expectations). As a result of the original version of the CBI being too long and time-consuming and because the item content of several scales needed to be revised, a revised version, the CBI-Short (CBI-S), was developed. This version contained 84 items, with 16 scales and randomisation of the order of the items in the instrument (Swanson et al., 1996).

Currently the CBI-Revised (CBI-R) is in use. It was further reduced to shorten and strengthen the many scales in the previous versions. Swanson et al. (1996) indicate that it evolved so that the rational aspects of content and definition of the scales were considered on an equal footing with the empirical considerations.

The CBI-R used an ordinal response type, as respondents were asked to rank their perceptions about the various questions as either hindering their career or not (Fink, 1995). The CBI-R continued to use behaviourally anchored rated scales (BARS) to answer the questions. The instrument required participants

to use their judgement, which came from personal experience or observation, not opinions that they received from others, such as reports in the media, and rank their alternatives along an imaginary continuum (Neuman, 2003; Witkin & Altschuld, 1995).

The CBI-R consists of 70 items scored on 13 scales. The Sex Discrimination scale consists of seven items and reflects several aspects of sex discrimination, including barriers to financial impact and workplace climate. The Lack of Confidence scale consists of four items that are directly related to confidence and self-esteem. The Multiple-Role Conflict scale consists of eight items and includes items that are of a more general nature. The Conflict between Children and Career Demands scale contains seven items that relate to balancing work responsibilities with child-rearing responsibilities. The Racial Discrimination scale contains six items and focuses on broader aspects of racial discrimination. The Inadequate Preparation scale, referring to a more internal barrier, consists of five items that focuses on an individual's perception of being inadequately prepared for their job. The Disapproval by Significant Others scale consists of three items and addresses different sources of disapproval about an individual's career choice from their partner, parents or friends. Decision-Making Difficulties, a scale consisting of eight items, reflects an individual's indecision. The Dissatisfaction with Career scale consists of five items and reflects an individual's dissatisfaction, boredom and disappointment in their career progress. The Discouraged from Choosing a Non-traditional Career scale consists of five items, and suggests that support from significant others is critical in the pursuit of a non-traditional career. The Disability / Health Concerns scale consists of three items, which focus on whether the occurrence of a disability limits an individual's career choice. The Job Market Constraints scale consists of four items and reflects barriers related to a tight job market and to future employment prospects. Finally, the Difficulties with Networking / Socialisation scale consists of five items and was added to address issues related to work adjustment and socialisation (Swanson et al., 1996).

### **3.3.2.2 Psychometric Properties**

The psychometric adequacy of the original 18 CBI and CBI-S scales was evaluated through reliability analysis of each scale, scale inter-correlations and item-scale inter-correlations (Swanson et al., 1996). As a result, it underwent rigorous restructuring and factor analyses. In the original 18-scale version of the CBI, several of the longer and very short scales were identified for further evaluation and revision. The longer scales had alpha coefficients exceeding .90 and the very short scales had alpha coefficients lower than .60 (Swanson et al., 1996).

Items of the CBI-S were evaluated based on item-scale correlations, item inter-correlations within scales and item content. A series of factor analyses were conducted to examine the underlying structure of the CBI-S (Swanson et al., 1996). The means, standard deviations and alpha coefficients of the CBI-R, were derived from a sample of 100 college students (Swanson et al., 1996). The internal characteristics of the CBI-R ranged from .64 to .86, with a median of .77 (Swanson et al., 1996). Inter-correlations among the CBI-R scales were generally high, ranging from .27 to .80, with a median of .60. The CBI-R scales showed expected group differences that contribute to its validity. These differences occurred between men and women and between members of racial-ethnic majority and minority groups (Swanson et al., 1996). Data related to the demographic characteristics of sex and race or ethnicity showed expected relationships to CBI scales, and provided the strongest and most consistent evidence for the construct validity of the CBI. Women typically scored higher on a number of CBI scales, indicating greater perceptions of barriers. Significant racial differences also emerged on 8 of the 13 CBI-R scales (Swanson et al., 1996).

## **3.4 DATA ANALYSIS**

The data analysis firstly reviewed the quantitative (survey) data and thereafter the qualitative (focus group) data as the survey findings were used to inform the researcher about which questions needed to be asked in the focus group. Information was reported about the number of returns and non-returns of the survey, the response bias that may have occurred, a descriptive analysis of the

variables – reporting the means, standard deviations and range of scores – and the statistical package and tests used to analyse the data. Within the section reviewing the qualitative data, the noting of themes will be discussed, which includes the use of clustering and counting as a method.

### **3.4.1 Analysis of Quantitative Data**

Quantitative analysis is grounded in well-defined statistical procedures. With the CBI-R survey, respondents were asked to select a number on a scale that represented their point of view. The number became a symbol of reality and the basis of analysis (Kreuger, 1998). Once the survey data had been collected, demographic items were coded and entered into an Excel spreadsheet in preparation for statistical analysis. Numerical values were attached to the categories of the categorical variables (race, marital status, children's ages, rank, business unit and academic qualifications). These numerical values have no numerical significance and serve only to indicate the various categories (Schnetler (ed.), 1989). Each row of the Excel matrix represented a woman officer's response, each column represented a career barrier question and demographic variable, and each cell in the matrix represented the coded attribute or rating of a particular variable and question. At this point, the researcher considered what types of descriptive and inferential statistics would be most appropriate for the analysis of the survey data.

The researcher's quest was to build on the assumption that the CBI-R scale was an appropriate instrument to measure perceived career barriers. The Cronbach Co-efficient Alpha Reliability statistic was used to confirm the reliability of the items measuring the thirteen-career barrier scales (Table 1). A reliability co-efficient of 0.7 was used to indicate that the researcher could rely on the items mentioned in Table 1 to measure the respective variables. All but one of the scales (Disapproval by Significant Others) proved to be reliable. This finding was further probed in the focus group discussion and the findings will be outlined in the Discussion chapter.

**Table 1: Reliability of Scales**

<b>Career Barrier Inventory (CBI-R) Scales</b>	<b>Applicable Survey Questions</b>	<b>Cronbach Alpha Reliability Score</b>
Sexual Discrimination (SD)	7, 26, 43, 46, 48, 49, 63	.91
Lack of Confidence (LC)	18, 21, 41, 45	.84
Multiple-role Conflict (MRC)	4, 11, 17, 28, 40, 44, 60, 69	.85
Conflict between Children and Career Demands (CCC)	2, 15, 19, 23, 33, 37, 53	.86
Racial Discrimination (RD)	3, 12, 24, 36, 51, 54	.88
Inadequate Preparation (IP)	29, 35, 58, 62, 66	.91
Disapproval by Significant Others (DSO)	20, 47, 70	.67
Decision-making Difficulties (DMD)	1, 5, 14, 27, 38, 39, 55, 59	.90
Dissatisfaction with Career (DC)	9, 22, 30, 32, 57	.73
Discouraged from choosing Non-traditional Careers (DNC)	10, 31, 52, 64, 67	.76
Disability / Health Concerns (DHC)	6, 13, 25	.83
Job Market Constraints (JMC)	16, 34, 56, 68	.78
Difficulties with Networking/Socialising (DNS)	8, 42, 50, 61, 65	.74

Once the reliability of the factors had been confirmed, the researcher applied descriptive statistics and frequency distributions to the demographic variables (Appendix D, Tables 2 - 10). The researcher analysed and compared the continuous variables (age, tenure and number of children), using descriptive statistics to illuminate its main features (Schnetler, 1989), which required reviewing the means, medians, standard deviations and ranges of these variables. The categorical demographic variables were analysed by reviewing the modes of each variable in the frequency distributions. The mode is often used to review how different categories of values are distributed in the sample.

Descriptive statistics are a medium for describing quantitative data in manageable forms by reducing the data from unmanageable details to manageable summaries (Babbie, 1990).

Histograms were used to analyse the categorical variables; when analysing whether the distribution was normal, the researcher looked at the shape of the expected normal lines (Appendix E). The researcher identified that an analysis of variance (ANOVA) could be used to analyse the demographic variables in relation to the career barrier variables, if it was considered that all the distribution observations were approximately normal. Correlation statistics were used to analyse the strength of the relationship between the career barriers and age, tenure and number of children, respectively (Appendix F, Table 11).

The purpose of the ANOVA analysis was to test for the significant differences between each of the nine demographic variables of the sample and the thirteen career barrier scales. The participants' demographic variables were combined into the appropriate groups into which they fell representing an independent variable – for example, age, rank, number of children – and the extent to which the groups differed from one another was analysed in terms of the thirteen career barrier scales. The extent to which the groups differed was compared with the standard of random distribution (Babbie, 1990). When analysing the survey data, the researcher was interested in the relationship between the independent variables (demographic variables) of the survey sample and the dependant variables (career barrier variables) (Rea & Parker, 1992).

The ANOVA represented the measurement of the extent to which the values in the set of data being analysed were clustered close to the mean, or ranged very high or low away from it. The researcher considered a finding to be statistically significant when the standard significance value was  $\leq$  five percent (0.05). The F-test was used to analyse the continuous demographic variables (age, number of children and tenure), and to determine whether the findings were significant. In order for the researcher to determine the

significance of these variables, the p-values in the F-tests were observed: where the p-value indicated  $< 5\%$ , the findings were significant, and where it indicated  $< 1\%$ , the findings were very significant (Appendix G, Tables 12, 13 & 14). The Scheffé test, which is considered to be one of the most conservative post hoc tests, was run after the ANOVA statistics had been obtained, and it was used to determine the significant differences between the group means in the ANOVA setting. This test provided the researcher with information about the levels of difference that woman officers perceived between the different age groups, differing numbers of children, tenure, marital status, etc. and the various career barriers (Appendix I, Tables 20 - 67). The significance of the findings will be addressed in the Results and Discussion chapters (Chapters 4 and 5 respectively).

Due to the limited size of the sample, factor analysis was not used (Babbie, 1990). T-Tests were not applicable for the analysis of the data in the current research, as such statistical measures are used to compare the means of two groups, which was not a requirement of this research. The effect of the non-responses on the survey estimates resulted in very little response bias. In other words, even if these non-respondents had responded, their responses would not have substantially changed the overall survey results (Creswell, 1994). This enabled the researcher to generalise the survey results to the wider population (Neuman, 2003).

#### **3.4.2 Analysis of Qualitative Data**

The survey findings and analysis identified significant information about the women officers' perceived career barriers. These findings were used to inform the construction of the focus group questions. By incorporating a focus group into an integrated research design with a major quantitative component (survey method), the quality of the resulting analysis was enhanced and the confidence that was placed in it provided enlightenment and a richer interpretation of the findings (Kreuger, 1998; Wolff et al. cited in Morgan (ed.), 1993).

After the focus group session had been completed, the researcher reflected on the discussion that had taken place, the themes that had arisen, and the unanticipated areas that had been mentioned, and made brief notes on these. Debriefing as close to the focus group as possible enables the researcher to capture immediate reactions, perceptions of points and notable quotes, and provides helpful insights for later analysis steps (Kreuger, 1998). Prior to the transcript analysis, a provisional list of descriptive codes or themes was created, having been obtained from previous literature and studies (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and from the survey findings. Once the audio-tapes had been transcribed, a second stage of analysis occurred. The dominant language used in the focus group session had been Afrikaans, with the researcher and some participants using a mixture of English and Afrikaans when they spoke, in order to express themselves more fluently. This necessitated the researcher translating the focus group transcripts into English before the data could be analysed, in order to follow the discussion to detect and locate the themes and categories of ideas which the officers might not have consciously been aware of. Particular words or phrases that were used to describe career barrier perceptions and experiences were listed and grouped together on the basis of similarity. These concepts were summarised in the transcript margins and listed together in a process that Miles and Huberman (1994) called clustering. Categories were thereafter examined for the possible formation of sub-categories, as well as for the dominant perceptions of the participants (O'Brien, 1993).

Once the focus group data had been coded, the researcher decided on the level of importance of the different kinds of information. Not only did she consider the participants' words and the context in which they were said, but also how frequently the same information recurred within the group. Morgan (1998) indicates that the extent of certain comments and the specificity of participants' responses are indicative of the level of importance of the information.

By employing the process of making counts, comparisons and weights, the researcher could decide which themes were recurrent or significant. This

process aided the researcher in clarifying what career barrier information was present and occurred in large quantities of data, and assisted in verifying hunches and in keeping the researcher analytically honest (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researcher sought evidence of the same theme from different participants, whilst remaining open to disconfirming evidence. This process where recurring themes pull together separate pieces of information is called pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The analysis aimed to depict the reality of the perceived career barriers construct as understood and perceived by the officers' themselves. Analysis is directly related to the questions asked in the focus group (Kreuger, 1998). In analysing the data, responses that were specific and based on experiences were given more weight than responses that were vague and impersonal. This helped in interpreting the data and gave meaning to what was said. Interpreting the data from the focus group required the researcher to distinguish between what participants found interesting and what they found important (Morgan, 1997). A lengthy but relevant discussion indicated to the researcher that the officers found specific issues both interesting and important for themselves and the research.

The researcher tried to explain the unusual perceptions that arose during the discussion, as well as those perceptions that were only shared by a minority. When alternative perceptions or even no interpretations of the perceptions expressed emerged, this was not seen as an indication that the information being provided was weak. Some cases presented no unifying explanation of participants' views, except that the participants expressed differing views. Kreuger (1998) supports this view by indicating that the absence of patterns can be a meaningful discovery in itself. Identifying the themes in the focus group discussion helped the researcher determine focus group outcomes for the final discussion.

During the collection and analysis of the research data, the researcher was constantly aware of the sensitivity of the research information and the ethical

considerations that had to be maintained. The following section provides details of these aspects in the research.

### **3.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN THE RESEARCH**

An important consideration that the researcher was aware of when conducting the research was the sensitivity of the focus of inquiry within the SAPS about perceived career barriers. 'Sensitive research' is defined by Renzetti and Lee (1993) as research that potentially poses a threat for those involved in it. Sensitivity, as referred to here, affected almost every stage of the research process. At the numerous stages of gaining access at a provincial level, the researcher repeatedly had to explain and describe the purpose of her research to male decision-makers at various levels. The male decision-makers tended to directly hold the view that the current research was about Equity, or they drew this conclusion through their inferences, and they wanted to ensure that their respective units would not be singled out as not addressing the gender discrepancies within the SAPS business units being studied.

There are a number of areas of this study, where the research was seen to be threatening. Firstly, despite the participants' anonymity when completing the survey, the outcomes associated with the research in this study could be considered threatening because of their potential impact on the political alignment of and the organisational culture within the SAPS. However, confidentiality was still maintained in the focus group since the participants shared that they were comfortable with the researcher and the other participants in the group. Another ethical issue to be considered was the invasion of the participants' privacy when the researcher asked about and tape-recorded their personal beliefs or perceptions in both the surveys and the focus group. Issues of invasion of privacy are especially important whenever taping is a source of primary data collection (Morgan, 1997).

The researcher was provided with sensitive information once mutual trust had been established and the participants believed that their responses would be treated confidentially (Neuman, 2003). Research participants expect their rights to privacy, confidentiality, informed consent and anonymity to be

protected. They agreed to participate voluntarily by providing both their line manager and the researcher with verbal informed consent. This meant that the researcher had to be aware and sensitive, for ethical reasons, of any possible threat to the participants during the survey and focus group session, and to adjust the process if required (Kvale, 1996). In this research, however, no adjustments of the research process were necessary, as the participants did not indicate that they were feeling threatened in any way.

### **3.6 SUMMARY**

In conclusion, this chapter provided insight into the sample being researched and into the dominant-less-dominant research design that was selected to gather the data. The focus group session enhanced the findings of the survey and added rich descriptive meaning to the survey results. By carefully choosing the appropriate research design and using a mixed method approach, the researcher was able to address how the two methods used complemented each other and enhanced the research findings. Finally, the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data were discussed and the methods and instruments used to interpret the relevant data for the study were explained. The following chapter will record the results of the research.

## CHAPTER FOUR – RESULTS

This chapter outlines the results of the survey and the focus group in relation to the aims of the current study. Firstly, it highlights the findings of the descriptive statistics by outlining the demographic information. This is followed by the survey's statistical findings and the central themes from the focus group, which were thematically analysed. The implications of these results are discussed in the next chapter. The data obtained from the Demographic Questionnaire and the Career Barriers Inventory - Revised (CBI-R) (Swanson et al., 1996) was statistically analysed by using the Statistica Version Six statistical package. Alpha level .05 was selected *a priori* for tests of significance.

### 4.1 SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

This section presents the findings of the demographic data gathered from the women police officers in the survey questionnaire (n=68) and the focus group (n=12).

#### 4.1.1 Survey Sample

The sample of the women officers (n=68) was distributed in the Western Cape SAPS business units, which were represented in the study, include the following:

- three (4.4%) within the Forensic Science Laboratory,
- five (7.4%) within the Dog Unit,
- twelve (17.6%) within the Commercial Crime unit,
- two (2.9%) within Organised Crime,
- fifteen (22.1%) within the Operational Response Unit (ORS),
- fourteen (20.6%) within Human Resources,
- seven (10.3%) within Management Services,
- two (2.9%) within Financial Services, and
- eight (11.8%) within the Local Criminal Record Centre (LCRC).

The sample of women officers represents ranks within the SAPS from Sergeant to Director (6-13). Six (8.8%) of the women hold the rank of

Sergeant (6), 30 (44.1%) are Captains (7), 17 (25%) are Inspectors (8), five (7.4%) are Superintendents (9) and ten (14.7%) of the women hold the rank of Senior Superintendents (10) (Table 8). The rank distribution sample suggests that the women in the sample are poorly represented at the higher echelons of the SAPS. The majority (77.9%) of the female officers fill positions at the lower ranks of Sergeant, Captain and Inspector. The women officers' academic qualifications range from a standard eight certificate to a masters degree. One (1.5%) of the women has a standard eight certificate, 30 (44.1%) of the officers have a standard ten qualification, nine (13.2%) of the women have a business college diploma, 16 (23.5%) hold a national diploma from a technikon. Four (5.9%) of the women officers have obtained a university bachelors degree, five (7.4%) have an honours degree, two (2.9%) have a university masters degree and one (1.5%) has obtained a police administration qualification within the SAPS (Table 10).

The women who participated in the study ranged in age from 26 to 45 years old with a mean age of 34.4. The sample statistically displayed a standard deviation of 4.45, a median of 35 and a mode of 35 years (Appendix D, Table 2). Nine of the women in the sample are 35 years old. Their ages were distributed across the age groups in the sample as follows: 13 (19.1%) of the women fell into the age range 25 to 30 years, 28 (41.2%) fell into the age range 31 to 35, 21 (30.9%) are in the age range 35 to 40 years and six (8.8%) are between 40 to 45 years old (Table 3).

The racial groups represented are classified according to the previous political dispensation. This information is relevant to the research because the SAPS had previously utilised the racial classification of people, and women were thus discriminated against both in terms of their gender and their race. This historical practice of racial and gender discrimination has resulted in fewer Coloured, African and Indian women being employed and experiencing more disadvantages to career opportunities and advancement in the SAPS. The current racial composition of the sample reflects this phenomenon. Of the women in the sample, 55 (80.8%) of them are White, four (5.9%) are African, eight (11.8%) are Coloured, and one (1.5%) is Indian (Table 6). The SAPS is currently concerned with the lack of career advancement and the high turnover of women, especially of Coloured, African and

Indian women, amongst the ranks six to thirteen, and the racial distribution in the study indeed confirms that concern.

The officers' tenure ranges from two to 23 years service. The descriptive statistics for these women representing tenure, display a mean of 14.4, with a standard deviation of 5.2. The median was 14 and the mode was 13 years (Table 2). Eleven of the women have worked for the SAPS for 14 years. Five (7.4%) of the officers in the sample have worked for the SAPS between zero and five years, eight (11.8%) of them have worked between five and ten years, 26 (38.2%) have worked between ten and fifteen years, 23 (33.8%) have worked between 15 and 20 years and six (8.8%) have worked between 20 and 25 years (Table 5). The results indicate that long tenure seems to be common among the women officers in the sample.

The literature indicates that for women, having to balance multiple roles (being married, having children, working) serves as a career barrier and is a major stressor in their lives. In the study, 18 (26.5%) of the women are single, seven (10.3%) of the women are divorced, whilst 43 (63.2%) women are married (Table 7). From the sample, 28 (41.2%) of the women do not have any children, 13 (19.1%) women have one child, 23 (33.8%) of the women have two children, three (4.4%) of the women have four children and one (1.5%) woman in the sample has five children (Table 4). The descriptive statistics representing the number of children amongst the women officers are represented by a mean of 2.05 with a standard deviation of 1.03, a median of 2 and a mode of 1 (Table 2).

#### **4.1.2 Focus Group Sample**

The ages of the women officers in the focus group sample (n=12) ranged from 27 to 37 years old with a mean of 32.8, a standard deviation of 4, a median of 32 and a mode of 37 years. Five of the women in the group were 35 years old. In terms of racial make-up, seven (58.3%) of the twelve women were White, two (16.7%) were African and three (25%) were Coloured.

Two (16.7%) of the women in the group are single, two (16.7%) are divorced and eight (66.6%) are married. The number of children that the women in the focus

group have ranges from zero to two. The descriptive statistics for the number of children represents a mean of 1.08, with a standard deviation of 0.90, and a median of 1. Five of the children are aged two. This is relevant to the study because the construct of multiple role conflict indicates that having children, especially young children, adds to women's other roles of worker and spouse and takes away time from their other roles. This necessitates that women have to balance their time more effectively because younger children require more attention and time from the women, which brings about conflict between their other roles.

The women in the focus group have worked for the SAPS from between two to twenty years. The tenure statistics display a mean of 12.75, with a standard deviation of 5.80 and a median of 13. Three of the twelve women in the group have worked for the SAPS for 13 years. Two (16.7%) of the women hold the rank of Sergeant, seven (58.3%) are Captains and three (25%) are Inspectors.

The sample of the women officers (n=12) in the focus group is distributed across the Western Cape SAPS business units, as follows:

- Two (16.7%) of the women work in the Forensic Science Laboratory,
- one (8.3%) in Commercial Crime,
- four (33.4%) in ORS,
- two (16.7%) work in Human Resources,
- one (8.3%) works in Management Services,
- one (8.3%) in Financial Services and,
- one (8.3%) in the Local Criminal Record Centre (LCRC).

In terms of educational qualifications, six (50%) women in the group have a standard ten certificate, five (41.7%) have a national technikon diploma and one (8.3%) has a masters degree.

## **4.2 SURVEY FINDINGS**

This section presents the results of the relationship between each of the thirteen career barrier scales identified by the CBI-R and the demographic variables. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistics, the F-test and the Scheffé test were used

to analyse the relationships between the demographic variables (race, marital status, rank, business unit and academic qualifications) and each of the thirteen career barrier variables. The same statistics were used to analyse the continuous demographic variables (age, number of children and tenure) and the thirteen career barrier variables, respectively. This was done to determine whether the findings were significant or not.

The Scheffé test was run after the analysis of variance and F-test statistics were obtained to determine the significant differences between the group means in the ANOVA and F-test setting. This test provided the researcher with information about the levels of difference that woman officers' perceived between the different age groups based on different numbers of children, tenure, marital status and academic qualifications and the various carriers barriers. However, the Scheffé test is considered to be one of the most conservative post hoc tests available and therefore, conservative statistics were produced about the levels of difference that the women officers' perceived between the different demographic variables and the respective career barriers. In some instances, contradicting findings are presented to those obtained from the ANOVA or F-test statistics. Correlation coefficients were used to identify the strength of the relationship between the female officers' ages, tenure and number of children and their respective career barriers. The following section will present the findings within the context of each of the career barriers.

## **4.2.1 INTERNAL BARRIERS**

### **4.2.1.1 Lack of Confidence (LC)**

The results in Table 16 show that there no significant relationship between marital status and Lack of Confidence (LC). However, for the analysis of variance women officers who either hold a university honours or a masters degree reported higher LC scores than those without these qualifications (Table 19). A further analysis using the Scheffé test did not indicate that women officers that hold a university honours or a masters degree reported higher LC scores than those without these qualifications (Table 54). Table 12 indicates that the age of the women officers reported higher LC scores than the other women in the sample. Table 13 indicates that women with many children also reported higher LC scores than the other

women in the sample. However, the results of the respective Scheffé tests for the women officers' age and number of children that they have did not report higher scores with LC (Table 20 & Table 42). A moderate and positive relationship was observed between the number of children and LC (Table 11), which indicates that the women perceive that the more children they have the greater their lack of confidence will be.

#### **4.2.1.2 Inadequate Preparation (IP)**

The findings in Table 16 indicate that marital status has significantly differentiated women officers as far as Inadequate Preparation (IP) is concerned. The Scheffé test results indicate that women officers who are married or living with their partner report higher IP scores than women who are separated, divorced or widowed (Table 32). This may show that these officers' perceive that being married or living together acts as a barrier to being sufficiently prepared for their career. Once again, women officers who either hold a technikon diploma or a university honours or masters degree were found to report higher IP scores than women without the above-mentioned qualifications (Table 19). Further analysis using the Scheffé test indicated that women officers who hold a business college diploma and a university bachelors degree were found to report higher IP scores than women who hold a university honours degree (Appendix I, Table 55). This reveals that women who hold a business college diploma or university bachelors degree perceive greater inadequate preparation for their career than those that hold a university honours degree. This has relevance to the study because it implies that lower levels of academic qualifications are perceived by the women as a career barrier.

Tables 12 and 13 report that differences in IP among women officers can also indicate the women officers' ages and to the fact that that they have more children than the other women in the sample. Table 11 indicates that there is a weak and positive relationship between the number of children and IP, indicating that the more children the women officers have, the more inadequately prepared they perceive themselves to be for their career. However, the conservative Scheffé test results do not reveal a significant difference based on the women's ages or the number of children the officers' have and IP, respectively (Tables 21 & 43).

## 4.2.2 EXTERNAL BARRIERS

### 4.2.2.1 Sex Discrimination (SD)

The F-test on differences in sex discrimination with regard to age and academic qualifications respectively was significant (Tables 12 & 19). In other words, the women's age and women officers who hold a university honours degree were found to report higher sex discrimination scores. A further analysis using the conservative, post hoc Scheffé test did not indicate that women officers' age or those that hold a university honours degree reported higher SD scores than those with varying ages or those without these qualifications, respectively (Tables 22 & 56). Referring to the results in the ANOVA as shown in Table 16, significant differences in sex discrimination (SD) in relation to marital status have been observed among women officers in the group. Although the analysis of variance test reported a significant difference between SD based on marital status, a further analysis using the Scheffé test reported only slightly significant differences in SD scores between the women officers who are married or living with their partner and those who are separated, divorced or widowed (Table 33). This result indicates those women officers who are married, living together, separated, divorced or widowed reported perceiving discrimination as a result of their sex more so than single women.

In the same way, highly significant differences have been observed in SD among women officers as a result of the number of children that they have (Table 13). Here, too, the Scheffé test reveals only a slightly significant difference in SD scores between women who have three children and women who have one child (Table 44). This indicates that the women officers perceive that the more children they have, the greater SD will be. This is corroborated by a moderately positive relationship between sex discrimination and the number of children indicated in Table 11. From Table 15, the f-values of 0.30221 and 0.823675 respectively are an indication that there are not significant differences in SD with regards to race. It can thus be concluded that the women officers in the sample did not perceive race to be an influencing factor as far as SD is concerned.

#### 4.2.2.2 Multiple-Role Conflict (MRC)

Highly significant differences have been observed in multiple-role conflict (MRC) scores among women officers as a result of the number of children that they have (Table 13). The women officer's perceive that the more children they have, the greater their experience of MRC. This perception is confirmed and represented by the moderately positive relationship between the women's number of children and MRC (Table 11). Although the analysis of variance test reported a significant difference between MRC and the number of children that the women officers have, the Scheffé test indicated only a slightly significant difference between women with three children and women with one child (Table 45). This result is relevant for the study because it indicates that women that have three children reported perceiving only slightly greater multiple role conflict than those that have one child. This corroborates the view that the more children an individual has the more roles are added to their existing role set, which then adds a greater perceived career barrier. The findings in Table 16 indicate that the women officers' marital status has significantly differentiated these women as far as MRC is concerned. A further analysis using a Scheffé test indicated that women officers who are married or living with their partner were found to report higher MRC scores than single women officers and higher scores than women officers that are separated, divorced or widowed (Table 34). This has relevance for the study because married women have reported that their marital status is perceived as increasing multiple role conflict because it adds to their existing roles and thus the time they have available to manage all of the roles adequately.

Table 12 indicates that highly significant differences were observed in MRC scores among women officers as a result of their ages. Further analysis using the conservative, post hoc Scheffé test did not indicate that women officers reported higher scores for MRC based on their varying ages (Table 23). Women officers who either hold a technikon diploma or a university honours degree were found to report higher MRC scores than the women who held other qualifications (Table 19). However, these significant differences in MRC among the women officers and their academic qualifications were not found to be reported based on the conservative Scheffé test (Table 57).

#### **4.2.2.3 Conflict between Children and Career Demands (CCC)**

Referring to the results shown in Table 12, significant differences in conflict between children and career (CCC) in relation to the women officers' ages have been observed. The Scheffé test results, however, were not found to indicate higher CCC scores for any of the women officers' ages (Table 24). A moderately positive relationship exists between the number of children that the women officers have and CCC (Table 11). Effectively, the women officers perceive that the more children they have, the more likely the conflict between the number of children and their career demands will be. Highly significant differences were observed in CCC scores among the women officers in relation to the number of children that they have (Table 13). The Scheffé test indicated that women officers who have three children were found to report higher CCC scores than those women officers who had one child (Table 46). This has relevance for the study because the women officers' perceive that having three children may be a greater barrier than having one child when they have to balance the children's needs with their career demands of policing.

Marital status has significantly differentiated women officers as far as CCC is concerned (Table 16). The Scheffé test did not indicate that those women officers who were married or living together reported higher CCC scores than single, separated, divorced or widowed officers (Table 35). Significant differences were observed in CCC scores among the women officers and their academic qualifications (Table 19). This is relevant to the study because society assumes that the higher the qualification an individual has, the easier it is for them to get a professional job or progress within a professional career, which comes with demands. If the women have children, these career demands and the children's needs are often in conflict with each other, which can result in stress for the women. However, these significant differences in CCC among the women officers and their academic qualifications were not found to be reported when a further analysis, using the conservative Scheffé test, was conducted (Table 58).

#### **4.2.2.4 Racial Discrimination (RD)**

The women indicated that when they answered the questions about racial discrimination (RD), they interpreted those questions to mean discrimination and

responded to them in that manner. Therefore the findings have relevance in that women perceive that they are discriminated against in the police service because of they are married and have children. The findings in Table 16 indicate that marital status has significantly differentiated women officers as far as Racial Discrimination (RD) is concerned. Further analysis using the Scheffé test indicated that women officers who are married or living together reported higher RD scores than single, separated, divorced or widowed women officers (Table 36). This indicates that the married police officers or those living with their partner reported perceiving more discrimination than single, separated, divorced or widowed women. The number of children shows a strong and positive relationship with racial discrimination (Table 11). This indicates that the female officers perceive that when the number of children they have increases, so will discrimination. Highly significant differences have been observed in RD among women officers in relation to the number of children that they have (Table 13). However, the Scheffé test results do not reveal sufficient evidence of a relationship between the number of children that the officers have and RD (Table 47).

#### **4.2.2.5 Disapproval by Significant Others (DSO)**

Table 11 shows that there is a moderately positive relationship between the number of children and Disapproval by Significant Others (DSO). This means that the women officers perceive that, when they have more children, the disapproval by significant others of their career choice may also increase. This may result in additional stress for the women. Significant differences in DSO in relation to the number of children have been observed among the women officers in the group (Table 13). Further analysis using the Scheffé test did not indicate that women officers reported higher scores for DSO based on the number of children they had (Table 48).

The findings in Table 16 indicate that marital status has significantly differentiated women officers as far as DSO is concerned. Specifically, the Scheffé test indicated that women officers who are married or living with their partners reported higher scores for DSO than officers who are single, divorced, separated or widowed (Table 37). This indicates that the married women officers' perceive much more disapproval from their significant others. This has relevance for the study because

it reveals that women officers' place a lot of importance on the approval of their spouse or life partner. If they have approval, there is a greater chance of also receiving social support from their partners or spouses. Significant differences have also been observed in DSO among the women officers as a result of their age (Table 12). However, when using a Scheffé test to provide further interpretation of the ANOVA results, the Scheffé test results indicated that women officers were not found to report higher DSO scores among any of the age groups represented in the sample (Table 25).

#### **4.2.2.6 Dissatisfaction with Career (DC)**

Referring to the results in the ANOVA as shown in Table 12, highly significant differences have been observed in dissatisfaction with career (DC) among women officers as a result of their respective ages. However the Scheffé test indicated that women officers did not report higher DC scores among the different ages represented in the sample (Table 26). Table 14 indicates that tenure has significantly differentiated women officers as far as DC is concerned. The Scheffé test did not indicate this as women officers were not found to report higher DC scores based on the length of their tenure in the SAPS (Table 63). Highly significant differences were observed in DC among women officers as a result of their marital status (Table 16). The Scheffé test indicated that women officers who are married or living with their partner were found to report higher DC scores than single, separated, divorced or widowed women officers (Table 38). This indicates that married women were reported to perceive greater dissatisfaction with their career than single, separated, divorced or widowed women officers. The f-values of 3.55274 and 0.063989 respectively are an indication that there was not sufficient evidence of a significant relationship between the number of children and the dissatisfaction with career variable (Table 13).

#### **4.2.2.7 Discouraged from choosing a Non-Traditional Career (DNC)**

Highly significant differences have been observed with regard to the category, 'discouraged from choosing a non-traditional career' (DNC) among women officers as a result of their age (Table 12). However based on the Scheffé test, women officers were not found to report higher DNC scores amongst the different age groups in the sample (Table 27). Table 13 indicates that women officers were,

however, found to report significantly higher DNC scores as a result of the number of children they have. A Scheffé test was conducted to further analyse this observation but women officers were found not to report higher DNC scores despite the number of children that they each have (Table 49). The results of Table 14 show that tenure has significantly differentiated women officers as far as DNC is concerned. The Scheffé test did not indicate that women officers were not found to report higher DNC scores based on the length of their tenure in the SAPS (Table 64). Significant differences in DNC in relation to the women officers' marital status have been observed in the sample (Table 16). Further analysis using the Scheffé test indicated that women officers who are married or living with their partner were found to report higher DNC scores than women officers that are divorced, separated or widowed (Table 39). This result shows that women officers in the sample who are married or living with their partner indicated perceiving greater discouragement from choosing or working in a non-traditional career by their spouses or partner. Highly significant differences have been observed in DNC among the women officers as a result of their varying academic qualifications (Table 19). This observation, having been further analysed using the Scheffé test, indicated that women officers were found not to report higher DNC scores as a result of their different academic qualifications (Table 59).

#### **4.2.2.8 Difficulty Making Decisions (DMD)**

Results from Tables 12, 13 and 14 indicate that highly significant differences have been observed in DMD among the women officers in relation to their age, the number of children they have and their tenure in the SAPS. Nonetheless, the Scheffé test results indicate that women officers were found not to report higher DMD scores despite their varying ages, the respective number of children they each have and their differing tenure in the SAPS (Tables 28, 50 & 65). This indicates that there was not sufficient evidence presented to indicate a relationship between these variables and the category 'difficulty making decisions'. The women officers perceive that, the more children they have, the more difficult it may become for them to make career decisions. This perception is supported by the moderately positive relationship displayed between the number of children and DMD (Table 11). There is no significant relationship between marital status and DMD (Table 16). Highly significant differences have been observed in DMD among

the women officers in relation to their academic qualifications (Table 19). The Scheffé test confirmed that women officers that hold a business college diploma reported higher DMD scores than women who hold a university honours degree (Table 60). This indicates that women officers who hold a business college diploma reported perceiving greater difficulty making decisions than those women who hold a university honours degree. This has relevance for the study because the result indicates that lower academic qualifications can be perceived as a career barrier.

#### **4.2.2.9 Disability / Health Concerns (DHC)**

There is no significant relationship between the women officers' marital status and disability / health concerns (DHC) (Table 16). However, significant differences have been observed in DHC among women officers and as a result of their respective ages and the number of children they have (Tables 12 & 13). The Scheffé test was not found to report higher DHC scores for the women officers with differing ages and numbers of children respectively (Appendix I, Tables 29 & 51).

#### **4.2.2.10 Job Market Constraints (JMC)**

Results from Tables 12, 13 and 16 indicate that highly significant differences have been observed in JMC among the women officers in relation to their age, the number of children they have and their marital status. Table 11 shows that there is a moderately positive relationship between the number of children and JMC. This indicates that as the number of children increases, women may experience more constraints in their job or may experience greater difficulty in finding a job in the job market. In reviewing the observations above, using the Scheffé test, the results indicated that women officers were found not to report higher scores for JMC amongst the varying ages and number of children (Tables 30 & 52). The Scheffé test indicated that married women reported higher JMC scores than single women and significantly higher scores than divorced, separated or widowed women (Table 40). This has relevance to the study because it indicates that married women reported perceiving their marital status as a barrier to career advancement. Table 19 indicates that highly significant differences have been observed in JMC among the women officers in relation to their academic qualifications. The Scheffé test indicated that women officers were found not to report higher JMC among the different academic qualifications (Table 61). Tenure, too, has significantly

differentiated women officers as far as JMC is concerned (Table 14). Further analysis the Scheffé test were not found to report higher JMC scores for the women officers with differing tenure (Table 66) .

#### **4.2.2.11 Difficulty Networking / Socialization (DNS)**

From Tables 12, 14 and 16 respectively, the results show that highly significant differences have been observed in difficulty networking and socialization among the women officers as a result of their age, tenure in the SAPS and marital status. Further analyses using the Scheffé test indicated that women officers were found not to report higher DNS scores despite their varying age and tenure (Tables 31 & 67). However, married women officers or those living with their partner reported higher DNS scores than women officers who are single, divorced, separated or widowed (Table 41). This has relevance for the study because it indicates that women officers perceive that being married acts as a barrier to socialising and networking within the career context. Significant differences were observed in DNS among women officers as a result of the number of children they each have and their varying academic qualifications (Tables 13 & 19). The Scheffé test that was used to review this information in greater detail indicated that the women with varying numbers of children and academic qualifications were found not to report higher DNS scores than the other women in the sample (Tables 53 & 62). Table 11 shows that there is a weak, positive relationship between the number of children and DNS. This indicates that the women officers perceive that, the more children they have, the more difficult it may become for them to network and socialize.

The results show that there is no evidence of significant relationships between the women officers' race, rank and business units and the 13 career barrier variables, respectively (Tables 15, 17 & 18).

The survey findings identified what career barriers the women officers perceived and identified broad relationships between the variables. However, the reasons for the perceptions of these career barriers could not identified by the survey. However, the survey findings informed and directed the researcher around what questions to pose in the focus group, so that she could gain an understanding of and insight into the reasons why these barriers were perceived to exist. The next

section reviews the career barrier findings that were obtained in the follow-up focus group. This focus group session was held to ascertain the reasons for the existence of these perceived barriers that had been identified in the survey findings.

### **4.3 FOCUS GROUP FINDINGS**

This section represents the findings of the women officers' perceived career barriers and were obtained from the follow-up focus group, which was held with twelve female officers from the SAPS. The focus group findings presented in this section are stated in the form of the career barrier themes and sub-themes that emerged. These themes are presented under the thirteen career barrier categories as represented in the Careers Barrier Inventory-Revised (CBI-R). The implications of these findings are discussed in detail in the Discussion chapter.

The resultant perceived career barriers that presented most strongly in the focus group were multiple-role conflict and the impact of marital status on participants' jobs. Married women officers indicated that their husbands, even though some of them were policemen themselves, would get upset about the women's work situation and the work stress they experienced. Their husbands or partners were concerned about their safety. Most of the women indicated that they have to make the career sacrifices in favour of their husband's career or sentiment, despite their own interest. This would sometimes necessitate them moving out of the operational environment and into an administrative position. The women agreed that they have multiple role and that they definitely require support from their families and spouses to manage these roles and career decisions. The majority of the women indicated that they first considered their husband and family before they considered their own career advancement.

Sex discrimination was perceived as the predominant barrier to career advancement. It was also linked to the male police officers' attitudes to women, the SAPS' organisational culture and practices, and the prevalence of sexual harassment. The women officers indicated that their male colleagues were over-protective and felt as if they had to 'baby-sit' the women because operational policing is a dangerous environment. This sentiment existed

despite the women officers being as well-trained as their male colleagues. Some of the male officers refused to work with the women because of the above reasons and also because they had a gender stereotypical view of what work women should perform. The women indicated that some of their male colleagues believed that women had to work in the charge office or perform administrative duties, not carry machine guns and hand grenades.

The women indicated that this discrimination because of their gender required them to prove themselves and work harder than their male colleagues. They said that women were often treated as if they were helpers at a crime scene despite being the lead investigator. Women officers also indicated that some women were subjected to sexual harassment by the male officers through the labels that they gave the women officers, innuendos and touching. The women indicated that it was not only the male officers' attitudes but the organisation's culture that brought this discrimination about, since the organisation mostly comprises of men. In some instances the negative male attitudes and the autocratic, sexist organisational culture act as a barrier to women officers' career advancement.

Self-esteem and self-efficacy were also raised and discussed in relation to lack of confidence acting as a career barrier. The women officers indicated that they were intimidated by higher ranking officers because they expected them to know more about policing topics. They said the intimidation led them to doubt their own abilities. This doubt was regained when they participated in meetings and realised that they were knowledgeable about the topic under discussion. The participants also identified self-efficacy information referents as being positive feedback from their superiors (verbal persuasion), improved knowledge gained from books and formal qualifications and training; and positive outcomes from a situation (performance accomplishments).

Conflict between the number of children and career demands was raised as another important issue, along with decision-making opportunities. The women officers indicated that it is difficult to manage work demands and children, especially when the children are young. This required careful balance and support from their spouse, family, hired help or even their older children. The women

indicated that they felt guilty when they were required to perform shift work or operational duties; they worried about what would happen to their children while they are away. They indicated that they would not make decisions about their career advancement that would impact on their children. The women officers had opted for a career in the SAPS because it was interesting and disciplined, however, they mentioned that when they had children, they changed their view about operational policing duties because they now viewed it as dangerous.

The fact that officers' academic qualifications were perceived as a career barrier was also examined in relation to inadequate preparation for their job and progression within the SAPS. Specialist jobs in the SAPS require certain academic qualifications and these academic qualifications earned an individual a promotion. The women indicated that the promotions policy has changed and that it is no longer clear whether academic qualifications will afford an individual a promotion.

The survey results indicated significant differences in racial discrimination with regard to the women officer's marital status and the number of children they each have. Racial discrimination, as a career barrier, was discussed in the focus group, but it was not perceived by any of the women to be a barrier to their career advancement. However, they did indicate that when answering the survey questions about racial discrimination, they interpreted those questions to mean discrimination and responded to them in that manner. As a result of this, they indicated that they experienced discrimination from other [male] officers because of their gender and because they joined the police special units as a civilian and did not come through the ranks. Some of the male officers made direct comments to the women indicating that they did not belong. The men would not accept the women into their 'boys club' if they did not see that the women could perform their jobs according to their male standards of performance.

Lack of familial and spousal support and disapproval of their career choice was raised too, and can be associated with the career barrier constructs of 'disapproval by significant others' and 'discouraged from choosing a non-traditional career'. Some of the women indicated that their parents [mothers or fathers] discouraged them from joining the SAPS because it was dangerous. It was also considered a

non-traditional career for a woman and it was dominated by males. Some of the women's spouses shared the same sentiment about their careers, initially, because besides their concern about their partner's safety, they objected about the shift work, night call-outs and that the women's work took them away from home for lengthy periods of time. Despite the family and spouses initial view, they eventually began to support the women in their career choice. Women officers, whose family had a history of policing as a career, did not experience this discouragement about their career choice and support was there from the onset of their policing career because the family was used to the circumstances surrounding the SAPS.

Lastly, unequal benefits and human resource policies and practices within the SAPS were raised and discussed in detail as well, and conclusively perceived to act as a career barrier. Women indicated that the SAPS promotion policy was not communicated clearly and not practiced consistently. They said previously promotions were based on individuals having the appropriate academic qualifications; now the promotions criteria were not clear. Women also felt that they were not afforded the same benefits as their male colleagues.

These focus group findings and the implications for women in the SAPS, along with the survey results and the literature, will be discussed in further detail in the Discussion chapter.

#### **4.4 SUMMARY**

In conclusion, this chapter highlighted the statistical findings of the survey questionnaire by displaying the results of the descriptive statistics, the significant analysis of variance (ANOVA) findings for the categorical demographic variables, and the significant levels of the continuous variables in the F-tests. Correlation findings were also presented to indicate the relationship between the continuous variables and the career barrier variables. The demographics of the focus group were also presented in descriptive statistics.

From these findings, it appears that sex discrimination displayed a predominance of findings with the demographic variables, as did lack of confidence, inadequate

preparation, multiple-role conflict, conflict between children and career demands, discouragement from choosing a non-traditional career and difficulty making decisions. Married women officers reported perceiving numerous barriers as a result of their marital status, especially as far as multiple-role conflict, discrimination and disapproval by their significant other about the career choice and advancement in policing. These women also indicated that being married created constraints in the job market, impacted on their adequate career preparation and created difficulty for them to network and socialise in the work environment. Women officers who have three children perceived the most predominant barrier as the conflict that arises between having children and their career demands. Lower levels of academic qualifications were also perceived as being a career barrier. Women who hold a business college diploma or university bachelors degree perceive themselves as inadequately prepared for their career and, that these lower levels of academic qualifications hinder the ability to make work-related decisions.

The resultant themes and sub-themes of the focus group were presented, and linked to the appropriate career barrier scale as identified in the CBI-R. These focus group findings also corroborated the predominant findings in the survey and provided an explanation for the women's career barrier perceptions. The next chapter discusses the implications of the results in relation to career barriers and the self-efficacy theory.

## CHAPTER FIVE - DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the results obtained in both the survey and the focus group discussion, interpreting these in light of the theory and previous research in the area of career barriers, male-dominated work environments and the self-efficacy theory.

This research focused on identifying the perceptions of internal and external career barriers of women police officers in specific business units of the SAPS, Western Cape. These internal and external barriers make it difficult for the women officers to progress in their careers: either, they do not attempt to advance or to be promoted in their non-traditional career, or they decide against pursuing a non-traditional career. Swanson et al. (1996) and Swanson and Woitke (1997) defined career barriers as being external conditions or events, and / or internal states that make career progress difficult. The perceptions of these barriers, rather than the barriers themselves, have a greater impact on the women officers' lack of advancement in the SAPS, as these barriers influence the development of the women's beliefs with regard to how much they are capable of achieving in this work environment. Individuals tend to eliminate viable career alternatives because of perceived barriers. Such beliefs that individuals hold about their capability to succeed are called self-efficacy beliefs, and the degree to which people perceive barriers may be linked to their self-efficacy beliefs (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

This chapter is structured around the themes and findings with regard to the core career barriers, which emerged from the results of this study. Variables as identified in the Swanson et al. (1996) study have been categorised into internal and external career barriers, and the thirteen career barrier variables have been allocated accordingly. The following are regarded as internal barriers: lack of confidence and inadequate preparation. External barriers, the larger group, comprise: sex discrimination, multiple role conflict, conflict between children and career demands, racial discrimination,

disapproval by the significant other, discouraged from choosing a non-traditional career, and decision-making difficulties.

## 5.1 INTERNAL CAREER BARRIERS

Internal career barriers refer to an individual's own perceptions and views on a particular career aspect, and how these perceptions influence their career choices and decisions. The two most common ones highlighted by the participants in this study were a lack of confidence and inadequate preparation.

### 5.1.1 Lack of Confidence

Lack of confidence affects the women officer's self-esteem and level of confidence about their own capability (self-efficacy).

The research findings indicate that the women officers lacked confidence when they first joined the SAPS because they were young and the job requirements and work environment were new to them. They experienced working in the SAPS as challenging because most of them had joined the SAPS straight out of secondary school and were naïve, impressionable and vulnerable, as the following two statements attest: *"I wanted to join the SAPS because they have a disciplined work environment and because we have to wear a uniform. I had just finished high school, where we were required to wear a uniform."* *"When I joined the SAPS, I was naïve and did not know about such things."*

Those women in the study, who joined the SAPS specialised units with a relevant qualification, indicated that despite having the required qualification and skills, their capabilities were still questioned by male colleagues and supervisors. They indicated that this perception was reinforced by the poor reception that they got from some of their male colleagues who were not enthusiastic about them joining the unit: *"I felt that I had to prove myself because of the negative attitude I was getting from the older people that have been working in the lab for longer. They didn't make a secret of their feelings as to women joining the boys club type of thing."* This experience is corroborated by the literature, presented in Chapter two, which discusses women's integration into the SAPS (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000; Van der Merwe, 2004).

All of the women indicated that, in the early stages of their policing career, they began questioning their reasons for joining as well as their capabilities. They felt that they had to make a personal decision about whether they wanted to stay in the SAPS because almost all the experiences that they had were not positive and were having a negative impact on their confidence in their own abilities. They perceived that their lack of confidence was acting as a barrier to their career.

The research findings indicate that women officers who hold a university honours degree, perceived their lack of confidence to be a relevant career barrier for them. This finding is contrary to organisational and societal views, which hold higher education in high regard and attribute intelligence to individuals who have attained post-graduate qualifications (Loughlin, 1999). In previous years, the SAPS considered higher academic qualifications to be important for promotion; however, as is clear from the findings presented in Chapter four, with regard to the actual practice in the SAPS, promotions have not materialised for most of these women. As one respondent stated: *"In the past, higher qualifications were required for promotion to rank 8."* The women thus considered their academic qualifications to be a barrier, because they had not received the expected affirmation from significant others (namely, from the organisation or their superiors), which these qualifications usually attract and which would have increased their confidence in their own abilities. It was found, though, that the more knowledge they had gained by obtaining additional qualifications, the greater their confidence in themselves and the higher efficacy beliefs the women have of their capabilities.

The self-efficacy theory discussed in Chapter two indicates that individuals with low self-efficacy doubt that they can do what is necessary to succeed. This low self-efficacy informs their perceptions of career barriers inversely, which resulted in the women officers perceiving many career barriers. The women interviewed in this study relied heavily on feedback sources, such as their educational qualifications and on acknowledgement from their superiors, to reinforce their level of self-efficacy. They thus found knowledge to be a strong self-efficacy referent: *"Knowledge gives me confidence. Knowledge is power, confidence is knowing exactly what is going on in my field."* Once the women received positive feedback from their superiors, or once they realised that they could in fact contribute relevant

information when participating in discussions with higher-ranking officers, then they realised that they had the requisite knowledge and their confidence increased. As one participant declared: *"I knew the correct response. I just had to get familiar and get that confidence to tell them [higher-ranking male officers]."* Previous research about self-esteem indicates that this construct is based on reflective evaluation of the self (feelings of self-worth), which is usually derived from perceptions about several personal characteristics (e.g. intelligence and integrity) (Stadjkovic & Luthans, 1998).

The women expressed feeling a lack of confidence in their capabilities, when they were faced with information that was new or unfamiliar to them. They indicated, for instance, that when all was new in the job, or they were faced with new tasks or responsibilities, or when they were young and inexperienced, they found it difficult to adapt. *"I was promoted..... I did not know what the hell was going on in that section." "He was discussing things and I was thinking oh my goodness, this is one of these subjects I know nothing about."* They also felt inadequate when they had to advise higher-ranking males who, paradoxically, had a lower qualification than they did. *"Suddenly there was a Commissioner in my office asking me stuff about things. It freaked me out in the beginning. Soon after that because I know my work in Strategic Management, and they haven't got a clue, I was able to answer the request."*

The women expressed strong sentiments of self-doubt. One of them admitted, for instance: *"I was sitting in the meeting and I didn't have a clue what was going on"*. They became rattled and uncertain when discussing work information with a higher-ranking officer, because they were intimidated by his higher rank. Their respect for the rank effectively thus caused them to question their own abilities. Consequently, self-doubt was reported to be a barrier to career advancement, because they refrained from voicing their opinion on the topic being discussed and thus missed an opportunity to make a positive impression on senior decision-makers. One of the participants explained, for example: *"You are working with superintendents, commissioners and directors, so I think that is the barrier, actually you think, and question your own worth and knowledge, but you still know what you are talking about."* Respect for the higher ranks clearly still exists in the

patriarchal culture of the SAPS, and as most high-ranking officers are male, it ultimately meant that respect for higher-ranking male superiors created a pervasive lack of self-confidence among the women vis-à-vis their own capabilities: *"It is the culture of rank in the organisation." "It is the respect for the senior officers, you do not know the person, but because of his rank, you feel inadequate. Some of them haven't got a clue, they are up in the ranks, but they don't know how the stuff at the bottom works."*

As transpired from the research, some of the women indicated that they have higher educational qualifications and tend to be more knowledgeable about the operational aspects of policing than their male colleagues. Nonetheless, they still lack confidence in their abilities and feel that they have to prove themselves to their male colleagues. This causes them to be less proactive about offering recommendations. As one respondent admitted: *"I sit in a meeting and know what I need to say, but I don't because there are commissioners and directors also in attendance. I only make my comment when one of the commissioners prompts me to say something."* When faced with such a situation, they choose to wait until a higher-ranking male officer realises that they want to speak, before offering their opinions. The women displayed this behaviour, because male values underpin the SAPS culture and way of operating, and because males are more dominant and their perception of women is discriminatory. More specifically, their male colleagues tend to view the women as less competent in the policing service and men as knowing more about the environment (Van der Merwe, 2004). They only valued what women had to offer if they could prove it through their actions. The women thus had to prove that they could perform at the same level as the men in order to be accepted: *"So I proved them wrong [by my contribution in the meeting]"*. The women officers interviewed in this study believed that they could do the job competently and even that they could exceed their superiors' and their colleagues' expectations. Some of them were top of their class in the SWART shooting programme and had obtained top marks in their exams. The fact that the women stayed to prove themselves is an indication of their level of self-confidence, as well as their resilience and determination.

Interestingly, though, the women indicated that the more children they have the greater their lack of confidence in their capabilities. This is because, as mothers, they had been given the role of primary care-giver and thus constantly had to choose between work and their children's needs. Loughlin (1999) corroborates this sentiment by indicating that, when women are forced to deny important aspects of their lives in their work environment, they may struggle to build a secure self-identity. This adds to the conflict experienced by women who try to combine work and family life.

### **5.1.2 Inadequate Preparation**

A second important internal career barrier is inadequate preparation. This refers to an individual's perception of being inadequately prepared for career advancement from an academic, skill or experiential perspective.

Previously in the SAPS, promotions required the relevant individuals to be adequately prepared the women officers interpreted as requiring appropriate higher academic qualifications. The research findings indicate that women officers who have obtained either a business college diploma or university bachelors indicate a significant link with inadequate preparation. This finding is contrary to society's belief that there is a correlation between academic qualifications and career advancement. However, the previous promotion policy of the SAPS does explain this finding. In terms of this policy, higher qualifications were required for promotion above sergeant level, and the entry requirements of certain business units were a minimum three-year academic qualification from either a university or a technikon.

As a result, the women acquired these higher qualifications in the hope that they would generate better opportunities when promotion posts became available. As two of the respondents explained: *"We do everything that we can to get promoted and study but it doesn't help." "In previous years, everyone had to complete a police admin diploma, but today you sit with the diploma, but they [the SAPS decision-makers] don't recognise it."* Those women who entered the SAPS with higher academic qualifications felt that this would bring them immediate seniority, but discovered that this was not always: in terms of the SAPS' protocol, individuals

are expected to work their way up through the ranks. This protocol, together with the gender-biased culture of the SAPS, where most of the higher ranking posts are held by men, has acted as a barrier for women's career advancement, despite their higher qualifications. Loughlin (1999) indicates that a substantial amount of research has revealed that men tend to be promoted faster than women, even in organisations in which women dominate numerically.

The SAPS' promotion policy was not clear to women, as they thought there were different requirements and practices. The policy was clearly communicated, however, and promotions were often based on a male-driven value system, even if the individuals did not meet the requirements. The women felt that double standards were being practised with regard to promotions. For example, even though certain qualifications, experience and tenure were required for promotion, it often happened that a male or a person of another race group, with less job-related experience but with the requisite qualifications and tenure was appointed. As one respondent summarised it: *"They do not always choose the best person for the post."*

Over the past few years, certain expectations were created around promotions. Promotions to the next rank occurred irrespective of whether a post was available, and the criteria were not very clear. This created a culture of entitlement because officers just expected to be promoted to the next rank. As a result, during the last five years the SAPS put an embargo on promotions, which was to last for four to five years, namely until 2004. Subsequently, though, in 2002, the policy has been changed again: in order for someone to be promoted, there has to be a post available for which the individual is expected to apply. The reason for this change is to ensure that the practice of promotion becomes uniform and based on specific job criteria. This creates a greater degree of clarity about the job requirements, and creates measurement standards for recruitment and employee performance. Now promotion posts are available but not to all SAPS personnel. One respondent has summarised it as follows: *"Lots of people qualify but there are not enough posts."* This has created a backlog of promotions and an abundance of frustrations, because, as a respondent explained, *"there are so many people expecting promotions because they have not had one for so long."* However, the aim of the

shift in the promotion policy and practice is to focus on appointing specific designated groups and on encouraging specific skill requirements. In this regard, another respondent remarked: *"I think that they [the SAPS] are more focused on appointing women to decision-making positions."*

The women indicated that the lack of promotions despite the fact that they have acquired higher educational qualifications is acting as a barrier to their career advancement. Previous research has indicated that men have greater success achieving promotion, in part because of their greater use of informal networks, as opposed to women's greater reliance on formal promotion processes alone (Hatcher, 1991). Women's slower rates of promotion are related to their lack of success in experiencing and participating in the range and depth of development opportunities, which provide the experience necessary to fill the more senior positions. While acquisition of skills and knowledge undoubtedly play a part in promotion, other factors, such as the number of openings and competition for positions also have an impact (Loughlin, 1999). According to the focus group discussion, different systems of rules govern men and women.

Individual bias on promotions panels, the varied application of the promotions process and the appointment of civilians to promotion posts also create a barrier for the career advancement of the women in the SAPS. The women indicated that knowing someone on the panel occasionally aids their chances of promotion: *"If I know someone on the panel, they can promote my case and I stand a better chance than the person who knows nobody."* *"If my commanding officer sits on the promotions panel, because he knows me, he will be able to motivate my appointment more than another person who does not know anyone on the panel."* Because the SAPS is such a big organisation, promotion channels change and the promotion policy changes frequently: *"When I joined, you were promoted every two to two and a half years, based on performance". "In the past we were just promoted to the next rank, even if there was not a post available."*

Civilians are being appointed to managerial and provincial positions. The women interviewed herein indicated, however, that these individuals have no police experience, even though they may know their own subject areas and apply it well

in a private organisation. Nonetheless, they do not know how a parastatal, like the SAPS, functions, nor are they familiar with the challenges of its culture, especially the people aspects. Two of the respondents thus remarked: *"I was very surprised to hear that the person who got the HR post was from outside."* *"We all know that HR outside the police and HR inside the police are two totally different things."* The respondents for instance spoke about situations, where even civilians who do not have the relevant professional qualification for HR appointments within the SAPS, are nevertheless appointed instead of internal HR candidates who have applied for the post and who have experience: *"We don't have a problem with someone who sits there from outside, or with a law degree, but the thing is that is where the promotion issue comes, our own people sitting in SAPS, we can't get there."*

The women expressed little confidence in an outside appointee, who happened to be male and who had been appointed to a key strategic position. They felt that a lack of police experience would cause this person to leave the SAPS fairly soon: *"How long is that person going to stay in the SAPS with no police experience?"* This lack of confidence and respect also stemmed from their perception that this outside appointee was a barrier to their own career advancement, and so, by extension, were their qualifications; the real barrier, in fact, was the perceived inconsistent application of the promotion policy.

The women reported that the younger they were, the more inadequately prepared they perceived themselves. Effectively, as they grow older, they become more knowledgeable about their work environment and are thus less likely to experience barriers to promotion based on a lack of work experience. Paradoxically, though, as they grow older, it becomes more difficult to cope with the pressures of studies and multiple roles (i.e. as mother, wife and career woman). In this way, age can become a hindrance to a women's career advancement.

The need to study added to their multiple roles as worker, mother and spouse, and increased the strain on them, especially when they had several children. Women reported that, the more children they had, the more difficult it was for them to study and prepare themselves for promotion. Clearly, there is a conflict between career demands and children's demands. Their multiple roles (viz. as wife, mother and

employee) meant they only had limited time available to meet their own needs, e.g. studying further to improve their career prospects. It emerged from the research, however, that if the women (had strong self-efficacy beliefs), they would also be more able to handle all their roles (work, studying and family) successfully. The research indicates that self-efficacy relates to the individual's conviction about a task-and-context-specific capability. Self-efficacy is a dynamic construct that changes over time, as new information and task experiences are obtained (Stadjkovic & Luthans, 1998). This concept is particularly useful for an organisation, as it provides insight into why some women show an interest in certain career opportunities and why others do not, and why the same women will apply for promotion to a particular position at one point in time, and not on another occasion.

In conclusion, then, the women in this study identified lack of confidence and inadequate preparation as the two most important internal career barriers. The perceived internal barriers were informed mainly by performance accomplishments and verbal persuasion and influenced by the women's self-efficacy beliefs. These self-efficacy beliefs may also have an influence on the women's perception of the external career barriers that they experience.

## **5.2 EXTERNAL CAREER BARRIERS**

As the name implies, external career barriers are ones that are external to the women police officers and exist in the environments, in which they live and work. In other words, they are sociological.

### **5.2.1 Sex Discrimination**

This section discusses specific aspects of sex discrimination, such as the male officers' attitudes towards their female colleagues, sexual harassment and the organisational culture and climate of the SAPS, which includes its human resource policies and practices. Many women can provide countless stories of when they have been discriminated against, put down, labelled, stereotyped, ignored, harassed or simply insulted for being women (Tearle, 2004).

### 5.2.1.1 Male Attitudes

The discriminatory behaviour of men towards women can be described as ethnocentric. This phenomenon is defined as viewing the in-group (men in this case) as strong and superior, while perceiving the out-group (in this case, women) as weak and inferior (Hagen & Kahn, 1975). This usually results in the men's behaviour being hostile and negative towards the women: *"There are certain men, such as the old-style policeman, who do not want to work with women."* The research participants in the focus group discussion referred extensively to male attitudes as one of the sexual discrimination barriers that they perceived. This is because the police force is male-dominated and the socially determined view is that women officers do not belong in this profession (Gulle & Tredoux, 1998).

Previous research findings have indicated that men now have a more favourable attitude towards women, yet their behaviour has not changed and they continue to share wide gender stereotypes (Hagen & Kahn, 1975; Loughlin, 1999). Men still believe that they are superior to women, and will only acknowledge outstanding performance by a woman if such performance does not infringe on their own self-evaluation and they are not directly involved. When a woman outperforms them, men's self-esteem and belief system will be threatened (Hagen & Kahn, 1975). As a result, women feel that they constantly have to prove themselves to their male colleagues and superiors.

The research participants reported that they experienced subtle and direct discrimination because of their gender whilst working at a crime scene or in the office. They indicated that their male colleagues would comment directly on their gender, asking them to prove their worth: *"You are a woman. Come and show us what you can do. You [women] want to be like the men."* It seems that men only like competent women when they do not have to work directly with them. When they have to work and compete together, they prefer incompetent ones (Hagen & Kahn, 1975). The reason could be that men hold stereotypical beliefs about the appropriate behaviours and attitudes of each sex (Loughlin, 1999). They would thus ask questions such as: *"What are you civilian women coming to do in our Ballistics Unit?"* Even when women officers were acting as the lead officer on the crime scene, the detectives tended to consult with the women's male shift partner.

Male subjects with more traditional attitudes toward women were thus likely to prefer incompetent women over competent ones (Spence & Helmreich cited in Hagen & Kahn, 1975) and display this in a negative way.

When women behave in a competent manner and achieve the same or better results as their male colleagues, as they did in the Task Force endurance test, the expectations of male officers are challenged. An example of this was a senior male officer's comment about the women officers when they more than exceeded the required completion standards for a test. He said, "...women have really amazed me. I never expected them to be so tough, to have such high levels of physical and mental endurance and to have such unity among themselves."

Despite these encouraging results, women are punished by being excluded from the in-group, which consists of males in the SAPS, by being sidelined at the crime scene. Male officers, for instance, would talk about the case amongst themselves, whilst the woman officer was collecting the evidence. In this regard, one of the respondents stated: *"They would rather talk to my [male] partner and so I can't really take the lead. I feel as if I can tell all of them that listen, I am in charge of this forensic investigation and I cannot complete it if you talk without including me."* Male officers also have 'boys-only clubs' and clearly indicate that this group is only for men: *"You felt look – they didn't make a secret of their feelings as to women joining the boys' club type of thing."* The existing research about women's integration into the SAP and the SAPS supports the view that male stereotypes still persist today (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000; Van der Merwe, 2004).

The male officers expressed disbelief at women joining the SAPS and considered the idea to be impractical because women would not be able to cope with the continuous pressures and stresses of this job. This view underlies the patriarchal, gender-biased view of a male dominated working environment like the SAPS. This male gender biased view of women's roles and 'place in society' is what reinforces the perception of the career barrier for these women who chose a non-traditional career (Murrell et al., 1991). In this situation, the following respondent's comment is not entirely surprising: *"Because I was the only woman on the shift, I had to make sure that everyone had supper, make the tea and coffee and provide cake to*

*accompany it.*" Clearly, this woman police officer is seen first as a woman, who has a duty to nurture those around her, and only then as a police officer. Loughlin (1999) confirms that male stereotypes and preconceptions of women are the main factors holding women back. They are excluded from informal networks, and an inhospitable corporate culture is a barrier for women.

### 5.2.1.2 Sexual Harassment

In addition to sexual stereotyping of women, sexual harassment also acts as a career barrier for women police officers, given that their male colleagues denigrate them because of their gender. Sadly, when the women choose to report this inappropriate behaviour to their superiors, they experience even greater career barriers, being either victimised or transferred to another department if they apply for a promotion.

The research findings indicate that women police officers perceive sexual discrimination as a career barrier, especially if they are young, if they are married, or if they have children. The women indicated that sexual harassment has always been happening in the SAPS, and is only recently being addressed within the SAPS through the code of practice on measures to combat sexual harassment: *"... It's only now that it is been addressed, but sexual harassment has occurred for years."* Many of the women experienced some form of sexual harassment, especially when they were young and had received arrived from the Police College. They tended to be young and thus naïve when they first entered the police service; some of them indicated that they had led a sheltered life and that, initially, they had not realised what was happening. Most of the male colleagues of the women interviewed in this study adopted the disrespectful attitude that women were *"stasie matrasse"* [station mattresses], and that they (the male police) could therefore have their way with them sexually. Some women received very overtly sexual advances. They thus reported that their male colleagues approached them directly with repeated sexual propositions, or that they were instructed to complete unnecessary tasks in unrealistic times. One said, for instance: *"I had to work until ten 'o clock. Then he also worked and I would lock my office door."* This sexual discrimination represents overt gender discrimination if not sexual harassment, and also occurs in the form of sexist comments, departmental gossip and gender

stereotyping. Leresche (1993) nonetheless says that these patterns of sexual behaviour are not overtly sexist, but that they favour men and are common in many work environments.

The women indicated that in the past, they had kept quiet because they did not know any better: *"It was always there but you could do nothing about it. We just kept quiet."* They resorted to locking themselves in their office or requesting another colleague or friend to sit with them whilst they worked late. If the women complained, they were treated as if they were unable to deal with interpersonal problems. Many men felt threatened by these complaints and therefore downplayed the grievances that were brought against their male colleagues in a misguided sense of loyalty. Some of the women even said that, since the SAPS would do nothing about the sexual harassment, they would respond themselves. They decided that they would speak directly to those men who were violating their personal space and making these gestures. They told them to leave them alone or they called the man's wife and reported what was happening to them. On the other end of the scale, there were some women who eventually gave in to their male colleagues' sexual advances because they wanted to fit in. Unfortunately, this gave all women in the SAPS a bad reputation. Their reputation of being easily available to any man violated the women's rights and personal space, but any reaction to such violations would hinder their career progress, because this kind of male behaviour was considered acceptable in the SAPS (Van der Merwe, 2004).

The women indicated that if they reported the case, or if they did not allow the sexual advances to continue, these actions would cost them a promotion because they were overlooked or transferred to another unit, when they were in line for promotion in their current unit. *"In those days, if you reported sexual harassment, you would be transferred."* This was a barrier to their career advancement because they then had to wait until another promotion post became available in their new business unit. Furthermore, because of sexual discrimination, particularly in male-dominated environments, it has been found that women have to work harder than men and to achieve more before they are accepted or promoted. They also have to be more direct and firm, in other words, more masculine and assertive.

Women officers were also victimised for reporting the sexual harassment that they experienced, but this did not stop most of the participants from speaking out against it. Sadly, though, the mere act of not condoning and reporting the sexual harassment created a career barrier for the women, because the victimisation caused them to re-consider their non-traditional career choice. On the positive side, the women indicated that it has become much easier to report sexual harassment now, as the SAPS has taken a formal approach to the situation and has put policies and procedures in place that will deter sexual harassment offenders. The research confirms some of the experiences that the women officers have shared. Hersch (cited in Innes, 1993) indicates that sexual harassment is intended to encompass any conduct, which denigrates, ridicules, is intimidatory or physically abusive of a person because of her sex.

### **5.2.1.3 The Organisational Culture and Climate of the SAPS**

Organisational culture has an impact on those who work in it. Previous research indicates that organisational culture refers to deeply embedded, unconsciously held assumptions that guide organisational members and that it is underpinned by values, which can negatively affect women (Loughlin, 1999; Schein cited in Shadur, 1999). It can force employees to put aside their personal values or to change the time that they spend with their families. Organisational culture and climate are often terms that are used interchangeably among employees. Although the terms are similar, it is necessary to distinguish between them. Organisational climate is a surface level indicator of culture, which in turn is an individual construct that reflects an orientation based on personal values (Vianen & Prins cited in Shadur, 1999). An understanding of the SAPS' organisational culture provides a foundation for understanding the results of the research and the women's perception of their work environment as a career barrier. These perceptions also reflect how an employee describes his or her workplace (Simpson & Altman, 2000).

Loughlin (1999) explains that, because women entered the workplace and its organisations relatively late (as recently as the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century) and because they were only granted access to a narrow range of occupations, men and women may experience organisational cultures very differently. In the apartheid years, for

instance, when women came out of the Police College, they had to serve the public and work in the charge office. They did not work in the field. Various restrictions were placed on their training and the work they were allowed to do. They were thus restricted to administrative tasks in the charge office (currently called the Community Service Centre), assisting when minor road accidents had occurred and with the frisking of female prisoners and crime suspects. If a female police officer was called to a crime scene, she had to get permission from her commissioned officer to go, and if permission was granted, a male colleague had to accompany her (Bezuidenhout & Theron, 2000).

Many of the women indicated that a gender-biased male attitude underpinned the culture and climate of the SAPS. Burton (cited in Loughlin, 1999) suggests that the masculine values underpinning organisational culture have a systematic influence, which creates an environment in which men are more 'at home' than women are. The organisational and managerial values in these organisations tend to be characterised by stereotypical views of women's roles, attributes, preferences and commitments. Such stereotyping can influence how women are perceived in the workplace. Many of the women indicated that when they were newly out of Police College, they were usually the only women in a business unit and their male colleagues expected them to fulfil traditional female roles, such as make tea and coffee for the whole business unit, provide cakes and biscuits for tea and feed the prisoners.

This traditional view of gender roles amongst male officers was perceived as a barrier to the women's career because they were only provided with work opportunities that matched stereotypes and missed operational policing activities: *"I had to make the tea and coffee and prepare the prisoners' meals because I was the only woman on the shift."* Stereotyping is a process of categorisation that is effective and efficient in most instances, but is often inaccurate, when used to group people according to attributes such as their attitudes and abilities (Heilman cited in Loughlin, 1999). To succeed in the SAPS, many women even consider putting aside the values and behaviours they believe are important in defining who they are for the sake of career advancement.

Some researchers (Jenning & Jardim in Hatcher, 1991) urged women who wished to succeed in the corporate environment to emulate males (i.e. to play games). Based on the findings of this study, the researcher is of the opinion, however that women are capable of introducing new expressive relational traits and values into the workplace as well as process in the corporate environment because they are willing to take into account people's feelings. This would contribute to changing the SAPS culture in a positive way.

### **5.2.2 Multiple-Role Conflict**

Multiple-role conflict looks at the conflict between the women's job as police officers and their familial and community needs, and at how the 'superwomen syndrome' and work stress affect family life.

Some women said that they had joined the SAPS because they liked the discipline and enjoyed wearing a uniform, but mostly because the work was challenging, interesting and different. They enjoyed the physical activity that the job entailed and the sense of danger that went with the job: *"I wanted that kind of action, I wanted to catch the 'skollies',"* one of them said. They were not prepared to have a nine-to-five office or desk job. Now, however, they found themselves in the dilemma of having to choose or at least consider very carefully an opportunity to fulfil their career aspirations and the impact it might have on their spouse and children's lives. Many women, including police officers, often face time-based conflict. This occurs because the demands of the one role sometimes make it difficult to comply with the demands of the other. Work and family roles thus compete for the working couple's time, as time devoted to one role obviously cannot be devoted to the other (Schreuder & Theron cited in Berold, 1999). Role overload is thus identified as the consistent predictor of time-based conflict (Greenhaus & Callanan cited in Berold, 1999) and arises when an individual has numerous social roles to carry out, at least one of which requires excessive time commitment (Berold, 1999).

Women and family life are underpinned ideologically by cultural concepts of gender. It was considered that the biologically determined condition of men made it natural for them to conduct the activities required in the workplace; men were

considered better than women, not only at the 'large muscle jobs' but also at the tasks of management, such as leadership, rational planning, and fiscal responsibility (Boninelli, 2004). Women, on the other hand, were considered "naturally" more appropriate for sensitive activities – cooking and home-making, childbearing and an intuitive understanding of human feelings. These cultural conceptions legitimated the continuity of conventional gender role-segregation. As a result, males dominated in the workplace and were exempted from domestic duties, such as cooking, cleaning and childcare, whereas women were expected to attend to hearth and home, kitchen and childcare, which granted them only limited access to the world of work (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1990). This theory corroborates the research findings that indicate that women officers have greater childcare responsibilities than their male counterparts.

Some of the women still display very traditional views around male and female roles; they maintained, for instance, that the husband was still the head of the household and thus had the final say: *"I'm not sure why he [my husband] did not change his shifts if he was not happy with our shifts clashing. I had to make the change, that is how things are."* They would rather forego their own growth or needs to support their husband's view. Inevitably, this limits their career choices and advancement, because it prevents them from moving forward; moreover, it creates frustration for these women because they cannot achieve their career goals. The impact of gender socialization has permeated into their marital lives too.

Women tend largely to compartmentalise their work and family life. Besides the fact that the women interviewed in this study are working in a very demanding job in a male-dominated work environment, they are also mothers, spouses, and partners. They are also involved in community work, they have hobbies and they play sport. Not surprisingly, they face tremendous conflicts with regard to time management, dividing their time between work and home responsibilities and meeting daily demands. Research around this issue has shown that there are few environments that enable women to feel that both work and home can receive equal priority (Brink, 1999). This leads to a 'superwoman' syndrome, where the woman feels she must be perfect in every capacity and every role. Her expectations of what can realistically be achieved are too high, which often leads

to burnout and feelings of inadequacy. However, women still have to choose between family and a career. Research by Watson, Schreuder and Theron (1997 cited in Berold, 1999) indicates that the relationship between work and non-work is complex and two-way, and that non-work involves activities that fall outside the context of work and are not necessarily instrumental in sustaining income. Because police work has been identified as a particularly stressful occupation in comparison with other occupations, non-work activities become increasingly important to the women who work in the police force (Burke, 1994 cited in Gulle & Tredoux, 1998).

All the women indicated that, when promotion posts became available, they had to consider their options very carefully: *"I have to think very carefully, because most of the posts that they [the SAPS] are advertising are mostly operational posts. So the change is that you are going to work outside or you are going to work shifts. That is where you have to make the choice."* The majority of the women officers indicated that they would first consider their husbands and their positions and then their children's needs before they would decide about applying for a promotion, even if it was a position that generated more income and job satisfaction for them: *"I don't have children, but I am married and I will definitely take him into consideration if I have to make a drastic career decision."*

One woman indicated that she has always considered herself a career woman and that her view has not changed now that she is going to have a baby. She indicated that she would be off work for a few months but would then return to work: *"I will be off for six months - I think that is enough [time] and then I am coming back to work. I'll never stop working; I don't see myself as a housewife."* For some women the choice was easy because they have the support of their spouse. These women were able to discuss their decisions with their husband, and he offered the support that was required to make the decision: *"He [my husband] said whatever you decide about the promotion I'll go with it. I am in that fortunate position that he will support any decision that I make."* *"I have a husband that supports me in everything that I do. This helps [the situation]. We discuss it first, I would not just make a decision."*

It is clear from the above statements that the women police officers respected and considered the family's needs; more importantly, though, it emerged that they [the women] would change their situation (either by changing jobs or declining an opportunity for promotion) if their husbands disagreed with this decision, or did not support their choice or potential choice. One woman officer explained: *"We worked different shifts in the field and did not see much of each other. My husband did not like this and I decided to apply for a post in the office. Now he is satisfied."* It thus seems that women take on so many activities and take care of everyone else, so that they ultimately put themselves last.

Some of the women whose husbands are not in the police service found that making a career choice in the police that entailed a promotion and a possible transfer, was not an option: *"Not having a husband in the police is more difficult because both being in the police you can try and get a transfer for him too."* The decision was difficult for them, because they felt that they had to consider their husband's job and that they could not expect him to move because he was established in his job and it might be difficult for him to find work somewhere else: *"I can't expect him to drop everything."* The women indicated that, whether it was a husband or a husband and children, or just children, they nonetheless had to consult with them and 'certainly take them into consideration' before they could make a decision. As one participant explained: *"If they were in favour of it [the decision] then you will go ahead and apply for the promotion, if not, I don't know what I would do. That is the problem, how does a person compromise?"* These research findings are contrary to research by Murrell et al. (1991), which indicates that women who choose non-traditional, male-dominated jobs experience less conflict between combining the roles of career and family.

As has been seen, then, most if not all the participants in this study faced a challenge in attempting to balance trade-offs between attention to self versus attention to others (Bolton, 2000). This highlights the tendency of women to place others first. An obvious solution is that men and women need to share the home and child-care responsibilities. Rapoport and Rapoport (1990) support this view by saying that it is a leveraging point for a more enduring form of socio-cultural

change in which both men and women will be helped to restructure the work/family involvements.

### 5.2.3 Conflict between Children and Career Demands

This section examines how women officers balance work responsibilities with child-rearing responsibilities. Women's home responsibilities are often identified as the key obstacle to their career advancement.

The research findings indicate that, as the number of children increases, so does the conflict between children and career demands. Even though men and women are both parents, research indicates that the presence of a partner and children continues to affect the participation of men and women in paid work differently (Loughlin, 1999). Unlike the men, the women indicated that they would have to think of their children's needs before accepting a promotion: "...it is not that I would consider them [my children] second, they come first." The fact that women take on the role of mother with a serious sense of their child-caring responsibilities, creates career barriers for them. According to this research, women have a continuous inner dialogue, second-guessing whatever decisions and acts fill the day. It is these feelings of guilt and self-doubt that have the greatest impact on the women's belief about their self-efficacy which limit their career advancement.

Bolton (2000) refers to these feelings of guilt about the work-family choices that women make on a daily basis, as 'the third shift'. This ranges from professional anxiety about workplace assignments to self-perceived derelictions and the home front (Bolton, 2000). This social, and specifically female phenomenon, is a psychological rather than a literal phenomenon. Although it incorporates negative emotions such as the ones above, it nonetheless provides women with the inner guidance, self-confidence and acceptance they need to feel at peace with their choices. It also offers negative self-critical voices shouting at them about what they are doing wrong (Bolton, 2000). Some women are far more vulnerable than others to this self-destructive and exhausting ritual. This phenomenon helps women to find the inner strength to cope with the conflicts of career demands on the one hand, and their children's demands on the other; it helps to affirm their self-efficacy and serves as a source of resilience for them.

It is clear from current research conducted that women's positions in organisations will not improve without real changes in both family norms and organisational norms. So many women have so much responsibility in the family that they struggle to get ahead in their careers. The women in the ORS business unit described how their children's demands affected their own career advancement: *"My husband works in Cape Town and needs to leave home earlier than I do and arrives home later. For this reason, I cannot also work in Cape Town. I have been approached, but what about the children?"* If this is to change, there is a need to see some real change in the politics of households and families. Men and women need to negotiate and agree to share the household and child raising activities. Brink (1999) indicates that women have to get the balance right, but achieving harmony between work and family is challenging. However, participants indicated that their superiors were accommodating when they required time off to look after a sick child: *"If our children are sick, we simply call in and let our commanding officer know."* Previous research indicates that an organisation that asks its employees to deny the importance of their personal life in favour of work life creates conflict, and that women deal with this in a number of ways (Holton, 1998). Some women choose not to apply for more senior positions because they believe that the balance between work and personal life that they have managed to achieve in their current position cannot be maintained at a higher level (Hyman cited in Loughlin, 1999).

If a working parent in a dual-worker family has to leave work to care for the children, it is considered rational for the wife rather than the husband to drop work at this point, because she is usually the lower earner. One of the participants in the study, however, speculated: *"One always wonders what will happen to my children if I have to go on a business trip or course for six or seven weeks."* The women indicated that they were responsible for ensuring that the children were taken to and collected from school and their extra-mural activities. Some data suggests that, even when a working wife/mother is the higher earner, she is still expected to leave when the infant needs care, which suggests that the gender stereotype overrides economic rationality. These practices clearly reinforce the self-perpetuating pattern of gender inequality in the workplace. Male managers tend to

attribute women's lack of career progression to women's overriding commitment to the family. Women, on the other hand, maintain that they love the work they do but not the environment in which they are asked to do it because that is what determines their lack of career advancement (Loughlin, 1999).

The problem that women have in combining paid work with their primary childcare responsibility, is interpreted by some employers and organisations as a lack of a women's commitment to paid work, rather than as a problem with the way the work or the organisation's culture is structured. Common criteria of commitment are whether employees are willing to work long hours, to travel frequently and to put the organisation's needs first. Given a woman's primary care-giving responsibilities, the use of these criteria can lead to the erroneous perception that women lack commitment, and that they do not have the same potential as their male counterparts (Bolton, 2000).

#### **5.2.4 Racial Discrimination**

Racial discrimination operates as a career barrier for any racial or ethnic group of individuals who experience discrimination because they belong to that specific group, and whose career advancement is negatively affected or who are prohibited from entering certain careers.

The research findings indicate that the women did not experience racial discrimination. This finding indicates that the National Police Commissioner's commitment to transformation in 1994 to dispel racial discrimination has been implemented in the SAPS over the past decade. Previous research indicated that with the onset of the new dispensation in 1994, the National Police Commissioner was committed to ensuring that women serve in all units and components of the South African Police Service. He indicated that discrimination of any kind, be it racially motivated or against a particular gender, would not be tolerated (There is still a steep road ahead of you, n.d.). Women officers indicated that they did not feel that race was a career barrier for them at present, since, as women, they all belonged to the designated group according to the Employment Equity Act. *"I think as women we fall into the designated group, whether you are a Black, Indian, Coloured or White female, you are a female and fall into that group. Designated*

*groups need to be taken into consideration when it comes to promotion for equity purposes."* Consequently, they knew that their career interests would be addressed eventually and that they would be considered for promotions in order for the SAPS to accomplish its equity statistics. The women officers felt that there were definitely opportunities for advancement depending on the promotion post or vacancy that was available and the number of women that applied for the post.

The women indicated that the experience of racial discrimination was different for men in the SAPS, because they were in the majority and not part of the designated group (women) and were thus not able to apply for most of the promotions available. The women who are married to policemen, agreed that racial discrimination did not affect them directly as women, but it affected them indirectly as they perceived their husbands to be experiencing racial discrimination and being overlooked for many jobs. Because their husbands are affected, their lives are also affected indirectly, financially and emotionally. *"I am not personally affected, but my husband is because he falls into the non-designated category. This then definitely affects me because my husband does not have opportunities for advancement."*

The women indicated, however, that once the SAPS has addressed the gender imbalance amongst the ranks and business units within the organisation, then race could become or be perceived as a career barrier. Once the gender imbalance is addressed, only women from certain race groups would be required in certain regional areas and jobs, and then opportunities for advancement would become limited for women too.

### **5.2.5 Decision-Making Difficulties**

A further career barrier faced by women are difficulties in making decisions. Firstly, women have limited opportunities to make job-related decisions, despite their abilities. Secondly, women find it difficult to make decisions that involve a choice between work opportunities and demands and their family's needs and requirements.

Some of the women at the ranks of Superintendent (9 & 10) who participated in the focus group, indicated that work decisions are not in fact made at their level. For them, decision-making difficulties mean a lack of decision-making opportunities in their work and organisational context. I inferred from this comment that decisions are not made at ranks lower than Superintendent, and so the sentiment about decision-making can be assumed for women in the lower ranks too: *"At my level, at this stage, we are not making decisions, we implement decisions already made."* *"The decision is never yours; we implement decisions most of the time, at my level."* They indicated that they were not allowed to make operational or strategic decisions, but only to implement those that had already been made by their superiors. The scope of their decision-making at work only enables them to make decisions about how to implement their superior's decision, although they can make recommendations: *"... it is all about senior people making decisions and we just implement. They leave it up to us to decide how to implement it, or come up with ideas or something, but the decision is never yours."*

Some of the women indicated that the scope of their decision-making was influenced by the geographical location of their direct superior in relation to them. Those who were not based in the same office or regional area as their superior indicated that they at times had to make broader operational decisions. They found this to be difficult, stressful and a big responsibility, as they did not always know what decision to make and were often afraid to make the wrong decision. In both instances, whether the women were able to take decisions because there was no direct supervision or if the opposite was the case, the women officers perceived this to be a barrier to their career growth and advancement. They are skilled and qualified in their respective work areas, and confident in their own abilities to make decisions, but it seems that they are not often provided with the opportunity to do so.

These women indicated that having the correct knowledge would assist them in making the appropriate decision, and some of them believed that they had the required knowledge. *"Knowledge is power,"* stated one of them. In terms of the research sample, 27 of the women in the survey and six of the focus group participants have higher education qualifications (ranging from a diploma to a

university masters degree). The lack of decision-making opportunity that exists in their current position is a significant source of frustration for them and translates into a career barrier. This view explains the research finding that the women who held business college diplomas and university bachelors degrees felt that decision-making difficulties were a significant career barrier. Research by Loughlin (1999) supports this finding by indicating that in a work environment that is patriarchal, men are usually the decision-makers. This may be by virtue of the men's earlier entry into the world of work or because of the organisation's patriarchal culture. The implication for the SAPS is to realise that these women are high achievers and that their decision-making ability should be fostered to broaden the scope of their work and assist them in eradicating this perceived barrier.

The research findings indicate that tenure has a very significant relationship with decision-making opportunities and difficulties. The average length of service of women officers within the SAPS is 14 years. Despite the number of years they have worked in the SAPS, they have only attained limited ranks, and are only able to make decisions that impact directly on their job: *"We are working here for many years, but we can only take decisions that concern our own work."* The researcher inferred from the women's explanation the real barrier was not their length of service, but rather the SAPS practice around promotions (or lack thereof), which has inhibited their advancement in the service.

The number of children that the women have is also regarded as a significant career barrier for women when they have to make decisions, as indicated by the research findings. Women officers perceive that, when their number of children increases, it will become more difficult for them to make decisions. Although they have demanding non-traditional careers within the male-dominated environment of the SAPS, they are also mothers and wives and have roles in the community. These multiple roles often overlap and thus place demands on their time, which affects the decisions they have to make when the needs of these roles are in conflict with one another. On a very basic practical level, women still have to choose between family and career. Brink's (1999) research findings support this view by indicating that these days it is an accepted norm for women to work, and to have the right to develop and realise a career for themselves. At the same time,

this situation requires that they have to manage both work and family responsibilities, since their increasing participation in the labour market has not liberated them from their family responsibilities.

The women interviewed thus felt that they always had to choose between the opportunities and demands that are presented to them at work and the needs of their families: *"You have to come to the conclusion what is important for yourself, is it your career or your family. I think that it is all for yourself [to decide]. If your family is important for you, you are going to make decisions with regard to your family, the same if your husband is important to you and the same if your career is important to you."* They indicated that they always considered their families first, since it was not easy to choose between their families and their job responsibilities. This operated as a barrier to their career advancement, though, because they would pass up work opportunities that could have provided them with more exposure to the complex aspects of policing and allowed them to gain experience and an opportunity to make a positive impression on the decision-makers with their successful work achievements. Previous research purports that, rather than deriving joy from their choices as women – to work, stay at home, to help out in the community – many women are in fact half-crazed by the constant demands, options and trade-offs. Even if their outer life looks reasonable and nicely balanced, on the inside many women remain prisoners in their own mindset about their multiple roles (Bolton, 2000).

Although most the women felt that their job was as fulfilling as their family role, they were bound by a greater sense of responsibility towards their family. Consequently, they put their family's needs before their own, be it their career-related needs or their personal needs. They would only forego this decision-making pattern, if their family supported their decision about the work or personal situation. As one of the participants admitted:

*"If they were in favour of it [the decision] then you will go ahead and apply for the promotion, if not, I don't know what I would do. That is the problem, how does a person compromise?"* The women felt that, despite enjoying their non-traditional career, they would not 'trade their family life for the world', because they had

aspired to getting married and having children since they were young and could not imagine their lives without the multiple roles of work, mother and wife. Bolton's (2000) research indicates that the dark side of shattering the so-called 'glass-ceiling' is that women tend to achieve high status and positions at a work level, with the trade-off of having neither a husband nor children, even if they had once hoped for this.

### 5.2.6 Disapproval by Significant Others

Family and cultural expectations and environments influence women's perceived career choices. The societal norms and culture in which they live operate as barriers, and may even become stressors. Disapproval by significant others comprises different sources of disapproval about an individual's career choice, usually from a partner, but also from parents and friends. Previous research indicates, however, that support and approval of an individual's career choice and activities is very important, because it assists individuals to cope with their work environment and challenges, and acts as a buffer against the effects of stress (House, 1981; Lowe, 1995; Marks, 1995; Reifman, Biernat & Lang, 1991; Statt, 1994).

The women interviewed in this study indicated that their parents had disapproved of their career choice when they were young, because it was dangerous work and they were overprotective. Partners and spouses also disapproved of their career choice or of specific aspects of their jobs, for example, when they have to go to a crime scene in the middle of the night, or go away to testify in court or to visit other offices in the region. One of them explained: *"Going away on trips for three or four days at a time, going to testify in court, that is when he sort of has a problem with it [my career]."* Hatcher (1991) indicates, however, that women who aspire to and embark on non-traditional careers in the first place may be more independent and willing to take risks, even if their partners or friends disapproved.

It was found that, when the women officers were pregnant, their parents or parents-in-law did not approve of them continuing to work in the police service. They were told that they should stay home to look after the baby because working in the SAPS was "no place for women" since it was too dangerous: *"The first thing*

*my in-laws asked me, are you going to stop working after the baby? But she is going to be very small.*" One woman reported that she got the idea that other people expected her to give up her job when she had a baby: *"I sort of got the idea that people expect that when you have a baby, that is more important and that you must decide."* Previous research confirms that such societal views about the appropriateness of jobs for men and women are different (Stringer & Duncan, 1985).

Family and cultural expectations and environments influence women's perceived career choices, as the parents and spouses of the women officers interviewed in this study attempted to do. Despite this disapproval, the women indicated that they were determined to continue working in the SAPS. They were not going to work office hours or in an office the whole day: they wanted action and they wanted to *"catch the skollies [criminals]"*. According to Lemkau (1983), tough-mindedness and assertiveness are identified as realistic behaviours for negotiating and surviving in male-dominated environments. This determined pursuit of a non-traditional career, however, brought its own challenges for the women. They faced constant discouraging feedback from parents and partners, whose view they considered important, and they were constantly assessing their career decision and abilities to succeed. This negative feedback from their significant others was perceived as a deterrent in their career decisions.

Some women, whose partners were also police officers, did not experience any disapproval, however, because their partners understood what the women were required to do in their jobs. Others, who had spouses in the police service, nonetheless experienced disapproval of their career choice from such spouses: *"My husband always said he wanted to marry a police-woman so that he would understand what was going on in her job. But he still does not understand."* This disapproval was primarily because both partners were working shifts and hardly seeing each other, and because their spouses knew the dangers of working in an operational environment. The spouses had the same reasons for disapproving of aspects of the women's career and their choice of a non-traditional career as the parents did when the women were younger. Nonetheless, this did not deter the women in their career choice, but it did cause them to adjust aspects of their job or

to request transfers to less dangerous, less operational duties, because they were influenced by the patriarchal societal views of traditional gender roles. One of the respondents went so far as to admit: *"I won't say this is a contentious point in our relationship but I believe that what my husband says goes."*

One of the women indicated that she had changed her job within the SAPS so that she could work regular hours and would be able to see her spouse more frequently. Bandura's (1995) research findings provide some explanation for women changing their jobs, instead of their male partners doing so. Women's lack of belief and confidence in certain quantitative, physical and technical capabilities and in their career aspirations, are shaped by their families, occupational practices, the mass media and culture at large (Bandura, 1995). This request to move to less operational crime prevention duties, although it is precisely these operational duties that form the core of the police services, acted a barrier to the women's progression in the service because they had chosen to move to more supportive functions: *"... in the meantime, I did relief work in the office. It was the obvious thing to do since I was about to get married soon and probably have children. It is as if this is almost expected of you. I was not happy about this career change in the beginning, but now I am alright."* Other women indicated that they stood their ground with both their parents and their partners, declaring that this was their career choice and that they [their parents and spouse] should get used to it. Swanson et al. (1996) indicate that women in non-traditional careers differ from women in traditional careers because of their personality characteristics and in how they respond to perceived career barriers. It is these characteristics, which facilitate an unconventional career choice by women in the first place and confirms their high level of self-confidence.

To help women address the perceived career barriers caused by societal and familial expectations, Statt (1994) indicates that it is important that they receive social support, both in their private life and at work. Women need to address these career barriers by, firstly, becoming aware of the causes and, secondly, addressing the situation with their spouses and parents, making them aware of the impact that their disapproval has on their [the women's] sense of self-efficacy and confidence. International research performed by Hart, Wearing and Headly (1995 cited in

Berold, 1999) concurs by stating that it is quite natural for police officers to keep their private life and working life separate and not to talk about work issues during non-work activities.

### 5.2.7 Discouraged from Choosing a Non-traditional Career

Support from significant others (parents, family, spouse, colleagues or supervisors), either within or outside of the organisation, is critical when women pursue a non-traditional career. Discouraged from choosing non-traditional careers thus becomes a barrier for women when support from significant others is absent.

The research findings indicate that the women who participated in the study had been interested in joining the SAPS since they were young, in secondary school, and living at home with their parents. They indicated that they were interested in joining the SAPS because the work was different, challenging and interesting; they also liked the discipline that came with working for the SAPS and the idea of wearing a uniform. The participants received different responses from their parents when they decided to join the SAPS and conveyed this decision to them. Those women for whom policing was a traditional family career choice indicated that they did not experience any discouragement about their choice to work in the SAPS. One officer, for instance, indicated that: *"It was the most natural career choice for me to follow in the footsteps of my male family. Most of the men in my family – father, brothers, uncles and cousins – were working in the SAPS, so my family was not surprised when I joined."* Previous research by Pfof and Fiore (1990) state that women choose or aspire to non-traditional careers because they may have experienced more varied opportunities, or have higher career and educational aspirations.

Some of the women's parents displayed mixed sentiment about them joining. Some parents were jointly against them becoming policewomen, whereas for other women, the father was comfortable with their career choice, and their mother not, or vice versa. *"They [the parents] were probably concerned because they believed that police-work was not meant for women."* conceded one of the respondents. Previous research supports the research findings by indicating that socialisation and learning experiences very often restrict women to consider options of

traditional roles and occupations (Stringer & Duncan, 1985). The women who joined the police service either had to call their families regularly to indicate when they would be home or, they were not allowed to display their gun in the family home.

All the women indicated that their induction into the SAPS was challenging. *"We underwent the same training as our male counterparts, and we wanted to work just as hard as the men, to show them [the men] that we can do this."* Those women whose parents had displayed joint acceptance of their career choice, experienced support and a positive response from them, and thus found it easier to cope with their training and work challenges than the others did. Previous research supports the women's experiences by indicating that it is very important for individuals to receive all the social support they can, both in their private life and at work (Statt, 1994), to help them cope with the stress that comes with managing both environments. Those women who had received little or no encouragement from their family, report that they questioned their career choice when they were in tough situations and had even considered leaving the Police College. Hatcher (1991) believes that those women who select non-traditional careers have notably non-traditional attitudes about sex roles, fewer opportunities than men to enter such jobs, and receive less societal support and approval when they do so. The women indicated that this discouragement from their parents affected them negatively, and that it might have prevented them from seeking promotions, if they had not had such strong beliefs in their own ability to succeed. Lowe (1995) confirms that women need to know that they have enough of a relationship with someone at work and at home to talk to if support is required, or if they experience challenges in their non-traditional career choice.

The women indicated that, if they had decided to work in the SAPS when they were older, married or had children, it would be more of an obstacle for them, because they would have to consider their spouse and family and forego their career aspirations entirely: *"You probably have to discuss it with your husband, but the choice is difficult."* They stated that if the family were not in agreement with their career decision, they would have decided not to follow their career aspirations, or even to apply for the promotion. This decision speaks to the

patriarchal view that women have the primary responsibility of care giving and home-making in the relationship, and that the husband is the head of the household. This view causes the women to put their family's needs before their own. Because they experienced such discouragement from their family and because of the family role, these factors act as career barriers. The research findings of Reifman et al. (1991) concur with the women officers' need for support of their career decision. Reifman et al. (1991) postulate that support within the marital relationship is important for wellbeing, whilst support from bosses, co-workers and people outside of work can produce stress-buffering effects.

Social support comes from a wide range of sources, including spousal relationships, support from friends and family, and sources of support in the workplace. The latter are also important to the women officers in this non-traditional career, as it affirms their self-efficacy beliefs, and as the positive feedback reinforces their beliefs about their capabilities. *"What happened is that we had to follow the same training programme that they [the men] had done. Our commanding officer actually made a point of showing them [the men] our results whenever we wrote a test just to let them know how we were comparing to what the guys did two or three years ago."* Marks (1995) suggests that police officers need to ensure that they are able to discuss problems appropriately with significant others. In this regard, the women indicated that discouragement of their chosen non-traditional career, currently a perceived barrier to their career advancement, could be alleviated with the support from friends, family and the workplace.

### **5.3 SUMMARY**

The chapter has discussed the research findings and the women's experiences in relation to the relevant theory in the career barriers field. It has discussed the relevant internal and external barriers that the women officers perceived in their particular work environment, and it has identified that sexual discrimination, multiple-role conflict, the organisation's HR policies and the women officers' lack of confidence were the most significant of these barriers. The women's self-efficacy beliefs either perpetuated the perception of a career barrier, or refuted the perception by strengthening their beliefs and confidence in their own capabilities. This outcome has some very important implications for the SAPS. Consequently,

the following chapter presents specific recommendations to the parties involved in addressing the perceived career barriers of women officers in the hope that such recommendations will assist in successfully attracting, retaining and integrating these women into a male-dominated, non-traditional career.

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## CHAPTER SIX - APPLICATION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Understanding the factors that inhibit women's career development is important for assisting women in overcoming the barriers that they experience because of these factors, and it will help organisations to bring about tangible, effective change. The current research focused on the perceptions of women police officers in the SAPS, Western Cape, namely the career barriers they had to face. The results of the study were presented in the form of the mixed method that was employed. Firstly, the quantitative findings obtained from a sample of participants who had completed the demographic questionnaire and the Career Barriers Inventory – Revised (Swanson & Daniels, 1996) were presented; thereafter, the results in the form of a thematic analysis based on the responses obtained during the focus group were presented. These research findings presented the specific career barriers that were perceived by the women officers to exist, and revealed distinct areas where action could be taken to minimise these and thus to facilitate the integration of women into these non-traditional careers.

This chapter offers specific recommendations with respect to possible actions that could be taken by women in or when choosing non-traditional careers, by the career counsellors who assist and prepare them for these careers, and by the organisations that employ them. Furthermore, this chapter records the limitations of the present study, offers suggestions for further research in this field, and presents a summary of this final chapter.

### 6.1 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the research findings, this section offers recommendations to women who occupy or intend to choose non-traditional, male-dominated careers, to the SAPS in particular, or more generally to organisations that employ women in non-traditional roles and to the career counsellors that assist the women with integration into these careers and organisations.

#### 6.1.1 Recommendations to Women

Women are entering non-traditional careers in increasing numbers for financial and personal reasons. They need to be educated and supported with specific

information before choosing these non-traditional careers, and awareness must be created about the career barriers that may exist in order to assist them in becoming integrated into and progressing within this work environment. Women now entering the middle levels of the organisational structure may be more autonomous, independent and achievement oriented than their male colleagues, even becoming the mavericks in the organisation, psychologically and numerically (Hatcher, 1991). However, when women are in these non-traditional careers, they need to tailor their expectations about work life in a male-dominated environment so that they are more realistic. This includes developing realistic perceptions of how much time may elapse with respect to promotions and advancement in such careers.

Some aspects of career barriers cannot be addressed by policy action alone. Instead, they require action by women themselves. The most important of these is challenging the sexist culture and practices both in organisations and in their homes. Such changes are reliant on personal and social struggles. Tearle (2004, p. 10) concurs by indicating that women should not concentrate their efforts on what others should do to make them feel better, but rather on "how can I be and use more of myself in business?" Women could address these personal and psychological barriers through assertiveness and confidence building courses, and examine and manage their personal mix of self-awareness and self-doubt, as these phenomena pertain to challenges that make up their identity, task and balance dilemmas. Bolton (2000) postulates that if women do not balance self-awareness and self-doubt, it will greatly diminish their ability to enjoy their family, friends, physical being and achievements, because they will live in fear of what might go wrong.

Although women will advance over time, it is likely that full equality will not be reached without some intervention. There is a need for women to be more assertive about gender initiatives and issues in the workplace, but more adaptation to human needs, male and female, for both work and family needs to occur on the part of organisations.

The following two sections will discuss recommendations for career counsellors and for organisations that may address the environmental and social career barriers that exist.

### **6.1.2 Recommendations to Career Counsellors**

The research findings did not provide any indication that career counselling facilities exist in the SAPS. The researcher thus recommends that the trained psychological services that already exist within the SAPS should be extended to provide career counselling that specifically addresses women's career barriers. The areas of focus, based on the barriers identified and the reasons cited in the research findings, are indicated below.

Career counselling for women should focus on motivating women by restoring their options to them. The career counsellor in private practice or in the SAPS needs to offer women clients support, encouragement and help when they have to confront their career barriers and combat stereotypical belief systems that restrict their options. Betz (1994) confirms that women deserve to receive support and encouragement to broaden their ideas, as this will enable them to achieve their goals. The SAPS counsellor could, moreover, help women officers to deal with their real concerns, obtain quality education and training, help them locate support systems and deal with the discrimination, sexual harassment and tokenism that occur in their chosen career environment. Cook (cited in May, 1999) indicates that it is not alarmist to teach women how to recognise and handle possible sexual discrimination.

Counselling psychologists, and especially those in the SAPS, are in the best position to be aware of the different external environments from which these women come and to counteract the limiting effects of these environments on the development of their potential. Counsellors can enrich their clients' environment, and thus restore some of the options that societal pressures have taken away from women (Betz, 1994).

Career counsellors need to be aware of how varied women's roles and responsibilities are, depending on whether they are married or single, have

children or not. Awareness of the choices that these women might have already made should prevail, as these choices might have been constrained by gender-role stereotypes. Hackett and Lonborg (1994) concur that women in male-dominated careers need preparation to cope with the work environment, not because they lack the skills, but because as women they face unique problems. SAPS counsellors need to address the gendered context of the work environment and the implications for women more directly when they prepare women for career transitions into policing careers.

Career counsellors have a responsibility to act as social change agents, because they need to participate in efforts to change society positively, in addition to working with women clients. This social change is necessary to address the numerous and continuing external barriers that women face. Counselling psychologists and others engaged in career counselling thus need to work to restore freedom of choice and full life satisfaction to their women clients (Betz, 1994).

### **6.1.3 Recommendations to the Organisation**

The following section proposes recommendations for the SAPS and includes suggestions that review the human resource policies and practices and the organisation's culture.

#### **6.1.3.1 Human Resources Policies and Practices**

Organisations cannot afford to ignore the serious issues facing women employees in the workplace. Childcare problems need to be addressed in a practical way, and human resource policies need to be clarified and clearly communicated. Human resource practices also need to be standardised for all employees in the SAPS, regardless of gender.

The SAPS needs to provide formal paternity leave, childcare and eldercare arrangements that strike a balance between the priorities of the business and the current and future needs of all its employees. Acknowledging the pressures of combining a career and family responsibilities, needs to be formalised, and instituting family-friendly policies and a job-shadowing and mentoring scheme

would assist women to understand the requirements of the male-dominated, non-traditional roles. Women (and men) need to be made aware that they can discuss and acknowledge these issues and that action can be taken to help. Without such help, the effects of stress will endanger both women and men in the SAPS and have a negative impact on their chances of being successful. Holton (1998) thus postulates that family responsive programmes are essential for the future survival and success of South African organisations.

The SAPS needs to adopt more innovative techniques and interventions to alter its structure and human resource practices to meet the needs of women on the one hand, while remaining competitive in relation to other external employers. Mechanisms to assess the volume of the workload and the particular types of work performed by men and women, as well as the sexist culture and sexism that women are experiencing in the workplace, need to be investigated. The provision of job-relevant information could minimise stereotyping and thus clarify job requirements (Hackett & Lonborg, 1994). Appointment and promotion criteria need to be transparent, and thus appointment and promotion committees should be put in place within the SAPS to uphold the organisation's intent to promote the advancement of women.

Organisations should not have two different sets of performance standards in place for men and women. The performance standards within the SAPS should be phrased in terms of the job requirements and both men and women need to comply. Career planning workshops, self-assessments, cognitive career counselling and individual and group counselling will assist women in addressing the barriers that they face within the organisation (Anyster, 2003). However, all the above need to be driven by a group of dedicated individuals within the SAPS who can monitor the progress and hold the authorities accountable.

#### **6.1.3.2 Mentoring**

A formal mentoring programme could be adopted in the SAPS and sponsored by top-ranking decision-makers in the SAPS. Mentors should be volunteers and include a group of senior ranked women officers or those officers that have achieved higher ranks or long tenure within operational business units. They would

have agreed to serve as mentors and to assist and coach other women officers, and proper training should be provided to them.

The mentors need to guide, direct, listen and act as a sounding board, based on their personal experiences, for the women officers' perceptions of career barriers. The mentoring programme would, however, require a significant amount of time commitment from the mentors. Holton (1998) indicates that by these higher-ranking officers being willing to help in this way creates a positive message about the need to initiate support for women.

Mentoring addresses some of the particular issues that women face, for example, their lack of confidence to seek promotions or career advancement, or stagnating in jobs that they do not really want and that do not fulfil them. It also strengthens the women's career self-efficacy expectations by exposing them to positive women role models (Loughlin, 1999). The mentoring programme needs to be linked to a formal succession-planning programme within the ranks, racial groups and business units that have been identified in the research. Linking mentoring to succession planning does not imply that promotion will be the only outcome, but it will also enable women to broaden their skills within their current responsibilities.

#### **6.1.3.3 Induction**

Specific attention needs to be paid to the different experiences that women have when they first enter a non-traditional career; support structures need to be provided in terms of their employment in such careers. Support structures could take the form of appropriate coping training skills that are provided at induction and throughout the cycle of work. Peer support, another support structure, should be assigned to help women acclimatise to working in the SAPS. If women are not made aware of the support structures that exist in the SAPS or if support is not provided by the organisation, it is likely to perpetuate high turnover and a lack of attraction to policing or the specific business units mentioned at in the introduction.

#### **6.1.3.4 Training and Development**

The SAPS should not only provide training programmes that focus on technical and operational skills, but it should also include behavioural skills training. This

focus could be carried through in the implementation of the organisation's personal development plans, succession plan and skills training programmes. Providing behavioural skills training will enable both women and men to identify the overall skills required for a specific job, which may help the men change their stereotypical views about which jobs are 'jobs for men', while reinforcing the women's career self-efficacy beliefs, namely, that they too can do the job. Employees should be taught how to replace negative beliefs with positive and enabling beliefs through a process of affirmation and positive self-talk (Anyster, 2003). The SAPS could include training that equips women with self-motivation and awareness training capabilities. Exercises should be incorporated into the training programme that enables women to identify the particular personal beliefs that limit their career progress and development.

#### **6.1.3.5 Organisational Culture**

Changing human resource policies and practice will not suffice unless there is a change in the organisational culture too. Despite the changes in the structure and focus of policing in South Africa and although more women are now filling the ranks in the SAPS, a paternalistic, sexist culture and thinking still prevails and permeates the environment in which women officers have to work.

The SAPS has to demonstrate its commitment to the issue of culture change. It is important that the change in behaviour and attitudes towards women starts with senior ranking officers [who are mostly male]. Thereafter, a sense of ownership of this process of transformation has to be encouraged among everyone in the SAPS to make the change in organisational culture work. In a culturally diverse organisation such as the SAPS, a more gender sensitive and equitable environment could be made possible by establishing a gender network structure and a transformational leadership style. This would raise the self-esteem and confidence of the designated people in terms of their appointment so that so-called 'affirmative action' appointments are not seen as tokenism, but rather as being recognised in terms of their performance. To facilitate the implementation of such a process, a formal mentorship programme could be developed.

The conflict between work and family issues have been identified as a career barrier for the women in the previous chapter; however, given the increasing number of women adopting non-traditional careers, the SAPS has to take a new look at relations between work and family life and to see it as a continuing part of the organisation's responsibility. This evidence suggests that the SAPS should pay attention to what women (and men) say when they are asked about barriers. To address this situation, the SAPS needs to pay attention to numerous factors, including showing real commitment by existing management, changing attitudes towards women, modifying the role of both men and women within the organisation, and making considerable investment in the transformation process in terms of time, money or both.

#### **6.1.4 Recommendations for Legislation and Organisational Policy**

Environmental and internal barriers are best dealt with by societal change, including changes in laws and public policy. These laws and policies influence organisational rules and practices, and influence the individual's educational, work and family systems through direct re-education or counselling. The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995, South Africa's Constitution and the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 are a few of the country's pieces of legislation that have been promulgated to influence societal change.

The policies of both the country and the SAPS need to be related to the long-term needs of men and women, so that they can have a balanced and satisfying personal life that will enhance their productivity. The culture as well as the political situation in various countries affects the views of employers and employees views towards family-responsive policies. Organisations are socially responsible towards family and children, and play a crucial role by formulating views and policies that are supportive of employees' dual roles. Rapoport and Rapoport (1990) purport that those organisations that previously perceived gender and family issues as falling outside their area of concern or as too expensive, are now seeing the need to take an interest if they are to remain competitive and to attract available human resources.

This section has offered practical recommendations to the SAPS, women and career counsellors, to assist in addressing or breaking down career barriers. The next section reviews the limitations of this study that may affect the generalisability of the research findings.

## **6.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

This research has a number of strengths and a number of limitations, which need to be recognised when considering and assessing the results obtained. These strengths and limitations pertain to the research design used in the study, the nature of the sample, the nature of the organisation, the language used, and the transferability of the findings.

### **6.2.1 Research Design**

Surveys and focus groups have very different preoccupations, and there are contrasting strengths and limitations inherent in each method (Bryman, 1992). The main strength of the current research is the survey and focus group data, which enhances the research findings by increasing the richness of the information. Wolff et al. (1993) concur that these methods complement one another in a unified research design. However, some of the limitations of having used the mixed research design were that it is time-consuming and lengthy (Creswell, 1994). In the current research, the researcher had to plan the data collection and analysis process carefully, taking both the survey and the focus group administration and data interpretation into account, in order to meet the research deadlines. However, if the surveys or focus group had been used independently of each other in a research design, the current depth and breadth of the findings would not have been achieved.

In research, when surveys are used independently, they lack the flexibility of qualitative approaches to pursue particular issues in any greater depth or to accommodate a wider range of exploratory categories (Wolff et al., 1993). Consequently, survey research is seen as a hostage of its own design (Creswell, 1994). Similarly, focus groups can never claim to be representative of the much larger, inferential populations that are derived from surveys. The very fact that the survey emphasised causality and gave a heavy pre-structured approach to

research, whereas the focus group was concerned with explaining the participant's perspectives and contextual detail, meant that the ensuing data would not be as comparable as is sometimes proposed by the advocates of mixed methods (Bryman, 1992).

Some of the other limitations of this dominant-less-dominant research design include the researcher, the survey instrument and the impact on the participants. The use of a single researcher meant that it is likely that the limitations of the researcher may become the limitations of the study (Neuman, 2003). To combat this, the researcher retained a heightened awareness of her limitations, read widely on the mixed method research design, discussed this method with other informed researchers, confirmed the findings and summarised the focus group comments with the research participants. The researcher also used the survey to control bias and to be objective in assessing the situation, thus keeping her own values out of the study.

The survey analysis revealed a flaw in the survey instrument in respect of the reliability of Question 70 in the Career Barriers Inventory; such a flaw, according to Wolff et al. (1993), might on its own lead to erroneous or contradictory interpretations. This aspect was verified in the focus group.

### **6.2.2 Sample**

The sample employed in this study consisted of 68 permanently employed women police officers in the South African Police Services (SAPS), who work in the Western Cape and occupy ranks from sergeant (6) to director (13). In total, 2 088 women officers occupy these respective ranks in the SAPS in the Western Cape, across all business units; their racial make-up is as follows: 85 are African, 588 are Coloured, 13 are Indian and 1 402 are White.

In the current research sample, 55 (80.88%) are White, four (5.88%) are African, eight (11.76%) are Coloured and one (1.47%) is Indian. The sample should have included more women from the designated racial groups, as significant findings may have occurred as a factor of their race, in addition to their gender. This suggests that the sample, heavily weighted with White participants, reflects a bias

towards White women's views and perceptions and that it may thus have yielded responses mainly from a White woman's perspective in relation to the career barriers of racial discrimination, discouragement from joining a non-traditional (policing) career and difficulty networking and socialising as a result of discrimination. However, despite the imbalance in racial composition, the consistency of responses, which can be attributed to the fact that they are women, suggests that the sample does indeed offer reliable findings.

The sample was chosen from the Western Cape only, for ease of conducting research; this may be a limitation because the findings of the women in the Western Cape might not reflect the perceptions and experience of women police offices in other provinces. This might mean that the research findings cannot be generalised to pertain to the whole SAPS.

### **6.2.3 Organisation**

The SAPS has a patriarchal culture, a militaristic hierarchy and a bureaucratic structure. Despite the researcher having obtained national approval to complete the research, it was a requirement that provincial approval had to be sought and confirmation obtained from each business unit head. This aspect incurred time constraints for the researcher and often produced delays in gaining information and accessing research participants. Potential participants may also have been reluctant to participate in this study given the bureaucracy and patriarchal culture.

### **6.2.4 Language**

The survey questions were posed in English and the focus group questions and discussion took place in English and Afrikaans, not necessarily the home language of all the research participants. This could have increased the chance of the participants misunderstanding the questions or limiting their contribution to the focus group discussion. However, it was nonetheless valuable for the researcher to converse in English and Afrikaans, as richer data and expression could be obtained. The researcher was aware of the possible loss of meaning from the participants' comments in the focus group and therefore summarised the answers provided after each section to verify the meaning.

### **6.2.5 Transferability**

The study may be limited in the transferability of the results to other organisations and industries in the private sector because the SAPS is a non-profit, public sector organisation that focuses on crime prevention and the safety and security of persons and property in the South African territory on a national scale. No other organisation in South Africa performs this task on such a holistic scale, and the results, in their entirety, are thus limited in their transferability in this respect. Some of the findings may have relevance for security companies.

Despite this limitation, the perceived career barriers identified in this study concurred with previous theory, and the perceptions of the women officers were considered to be fairly uniform. The results may be useful to all those organisations that have a patriarchal culture, composition and structure, and where men dominate the top, decision-making management positions. The study also has relevance to other working environments that are characterised as being non-traditional for women.

### **6.3 FURTHER RESEARCH**

Various aspects in the women's career barrier theory warrant further investigation. This research focused on the perceived barriers faced by women police officers within specific business units and ranks within the SAPS, a service organisation.

Broadening the sample in terms of type and size also warrants further research. Research needs to be conducted about the perceptions of career barriers for both ranked and civilian women in the SAPS and within all its business units. This would provide an understanding as to whether women, regardless of rank, perceive similar career barriers in this non-traditional, male dominated career. Comparative research on perceived career barriers between women in different industries (corporate, education, government organisations) can also be conducted in this regard. Perceived discrimination or barriers often cause women to switch careers or to move to another organisation or industry sector, in an attempt to find more equitable opportunities and working environments. Such research could identify whether women's perceived career barriers correlate across industries, and

whether the type of industry and sector has an impact on the types of barriers perceived.

Another future direction of research is to conduct comparative research on career barriers between women officers of different racial groups within the SAPS in order to understand possible specific differences in perceptions and experiences of career barriers based on their race. There is also a need to identify and understand whether Black women still perceive and experience the double discrimination of race and gender. The current research has not compared the career barrier perceptions of women officers from different racial groups. A longitudinal study, which tracks shifting perceptions of these women officers from the different racial groups, could also be conducted to identify whether these perceived career barriers change (decrease or increase) because of the application of employment equity initiatives based on race, gender and disability.

Further research could be conducted on perceived career barriers of male officers in the SAPS. This would identify what their perceptions are and would assist the organisation in managing the turnover related to male officers. This information could be combined with the current research findings for women officers, and a comparative study conducted between men and women officers would thus compare and contrast their perceptions of career barriers within the SAPS. Research on male officers' views about women's perceived career barriers could also be conducted in the future. This research would identify whether the men and women perceive the same career barriers to exist in the SAPS for the women, and would also highlight the male officers' attitudes about women in the SAPS.

#### **6.4 SUMMARY**

This chapter has made certain specific recommendations to women who occupy non-traditional careers, the organisations that employ them and the career counsellors that assist them in their career choice or adaptation within the organisation. It suggested that each party has a role to play in minimising women's career barriers and their integration into non-traditional, male dominated careers.

Limitations and strengths of the study were also identified, with specific reference being made to the mixed method research design that was employed herein, and the size and type of the research sample. Areas for further research were identified as certain topics emerged from this research that require further investigation. Exploration of such issues will certainly add value to the field.

## **6.5 CONCLUSION**

Identifying and acknowledging both the perceived environmental and the individual career barriers of women is important for addressing the lack of attraction, retention and advancement of women in certain careers, especially those that are non-traditional. The under-utilisation of women's abilities and talents in career pursuits remains a serious problem both for women themselves and for the society in which they live (Betz, cited in Walsh & Osipow, 1994). These barriers cause women to under-estimate themselves and to conform to society's requirements for women, which causes unnecessary stress for women. The experience of sexual discrimination, conflict with others on and off the job, role conflict and the spread of stress between the work and home domains as well as between spouses are all sources of stress that may threaten their physical or psychological well-being (Reifman et al., 1991).

This research investigated the perceptions of career barriers amongst women police officers in the SAPS. Attention was paid both to the environmental (external) and individual (internal) career barriers that they perceive, and to how both of these affected the women officers' career advancement in a non-traditional career such as policing. Chapter Two of this thesis (literature review) offered insight into the research conducted in this field thus far. It is clear that women's work experiences are different to those of men, either due to their own barriers or to those created by the environment in which they live and work. The barriers that they perceive are created by male, paternalistic cultures, which prevail in society and organisations and thus are welcoming to men while acting as barriers for women.

The results of this research offer a quantitative as well as a qualitative reflection on the women officers' perceived career barriers. In the SAPS, greater understanding

of the formation of career-related efficacy beliefs will provide insight into organisational, social and psychological factors that either encourage or inhibit the formation of the women officers' career self-efficacy beliefs. This understanding can be used to inform human resource practitioners, career counsellors and psychological services personnel in the SAPS, who help to strengthen efficacy beliefs. This could improve the attraction and retention of women in the business units in which the research was conducted.

The results of this study indicate that the women officers perceive sexual discrimination, their multiple roles, lack of approval and encouragement from their family and spouse, lack of confidence in their abilities and conflict between career demands and their children to be the most significant barriers to their career advancement. A concerted effort is clearly required to address the women's situation in male-dominated, non-traditional careers; however, it needs to be addressed at both the individual level and at the organisational level. Career counsellors, South Africa's legislation and corporate policies need to support the changes that will happen at the individual and organisational level. Factors influencing women's career development will almost surely change, as societal attitudes and norms change and as increasing numbers of women enter the work force (Walsh & Osipow, 1994).

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University of Cape Town

## APPENDIX A: Letter of Approval to conduct Research

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS



SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Privaatsak Private Bag 294  
Postbus Post Office Box

Adresadres	2191
Landland	ZA
Provinsieprovince	WC
Stadcity	CAPE TOWN
Telefoonphone	021 467 5256
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Elektroniese e-posaddress	capetown@icps.gov.za

THE HEAD  
STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT  
DIE HOOF  
STRATEGIESE BESTUUR

2011-03-17

Atteridgeville  
P.O. Box 294  
Berg Road  
CAPE TOWN  
7800  
Tel: 021 467 5256 / 021 467 5256

### APPLICATION TO DO RESEARCH WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: DEMANDS PLACED ON WOMEN TO PERFORM IN THE PREVIOUSLY MALE- DOMINANT JOBS

- Your application to conduct a research study within the South African Police Service pertaining to the above matter is hereby
- Approved and hereby granted to you to conduct the above mentioned research and to utilize relevant information within the South African Police Service for your study. This approval is conditional upon the submission of your final research document to the National Employment Equity Section for their review and confirmation for any purposes they may determine to do so.
- When approaching police officers as part of your research, be transparent in making a request and ensure that you comply with the Strategic Management Unit's guidelines regarding the ethical time of time of the members. The Unit must also be supplied with a copy of the final findings.

Enkelaar

ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER  
THE HEAD: STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT  
G. E. MOORCROFT

**APPENDIX B**

The survey research questionnaire distributed to the seventy-four women police officers. It comprises of a Cover letter, a Demographic Questionnaire and the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised (CBI-R, Swanson & Daniels, 1996).

University of Cape Town

Dear Participant,

Thank you for participating in this survey. I hope that you will find it enlightening.

I would like to enlist your contribution in the completion of my Master's research that aims to review the perceptions of career barriers that female officers experience in the SAPS.

The status of women is changing in the world of work. Many women are entering careers that were previously considered as non-traditional for females. Research shows that many women still experience barriers to advancing in their careers. Permission has been granted at both a national and provincial level to conduct this research and I am dependent on your input on these important issues. Hopefully, the findings will inform and improve the career development of women in the SAPS. After completion of my study, the findings will be presented to you on request.

Your participation in the research is completely voluntary. It is understandable that you may be concerned about what happens to this information, as much of it is highly personal. Please be assured that the information will be treated as STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL and will be used only for the purpose of research. You will not be required to write your name on the questionnaire.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE:

Please answer each question to the best of your ability, by marking the appropriate block(s) with a cross (x) or writing in the appropriate one word answer. It is recommended that you complete the questionnaire in one sitting. You may ask the facilitator / researcher to clarify questions that are unclear to you. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire. The entire questionnaire should take no longer than one hour to complete. On completion of the questionnaire, kindly leave it at your seat or hand it in to the facilitator/ researcher.

Thanking you in anticipation for your valuable time to participate in and complete this survey.

Sincerely

ALISON FELIX

Please address any questions or concerns to:

Alison Felix - Researcher  
School of Management Studies  
University of Cape Town  
Telephone: 082 467 3236  
E-mail: [Alison\\_Felix@Amway.com](mailto:Alison_Felix@Amway.com)

## SECTION A

### DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

To protect your confidentiality, please do not indicate your name or any other identifying particulars in the questionnaire

Please mark an X in the appropriate block(s) or write in the answer where requested.

1. Please indicate your age in years.

2. State your race in terms of the previous dispensation.

White	African	Coloured	Indian	Other (specify)
-------	---------	----------	--------	-----------------

3. Indicate your current marital status.

Single (Never Married)	Divorced / Separated / Widowed	Married / Living Together	Other (specify)
------------------------	--------------------------------	---------------------------	-----------------

4. How many children do you have?

0	1	2	3	4+
---	---	---	---	----

5. Indicate your children's ages.

0-1	2-5	5-10	11-15
16 - 20	21 - 25	Older	

6. State your rank in the SAPS.

6 - Sergeant	7 - Inspector	8 - Captain	9- Superintendent
10 - Superintendent	11 - Senior Superintendent	12 - Senior Superintendent	13 - Director

7. Indicate which department / Business Unit you work in.

8. How long have you worked for the SAPS.

9. What is your highest academic qualification?

Less than a Matric (Junior Certificate)	Matric (Std 10)	Business College Diploma	Technical Diploma
Bachelor's degree	Honours Degree	Master's Degree	Other (specify)

**SECTION B**

**CAREER BARRIERS INVENTORY**

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

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

would not hinder at all										would completely hinder			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
1. Unsure of my career goals.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Needing to take time off work when children are sick or on school breaks.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Experiencing racial discrimination in hiring for a job.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Needing to relocate because of my spouse's/partner's job.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Changing my mind again and again about my career plans.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Having a disability which limits my choice of careers.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Discrimination by employer because I have, or plan to have, children.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Unsure of how to "sell myself" to an employer.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Becoming bored with my job/career.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Being discouraged from pursuing fields which are non-traditional for my sex (e.g., engineering for women).							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Feeling a conflict between my job and my family (spouse and/or children).							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Having a boss or supervisor who is biased against people of my racial/ethnic group.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Experiencing problems with my health that interfere with my job/career.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7

would not hinder at all				would hinder somewhat				would completely hinder
1	2	3	4	5	6			7
14. Unsure of my work-related values.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
15. Allowing my spouse's desire for children to take precedence over my career goals.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
16. Difficulty in finding a job due to a tight job market.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
17. Feeling pressure to "do it all" – expected to do well as parent, spouse, career person, etc.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
18. Not feeling confident about my ability on the job.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
19. Not being able to find good day-care services for my children.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
20. My spouse/partner doesn't approve of my choice of job/career.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
21. Not feeling confident about myself in general.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
22. Not wanting to relocate for my job/career.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
23. Feeling guilty about working while my children are young.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
24. Experiencing racial harassment on the job.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
25. Experiencing discrimination in hiring for a job because I have a disability.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
26. Not being paid as much as co-workers of the opposite sex.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
27. Being undecided about what job/career I would like.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
28. Stress at home (spouse or children) affecting my performance at work.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
29. Lacking the required personality traits for my job (e.g. assertiveness).								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
30. Disappointed in my career progress (e.g. not receiving promotions as often as I would like).								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
31. Other people's belief that certain careers are not appropriate for people of my sex.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
32. Losing interest in my job/career.								<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

would not hinder at all			would hinder somewhat			would completely hinder	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
33. Difficulty in re-entering job market after taking time off to care for my children.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Difficulty in planning my career due to changes in the economy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. Lacking the required skills for my job (e.g. communication, leadership, decision-making).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. Experiencing racial discrimination in promotions in job/career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. Difficulty in maintaining the ground gained at my job after having children.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. Not being sure how to choose a career direction.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. Unsure of what my career alternatives are.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. Conflict between marriage/family plans and my career plans.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41. Lack of maturity interferes with my career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. Not having a role model or mentor at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. Experiencing sex discrimination in hiring for a job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44. Not receiving support from my spouse/partner.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45. Having low self-esteem.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46. Discrimination due to my marital status.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
47. My parents/family don't approve of my choice of job/career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48. Having a boss or supervisor who is biased against people of my sex.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
49. People of the opposite sex receive promotions more often than people of my sex.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50. No opportunities for advancement in my career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51. Not being paid as much as co-workers of another racial/ethnic group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
52. My belief that certain careers are not appropriate for me because of my sex.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
53. Having children at a "bad time" in my career plans.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

would not  
hinder at all

would hinder  
somewhat

would completely  
hinder

1                    2                    3                    4                    5                    6                    7

54. People of other racial/ethnic groups receive promotions more often than people of my racial/ethnic group. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

55. Lacking information about possible jobs/careers. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

56. The outlook for future employment in my field is not promising. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

57. Being dissatisfied with my job/career. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

58. Unable to deal with physical or emotional demands of my job. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

59. Unsure of what I want out of life. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

60. Having an inflexible work schedule that interferes with my family responsibilities. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

61. Unsure of how to advance in my career. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

62. Lacking the necessary educational background for the job I want. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

63. Experiencing sexual harassment on the job. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

64. Fear that people will consider me “unfeminine” because my job/career is non-traditional for my sex. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

65. Not knowing the “right people” to get ahead in my career. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

66. Lacking the necessary hands-on experience for the job I want. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

67. Lack of opportunities for people of my sex in non-traditional fields. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

68. No demand for my area of training/education. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

69. Stress at work affecting my life at home. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

70. My friends don’t approve of my choice of job/career. 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

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

## APPENDIX C: Focus Group Discussion Outline and Questions

### Procedural Issues

- Read statement of intent and revisit the purpose of the focus group
- All participants should participate and everyone's opinion is respected
- Build on each other's thoughts
- There should be no interruptions whilst someone else is speaking
- The focus group will be conducted in English and Afrikaans
- Speak clearly and towards the microphone
- Switch off all cellular telephones

### Questions

#### Career Decision and Support from significant others

- What made you decide to take up a career in the SAPS?
- How did your family feel about this?
- How does your husband or partner feel about it now that you are married?
- What does the term Career barriers mean to you?

#### Sex Discrimination (SD)

- Sex discrimination is perceived as a significant barrier, mention
  - i) examples / situations of how you experience it at work?
  - ii) Whom you may experience it from (e.g male colleagues in your Business Unit, male superiors, majority of males in the SAPS whom you have to deal with).

#### Self-Efficacy / Lack of Confidence (LC)

- In what way do you feel those beliefs that you have about yourself impacts your ability and/ or decisions at work?
- What factors do you consider when you decide whether you can do the job?
- Describe a situation that strengthened your beliefs in your own ability?
- What in the work environment has an impact on the beliefs that you form about yourself/ your capabilities?

### Choice of Career and Children (CCC)

- How does having children and working in the SAPS impact on you?
- What is your experience about having more children and the impact on your career?
- How does this present a barrier for you?
- How do people and or your superiors in the SAPS react when you have to take time off for your children?

### Support from Significant others

- Could you be specific? Explain why you perceive that being married and working in the SAPS can provided a barrier?
- How would being married impact on your career in SAPS?
- Does the impact come form your partner or from the organisation?

### Multiple Role Conflict (MRC)

- Let us talk about the many roles that women have. Could you identify the roles that you as a woman hold?
- How does this impact on your career?

### Decision Making Difficulties (DMD)

- What are the aspects in your work that impact / prevent you from making decisions? Could it be your reporting line or personal circumstances that prevent you from making decisions?

### Networking and Socialising (DNS)

- Are most of your friends working for the SAPS or in other lines of work?
- In what ways or how do your friends support you?
- Do you find it easy to socialise in your line of work and by having a family?

### Racial Discrimination (RD)

- What is your experience of the SAPS focussing on addressing race?
- What are your views about this? Has focussing on race been a benefit for you in your career with SAPS.

Inadequate Preparation (IP)

- What experience have you had in terms of your academic qualifications assisting you in moving forward in your career with SAPS?
- Can you be more specific?
- Before the focus group closes, are there any topics that I have left out that you perceive also act as a career barrier?

## APPENDIX D: Frequency Distribution Tables

**Table 2**

Descriptive Statistics								
Variable	Mean	Median	Mode	Frequency of Mode	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Std.Dev.
Age	34.41	35	35	9	26	45	19	4.46
No.of Children	2.06	2	1	28	1	5	4	1.03
Tenure	14.43	14	13	11	2	23	21	5.17

**Table 3**

Frequency table: Age										
Category	Count	Cumulative Count	Percent of Valid	Cumul % of Valid	% of all Cases	Cumulative % of All	Expected Count	Cumulative Expected	Percent Expected	Cumulative Expected
20<=24	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.18	1.18	1.74	1.74
25<=29	13	13	19.12	19.12	19.12	19.12	9.78	10.96	14.39	16.13
30<=34	28	41	41.18	60.29	41.18	60.29	26.60	37.57	39.12	55.25
35<=39	21	62	30.88	91.18	30.88	91.18	23.27	60.85	34.24	89.49
40<=45	6	68	8.82	100	8.82	100	6.55	67.40	9.63	99.12
Missing	0	68	0		0	100				

**Table 4**

Frequency table: Number of Children										
Category	Count	Cumulative Count	Percent of Valid	Cumul % of Valid	% of all Cases	Cumulative % of All	Expected Count	Cumulative Expected	Percent Expected	Cumulative Expected
0 <= 1	28	28	41.18	41.18	41.18	41.18	10.41	10.41	15.31	15.31
1 <= 2	13	41	19.12	60.29	19.12	60.29	12.43	32.46	18.27	47.73
2 <= 3	23	64	33.82	94.12	33.82	94.12	10.43	55.65	15.34	81.84
3 <= 4	3	67	4.41	98.53	4.41	98.53	3.50	65.94	5.15	96.96
4 <= 5	1	68	1.47	100	1.47	100	0.47	67.85	0.69	99.78
Missing	0	68	0		0	100				

**Table 5**

Frequency table: Tenure										
Category	Count	Cumulative	Percent	Cumul %	% of all	Cumulative %	Expected	Cumulative	Percent	Cumulative %
		Count	of Valid	of Valid	Cases	of All	Count	Expected	Expected	Expected
0 <= 5 yrs	5	5	7.35	7.35	7.35	7.35	2.14	2.32	3.15	3.41
6 <= 10 yrs	8	13	11.76	19.11	11.76	19.11	11.00	13.32	16.18	19.59
11 <= 15 yrs	26	39	38.24	57.35	38.24	57.35	23.68	37.00	34.82	54.42
16 <= 20 yrs	23	62	33.82	91.17	33.82	91.17	21.44	58.44	31.53	85.95
21 <= 25 yrs	6	68	8.83	100	8.83	100	8.17	66.61	12.01	97.96
Missing	0	68	0		0	100				

**Table 6**

Frequency table: Race										
Category	Count	Cumulative	Percent	Cumul %	% of all	Cumulative %	Expected	Cumulative	Percent	Cumulative %
		Count	of Valid	of Valid	Cases	of All	Count	Expected	Expected	Expected
White	55	55	80.88	80.88	80.88	80.88	22.10	22.10	33	33
African	4	59	5.88	86.76	5.88	86.76	15.42	55.26	22.68	81.27
Coloured	8	67	11.77	98.53	11.77	98.53	3.17	67.12	4.66	98.71
Indian	1	68	1.47	100	1.47	100	0.12	67.99	0.17	99.98
Missing	0	68	0		0	100				

**Table 7**

Frequency table: Marital Status										
Category	Count	Cumulative	Percent	Cumul %	% of all	Cumulative %	Expected	Cumulative	Percent	Cumulative %
		Count	of Valid	of Valid	Cases	of All	Count	Expected	Expected	Expected
Single (Never been married)	18	18	26.47	26.47	26.47	26.47	4.08	4.08	5.99	5.99
Divorced/ Separated/ Widowed	7	25	10.29	36.77	10.29	36.77	11.97	22.98	17.60	33.79
Married / Living Together	43	68	63.24	100	63.24	100	13.88	51.95	20.41	76.40
Missing	0	68	0		0	100				

Table 8

Frequency table: Rank										
Category	Count	Cumulative	Percent	Cumul %	% of all	Cumulative %	Expected	Cumulative	Percent	Cumulative %
		Count	of Valid	of Valid	Cases	of All	Count	Expected	Expected	Expected
Sergeant	6	6	8.82	8.82	8.82	8.82	4.80	4.80	7.06	7.06
Inspector	30	36	44.12	52.94	44.12	52.94	7.99	17.96	11.75	26.41
Captain	17	53	25	77.94	25	77.94	11.32	39.66	16.65	58.32
Superintendent	5	58	7.35	85.29	7.35	85.29	7.99	58.03	11.75	85.33
Senior Superintendent	10	68	14.71	100	14.71	100	2.81	66.01	4.13	97.06
Missing	0	68	0		0	100				

Table 9

Frequency table: Business Unit										
Category	Count	Cumulative	Percent	Cumul %	% of all	Cumulative %	Expected	Cumulative	Percent	Cumulative %
		Count	of Valid	of Valid	Cases	of All	Count	Expected	Expected	Expected
Forensic Science Laboratory	3	3	4.41	4.41	4.41	4.41	1.99	1.99	2.92	2.92
Dog Unit	5	8	7.35	11.76	7.35	11.76	3.10	5.08	4.56	7.48
Commercial Crime Unit	12	20	17.65	29.41	17.65	29.41	5.88	10.96	8.64	16.12
Organised Crime	2	22	2.94	32.35	2.94	32.35	9.12	20.08	13.41	29.53
Operational Response Unit	15	37	22.06	54.41	22.06	54.41	11.58	31.66	17.03	46.56
Human Resources	14	51	20.59	75	20.59	75	12.03	43.69	17.70	64.25
Management Services	7	58	10.29	85.29	10.29	85.29	10.23	53.92	15.05	79.30
Financial Services	2	60	2.94	88.23	2.94	88.23	7.12	61.04	10.47	89.77
Local Criminal Record Centre	8	68	11.77	100.0000	11.77	100	4.05	65.10	5.96	95.73
Missing	0	68	0		0	100				

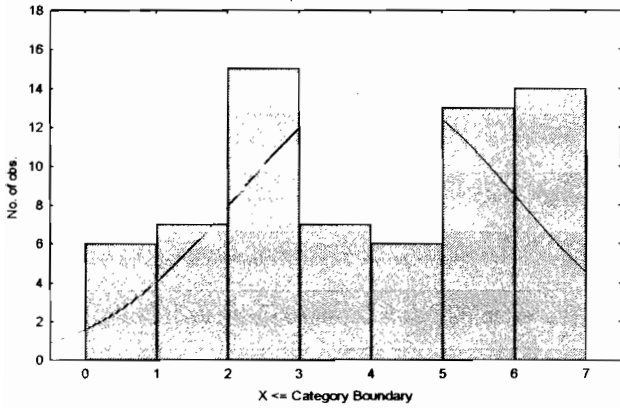
Table 10

Frequency table: Academic Qualification										
Category	Count	Cumulative	Percent	Cumul %	% of all	Cumulative %	Expected	Cumulative	Percent	Cumulative %
		Count	of Valid	of Valid	Cases	of All	Count	Expected	Expected	Expected
Std 8 Certificate	1	1	1.47	1.47	1.47	1.47	4.77	4.77	7.01	7.01
Matric (Std 10)	30	31	44.12	45.59	44.12	45.59	9.02	13.78	13.26	20.27
Business College Diploma	9	40	13.24	58.82	13.24	58.82	15.12	28.90	22.23	42.50
Technikon Diploma	16	56	23.53	82.35	23.53	82.35	16.99	45.90	24.99	67.50
Bachelor's Degree	4	60	5.88	88.24	5.88	88.24	12.82	58.73	18.86	86.36
Honours Degree	5	65	7.35	95.59	7.35	95.59	6.49	65.21	9.54	95.90
Masters Degree	2	67	2.94	98.53	2.94	98.53	2.20	67.42	3.24	99.14
Police Administration Qualification	1	68	1.47	100	1.47	100	0.50	67.92	0.74	99.88
Missing	0	68	0		0	100				

**APPENDIX E : Histograms**

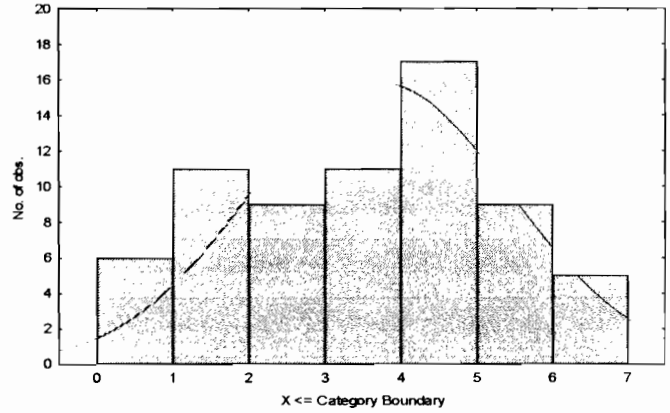
**Sex Discrimination - SD**

Histogram: SD:  $= (q7+q26+q43+q48+q48+q49+q63)/7$   
 K-S d= .12753, p> .20; Lilliefors p<.01



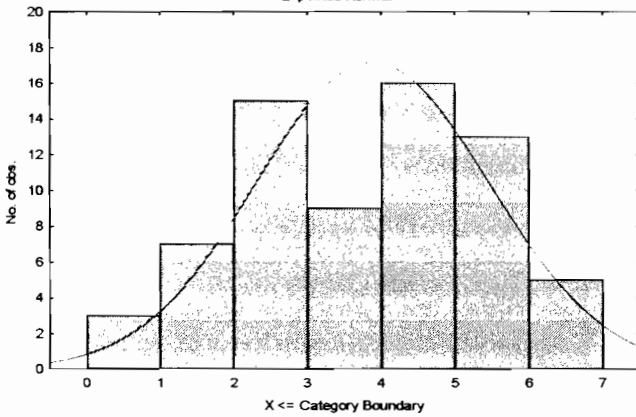
**Lack of Confidence - LC**

Histogram: LC:  $= (q18+q21+q41+q45)/4$   
 K-S d= .10193, p> .20; Lilliefors p<.10



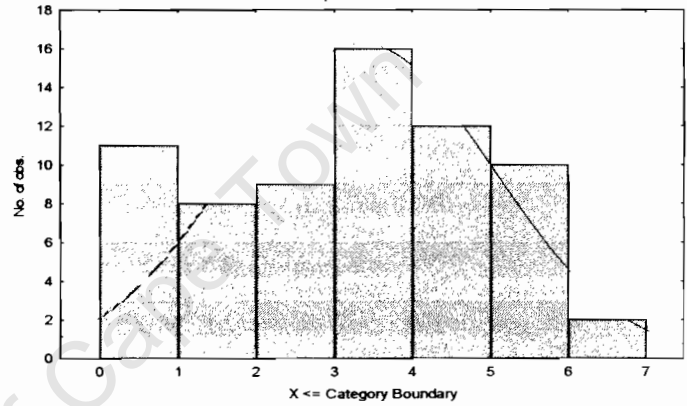
**Multiple Role Conflict - MRC**

Histogram: MRC:  $= (Q4+Q11+Q17+Q28+Q40+Q44+Q60+Q69)/8$   
 K-S d= .08490, p> .20; Lilliefors p> .20



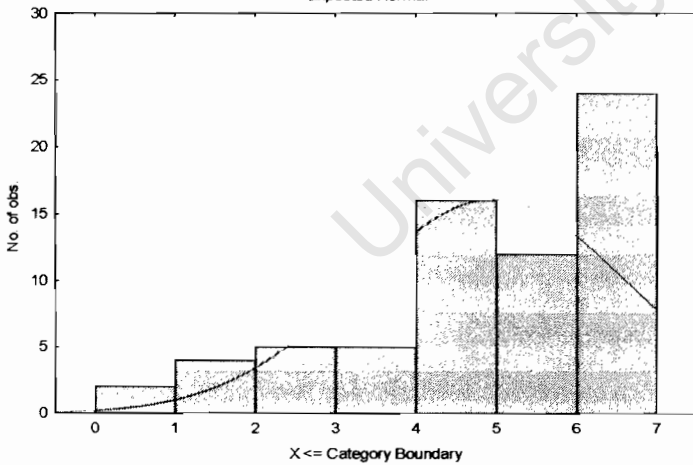
**Conflict between Children and Career Demands - CCC**

Histogram: CCC:  $= (Q2+Q15+Q19+Q23+Q33+Q37+Q53)/7$   
 K-S d= .11325, p> .20; Lilliefors p<.05



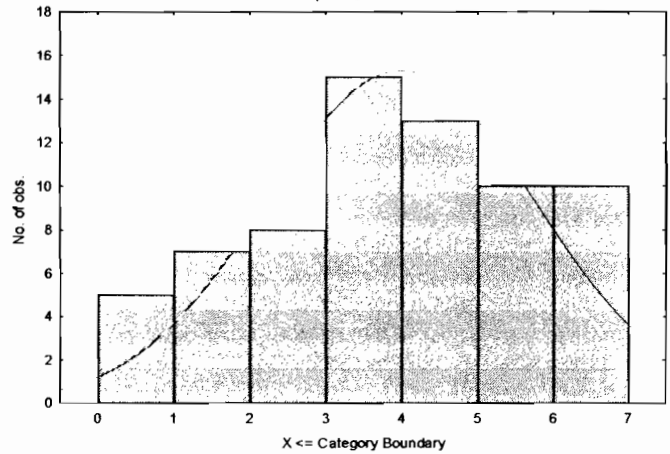
**Racial Discrimination - RD**

Histogram: RD:  $= (Q3+Q12+Q24+Q36+Q51+Q54)/6$   
 K-S d= .14271, p<.15; Lilliefors p<.01

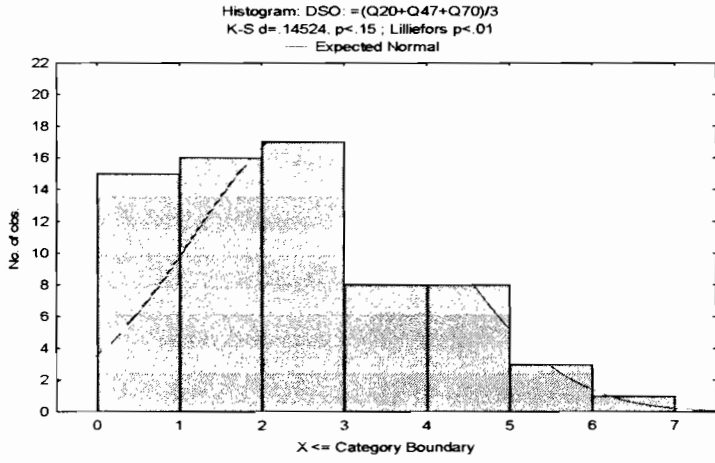


**Inadequate Preparation - IP**

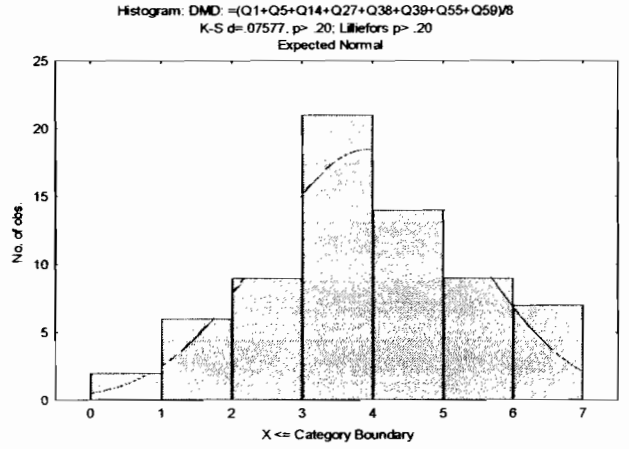
Histogram: IP:  $= (Q29+Q35+Q58+Q62+Q66)/5$   
 K-S d= .08678, p> .20; Lilliefors p> .20



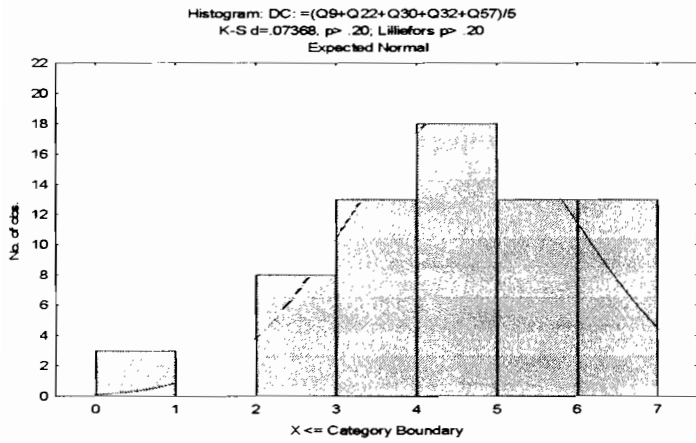
Disapproval by Significant other - DSO



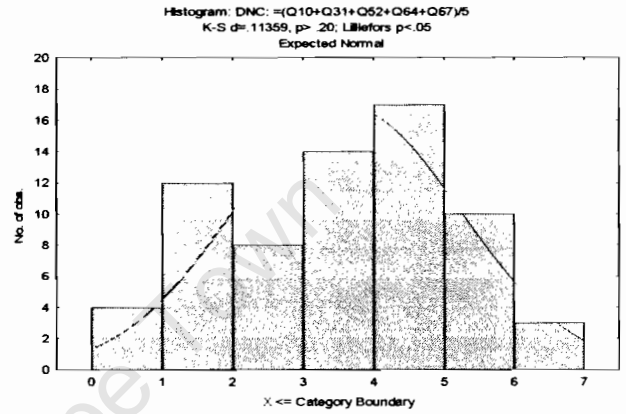
Decision Making Difficulties - DMD



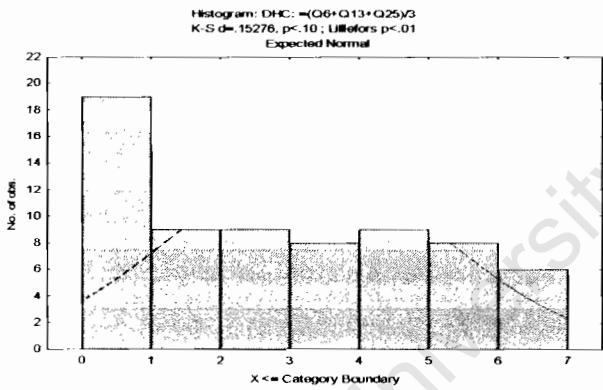
Dissatisfaction with Career - DC



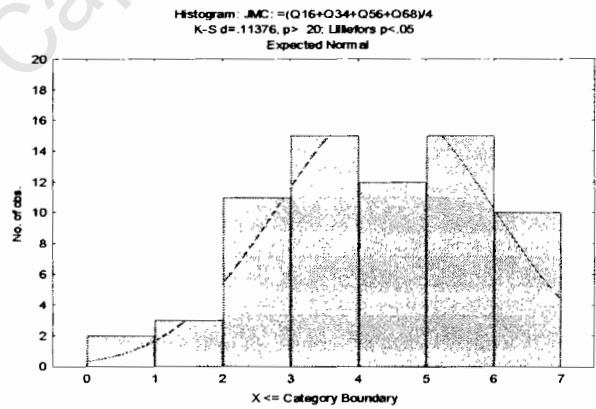
Discouraged from choosing a Non-traditional Career - DNC



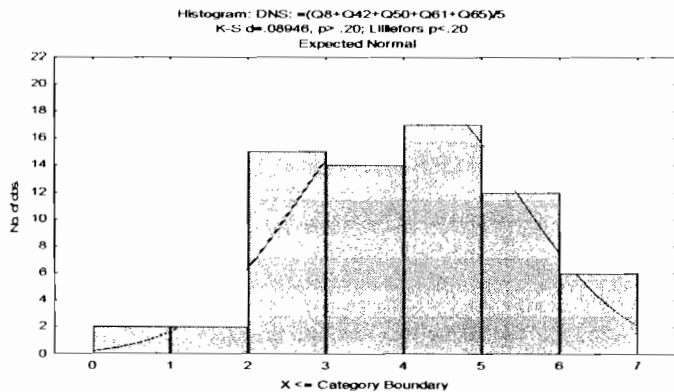
Disability / Health Concerns - DHC



Job Market Constraints - JMC



Difficulties with Networking / Socialising - DNS



## APPENDIX F: Correlation Statistics

**Table 11**

Variable		Correlations (Surveyalison.sta)		
		Age	No.of Children	Tenure
	SD	-0.10	<i>0.40</i>	0.01
	LC	-0.19	<i>0.31</i>	-0.06
	MRC	-0.09	<i>0.44</i>	0.03
	CCC	-0.05	<i>0.52</i>	0.03
	RD	-0.16	<i>0.29</i>	-0.10
	IP	-0.18	<b><i>0.24</i></b>	-0.04
	DSO	-0.04	<i>0.25</i>	0.07
	DMD	-0.05	<i>0.33</i>	0.15
	DC	-0.12	0.16	0.08
	DNC	-0.11	0.23	0.04
	DHC	-0.23	0.15	-0.13
	JMC	-0.10	<i>0.34</i>	0.06
	DNS	-0.02	0.27	0.16

Numbers that are in italics indicate a positive relationship with the respective career barrier

## APPENDIX G: F-tests

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

**Table 12**

### UNIVARIATE RESULTS - Age

Variable	F - Value	P - value
SD	7.17810	0.009370**
LC	9.39128	0.003190**
MRC	22.61152	0.005672**
CCC	5.99886	0.017063*
RD	3.33784	0.072367
IP	9.10971	0.003648**
DSO	4.254203	0.043217*
DMD	13.79284	0.000430**
DC	12.02451	0.000944**
DNC	8.18835	0.005690**
DHC	5.70894	0.019836*
JMC	10.72072	0.001711**
DNS	9.38732	0.003196**

\* : < 5% indicates the result is significant

\*\* : <= 1% indicates the result is very significant

**Table 13**

### UNIVARIATE RESULTS - Number of Children

Variable	F - Value	P - value
SD	19.14278	0.000046**
LC	13.76369	0.000436**
MRC	22.61152	0.000012**
CCC	32.64744	0.000000**
RD	10.96071	0.001532**
IP	8.35082	0.005257**
DSO	5.525698	0.021832*
DMD	11.33278	0.001292**
DC	3.55274	0.063989
DNC	6.09097	0.016271*
DHC	4.51319	0.037503*
JMC	13.37615	0.000517**
DNS	6.82812	0.011172*

\* : < 5% indicates the result is significant

\*\* : <= 1% indicates the result is very significant

**Table 14**

### UNIVARIATE RESULTS - Tenure

Variable	F - Value	P - value
SD	2.36806	0.128771
LC	2.89994	0.093435
MRC	3.00432	0.087858
CCC	1.47787	0.228574
RD	0.27174	0.603968
IP	3.65203	0.060482
DSO	2.730784	0.103329
DMD	11.13407	0.001415**
DC	9.16925	0.003545**
DNC	4.94809	0.029653*
DHC	1.20448	0.276540
JMC	5.95119	0.017489*
DNS	8.56242	0.004745**

\* : < 5% indicates the result is significant

\*\* : <= 1% indicates the result is very significant

## APPENDIX H: ANOVA (Analysis of Variance)

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

**Table 15**

### UNIVARIATE RESULTS - Race

Variable	F - Value	P - value
SD	0.30221	0.823675
LC	0.34062	0.796018
MRC	0.6609	0.579162
CCC	0.37432	0.771810
RD	1.38929	0.254272
IP	0.20440	0.892983
DSO	0.30565	0.821199
DMD	0.58510	0.626997
DC	0.72964	0.538145
DNC	0.68550	0.564239
DHC	2.43792	0.072747
JMC	0.50704	0.678842
DNS	2.15347	0.102351

\* : < 5% indicates the result is significant

\*\* : <= 1% indicates the result is very significant

**Table 16**

### UNIVARIATE RESULTS – Marital Status

Variable	F-Value	P- Value
SD	<b>3.7534</b>	<b>0.028749*</b>
LC	1.8349	0.167924
MRC	<b>5.840</b>	<b>0.004683**</b>
CCC	<b>3.5573</b>	<b>0.034282*</b>
RD	<b>7.6625</b>	<b>0.001039**</b>
IP	<b>5.0721</b>	<b>0.009022**</b>
DSO	<b>5.7574</b>	<b>0.005020**</b>
DMD	2.5674	0.084616
DC	<b>6.6279</b>	<b>0.002421**</b>
DNC	<b>3.8438</b>	<b>0.026518*</b>
DHC	2.10804	0.129832
JMC	<b>8.3580</b>	<b>0.000596**</b>
DNS	<b>6.7034</b>	<b>0.002274**</b>

\* : < 5% indicates the result is significant

\*\* : <= 1% indicates the result is very significant

**Table 17**

### UNIVARIATE RESULTS - Rank

Variable	F-Value	P - Value
SD	0.338	0.508888
LC	0.5302	0.713969
MRC	0.859	0.493856
CCC	1.0226	0.402761
RD	0.2761	0.892318
IP	0.7015	0.593900
DSO	0.8717	0.486112
DMD	1.9688	0.110342
DC	1.8522	0.130212
DNC	0.5121	0.727041
DHC	0.7826	0.540806
JMC	0.7711	0.548144
DNS	1.2178	0.312390

\* : < 5% indicates the result is significant

\*\* : <= 1% indicates the result is very significant

**Table 18****UNIVARIATE RESULTS – Business Unit**

Variable	F - Value	P - value
SD	1.2790	0.272295
LC	0.4554	0.882072
MRC	1.753	0.105491
CCC	1.0803	0.389647
RD	1.1714	0.331925
IP	0.7054	0.685488
DSO	1.0332	0.422142
DMD	0.6564	0.727132
DC	1.1974	0.316673
DNC	1.0224	0.429796
DHC	1.1288	0.358079
JMC	0.6514	0.731290
DNS	2.0408	0.057162

\* : &lt; 5% indicates the result is significant

\*\* : &lt;= 1% indicates the result is very significant

**Table 19****UNIVARIATE RESULTS – Academic Qualifications**

Variable	F - Value	P-Value
SD	<b>2.29508</b>	<b>0.038770*</b>
LC	<b>2.60130</b>	<b>0.020776*</b>
MRC	<b>2.7085</b>	<b>0.016685*</b>
CCC	1.58388	0.158066
RD	1.7638	0.111868
IP	<b>3.8178</b>	<b>0.001749**</b>
DSO	1.40115	0.222067
DMD	<b>4.1611</b>	<b>0.000882**</b>
DC	2.0022	0.069906
DNC	<b>3.17330</b>	<b>0.006450**</b>
DHC	1.17035	0.333568
JMC	<b>2.9808</b>	<b>0.009557**</b>
DNS	<b>2.3822</b>	<b>0.032483*</b>

\* : &lt; 5% indicates the result is significant

\*\* : &lt;= 1% indicates the result is very significant

University of Cape Town

## APPENDIX I: Scheffé Tests

**Table 20**

**Age and Lack of Confidence (LC)**

Cell No.	Age	Scheffe test; variable LC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.6786, df = 50																	
		{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
1	26	3.25	4.87	2.91	5.41	2.66	4.31	4.31	4.50	3.16	3.75	4.25	2.20	4.50	3.75	2.83	3.00	6.25	1.50
2	27	1.00		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99
3	28	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
4	29	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.96	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.97
5	30	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00
6	31	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99
7	32	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99
8	33	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99
9	34	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
10	35	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
11	36	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
12	37	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.96	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99		0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
13	38	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99
14	39	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
15	40	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00
16	41	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	1.00
17	42	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99		0.99	0.99
18	45	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.97	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99		0.99

**Table 21**

**Age and Inadequate Preparation (IP)**

Cell No.	Age	Scheffe test; variable IP. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.7684, df = 50																	
		{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
1	26	3.50	5.60	3.40	5.53	3.13	4.80	4.55	3.75	3.33	3.97	3.95	2.26	4.84	4.40	3.73	4.00	6.80	1.00
2	27	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.96
3	28	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
4	29	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.96	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.92
5	30	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
6	31	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.94
7	32	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98
8	33	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
9	34	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
10	35	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
11	36	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
12	37	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.96	1.00	0.95	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99		0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.98	1.00
13	38	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.96
14	39	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
15	40	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99	0.99
16	41	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	0.99
17	42	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99		0.95
18	45	0.99	0.96	0.99	0.92	0.99	0.94	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.96	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.95	

**Table 22****Scheffé Test: Age and Sex Discrimination (SD)**

Scheffe test; variable SD. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 3.1953, df = 50																			
Cell No.	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
	26	3.14	6.71	1.71	5.66	3.19	4.87	3.71	4.32	3.33	4.03	5.14	2.88	5.37	3.90	4.00	3.52	6.57	1.00
2	27	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.87
3	28	1.00	0.91	0.97	0.97	1.00	0.97	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.98	1.00	0.95	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00
4	29	0.99	1.00	0.97	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.999	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.95
5	30	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
6	31	0.99	0.99	0.97	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.96
7	32	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
8	33	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
9	34	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
10	35	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
11	36	0.99	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.97
12	37	1.00	0.97	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
13	38	0.99	1.00	0.95	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.93
14	39	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
15	40	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
16	41	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
17	42	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.98
18	45	0.99	0.87	1.00	0.95	0.99	0.96	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.93	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.98

**Table 23****Scheffé Test: Age and Multiple-Role Conflict (MRC)**

Scheffe test; variable MRC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.3020, df = 59																			
Cell No.	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
	26	2.43	5.31	2.08	5.62	3.50	4.45	4.18	4.37	3.16	4.13	4.09	2.06	4.50	4.50	3.58	4.29	6.50	1.37
1	27	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.98	1.00
2	28	1.00	0.97	0.97	0.86	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.95	1.00
3	29	0.98	1.00	0.86	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.65	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.78
4	30	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
5	31	0.99	1.00	0.97	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.84	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.94
6	32	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
7	33	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.97	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98
8	34	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
9	35	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.97
10	36	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
11	37	1.00	0.93	1.00	0.65	0.99	0.84	0.98	0.97	1.00	0.93	0.99	0.92	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.91	1.00
12	38	0.99	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.92	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.96
13	39	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98
14	40	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
15	41	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
16	42	0.98	1.00	0.95	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.91	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.89
17	45	1.00	0.93	1.00	0.78	0.99	0.94	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.97	0.99	1.00	0.96	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.89

**Table 24****Scheffé Test: Age and Conflict between Children and Career Demands (CCC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable CCC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.1586, df = 50																		
	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
1	26		0.99	1.00	0.81	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.95	1.00
2	27	0.99		0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
3	28	1.00	0.99		0.68	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.97	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.92	1.00
4	29	0.81	0.99	0.68		0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.95	0.99	0.99	0.91	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.73
5	30	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
6	31	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
7	32	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
8	33	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
9	34	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.95	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
10	35	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
11	36	0.99	1.00	0.97	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.97
12	37	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.91	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
13	38	0.99	1.00	0.97	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.97
14	39	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99
15	40	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.97	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	0.99	0.99
16	41	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	0.99
17	42	0.95	0.99	0.92	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99		0.92
18	45	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.73	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	

**Table 25****Scheffé Test: Age and Disapproval by Significant Others (DSO)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DSO. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.1563, df = 50																		
	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
1	26	2.33	3.00	1.55	4.22	2.22	2.83	2.58	2.75	2.66	2.74	2.91	1.66	3.46	2.11	2.11	3.33	5.33	1.00
2	27	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
3	28	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00
4	29	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99
5	30	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
6	31	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
7	32	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
8	33	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
9	34	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
10	35	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
11	36	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
12	37	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
13	38	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99
14	39	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00
15	40	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00
16	41	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		0.99	0.99
17	42	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99		0.99
18	45	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	

**Table 26**

**Scheffé Test: Age and Dissatisfaction with Career (DC)**

Scheffe test; variable DC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.5943, df = 50																			
Cell No.	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
		3.50	6.40	3.66	4.93	3.40	5.12	5.10	3.95	4.13	4.91	4.80	3.93	5.68	5.06	4.06	4.73	5.60	1
1	26		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
2	27	0.99		0.99	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.40
3	28	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
4	29	0.99	0.99	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.86
5	30	1.00	0.97	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.98	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
6	31	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.46
7	32	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.65
8	33	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.97
9	34	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.96
10	35	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.55
11	36	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.77
12	37	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.95
13	38	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.33
14	39	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.75
15	40	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	0.97
16	41	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.86
17	42	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.92
18	45	0.99	0.40	0.40	0.80	0.99	0.46	0.65	0.97	0.96	0.55	0.77	0.95	0.33	0.75	0.97	0.86	0.92	

**Table 27**

**Scheffé Test: Age and Discouraged from Choosing a Non-Traditional Career (DNC)**

Scheffe test; variable DNC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.3935, df = 50																			
Cell No.	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
		3.30	4.30	2.53	4.85	2.60	4.82	3.40	3.00	2.46	3.66	4.20	3.16	4.20	2.73	3.60	4.02	5.61	1
1	26		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
2	27	1.00		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
3	28	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
4	29	1.00	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
5	30	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
6	31	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
7	32	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
8	33	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
9	34	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00
10	35	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
11	36	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99		1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
12	37	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
13	38	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
14	39	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
15	40	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	0.99
16	41	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99
17	42	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		0.99
18	45	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.97	1.00	0.91	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	

Table 28

## Scheffé Test: Age and Decision Making Difficulty (DMD)

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DMD. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.8933, df = 50																		
	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
1	26		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
2	27	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
3	28	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
4	29	1.00	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
5	30	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
6	31	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
7	32	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
8	33	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
9	34	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99
10	35	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
11	36	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
12	37	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99
13	38	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.97		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
14	39	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.87
15	40	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99	0.99
16	41	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	0.99
17	42	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99		0.87
18	45	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.96	0.99	0.91	0.96	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.93	0.99	0.99	0.87	0.98	0.99	0.87	

Table 29

## Scheffé Test: Age and Disability / Health Concerns (DHC)

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DHC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 3.8162, df = 50																			
	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}	
1	26		0.99	1.00	0.99	4.88	4.11	3.79	4.08	3.83	2.11	2.81	3.08	2.27	3.38	2.88	3.55	1.56	5.20	1
2	27	0.99		0.97	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99
3	28	1.00	0.97		0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
4	29	0.99	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99
5	30	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99
6	31	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99
7	32	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99
8	33	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99
9	34	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
10	35	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
11	36	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
12	37	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
13	38	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99
14	39	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
15	40	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99
16	41	1.00	0.97	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00
17	42	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	0.99
18	45	1.00	0.96	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	

**Table 30****Scheffé Test: Age and Job Market Constraints (JMC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable JMC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.9639, df = 50																		
	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
1	26		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
2	27	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.91
3	28	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
4	29	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.85
5	30	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
6	31	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.86	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.58
7	32	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.97
8	33	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.97
9	34	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99
10	35	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.80
11	36	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.78
12	37	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.86	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.98	0.98		0.98	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99
13	38	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.98		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.80
14	39	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.93
15	40	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99	0.99
16	41	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.83
17	42	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		0.87
18	45	0.99	0.91	0.99	0.85	0.99	0.58	0.97	0.97	0.97	0.80	0.78	0.99	0.80	0.93	0.99	0.83	0.87	

**Table 31****Scheffé Test: Age and Difficulty Networking / Socialisation (DNS)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DNS. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.6136, df = 50																		
	Age	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}
1	26		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00
2	27	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
3	28	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00
4	29	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
5	30	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00
6	31	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99
7	32	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00		0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
8	33	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00
9	34	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
10	35	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99
11	36	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99
12	37	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99		0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00
13	38	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99
14	39	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99
15	40	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	0.99
16	41	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99
17	42	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99
18	45	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	

**Scheffé Test: Marital Status – 1 = Single; 2 = Separated, Divorced or Widowed; 3 = Married or Living together**

**Table 32**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Inadequate Preparation (IP)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable IP. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.7813, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	3.61	2.31	4.41
2	2	0.23	0.23	0.25
3	3	0.25	<b>0.01</b>	

- Bold numbers indicate that married women reported higher IP scores than separated, divorced or widowed women did thus perceiving being married as aiding their inadequate preparation for their career.

**Table 33**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Sex Discrimination (SD)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable SD. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 3.5289, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	3.52	0.61	0.17
2	2	0.61		0.06
3	3	0.17	0.06	

- The number in italics indicate that married women reported slightly higher scores than women officers who are separated, divorced or widowed. This indicates that married women perceive slightly more discrimination in their career because they are women.

**Table 34**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Multiple-Role Conflict (MRC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable MRC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.1410, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	3.15	2.77	4.36
2	2	0.85	0.85	<b>0.01</b>
3	3	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.03*</b>	

- The bold numbers indicate that married women report much higher scores for multiple role conflict than single women, thus indicating a greater perception of multiple role conflict.
- The bold\* numbers indicate that married women officers reported higher multiple role conflict scores than those that were separated, divorced or widowed.

**Table 35**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Conflict between Children and Career Demands (CCC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable CCC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.5538, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	2.71	2.45	3.76
2	2	0.95	0.95	0.07
3	3	0.07	0.16	0.16

**Table 36**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Racial Discrimination (RD)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable RD. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.3592, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	4.49	3.14	5.45
2	2	0.15	0.15	0.09
3	3	0.09	<b>0.002</b>	<b>0.002</b>

- The bold numbers indicate that married women reported much higher racial discrimination scores than separated, divorced or widowed women, thus perceiving more discrimination because they are married.

**Table 37**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Disapproval by Significant Others (DSO)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DSO. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.8947, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	2.15	1.43	3.06
2	2	0.51	0.51	0.07
3	3	0.07	<b>0.01</b>	

- The bold numbers indicate that married women officers reported much higher scores than those who are separated, divorced or widowed. This indicates that the married officers perceive greater disapproval from their significant others about their career choice.

**Table 38**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Dissatisfaction with Career (DC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.7677, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	4.07	3.23	4.98
2	2	0.37	0.37	<b>0.06</b>
3	3	<b>0.06</b>	<b>0.007</b>	

- The number in italics indicate that married women reported slightly higher DC scores than single women, indicating that they perceive slightly greater dissatisfaction with their career because they are married.
- The bold numbers indicate that married women officers reported much higher scores than separated, divorced or widowed women in terms of career dissatisfaction.

**Table 39**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Discouraged from choosing a Non-Traditional Career (DNC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DNC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.3733, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	3.45	2.17	3.91
2	2	0.19	0.19	<b>0.56</b>
3	3	0.56	<b>0.02</b>	

- The bold numbers indicate a that married women reported higher DNC scores than those who are separated, divorced or widowed, indicating that they have a greater perception of being discouraged from working in a policing environment.

**Table 40**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Job Market Constraints**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable JMC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.0060, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	3.68	2.96	4.91
2	2	0.53	0.53	<b>0.01</b>
3	3	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.005</b>	

- The bold numbers indicate that married women officers reported higher job market constraint scores than single women and much higher scores than those women officers that are separated, divorced or widowed. Their perception is that as a married woman they face greater constraints in the job market.

**Table 41**  
**Scheffé Test: Marital status and Difficulty Networking / Socialisation (DNS)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DN. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.6393, df = 65			
	Marital Status	{1}	{2}	{3}
1	1	3.38	3.14	4.51
2	2	0.92	0.92	<b>0.009</b>
3	3	<b>0.009</b>	<b>0.03*</b>	

- The bold numbers indicate that married officers reported much higher DNS scores than single officers and higher scores (bold\*) than those officers that separated, divorced or widowed. They perceive it more difficulty to network or socialise in their policing career because they are married.

**Scheffé Test: Number of Children – 1 = one child; 2 = two children; 3 = three children;  
4 = four children; 5 = five children**

**Table 42**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Lack of Confidence (LC)**

Scheffe test; variable LC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.7984, df = 63						
Cell No.	No. of Children	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
		3.19	3.65	4.23	4.33	6
1	1		0.95	0.31	0.87	0.61
2	2	0.95		0.91	0.98	0.77
3	3	0.31	0.91		0.99	0.89
4	4	0.87	0.98	0.99		0.95
5	5	0.61	0.77	0.89	0.95	

**Table 43**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Inadequate Preparation (IP)**

Scheffe test; variable IP. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 3.0831, df = 63						
Cell No.	No. of Children	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
		3.51	4.09	4.39	3.93	6.40
1	1		0.91	0.53	0.99	0.63
2	2	0.91		0.99	0.99	0.81
3	3	0.53	0.99		0.99	0.87
4	4	0.99	0.99	0.99		0.83
5	5	0.63	0.81	0.87	0.83	

**Table 44**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Sex Discrimination (SD)**

Scheffe test; variable SD. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 3.3877, df = 63						
Cell No.	No. of Children	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
		3.22	4.13	4.83	4.86	7
1	1		0.70	0.06	0.71	0.40
2	2	0.70		0.88	0.98	0.69
3	3	0.06	0.88		1.00	0.85
4	4	0.71	0.98	1.00		0.91
5	5	0.40	0.69	0.85	0.91	

- The number in italics indicates that women officers with three children perceive slightly greater sex discrimination than those who have one child.

**Table 45**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Multiple-Role Conflict (MRC)**

Scheffe test; variable MRC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.1197, df = 63						
Cell No.	No. of Children	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
		3.15	3.99	4.45	4.75	6.88
1	1		0.57	0.05	0.52	0.19
2	2	0.57		0.94	0.95	0.46
3	3	0.05	0.94		0.99	0.62
4	4	0.52	0.95	0.99		0.81
5	5	0.19	0.46	0.62	0.81	

- The number in italics indicates that women officers with three children perceive slightly higher multiple-role conflict than those who have one child.

**Table 46**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Conflict between Children and Career Demands (CCC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable CCC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.1309, df = 63					
	No. of Children	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
		2.41	3.58	4.01	5.10	6
1	1		0.24	<b>0.007</b>	0.07	0.23
2	2	0.24		0.95	0.63	0.64
3	3	<b>0.007</b>	0.95		0.83	0.78
4	4	0.07	0.63	0.83		0.99
5	5	0.23	0.64	0.78	0.99	

- The bold number indicates that women with three children perceive much greater levels of conflict between their career demands and their children than those women with one child.

**Table 47**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Racial Discrimination (RD)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable RD. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.7577, df = 63					
	No. of Children	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
		4.41	5.14	5.36	5.77	6.50
1	1		0.78	0.39	0.76	0.82
2	2	0.78		0.99	0.99	0.96
3	3	0.39	0.99		0.99	0.98
4	4	0.76	0.99	0.99		0.99
5	5	0.82	0.96	0.98	0.99	

**Table 48**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Disapproval by Significant Others (DSO)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DSO. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.1033, df = 63					
	No. of Children	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
		2.31	2.41	3.16	2.44	4.33
1	1		0.99	0.37	0.99	0.76
2	2	0.99		0.69	1.00	0.80
3	3	0.37	0.69		0.96	0.96
4	4	0.99	1.00	0.96		0.86
5	5	0.76	0.80	0.96	0.86	

**Table 49**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Discouraged from Choosing a Non-Traditional Career (DNC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DNC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.5990, df = 63					
	No. of Children	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
		3.20	3.66	3.96	4.33	4.20
1	1		0.95	0.59	0.85	0.98
2	2	0.95		0.99	0.98	0.99
3	3	0.59	0.99		0.99	0.99
4	4	0.85	0.98	0.99		0.99
5	5	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99	

**Table 50**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of children and Decision Making Difficulty (DMD)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DMD. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.9775, df = 63					
	No. of Children	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
		3.46	3.70	4.50	3.96	6.25
1	1		0.99	0.16	0.99	0.44
2	2	0.99		0.62	0.99	0.55
3	3	0.16	0.62		0.98	0.83
4	4	0.99	0.99	0.98		0.74
5	5	0.44	0.55	0.83	0.74	

**Table 51**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Disability / Health Concerns (DHC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DHC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 4.0127, df = 63					
	No. of Children	{1} 2.98	{2} 3.38	{3} 3.32	{4} 3.22	{5} 7
1	1		0.98	0.98	0.99	0.43
2	2	0.98		0.99	0.99	0.56
3	3	0.98	0.99		0.99	0.52
4	4	0.99	0.99	0.99		0.62
5	5	0.43	0.56	0.52	0.62	

**Table 52**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Job Market Constraints (JMC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable JMC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.2470, df = 63					
	No. of Children	{1} 3.80	{2} 4.44	{3} 4.95	{4} 4.33	{5} 7
1	1		0.81	0.13	0.99	0.37
2	2	0.81		0.91	0.99	0.61
3	3	0.13	0.91		0.98	0.78
4	4	0.97	0.99	0.98		0.67
5	5	0.37	0.61	0.78	0.67	

**Table 53**  
**Scheffé Test: Number of Children and Difficulty Networking / Socialisation (DNS)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable DNS. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.8772, df = 63					
	No. of Children	{1} 3.61	{2} 4.32	{3} 4.38	{4} 4.47	{5} 5.40
1	1		0.66	0.41	0.89	0.79
2	2	0.66		0.99	0.99	0.97
3	3	0.41	0.99		0.99	0.97
4	4	0.89	0.99	0.99		0.99
5	5	0.79	0.97	0.97	0.99	

**Scheffé Test: Academic Qualifications: 1 = Less than Standard 10; 2 = Standard 10; 3 = Business College Diploma; 4 = Technikon Diploma; 5 = University Bachelors Degree; 6 = University Honours Degree; 7 = University Masters Degree; 8 = Other**

**Table 54**  
**Scheffé Test: Academic qualifications and Lack of Confidence (LC)**

Cell No.	Scheffe test; variable LC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.4875, df = 60								
	Academic Qualifications	{1} 3.00	{2} 3.60	{3} 4.47	{4} 4.11	{5} 5.25	{6} 1.75	{7} 1.50	{8} 3.25
1	1		0.99	0.99	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.99	1.00
2	2	0.99		0.95	0.99	0.79	0.53	0.84	1.00
3	3	0.99	0.95		0.99	0.99	0.23	0.56	0.99
4	4	0.99	0.99	0.99		0.97	0.30	0.67	0.99
5	5	0.97	0.79	0.99	0.97		0.16	0.38	0.98
6	6	0.99	0.55	0.23	0.30	0.16		1.00	0.99
7	7	0.99	0.84	0.56	0.67	0.38	1.00		0.99
8	8	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.99	

**Table 55**  
**Scheffé Test: Academic Qualifications and Inadequate Preparation (IP)**

Scheffe test; variable IP. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.3857, df = 60									
Cell No.	Academic Qualifications	{1} 2.20	{2} 3.76	{3} 5.22	{4} 4.32	{5} 5.85	{6} 1.76	{7} 2.00	{8} 3.20
1	1		0.99	0.83	0.96	0.72	0.99	0.99	0.99
2	2	0.99		0.52	0.98	0.49	0.41	0.99	0.99
3	3	0.83	0.52		0.95	0.99	<b>0.03*</b>	0.99	0.99
4	4	0.96	0.98	0.95		0.86	0.18	0.99	0.99
5	5	0.72	0.49	0.99	0.86		<b>0.04*</b>	0.99	0.99
6	6	0.99	0.41	<b>0.03*</b>	0.18	<b>0.04*</b>		0.99	0.99
7	7	1.00	0.92	0.42	0.77	0.32	1.00		0.99
8	8	0.99	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.93	0.99	0.99	

- The numbers in bold\* indicate that hold a business college diploma or a university bachelors degree perceive higher levels of inadequate career preparation than those who hold a university honours degree.

**Table 56**  
**Scheffé Test: Academic Qualifications and Sex Discrimination (SD)**

Scheffe test; variable SD. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 3.3520, df = 60									
Cell No.	Academic Qualifications	{1} 2.71	{2} 4.10	{3} 4.79	{4} 4.18	{5} 6.03	{6} 2.05	{7} 2.14	{8} 1.57
1	1		0.99	0.99	0.99	0.91	0.99	0.99	0.99
2	2	0.99		0.99	1.00	0.78	0.61	0.94	0.96
3	3	0.99	0.99		0.99	0.98	0.42	0.83	0.89
4	4	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.85	0.64	0.94	0.96
5	5	0.91	0.78	0.98	0.85		0.18	0.54	0.68
6	6	0.99	0.61	0.42	0.64	0.18		1.00	1.00
7	7	0.99	0.94	0.83	0.94	0.54	1.00		0.99
8	8	0.99	0.96	0.89	0.96	0.68	1.00	0.99	

**Table 57**  
**Scheffé Test: Academic qualifications and Multiple-Role Conflict (MRC)**

Scheffe test; variable MRC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.1075, df = 60									
Cell No.	Academic Qualifications	{1} 2.50	{2} 3.52	{3} 5.06	{4} 4.10	{5} 5.46	{6} 3.10	{7} 2.31	{8} 2.00
1	1		0.99	0.89	0.99	0.84	0.99	1.00	1.00
2	2	0.99		0.35	0.97	0.50	0.99	0.98	0.99
3	3	0.89	0.35		0.91	0.99	0.55	0.55	0.77
4	4	0.99	0.97	0.91		0.89	0.96	0.90	0.95
5	5	0.84	0.50	0.99	0.89		0.55	0.51	0.71
6	6	0.99	0.99	0.55	0.96	0.55		0.99	0.99
7	7	1.00	0.98	0.55	0.90	0.51	0.99		1.00
8	8	1.00	0.99	0.77	0.95	0.71	0.99	1.00	

**Table 58**  
**Scheffé Test: Academic Qualifications and Conflict between Children and Career Demands (CCC)**

Scheffe test; variable CCC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.6029, df = 60									
Cell No.	Academic Qualifications	{1} 1.71	{2} 3.15	{3} 3.69	{4} 3.51	{5} 5.42	{6} 2.77	{7} 1.85	{8} 2.42
1	1		0.99	0.98	0.99	0.74	0.99	1.00	0.99
2	2	0.99		0.99	0.99	0.44	0.99	0.98	0.99
3	3	0.98	0.99		0.99	0.86	0.99	0.94	0.99
4	4	0.99	0.99	0.99		0.72	0.99	0.96	0.99
5	5	0.74	0.44	0.86	0.72		0.54	0.48	0.90
6	6	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.54		0.99	1.00
7	7	1.00	0.98	0.94	0.96	0.48	0.99		0.99
8	8	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.90	1.00	0.99	

**Table 59**  
**Scheffé Test: Academic qualifications and Discouraged from Choosing a Non-Traditional Career (DNC)**

Scheffe test; variable DNC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.0891, df = 60									
Cell No.	Academic Qualifications	{1} 1.40	{2} 3.76	{3} 4.51	{4} 3.36	{5} 5.30	{6} 2.12	{7} 1.80	{8} 1.40
1	1		0.91	0.75	0.56	0.56	0.99	1.00	1.00
2	2	0.91		0.96	0.77	0.77	0.59	0.83	0.91
3	3	0.75	0.96		0.81	0.99	0.28	0.57	0.75
4	4	0.97	0.99	0.81		0.57	0.89	0.95	0.97
5	5	0.56	0.77	0.99	0.57		0.17	0.36	0.56
6	6	0.99	0.59	0.28	0.89	0.17		0.99	0.99
7	7	1.00	0.83	0.57	0.95	0.36	0.99		1.00
8	8	1.00	0.91	0.75	0.97	0.56	0.99	1.00	

**Table 60**  
**Scheffé Test: Academic qualifications and Decision Making Difficulty (DMD)**

Scheffe test; variable DMD. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.6022, df = 60									
Cell No.	Academic Qualifications	{1} 3.62	{2} 3.96	{3} 4.98	{4} 3.79	{5} 5.43	{6} 1.90	{7} 2.00	{8} 3.25
1	1		0.99	0.99	1.00	0.97	0.97	0.99	1.00
2	2	0.99		0.71	0.99	0.68	0.14	0.71	0.99
3	3	0.99	0.71		0.65	0.99	<b>0.01*</b>	0.26	0.97
4	4	1.00	0.99	0.65		0.61	0.30	0.82	0.99
5	5	0.97	0.68	0.99	0.61		<b>0.02*</b>	0.22	0.93
6	6	0.97	0.14	<b>0.01*</b>	0.30	<b>0.02*</b>		1.00	0.99
7	7	0.99	0.71	0.26	0.82	0.22	1.00		0.99
8	8	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.93	0.99	0.99	

- The numbers in bold\* indicate that women who hold a business college diploma or a university bachelors degree perceive greater difficulty making career-related decisions than those who hold a university honours degree.

**Table 61**  
**Scheffé Test: Academic qualifications and Job Market Constraints (JMC)**

Scheffe test; variable JMC. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 2.0153, df = 60									
Cell No.	Academic Qualifications	{1} 3.75	{2} 4.29	{3} 5.44	{4} 4.32	{5} 6.18	{6} 3.20	{7} 2.25	{8} 2.25
1	1		0.99	0.98	0.99	0.93	0.99	0.99	0.99
2	2	0.99		0.71	1.00	0.51	0.92	0.78	0.95
3	3	0.98	0.71		0.82	0.99	0.34	0.32	0.71
4	4	0.99	1.00	0.82		0.60	0.93	0.79	0.95
5	5	0.93	0.51	0.99	0.60		0.21	0.19	0.52
6	6	0.99	0.92	0.34	0.93	0.21		0.99	0.99
7	7	0.99	0.78	0.32	0.79	0.19	0.99		1.00
8	8	0.99	0.95	0.71	0.95	0.52	0.99	1.00	

**Table 62**  
**Scheffé Test: Academic qualifications and Difficulty Networking / Socialisation (DNS)**

Scheffe test; variable DNS. Probabilities for Post Hoc Tests Error: Between MS = 1.6693, df = 60									
Cell No.	Academic Qualifications	{1} 5.40	{2} 3.92	{3} 4.84	{4} 4.06	{5} 5.55	{6} 2.96	{7} 2.30	{8} 3.400
1	1		0.98	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.88	0.79	0.99
2	2	0.98		0.83	0.99	0.59	0.93	0.88	0.99
3	3	0.99	0.83		0.95	0.99	0.45	0.50	0.99
4	4	0.99	0.99	0.95		0.74	0.90	0.85	0.99
5	5	1.00	0.59	0.99	0.74		0.27	0.31	0.94
6	6	0.88	0.93	0.45	0.90	0.27		0.99	0.99
7	7	0.79	0.88	0.50	0.85	0.31	0.99		0.99
8	8	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.94	0.99	0.99	





Table 67

**Scheffé Test: Tenure and Difficulty Networking / Socialisation (DNC)**

Tenure	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}	{6}	{7}	{8}	{9}	{10}	{11}	{12}	{13}	{14}	{15}	{16}	{17}	{18}	
2	3.10	3.10	5.20	3.60	2.20	2.96	4.32	5.06	3.94	5.70	3.86	4.20	4.32	3.55	3.70	5.10	3.44	4	
3	1.00		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00
4	0.99	0.99		1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
6	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
8	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00
10	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		0.99	0.99	0.99	0.87	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.92	1.00	1.00	1.00
11	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
12	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00
13	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00
14	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.87	0.99	1.00	0.99		0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00
15	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00
16	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
17	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
18	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00
19	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00
20	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.92	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99		0.99	1.00	1.00
22	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99			1.00
23	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	

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