AN ANALYSIS OF THE ATTRACTION AND RETENTION OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA AND THE UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

MADHRIE DEVAR
Student no: 04289110

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this study to my late dad, Mr S.C. Naidoo, who passed away in February 2000 and to my father in law, Mr G.S. Devar, who passed away in May 2007. Their profound appreciation of the value of education has encouraged and empowered me to complete my studies.

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ABSTRACT

Human Resources have become a serious issue for present-day universities, as a result of the increased pressure from governments and global markets. The ability to attract and retain women in higher educational institutions has become a crucial challenge in terms of under-representation and gender equality. The study analyses the attraction and retention of women in higher educational institutions – both in the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Pretoria as case studies. For South Africa, it has become even more challenging; since South African universities have adopted drastic measures, in order to reform their systems over the past 20 years, and especially to meet the terms of socio-economic, political and equitable congruency.

Although many higher education institutions in South Africa have mission statements and equity plans to address the issues of attraction and retention, there is little that specifically targets women. The purpose of this study was to critically analyse the policy initiatives in place for the attraction and retention of women in higher educational institutions; to analyse the factors that drive the attraction and retention of women in higher education institutions; and to investigate the representation of women in senior academic and management positions, and to develop a framework for the attraction and retention of women in higher education institutions.

For the purpose of this study, human-resource strategies in terms of the attraction and retention of women and designated groups was scrutinised – both for the universities under study and the higher educational policies – in terms of the recruitment of women – were identified and analysed.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AM	African Male
CM	Coloured Male
IM	Indian Male
WM	White Male
FNM	Foreign Nationals Male
AF	African Female
CF	Coloured Female
IF	Indian Female
WF	White Female
FNF	Foreign Nationals Female
EAP	Economically Active Population
UP	University of Pretoria
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
HRM	Human Resource Management
HEI	Higher Education Institutions

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1.   HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

1.1   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the challenges and barriers that women face in higher education institutions in acquiring senior and leadership positions. The chapter further enlightens the background of the two institutions under study and the staff composition, based as it is, on the under-representation of women from designated groups defined in terms of the *Employment Equity Act of* 1998, who are currently employed in senior positions. The ability to attract and retain women in higher education institutions has become a real challenge, in terms of representivity and gender equality. The study analyses the attraction and retention of women in higher education institutions.

Drakich and Stewart (2007:6) state that universities, not always willingly however, have responded to employment equity demands, in order to improve the climate and the academic career prospects for women. Drakich and Stewart (2007:8) argue that women are not appointed to the rank of full professor at the same rate or speed as are men. They acknowledge that women continue to be under-represented in senior management positions.

Women have made great strides in today's environment, from slogging in the kitchen to becoming professional individuals in the workplace. Kuye (2001:3) points out that numerous equity-based programmes have focused more on race, with little or no significance being attached to the status of women – who are either trying to enter, or are already working and studying in the academic environment. Driver and Ralebipi-Simela (2008), argue that although many South African higher education institutions have mission statements and equity plans to address the issues of attraction and retention, there is little that specifically targets postgraduate women. This may be the reason why, for most institutions, the attraction and retention of diverse staff members are not considered to be key performance indicators.

If women are to be attracted and retained in higher education institutions, more concern should be directed to women graduates, who experience cultural discomfort, segregation and unequal power relations (Donovan et al. 2005:247). According to John (2012),

several nationwide publications have revealed that inequalities still exist between men and women at universities; and despite progressive legislative policies on employment equity, academia nevertheless remains a male-dominated domain.

1.2   HUMAN-RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

According to Heathfield (2014), a human-resources expert, human-resource management can be explained as follows:

- Human-Resource Management (HRM) is the function within an organisation that focuses on the recruitment of people and the management of employees. It provides direction to the people who work within the organisation.
- HRM deals with the issues related to people, such as compensation, hiring, performance management, benefits, employee motivation, organisation development, training, safety, wellness, communication and administration.
- HRM is also a strategic and comprehensive approach to managing people, as well as the workplace culture and environment.
- HRM is moving away from traditional personnel and administrative roles; and it is now expected to add value to the strategic utilization of employees.

FIGURE 1 – HUMAN-RESOURCE MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS

Source: The Management Guru Website on Human-Resource Management (Sankaranarayanan, 2014)

Figure 1 illustrates the concepts that contribute to Human-Resource Management; and the concepts put together contribute to the ability of organisations and employees to achieve their objectives.

Human-resource management is a process of bringing people and organisations together; so that the goals of each other are met. The function of human-resource management is to bridge the gap between the employer and management. Human-resource management is regarded as one of the fundamental components of the discipline of Public Administration (Omotoye and Malan 2011:161). Various policies pertaining to Human-Resource Management have been implemented since 1994, in order to create good human-resource practices. The 1997 White Paper on Human-Resource Management in the Public Service made provision for a paradigm shift away from personnel administration to human-resource management.

According to the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the public service, the major objective is to focus on the development of a genuine culture of diversity, which builds positively on employees' differing cultural backgrounds. In addition, the 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa calls for a public service that is development-oriented; one that is characterised by good human resources and career-management practices. People are regarded as the most valuable asset in the Public Service; and therefore managing human resources effectively and strategically must be the basis in transforming the *Public Service White Paper*, 1997).

According to Tetty (2006), some institutional-appointment processes are unnecessarily cumbersome, tedious and time-consuming, which leads to the loss of potential employees. Omotoye and Malan (2011) explain that employee attraction and retention are issues known to scholars of human-resource management as two of the prominent challenges continually confronting both public and private institutions. The attraction and retention of highly qualified, skilled and talented academics have become challenging human-resource problems in Higher Education Institutions (HEI) across the globe. For South Africa, it has become even more challenging; since, South African Universities have undergone drastic changes in their educational system over the past 20 years –

more especially to meet socio-economic, political and equitable congruency. South African universities and research institutions are competing with one another in the recruitment of top academics and researchers (Samuel and Chipunza 2013:98). Hiltrop (1999) argues that the ability to attract and retain talent is rapidly becoming one of the key issues for human-resource managers and that human-resource practices have a significant effect on the ability to attract and retain talented people.

1.2.1   ATTRACTION AND RETENTION

Organisations throughout the world are seeking innovative strategies to attract and develop new talent and to develop other strategies, in order to retain that talent (McKenzie, 2007). Attracting and retaining experienced and educated employees have become crucial in a tight labour market, where changing management practices and the global convergence of technology has redefined the nature of work (Samuel and Chipunza 2013:98). Changing demographics and worldwide competition for skilled and talented workforces have made it increasingly difficult to achieve optimum staffing levels and highly skilled workers. Competition has put skilled employees under pressure; as they are being attracted by more than one organisation with various kinds of incentives (Samuel and Chipunza 2013:98).

The attraction and retention of employees has become an increasingly significant aspect of building organisational capabilities, in order to ensure sustained competitiveness (Holland et al, 2007). Samuel and Chipunza (2013:97) claim that there is a great concern on the future supply of academics in South Africa – due to better attraction provision in the public and private sectors. The goal of any attraction and retention strategy is to satisfy the needs and desires of the required workforce. In order for this to be achieved, organisations need to implement well-designed human-resource initiatives and attraction, as retention programmes that are effective and efficient.

Tetty (2006:7) explains that if corrective measures are not properly applied, the best and the brightest labour force will seek better environments, where their potentials will not only be recognized and rewarded, but fully harnessed.

1.2.1.1 DRIVERS OF EMPLOYEE ATTRACTION

Competitive Base Salary	Salaries of employees should be reviewed annually and a market related premium or above should be paid.
Work and life balance	Establish a work-life culture and climate that is attractive and supportive. An environment that enhances the quality of work-life should be created.
Career advancement opportunities	Develop employees in providing continuous learning by offering study bursaries, funded courses and internal training.
Challenging work	When the staff are given challenging work, they are stimulated to succeed and are effective. Especially in a competitive environment, employees are looking for challenging positions.
Retirement Benefits	The competitiveness of this benefit should be reviewed annually' and corrective measures should be taken when necessary.
Medical Aid	Employers should assist with adequate and competitive medical aid cover for their employees, and allow employees to top up their cover through flexible remuneration practices.
Salary increases linked to individual performance	Employees should be rewarded for superior individual performance. Best practice works well in a high-performance culture.
Opportunities to learn and develop in the organisation	Manage employees well to ensure direction and motivation. Managers should provide an enabling environment to learn and grow within the organisation.
Reputation of the organisation	Develop and maintain a reputation as being "an employer of choice". This encourages the most talented employees to stay with the organisation.

TABLE 1 - ADAPTED FROM AN ATTRACTION-AND-RETENTION FRAMEWORK OVERVIEW – 2006 NOVA SCOTIA PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

There are a number of factors that attract employees to an organisation; but the one factor that stands out and tops the list is salaries. Sometimes, the needs of employees differ from one another. Salary may be an important attraction factor for one employee and career advancement. Organisation's and institutions need to identify the needs of their employees, in order to be able to meet their demands. Due to the pressures of a stressful environment, work and life balance is indicated second on the list of drivers; as employees believe this impacts greatly on their output.

1.2.1.2   DRIVERS OF EMPLOYEE RETENTION

Opportunities to learn and develop new skills	Provide management training, including effective leadership skills by emphasizing development.
Employee wellbeing	Managers should adopt a culture of caring, knowing, the interests and the visibility of the employees in the organisation. Recognition when well managed can make a considerable contribution to the wellbeing of employees.
Value staff decisions	Communicate how each employee contributes to the vision and mission of the organisation.
Motivation of staff	Employees feel motivated when they are recognised for doing a good job, or are included in the decision-making processes. Individuals have varied factors that contribute to their being motivated.
Assurance of organisations long-term success	Employers need to develop a climate of trust to ensure that employees remain in the organisation.
Autonomy to make decisions	Clarify the roles and responsibilities, in order to accelerate the learning contribution. This creates an environment of trust and faith in employees in decision-making.
Fairly compensated	Employers should be on the lookout for high performance and reward outstanding performance.

FIGURE 2 – ADAPTED FROM AN ATTRACTION-AND-RETENTION FRAMEWORK OVERVIEW – 2006 NOVA SCOTIA PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

Looking at the above retention drivers, it is clear that career-advancement opportunities top the list – where employees are given the opportunities to learn and develop new skills. Looking further down the list indicates that employee wellbeing, the valuing of staff decisions and the motivation of staff all play a very important part in the drivers of retention. These drivers emphasise the need for senior leadership to exercise their role strategically and to ensure job security between employers and employees.

1.2.2 GENDER POLICIES

In the 1960s, women started entering the workforce in great numbers; and they are now at parity with men (Bennett and Horwath, 2013). The year 1994 brought about huge changes in the South African government – especially where women were concerned. Women were not only faced with social and economic constraints; but they had to contend with fighting equality in the workplace, which had previously been dominated solely by men. Drakich and Stewart (2007:6) further state that women continue to enter universities in large numbers; but their numbers have not produced a significant shift in the gender structures of the academy. Gender-sensitive policies were formulated and implemented in line with women's Constitutional rights.

South Africa has made huge strides to promote gender equity in all aspects of life. This is highlighted in Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, which makes provision for the equal treatment of men and women. The Commission on Gender Equality was established to promote the equal representation and participation of women in South Africa. According to Aguirre (2000), the number of women in higher education has been increasing over the years, with the implementation of affirmative-action initiatives, serving as a vehicle for increasing their representation. Delgado (1991) and Niemann (1999) explained that the use of affirmative action in academia to increase the representation of women has often resulted in the perception that women are outcomes of reverse discrimination being practised on white men. Women are less satisfied than their male counterparts with the workplace; because women perceive themselves to be the victims of salary inequities, together with a biased reward system (Aguirre, 2000). While there appears to be an increase of women attending higher education, the numbers of women in leadership positions continue to be low (Ashby-Scott, 2005).

According to Ramani and Malema (2012), women are late starters and late achievers in academia; because their careers are often interrupted to establish and care for their families; since women have to juggle and balance the dual demands of family and work. Some of the intimidating challenges that women academics encounter is racial discrimination, where promotion opportunities are overlooked, and daunting institutional environments (Fazel, 2012). John (2012) explains that women experience a conflict between their domestic and professional roles; and many universities do not acknowledge or make provision for these conflicts. Consequently, they may contribute to the reason why women remain under-represented in higher education. Women have been transformed from the traditional roles of being baby caretakers to being baby boomers, from bread-makers to becoming breadwinners, from sweeping floors to shattering glass-ceilings, and from running a home to managing large organisations (Ahmed, 2013).

Ramphele (2008) mentioned that "South African higher education institutions strive to be non-sexist and non-racist"; and in order for this to be achieved, universities need to address institutional cultures, which are saturated with gender-based power constructs that prevent women from attaining higher education leadership positions. De la Rey (2008) argues that "although legislation and policies address the issue of gender equity in the work place, the implementation thereof remains a problem; and women continue to report gender discrimination – even after there have been policy changes". De la Rey (2008) "concluded that the reason for this is the lack of understanding of the complexity of gender discrimination in institutions. This author called for a more systematic research on factors affecting retention, such as masculinities in leadership, institutional and organisational barriers and society's gendered cultures".

1.2.3 HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

The main function of a higher education institution is to provide a platform for teaching, learning and research. In order for these goals to be achieved, there need to be human resources to accomplish the core functions of teaching and learning. It is widely known that employees are an organisation's most important resource (Van Dijk, 2005: 161). Therefore, it is the organisation's responsibility to ensure that it employs people that are efficient, effective and have the appropriate skills. According to the strategic plan (2025)

of the University of Pretoria, "Universities in South Africa have a distinct role in developing human capital and generating the knowledge and skills required for addressing the many challenges of our developing economy, society and region" UP Strategic Plan (2025:3). Every organisation is thus faced with many challenges, due to the changing political and economic conditions.

As the country faces a major shift in its diverse population, higher education institutions are faced with the need to increase their diversity in all academic institutions, in order to better serve the current student population (Jaffer, 2008:1). Higher education institutions have challenged themselves in diversifying their staff, by recruiting women and disadvantaged groups. However, these efforts have been implemented without understanding how women fit into institutions mainly dominated by men (Aguirre, 2000:5). According to Kollan and Parikh (2002:15), "women are experienced in managing one of the most complex organisations imaginable: the household, with its many human interfaces and interplay between the sexes, different age groups and different stakeholders".

Nevertheless, women are still under-represented in higher-ranking positions and in certain fields (Bebbington, 2002:362). Morley (2005:210) argues that women are not valued in institutions; and they are more likely to be seen in junior positions in organisations. According to Singh and Hoge (2010), women have contributed extensively to the social and economic outcomes at national and global levels; but they still remain at the bottom of the workplace hierarchy in terms of power and rewards. Academic institutions, given their role in teaching, research and learning, are well-placed in society to take leadership in developing and testing strategies for successfully producing human-resource skills appropriate to the needs of the nation (Kuye, 2001:3). Machika (2014) explains that the challenges facing women in higher education include social and institutional expectations that they cannot lead; family responsibilities, which includes child-raising that coincides with career development and less travelling, when compared with men.

According to the Higher Education Conference report held in Cape Town in 2008, keynote speakers Ramphele and Brito (2008) indicated that universities are places of learning and knowledge production; and they play a pivotal role in providing intellectual leadership to

guide the transformation of themselves and of the broader society. The two higher education institutions under study will be the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The reason for focusing on these two universities was that the University of Pretoria was historically a white university; and the University of KwaZulu-Natal, prior to the merger, was a university for South African Indians. According to Masango and Mpofu (2013: 883), the staff profile and demographics in the historically white South African universities pose a challenge, which the management of these universities should address. As a result, these institutions have often not yet met their equity-legislative requirements.

Higher education institutions are expected to modify themselves, according to several legislative and policy reforms aimed at modifying a more diverse community (Thaver, 2005:146). Kuye (2001:7) alleges that one of the reasons for introducing an equity programme was that the designated groups are either not represented at all, or they are not adequately represented in the hierarchies of the institutions. Machika (2014) stresses that Higher education institutions need to convey the message that their organisations are committed to supporting the appointment of women at senior management levels by establishing a culture that supports the processes in career development. Froneman (2003: 39) argues that Higher Education has a crucial role in developing a globally competitive economy, a more affluent society and a study democracy. According to the National Commission on Higher Education (1995a:1), the restructuring of South African higher education needs to address the inequalities and inefficiencies inherited from the apartheid era, and to respond to the cultural, economic and social demands of the new South Africa.

1.2.4 BACKGROUND TO THE UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

The University of Pretoria was once a historically White Afrikaans educational institution, established in 1908; and it was originally named the Pretoria Centre of the Transvaal University College. Not very long ago, the university opened its doors as an English-language institution housed in Kya Rosa. TUC, or Tukkies, as it is known now, started off with four professors, three lecturers and 32 enrolled students. On 10 October 1930, an Act of Parliament changed the name TUC to the University of Pretoria. During that time,

the University had more than 900 students, making it the largest tertiary institution in the country (University of Pretoria Strategic Plan 2013).

The University of Pretoria currently has approximately 60 000 students; and it has become one of the leading higher educational institutions in South Africa. The University offers tuition in two formal languages, Afrikaans and English. In addition, Sepedi is also recognised as an official language on the campus. The University of Pretoria has transformed itself from a largely white, Afrikaner institution to a multicultural, multiracial university that offers quality education to a diverse spectrum of South Africans (University of Pretoria Strategic Plan 2013).

1.2.4.1 WORKFORCE PROFILE IN THE UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

Table 1 reflects the total number of employees (including employees with disabilities) in each of the occupational levels at the University of Pretoria. In the designated race groups that are employed, A represents Africans, C represents Coloureds, I represents Indians and W represents Whites.

Occupational Levels	Male				Female				Foreign Nationals		Total
	A	C	I	W	A	C	I	W	Male	Female	
Top management	0	0	0	5	2	1	0	2	0	0	10
Senior management	2	1	0	20	0	0	0	4	0	0	27
Professionally qualified and experienced specialists and mid-management	33	13	10	356	15	5	9	206	36	7	690
Skilled technical and academically qualified workers.	332	27	22	611	438	95	58	1445	74	53	3155
Semi-skilled and discretionary decision making	295	5	0	15	130	3	0	18	3	0	469
Unskilled and defined decision making	42	0	0	2	18	1	1	0	0	0	64
Total Permanent	704	46	32	1009	603	105	68	1675	113	60	4415
Temporary employees	188	12	16	474	213	14	26	537	76	76	1632
GRAND TOTAL	892	58	48	1483	816	119	94	2212	189	136	6047

TABLE 2 - WORKFORCE PROFILE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

© University of Pretoria

The table above reflects the workforce profile at the University of Pretoria from 2009-2012. Looking at the professionally qualified level, White males and females show a huge over-representation; while both Indian males and females are hugely under-represented at the first three occupational levels, i.e. top management and senior management, professionally qualified and academically qualified levels.

Prof. Cheryl De Le Rey, the Vice Chancellor of University of Pretoria, stated in her declaration-of-intent speech: "UP's vision can be achieved by pursuing a strategy that draws upon the existing strengths to: i) Grow diversity by focusing on equity to draw upon the widest pool of talent and to enable creativity and innovation; ii) create conditions that would facilitate the attraction and retention of a diverse body of high-quality academic, administrative, technical and professional staff" (University of Pretoria Strategic Plan 2014). It has been five years since this was said; and the question is whether this has been achieved.

The University of Pretoria has implemented a platform called the "Re-a-bua", a platform where diversity issues are addressed and discussed. The question is: "How effective is this programme; and will this will be implemented in the long term?" The figure below shows the UP workforce profile against the National Economically Active Population (EAP) in South Africa.

Comparison of UP's Workforce Representivity against National EAP											
	AM	CM	IM	WM	FNM	AF	CF	IF	WF	FNF	
UP Workforce Profile	725	51	32	1015	136	665	115	77	1700	75	Total
	15.8%	1.1%	0.7%	22.1%	3%	14.5%	2.5%	1.7%	37%	1.6%	100%
Educational Institutions	14.7%	4.4%	5.7%	37.5%	0.9%	6/8%	2%	0.8%	27%	0.2%	100%
National EAP	40.7%	5.8%	1.9%	6.4%	0%	34.2%	5%	1.1%	4.9%	0%	100%

TABLE 3 - SOURCE: RE-A-BUA AT UP, PARTICIPANT'S MANUAL 2014

According to the Re-a-bua manual published in 2014, "Institutions need to focus on the achievement of workforce representivity that ultimately mirrors the Economically Active Population (EAP) of South Africa".

1.2.5 BACKGROUND OF THE UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

The University of KwaZulu-Natal was formed on 1 January 2004, as a result of the merger between the University of Durban-Westville and the University of Natal. The new university brings together the rich histories of both the former Universities. In 2004, the Natal University College in Pietermaritzburg, the University of Natal, Howard College and the University of Durban-Westville were among the first batch of South African universities to merge (University of Kwa-Zulu Natal Strategic Plan 2013).

The University of Durban-Westville was established in the 1960s, as the University College for Indians on Salisbury Island in Durban Bay. As a result of the Congress Alliances' policy of shunning apartheid structures, the student numbers were low. In the 1980s, the policy gave way to a strategy of "education under protest", which sought to transform apartheid institutions into sites of struggle. As a result, student numbers grew rapidly in 1971; and the College was granted University status. In 1972, the newly named University of Durban-Westville moved into its modern campus in Westville, where major anti-apartheid struggles were born and fought. In 1984, the UDW became an independent University, and opened its doors to all races (University of KwaZulu-Natal Strategic Plan 2013).

1.2.5.1 WORKFORCE PROFILE IN THE UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Table 2 reflects the total number of employees (including employees with disabilities) in each of the occupational levels at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The designated race groups that are employed comprise the following: A represents Africans; C represents Coloureds; I represents Indians and W represents Whites.

Occupational Levels	Male				Female				Foreign Nationals		Total
	A	C	I	W	A	C	I	W	Male	Female	
Top management	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior management	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Professionally qualified and experienced specialists and mid-management	18	2	55	129	9	1	29	44	44	5	336
Skilled technical and academically qualified workers.	166	15	229	179	266	49	360	331	85	27	1707
Semi-skilled and discretionary decision making	67	2	13	2	86	4	19	13	1	1	208
Unskilled and defined decision-making	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3
Total Permanent	253	19	297	311	363	54	408	388	130	33	2256
Temporary employees	103	4	60	72	143	14	111	114	7	7	635
GRAND TOTAL	356	23	357	383	506	68	519	502	137	40	2891

TABLE 4 – SOURCE: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL EMPLOYMENT EQUITY PLAN 2010-2014

The above statistics show that, White males are over-represented in the professionally qualified level, similar to that of the University of Pretoria, whilst Indian males and white females are more or less on the same level. Although the University of Durban-Westville was initially established for Indians, it opened its doors to all races in 1984. This is evident in both the student and staff composition. Afterwards, the University of Natal and Durban-Westville merged to become the University of KwaZulu-Natal. There have been more changes in the staff and the student composition since then.

Despite the numerous efforts South Africa has made in addressing the issue of gender inequality, the retention of academic staff from designated groups continues to be an area of concern for higher education institutions (Mkhwanazi and Baijnath, 2003:108). The

depiction of diversity in popular thinking as a threat to the majority; and that its values require that higher education should integrate diversity into its staff ranks, in order to enrich the teaching process with competitive thinking (Aguirre and Martinez, 2002:55). The study aims to explore the challenges and barriers that women face in their career advancement path at the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal – as well as their perceptions thereof.

1.3   CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

The following section will define the key concepts that are important and that are used in the research study:

1.3.1   PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Botes et al. (1992:257) explained that Public Administration as a scientific discipline is mainly concerned with the execution of government policy. Coetzee (1991:42) has distinguished between Public Administration, as an academic pursuit and public administration, as a profession. Where Public Administration (with capital letters) refers to the discipline or branch of instruction, public administration (lower case) is the process or function normally assigned to the public administrator, civil servant or public official. Public Administration can be taught; whereas public administration can either be performed or carried out in practice (Botes et al., 1992:257).

The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa,* 1996, highlights in Section 195, the important role that public administration should play by being "broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel-management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness and the need to redress the imbalances of the past, in order to achieve broad representation."

1.3.2   HIGHER EDUCATION (HE)

According to the *Higher Education Amendment Act*, 2008, 'higher education' means all learning programmes leading to [qualifications higher than grade 12, or its equivalent; and it includes tertiary education, as contemplated in Schedule 4 of the Constitution]. Higher education includes teaching, research, exacting applied work (e.g. in medical

schools and dental schools), and the social service activities of universities. Within the realm of teaching, it includes both the undergraduate level (tertiary education), and beyond that, graduate level (postgraduate level) for those highly qualified students, who wish to go further in their education and skills.

1.3.3 ACADEMIC

The staff employed at institutions of Higher Learning perform mainly teaching and research duties. The Oxford English dictionary (2014) gives the following definition of an academic, "a teacher or scholar in a university, or other institute of higher education".

1.3.4 HUMAN-RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (HRM)

According to Du Toit and Van der Waldt (2006), human resources refers to all the abilities of educated people, which can be used to provide products and services in exchange for payment. The discipline of Human-Resource Management is regarded as one of the fundamental pillars of organisational theory. Omotoyo and Malan (2011: 160) define HRM as a process of bringing people and organisations together, so that the goals of each other can be met. HRM is not a consistent and unitary set of principles and practices. It varies from organisation to organisation, from culture to culture; and it can be diverse both within and between industries and sectors.

1.3.5 ATTRACTION

Attraction rests on the principle of paying people competitively and rewarding superior performance; developing people and providing perpetual learning and challenges; establishing a work-life culture and a climate that is attractive and supportive (University of Fort Hare Attraction and Retention Policy, 2014). According to Cascio and Aguinis (2005: 259), attraction entails having the power to allure, invite or engage a candidate with attractive qualities; and Maina (2014: 264) explains that the more attractive the overall package, the more it will attract individuals and be able to retain them.

1.3.6 RETENTION

Schuler and Jackson (2006:216) define staff retention as everything that an employer

does to encourage qualified and productive employees to continue working for the institution. Employee retention involves taking various measures to encourage employees to remain in the organisation for the maximum period of time. According to Chordiya (2013), it is a process in which the employees are encouraged to remain with the organisation for the maximum period of time. Retention comprises those initiatives taken by HR and management to keep employees from leaving the organisation. This would include activities, such as rewarding employees for performing their jobs efficiently; ensuring pleasant working relations between employees and managers; and maintaining a safe, healthy work environment (Cascio, 2003).

1.3.7 WOMEN

A woman represents the female gender in society. Women have taken on various roles to adapt to the changing society; while at the same time meeting their needs. The various roles that women play in society are: a mother, a wife and a career woman. Kollan and Parikh (2005) explain that due to women being educated and knowledgeable, they have moved away from the kitchen, handicrafts and traditional activities to non-traditional higher levels of activities.

1.4   OUTLINE OF THE CHAPTERS

The study will be divided into six chapters that will allow the research to be carried out in a systematic and comprehensive manner. The sole purpose of the chapter overview is to give the reader an indication of how the dissertation will develop. Each chapter will be reflected and discussed in the following order.

1.4.1 CHAPTER 1 – HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

This chapter gives an introduction of the planned research. It introduces the topic to the reader. The chapter further describes the background of the two institutions under study and the staff composition, based on the under-representation of women from designated groups defined in terms of the Employment Equity Act of 1998, and who are currently employed in senior positions.

1.4.2 CHAPTER 2 – PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION LITERATURE

The main discussion in this chapter will focus on the contribution of top scholars in the field of public administration and their varied views and opinion on the topic. The definition and differentiation of public administration (with lower case letters) and Public Administration (with capitals) will be defined and discussed in detail in this chapter.

1.4.3 CHAPTER 3 – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, a detailed description of the research design will be presented. The various instruments used in conducting the research, as well as the participants involved, will be mentioned. A qualitative approach will be utilised in undertaking the proposed research; as the research will be conducted in a natural setting at the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

1.4.4 CHAPTER 4 – LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will analyse the literature on human-resource management with specific reference to human-capital management in higher education institutions. Reference to government policy frameworks related to human-resource management will be discussed.

1.4.5 CHAPTER 5 – RESEARCH RESULTS

This chapter will focus on the discussion of the results and the analysis of the study with regard to the findings, which will be derived from the review of the document.

1.4.6 CHAPTER 6 – CONCLUSIONS, DEDUCTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides conclusions and recommendations for ensuring an appropriate approach in addressing the problems of the attraction and retention of women in higher education. The chapter will draw conclusions based on the discussions flowing from the various chapters.

1.5 CONCLUSION

Chapter One of the study, comprehensively introduced the study by outlining the research topic and giving a historical overview of the topic under study. The chapter further outlines the background of both the institutions under study. Chapter One also provides statistics of the workforce profile of both institutions under study, which is the key indicator of the gap that exists in the employment of women in senior academic professions. The various concepts that are continuously used in the research are also clarified in Chapter One. This chapter ends with the entire study briefly explained in the preliminary framework of Chapter 5.

CHAPTER TWO

2. THE DOMAIN OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

From the time of the inception of Public Administration, there have been numerous developments and experiments seeking to unpack the field of Public Administration. Public administration scholars over the years have tried to explore the many facets of public administration in a rapidly changing field. Coetzee (1988:1) points out that public administration education at former Technikons and Universities has expanded rapidly in South Africa; and these developments have brought about a growing and urgent demand for public administrative literature that is significant to South Africa.

Farazmand and Pinkowski (2006:890) explain that the reform of public administration is now a worldwide phenomenon; and governments are grappling with the effects of globalisation, as well as rapid social, economic and technological changes. The main discussion in this chapter will focus on the contributions of top scholars in the field of public administration and their varied views and opinions on the subject/discipline. The definition and differentiation of public administration (with lower-case letters) and Public Administration (with capitals) will be defined and discussed in detail in this chapter. It is only necessary to give an historical overview of the foundation of public administration, in order to establish an understanding of how this discipline has evolved and shaped to this present day.

The comparison between public management and public administration will be illustrated and explained. The administrative generic functions will be enumerated and discussed, in order to give an extensive understanding of the discipline of public administration in the context of South Africa.

2.2 THE NATURE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration is a complicated and dynamic social phenomenon consisting of a system of structures and processes operating within society as the environment. The primary objectives of this system are; the formulation of appropriate governmental

policies, catering for the diverse needs of the society; and the effective and efficient execution of these policies (Gordon and Milakovich, 1998). The word public means the people in society and in the community; while administration refers to management, administration and government. Each country would have its own philosophy of public administration; since the physical and social environments shape the practice of public administration of each country (Coetzee, 1988:1).

According to Gordon and Milakovich (1998), public administration may be defined as all processes, organisations and individuals associated with carrying out all the laws and other rules adopted or issued by legislatures, executives, and courts. As an academic discipline, public administration is of fairly recent origin, when compared with the practice of public administration, which developed along with society, and is as old as humanity itself (Bayat and Meyer, 1994:5). Fox and Meyer (1995:105) define public administration as the "executive branch of government; the public service; the bureaucracy charged with the formulation (facilitation), implementation, evaluation and modification of government policy".

Coetzee (1988:16 in Bayat and Meyer, 1994:4) states that public administration may be regarded as that particular type of administration concerned with the execution of the rules, laws and regulations of the government of a country.

Various authors have defined public administration – from their own perspective – as the discipline itself is comprehensive in nature. In order for public administration theorists to understand the discipline of public administration, they need to analyse the activities that have been carried out in public administration. Activities, such as human-resource management, financial management, policy management and politics all fall under the discipline of public administration. For the purpose of this study, the subject of human-resource management will be tackled; since it is seen as a sub-discipline of public administration.

In Coetzee (1988:2), authors like Berkley conclude that administration is a process involving human beings mutually working towards a common goal; and Cloete (1994) points out that administration is found in all the spheres of human activity. Woodrow Wilson (1887:198) emphasized that administration is 'government in action'; it is

executive and operative, and the most visible of part of government in contrast to the legislative arm of government. According to Fox and Meyer (1995:105), public administration has three foundations: 1) The organisational behaviour and the behaviour of people in organisations; 2) the technology of management; and 3) the public interest concerning individual ethical choices and public affairs.

Botes et al (1992:257) are of the opinion that "public administration is concerned with the study of all the scientific disciplines, namely, political science, sociology, industrial psychology and economics that have a bearing on the contemporary administrative and managerial practices in the public sector. Public administration is a human activity, in other words, an activity for people by people. This implies that the spiritual, mental or intellectual abilities of people must be developed to provide comfort, prosperity, rights and freedom for a democratic community in South Africa". According to Vigoda (2003:2), for many years, public administration has struggled to find its independent position in the social sciences.

Eikenberry (2009:1060) states that there is no denying that public administration has changed drastically over the years; and it will keep on changing to meet the needs and match the desires of the citizens. He further states that understanding public administration today depends on understanding the social and political-economic situation; since society today is characterized by the end of the traditional form of public administration. It is going to be difficult for baby boomers to adapt to these reforms; as they are accustomed to the traditional form of public administration; but Generation X and Y should fit in pleasantly and harmoniously.

2.3   AN HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Ancient times to the 19th Century

> "Dating back to Antiquity, Pharaohs, kings and emperors have required pages, treasurers, and tax collectors to administer the practical business of government. Prior to the 19th century, the staffing of most public administrations was rife with nepotism, favoritism, and political patronage, which was often referred to as a "spoils system". Public administrators have been the "eyes and

ears" of rulers until relatively recently. In medieval times, the ability to read and write, to add and subtract was dominated by the educated elite as public employment. Consequently, the need for expert civil servants, whose ability to read and write formed the basis for developing expertise in such necessary activities as legal record-keeping, paying and feeding armies and levying taxes. As the European Imperialist age progressed, and the military powers extended their hold over other continents and people, the need for a sophisticated public administration grew" (Aderibigbe and Olla 2014:66*).*

Looking at the evolution of public administration prior to the 19th century, gives one an overview of the birth, survival and development of public administration over time.   In the 18th century, King Frederick William I of Prussia shaped teachers in Cameralism (Aderibigbe and Olla, 2014:66), in an attempt to educate inexperienced public administrators. Thornhill (2014:5) explains that the term cameralism was created by theorists and public officials of the 17th century, who argued that the economic power of a nation could be increased by enhancing its economic wealth. Johann Heinrich Gottlob Justi was a renowned professor of Cameralism; therefore, from a Western European perspective, Classical, Medieval and Enlightenment-era, scholars formed the foundation of the discipline of public administration.

Public administration has moved from the traditional way of functioning to a more modern way of doing things, in terms of governance and administration. The 19th century saw an immense growth in the development of public administration. In those times, public administrators played a vital and crucial role in the performance of their duties; and they faithfully served their leaders. This is questionable in today's times, as the public service is well known for fraud and corruption. Authors in the 19th century looked for sophisticated and trendy ways of developing and managing public administration.

A German professor by the name of Lorenz von Stein, from Vienna, is considered to be the forefather of the science of public administration in Europe. During the time of Von Stein, public administration was considered to be a form of administrative law;

but Von Stein thought that this theory was too restrictive. Von Stein communicated that public administration is dependent on disciplines, such as Sociology, Political Science, Administrative Law and Public Finance. Woodrow Wilson from the United States of America is considered to be the father of public administration. In his article entitled, "The Study of Administration", which was published in 1887, he formally recognized public administration. Woodrow Wilson's article is one of the most quoted sources in articles, dissertations and theses on the discipline of public administration (Thornhill 2014:6).

1940s

In the 1940s, the governance of Wilson's concept of the "separation of politics and administration" was challenged by second-generation scholars. Luther Gulick, an expert on public administration was a major challenger of Wilson's proposed politics-administration opposition. Gulick and Urwick, the new generation of administrators, advanced on the work of contemporary behavioural, administrative and organisational scholars, like Henri Fayol, Fredrick Winslow Taylor, Paul Appelby, Frank Goodnow and Willam Willoughby. Gulick condensed the duties of administrators into an acronym: POSDCORB, which stands for planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting. The public administration scholars of the mid-1940s challenged Wilson and Gulick; and consequently, the politics-administration separation continued to be criticized (Aderibigbe and Olla, 2014:67).

1950s to the 1970s

In the 1950s, public administration in the United States was solid and prosperous due to the successful war effort and successful post war reconstruction in Western Europe and Japan. In the 1960s and 1970s, the government was alleged to be ineffective and inefficient, due to the costly American intervention in Vietnam, which alienated U.S. citizens from their government. Reforms for efficient administration to replace ineffective and wasteful bureaucracy were called for by the citizens. Louis Brownlow, a professor at the University of Chicago, founded the Public Administration Service (PAS), an organisation that provided consulting services to government until the 1970s. After World War II, public administration spread out to include policy-making and analysis; and thus the study of 'administrative policy-making and analysis' was introduced.

During the 1970s, the development and the inclusion of other social-science subjects, including psychology, anthropology and sociology were introduced into the study of public administration (Jeong 2007 in Aderibigbe and Olla, 2014:68).

Between the 1940s and the 1970s, the emergence of scholars, such as Fritz Morstein Marx, with his book: 'The Elements of Public Administration' (1946), Paul H. Appelby: 'Policy and Administration' (1952), Frank Marini: 'Towards a New Public Administration' (1971) and others contributed positively to the field of public administration (Aderibigbe and Olla, 2014:67).

1980s to the 1990s

In the late 1980s, a new generation of public administration scholars began to supersede the previous generation of scholars. David Osborne and Ted Gaebler proposed a new theory: 'New Public Management' in their book, 'Reinventing Government' (Kamensky, 1996). The use of private sector-style models, organisational ideas and values to improve the efficiency and service-orientation of the public sector was promoted in the new theory. A few theorists criticised the New Public Management theory and argued that the private sector model was being used, in which people were treated as customers rather than as citizens.

Nonetheless, the New Public Management model is currently being used in most levels of government and in many countries as: the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries. In the 1990s, scholars such as Janet and Robert Denhardt, proposed a new public service model called, 'Digital era governance'. The focus was on the ideas of reintegrating government responsibilities, the execution of duties and the digitalisation of government activities (Aderbigbe and Olla 2014:68).

The discipline of public administration has grown vastly from the time of inception until today. Over the years, public administration theorists have competed with each other to improve the way public administration functions and manages. Public administration authors have redefined the field in the light of the new experiences and changing circumstances within organisations and the public sector. The private sector

has played an important role in the development of public administration over the years – in terms of ideas, innovation, efficiency and effectiveness.

The role of public administration today has increased dramatically in terms of effectiveness, efficiency and finding objective solutions in service delivery. It is compulsory for public administrators to have some knowledge of public administration, in order to manage a public organisation efficiently and effectively within the available resources.

2.4   PUBLIC MANAGEMENT VERSUS PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

According to Cloete (1994), management is nothing new. It has been performed in the public service all along; only, it was known by a different name. Management refers to leading, directing or guiding and involves people and things (materials, money, machines). Management is aimed at the effective performance of line functions, which, however, cannot be executed without provision being made through generic/ enabling functions. Thornhill (2014:15) explains that Public Management is the operational part of the field of the study; and it involves the study of issues, such as programming, planning, motivation, leadership, training, counselling, monitoring and evaluation, assessing performance and reporting.

These functions are actively performed by officers in either an administrative or a managerial capacity. Public administration, in principle, involves the study of the system required to ensure that a policy framework exists. Examples of such systems are implementing procedures to facilitate effective and efficient services; control measures are in place to carry out the performance of duties; sufficient funds are allocated to perform the functions assigned to the organisation and to acquire the necessary human resources to perform these functions.

2.4.1   OLD PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

Old public management is associated with a rigid hierarchy and machine bureaucracy; and it focuses on compliance with processes rather than on the results (Barzelay and Armajani, 1992). Barzelay and Armajani (1992) further stated that the features of old public management are associated with professional, rather than a corporate or

managerial focus, and a segregation of public from private management, as well as an absence of business values and techniques in public-service procedures. According to Lynn (2001:147), Traditional administration is held to be sluggish, rigid, rule-bound, centralised, insular, self-protective, and profoundly antidemocratic. The old public administration emphasising due process and rules was declared old-fashioned and dysfunctional. NPM reformers advocated replacing the old public administration with the NPM, focusing on goals and results and obtaining lessons from the private sector techniques in public sector reform.

The key elements of old public management, as summarised by McCourt (2013) are, as follows:

  i.   A separation between politics and elected politicians, on the one hand, and between administration and the appointed administrators, on the other hand;

  ii. Administration is continuous, predictable and rule-governed;

  iii. Administrators are appointed on the basis of their qualifications; and they are trained professionals;

  iv. There is a functional division of labour, and a hierarchy of tasks and people;

  v.   Resources belong to the organisation, not to the individuals who work in them;

  vi. Public servants serve the public, rather than private interests.

The traditional way of administration has changed drastically over the years in terms of performance and management. This has brought about numerous changes in the public sector – with new techniques and developments. Public sector organisations are required to be transparent, accessible, accountable and responsive in the new public service. The new public administration places more emphasis on the public and their interest in the provision of services. Public servants are trained and developed as professionals in service delivery; and they are managed accordingly.

2.4.2   NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT (NPM)

According to Denhardt and Denhardt (2000:550), the new public management refers to a collection of ideas and practices that fundamentally seek to use private sector methods and business methods in the public service. New public management is commonly

understood to be a formula for correcting the apparent failings of traditional public organisations in efficiency, quality, customer-responsiveness and effective leadership (Hood, 1995). For the last two decades, the public sector has been incorporating management techniques and practices associated with the private sector.

New public management (NPM) has transformed the discipline of public administration and shaped the content and theory of Public Administration within universities. Some universities have renamed their departments, based on the doctrine of NPM. The University of Johannesburg has a department called Public Management and Governance. The Tshwane University of Technology offers public management modules; the University of Pretoria has combined both Public Management and Administration; the University of South Africa's department is called Public Administration; and it offers public administration subjects; the Witwatersrand University has renamed it's School as the School of Governance; and the University of KwaZulu-Natal has recently restructured its School, which is now renamed the School of Governance, Management and IT.

The shift from bureaucratic administration to business-like professional management with NPM was promoted as a strategy suitable for all levels and spheres of government. NPM has been presented as a remedy to cure the management ills in various organisational contexts. NPM reforms, if effectively implemented, require a holistic approach, integrating the multiple-human resources, as well as the financial, technical and structural factors involved in a dynamic environment.

According to Hood (1995: 95-96), many critics have associated NPM with about seven elements of change. These are listed below:

    i.   NPM has shifted towards a greater disaggregation of public organisations into separately managed corporate units, each with its own organisational identity and greater delegation of the resource decisions. These "corporate units" offer detailed service-wide rules, common service provision in significant areas of operation, complete central control of salary negotiations and staffing levels.

    ii.   A shift towards excessive competition both between public sector organisations and in the private sector. The aim for a more competitive style is to capture markets, which are indefinitely allocated to certain reputable producers.

iii. A shift towards the greater use of private-sector management styles and management practices within the public sector that is largely drawn from the private sector.

iv. A move towards a greater emphasis on discipline and thrift in the use of resources and in finding less costly ways to deliver public services.

v. More emphasis on an evident hands-on management approach, where top managers have a more active control of public organisations, as opposed to the hands-off management approach, in which managers are hobbled by personnel-management rules.

vi. A move towards clear formal measurable standards and measures of performance and success. The old public administration involved low trust in politicians and managers, but high trust in professional expertise.

vii. A shift towards greater emphasis on output control, where the resources and pay are based on performance, as opposed to the old public administration in which the emphasis was on procedure and control.

The shift from old public management to new public management has brought about numerous positive changes to the way that government operates today. New public management has developed strongly, because of the political, social and economic changes. The focus has moved from managing systems to managing people. The diverse people that the South African government has adopted, contributes immensely to the new public management. Managers are given more responsibility and flexibility to manage in the NPM than in the old public management. Thornhill (2014:20) states that NPM may seem to be a solution to the age-old complaint of bureaucracy, in carrying out functions where public administrators were bound by rules and delays in the execution of simple tasks.

2.5   ADMINISTRATIVE GENERIC FUNCTIONS

The administrative functions of public administration consist of, six generic processes: policy-making, organising, financing, provision and the utilisation of personnel, work procedures and control measures. These generic functions have a specific purpose and a particular output, which lead to the various needs being met. These functions overlap in their execution; and they can be carried out by different people or divisions/units at the same time. Van Dijk (2003:39) explains that these functions were initially described, by

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Cloete (1994) as processes; but Thornhill and Hanekom (1979) renamed them as functions.

2.5.1   POLICY-MAKING

In order for any organisation or institution to run smoothly and to achieve its outcomes, it requires a well-developed policy. According to Du Toit and Van Der Waldt (1997:14), policy-making is the umbrella process whereby a series of functions is carried out to achieve certain objectives. In policy-making, the problems are identified and investigated; information is gathered and decisions are made. At national level, the health policy provides guidelines for administering and managing the health issues and in an individual department like a hospital, which has a policy with guidelines for treating the large numbers of patients (Du Toit and Van der Waldt, 1997:14). Van Dijk (2003:40) defines policy formulation, analysis and implementation as the identification of needs, the preparation of legislation, regulations, policy statements, instructions and directives; and in addition, the analysis of existing policies and systems.

2.5.2   ORGANISING

Organising in management refers to the interaction between people, resources and effort in accomplishing a task to achieve a common objective. The concept of organising also refers to planning of activities or tasks systematically to successfully achieve results. Du Toit and Van der Waldt (1997:14) explained that organising entails forming structures, each department being responsible for a particular functional area (health or education) and grouping certain functional activities (professional groups, such as doctors, nurses and clerks) within specific structures. At national level, the umbrella structures are the legislative, judicial and executive powers; and an individual government department has different divisions, such as human resources and a finance division (Du Toit and Van der Waldt, 1997:14). Botes et al. (1992:343) explained that administration exists where two or more people work together in an organisation for the purpose of attaining a goal.

2.5.3   PUBLIC FINANCE

No organisation can function without funds being budgeted and allocated for the various aims. Financing is a process, which administers the organisation's funds. According to

Coetzee (1988:62), no objective can be reached unless the necessary funds are acquired and budgeted for that purpose. Financing entails, obtaining, spending and controlling public finances (Du Toit and Van der Waldt, 1997:14). Public finance is obtained from taxes, levies and other fees; while private-sector funds are obtained from private funding, such as shares, bonds and bank loans. Du Toit and Van der Waldt (1997:14) further explained that at national level, provision is made for how money is acquired, how certain amounts can be spent by certain institutions for clear objectives; and how expenditure should be controlled. In individual departments, this entails accessing the money needed to carry on with activities and control how the money is spent.

2.5.4   PROVISION AND UTILIZATION OF PERSONNEL

As people are an organisation's most important asset, every organisation requires human capital to carry out its functions effectively and efficiently. This administrative process involves making people available and placing them in suitable positions (Du Toit and Van Der Waldt, 1997:14). Once people are available and placed, provision is made for the training and development of employees, to enhance their productivity and efficiency. Fox and Meyer (1995: 95) define personnel management as "that field of management, which is concerned with the recruitment, selection, retention, and utilization of human resources, in order to meet the needs of management, employees and outside groups". Van Dijk (2003:41) defines the provision and utilisation of personnel as the function through which suitable employees are hired and utilized, according to their capabilities.

2.5.5   WORK PROCEDURES

Work procedures are those steps or activities that are followed, in order to complete a task correctly to reach a goal. No goal can be achieved without effective and efficient work procedures (Coetzee, 1988:62), in order to reach an organisation's objectives. Work procedures involve compiling specific guidelines to be followed in performing certain actions. According to Botes et al. (1992:331), procedures and methods are ways in which officials perform their duties, in order to give legality and legitimacy to government actions; and these comprise the development for a particular time and a specific occasion. Du Toit and Van der Waldt (1997:14) explain that at national level, the legislature determines the procedures to be followed in carrying out certain activities (for example, voting procedures during elections); and in an individual department, this function involves

establishing the procedures applicable in a department or division (for example, official transport is requested to perform a task).

According to Van Dijk (2003:42), work procedures and methods are based on the theory that every action, taken by an employee, requires a single-minded, organised and methodical procedure. Due to environmental changes, work methods and procedures should constantly be revised, in order to improve service delivery. Specific work procedures should be documented to allow for new employees taking over to be on a par with the policy guidelines and procedures.

2.5.6 CONTROL MEASURES

Control measures are basically what steps an organisation or institution would need to take to minimise or eliminate a problem, so that the objectives can be realised. Control measures are defined as the design of control systems, in order to implement reporting mechanisms to ensure that work standards are met; while ensuring quality and quantity in service delivery (Cloete, 1993:59). Du Toit and Van der Walt (1997:15) explained that by carrying out the generic administrative processes, government institution officials are not only able to do their work, but also to have certain regulators like policies, Acts, procedures and standards, in order to function efficiently and to effectively produce products.

Control is exercised to ensure that all administrative and functional functions are carried out effectively and efficiently (Du Toit and Van der Waldt, 1997:15); and control measures are expected when trust money is used; people work together and the office bearers are responsible to the public (Coetzee, 1988:62). Control measures are of the utmost importance in every organisation; and they are in place – so that employees, as well as employers, are protected. At the national level, this means that specific measures are set and bodies created for exercising control; and in an individual government department, this entails internal controls, such as internal audits, reports and inspections (Du Toit and Van der Walt, 1997:15).

2.6 INFLUENCE OF THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration in South Africa since 1994 has been experiencing an intense and accelerating political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental change. Because of these changes, democratic transitions were experienced – both in the country, as well as in organisations. The success of an organisation does not only depend on the internal environment, but also on the external environment. The external environment comprises those factors outside the organisation that influence the organisation's ability to function effectively and efficiently, such as economic and social environmental factors. The following are factors that impact greatly, on the manner in which public administration functions and operates.

2.6.1 POLITICAL FACTORS

Omotoyo (2011:125) explains that public institutions are severely influenced by national power structures and processes, such as political parties, pressure and interest groups, political policy, governmental laws, Acts and regulations, as well as political and executive authorities. Changes in government policy or government interventions can contribute to the political factors. The political economy plays a major role in the stability or the turmoil of a country, and the development of an organisation. A stable and vibrant political environment is crucial for the development of the economy. According to Caiden (1969: 181), where states are ruled by one party, the state's administrative reforms must conform to centrally approved policies and guidelines; and once implemented, they cannot be challenged. Government is responsible for the stabilisation of the economy; whereby fluctuations in the business cycle can cause problems to the economy; and these can be improved through the budget, monetary policy and control over prices (Tshiyoyo 2014:131).

2.6.2 ECONOMIC FACTORS

The economic environment is that part of the State that is concerned with the economic welfare of the economy and its residents (De Wet, 2014:33). Economic factors include economic growth, inflation, unemployment, labour costs, the impact of globalisation and changes to the economic environment. When the economy of a nation is prosperous, it uplifts the standard of living – resulting in the growth of an organisation. The economy is

severely affected, when the unemployment rate is high in the country – in the sense that the government would have to support its citizens. The impact of globalisation also contributes to the success of the economy in terms of access to new markets, a decrease in employment and an increase in the standard of living.

According to Omotoyo (2011:132), government is the largest single employer in the South African labour market; and government is, therefore, responsible for reducing socio-economic ills, such as high levels of unemployment, low productivity and crime.

The following are some of the policies, programmes and departments that were implemented and introduced by the South African government, in order to improve the economic situation of the country. These are:

i) *The New Growth Path (NGP)*

The NGP sets out a vision for creating a competitive, fair and socially cohesive economy. The NGP puts employment at the centre of economic policy; it identifies how greater efficiencies can be achieved in the economy; thereby creating the investments needed to create an advanced, 21st century infrastructure (NGP, 2010).

ii) *GEAR – Growth, Employment and Redistribution*

The strategy of GEAR is aimed at significant improvement in economic growth and development for all South Africans, and a meaningful decline in unemployment. This policy was phased out in 2006 (GEAR, 1999).

iii) *Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)*

The RDP was a strategy for the socio-economic transformation in South Africa. The RDP formed the foundation of the government's attempt to address poverty and deprivation amongst the people, and to build a united, non-racial and non-sexist South Africa. This policy was phased out in 1996 (RDP, 1994).

iv) *The National Development Plan 2030 (NDP)*

The National Planning Commission is a new initiative by government, which is responsible for developing a long-term vision and strategic plan for South Africa. The focus of the NDP is to eliminate poverty and to reduce inequalities by 2030 (NDP 2030, 2011).

v) *Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE)*

Broad-based Black economic empowerment is an important policy instrument aimed at broadening the economic base of the country by stimulating further economic growth and creating employment. BBBEE is a pragmatic growth strategy aimed at realising the country's full economic potential; while creating economic opportunities for the black majority (BBBEE Act 53, 2003).

2.6.3 SOCIAL FACTORS

Social factors that are responsible for the changes in public administration are: population growth, age profile, health, education, employment rate, job market, public opinion and socio-cultural changes. The social environment, as described by Du Toit and Van Der Walt (1997:116) as the totality of all the social structures that people belong to, and the interaction between these structures that could influence the environment of public administration. In 1994, the Republic of South Africa adopted a democratic form of government, in which the State inherited significant challenges in the form of inequalities and imbalances, such as unemployment, poverty, corruption, unfair education and health systems, to name but a few (Thornhill, 2014:36).

These challenges were instrumental in a number of policies being implemented to mend these inequalities and imbalances, which, in turn, shaped the government sectors organisations. According to Thornhill (2014:36), the Constitution of 1996 and the Bill of Rights were two important legislative measures that government had to work with to ensure transformation.

2.6.4 TECHNOLOGICAL FACTORS

Dassah (2014:340) states that in the past, Governments were considered as dinosaurs and were old-fashioned in carrying out tasks. Yet today, governments are at the forefront in modernising service delivery and finding innovative ways to interact with the public and organisations. These emerging changes in technology have caused a huge challenge to public administration; and public administrators have to keep abreast of these technological changes. Caiden (1969:172) argued that when technology outshines people, this can create a huge problem in public administration; since individual's performance can be replaced by machinery. The rapid development of computer

technologies, like the internet and video-conferencing, empowers people to work from home instead of travelling to work; and this impacts severely on the transport industry.

Caiden (1969:173) further stated that technology commands huge capital investments, broad research, complex training and people who have grown up technologically inclined. However, there will always be some people in society who would resist these technological advances, which in turn, would hinder the progress of an organisation.

2.6.5 LEGAL/LEGISLATIVE FACTORS (REFORM/CHANGE)

Government has implemented many legislative measures to protect the interests of employees, the public, organisations and the country as a whole. Legislative policies include employee-protection legislation, which includes health and safety at work and the protection of employees at work. Changes in legislative policies can impact negatively or positively on public-sector organisations. The employment Act, health and safety, are some examples of legislative Acts that impact on public administration. Parliament is responsible for formulating new laws, changing the existing laws and revoking laws that are no longer needed and relevant to the changing population and the environment.

2.6.6 ECOLOGICAL/ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

According to Fox and Meyer (1995: 43), the environment refers to all groups, norms and conditions, with which an organisation must deal, which include the total set of outside forces, which can shape the behaviour of the organisation and its employees. The environmental factors that can affect the functioning of an organisation, include: transportation, climate change, air quality, pollution, water quality and waste management. Changing rainfall patterns and escalating temperatures can impact severely on the production of food and the water supply. This, in turn, impacts negatively on industries and households, which, in turn, changes the way people live and work, as reported (National Development Plan, 2011:9).

Organisations need to plan ahead for those external elements that will determine organisational success or failure. Certain external elements can be controlled or worked on, depending on the resources available in the organisation; and yet some organisations have to make alterations to accommodate these external interferences. According to

Leuenberger and Bartle (2009:51), government and non-profit organisations need competent and capable leaders to regulate and manage any negative externalities.

2.7   CONCLUSION

As may be seen from this chapter, the domain and nature of public administration has been discussed in some detail. The chapter further gives an historical overview of public administration – from ancient times to public administration today; and it outlines the innovative journey that public administration has travelled. Public administration theorists have succeeded in changing the field of governance and administration to create an ethos of efficiency and effectiveness. The difference between public management versus public administration has been discussed in detail; and old public management and new public management have been summarized, in order to give an understanding for the change of public management.   It is essential for new scholars of public administration to continuously maintain and upgrade the teachings of the past public administration theorists; so that an efficient and effective culture can be adopted.

The generic functions of public administration were delineated, in order to give an understanding of the processes that are involved in public administration. Public demands are increasing drastically on a daily basis; and it is up to decision-makers to establish advanced and contemporary approaches of delivering public services, in order to meet international standards. The chapter further outlines the various reforms and policies that Government has established to improve the internal and external environment of public administration that is vital for organisations to achieve workplace and organisational success.   Public administration requires leaders to be visionary, resourceful and innovative, in order to change the face of the public sector.

CHAPTER THREE

3.   THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss and describe the methodology of the research – how it was surveyed and investigated. The research methodology should give a better understanding of how the research was carried out. It is crucial that the researcher produce valuable and reliable outcomes in any research project undertaken. It is of the utmost importance that the researcher conforms to good research practices contained in the research methodology. Research methodology focuses on the manner in which the research was planned, structured and executed, in order to comply with scientific criteria (Mouton and Marais, 1996:28). A research design, on the other hand, is a plan or blueprint of how one intends conducting the research; and researchers frequently confuse the research design with the research methodology (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:74).

The distinction that Babbie and Mouton (2005:106) make between the research design and the research methodology lies therein that research designs are specific, detailed and have specifically formulated decision steps; whereas the research methodology refers to the methods, techniques and procedures that are used in the process of implementing the research design or the research plan.

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), research is a systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information (data), in order to increase our understanding of a phenomenon in which we are interested or concerned; and Webb and Auriacombe (2006) explain that research aims to explore, describe or explain various phenomena. Mouton (2007:438) posits that research methodology refers to the 'how' dimension of research; how the evidence is gathered, analysed and presented. The research method refers to the means required to execute a particular stage of the research process, such as the data-collection methods. The research techniques refer to the variety of tools that can be used when the data are being collected, such as questionnaires, interviews and observation. These techniques and methods are distinctively linked to, either the quantitative or to the qualitative approaches (Webb and Auriacombe, 2006).

This chapter will explicitly discuss the research approach used and the research design. The chapter will further outline the background to the problem, the research questions and objectives, as well as the significance of the research. Various data-collection methods will be explained; and the analysis of the data will be carried out in this chapter. The primary aim of this study will be to explore the attraction and retention policies at those universities under study. Therefore, this study can be described as being exploratory in nature; as essentially, exploratory research provides new insights into the topic under study.

3.2   THE PURPOSES OF RESEARCH

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:79), the three most common and useful purposes of research are: exploration, description and explanation; and these purposes are elaborated below:

- **Exploration** – This type of approach is used when a researcher examines a new interest, or when the topic under study is relatively new. Exploratory studies are mostly carried out for the following reasons: satisfaction of the researcher's curiosity and longing to understand the research better; to test the feasibility of the study, and to develop methods in a follow-up study; to explain various concepts and the construct of the study; the priorities for future research and to develop new hypotheses about an existing phenomenon.

- Exploratory studies are very valuable in social scientific research; but the main shortcoming of such a study is that they seldom provide satisfactory answers to the research question (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:79-80).

- **Description** – The main purpose of numerous social scientific studies is to describe situations and events; and this is where the researcher gets to observe and then describe what has been observed. Scientific descriptions are usually more accurate and precise than unexpected ones. Excellent examples of descriptive social research are surveys and censuses undertaken by market research companies and Statistics SA. Additional examples of descriptive studies are the computation of age-gender profiles of populations and the computation of crime rates for different cities. Numerous qualitative studies aim mainly at description. A descriptive research purpose may include a conceptual analysis,

an historical analysis, the retrospective reconstruction of small numbers of cases and the use of multivariate descriptive studies (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:80-81).

- **Explanation** – The third purpose of social scientific research is to explain things; and an explanatory activity is reporting why certain people intend voting for Candidate A; while others will vote for Candidate B. Another example of an explanatory activity is reporting on why some cities have higher crime rates than others. The most important aim of explanatory studies is to indicate the causality between variables or events (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:81).

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3.3   RESEARCH APPROACH: QUALITATIVE AND/OR QUANTITATIVE

There are usually two types of research approaches that are carried out in any research undertaken, namely: qualitative and quantitative research methods. The distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is important; as it often calls for different data-collection techniques; and it has a direct impact on the type and design of the data-collection instrument (Jarbandhan and Schutte, 2006:671). According to Saunders et al. (2009:482), the distinctions between qualitative and quantitative data are: Qualitative data are based on the meanings communicated through words; whereas quantitative data is based on the significance of numbers. Qualitative data are where non-standardised data require classification into categories; whereas quantitative data are where the collection results in numerical and standardised data.

Qualitative data are where the analysis of the data is carried out through the use of conceptualisation; whereas quantitative data are where the analysis is conducted through the use of diagrams and statistics.

3.3.1 Contrast between quantitative and qualitative research

Quantitative	Qualitative
Research that uses numbers and measurement.	Research that uses words and descriptions.
Research that focuses on the researcher's viewpoint.	Research that focuses on the participants' viewpoint.
It is research where the researcher is detached from the participants.	It is research where the researcher is involved with the participants.
Research that tests theory and concepts	Research where the theory and concepts emerge from the data received.
Research that has a structured way of collecting the data.	Research that applies a flexible way of collecting the data.
Generalisation to the population	Understanding of the context
Research that collects solid and reliable data.	The data received are rich, deep and heavy.
Macro-large scale patterns of data.	Micro-small explanations of data received.
Research that focuses the on the behaviour of people.	Research that focuses on the meaning of action.
Research that takes place in an artificial setting.	Research that takes place in natural settings.

TABLE 5 – ADAPTED FROM BRYMAN AND BELL (2014:50)

3.3.2 Similarities between quantitative and qualitative research

According to Bryman and Bell (2014:52), the following are some of the similarities that exist between quantitative and qualitative research:

- Both are concerned with answering questions about the nature of social reality, although quantitative researchers tend to ask more specific research questions and qualitative researchers ask open-ended questions.

- Both argue for the importance of transparency. Researchers should be clear about their research and findings; so that the quality and the significance of their work can be assessed.

- Both must address the question of error. For quantitative and qualitative research, the error must be minimised and reduced; so that there is a good match between the data gathered.

- Both are concerned with data reduction. Once large amounts of data have been collected, the researchers eliminate any unwanted data; so that they can make sense thereof. The data-reduction process in quantitative research involves statistical analysis; and in qualitative research, the researchers use coding, in order to make sense of their data.

- Both relate their analysis and findings from the literature drawn. This is done to highlight their significance.

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3.3.3 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

According to Clark and Proctor (1999), the qualitative approach enables the researcher to focus on the subjective experience of the individual, and to be sensitive to the contents in which people interact with each other. Mason (2006) defines qualitative research as a grounded philosophical view that is concerned with how the social world is interpreted, understood, experienced and produced; it is based on the methods of data generation, analysis and explanation, which are flexible and sensitive in the social context. Brynard and Hanekom (1997: 29), on the other hand, define qualitative research as research, which produces descriptive data – generally people's own written or spoken words; and usually, no numbers or counts are assigned to observations.

Webb and Auriacombe (2006: 592) explain that qualitative research methods are used in social research; and these include observations, in-depth interviews, focus groups and the analysis of personal documents. One of the advantages of using qualitative methods is that they generate rich, detailed data; and they provide a context for understanding behaviour. The qualitative research paradigm gives the researcher the opportunity to immerse himself in a culture or situation; and it has direct interaction with the participants under study (Webb and Auriacombe, 2006:592). While many qualitative researchers view the positivist approach as an exclusive initiative, Lincoln and Guba (1985), on the other hand, maintain that human beings possess unique qualities and have the capacity to respond to a wide range of hints; and they frequently make unpredictable mental associations and references, in order to test new knowledge.

Qualitative research helps to develop new theories and in solving actual problems. Gabrielian et al. (2008:143) define qualitative research as a paradigm of research with certain assumptions about the ontology (reality), the epistemology (knowledge), and the methodology (tools). The qualitative field research is referred as a certain type of study that is qualitative and realistic in nature; and Trochim (2002) explains that this research involves the researcher going into the field to observe the phenomenon in its natural state. In social settings, field research can reveal facts that would not be obvious with other research methods; and this enables the researcher to obtain an inside view of reality. Field research that is conducted at a nearby location is less expensive than when the researcher must travel a distance to conduct the research and this can be very expensive. A list of social-life elements that are appropriate to field research is provided by Lofland and Lofland (1995: 101-113):

Social life elements	Examples
Groups	Research that focuses on traditional leaders, work groups and athletic teams
Roles	Research that focuses on the presidency, parliamentarians, mayors and councillors.
Meanings	Involves research on culture, backgrounds, traditions, norms and world views.
Organisations	Government units, organised local government associations, corporations, schools and churches.
Practices	Various kinds of behaviour, such as reading a book and talking.
Encounters	Involves two or more people meeting and interacting with one another.
Settlements	Involves examining small-scale societies, for example, townships, villages and neighbourhoods.
Episodes	Studying a variety of events, such as political parties, congresses, demonstrations and riots.
Relationships	The relationship between the different levels of government, for example, the relationship between the executive, legislative and judicial branches of government or between traditional leaders and local government councillors.

TABLE 6 – ADAPTED FROM LOFLAND AND LOFLAND (1995:101-113)

Webb and Auriacombe (2006:598) identify and explain the following qualitative research designs and techniques:

3.3.3.1 ETHNOGRAPHIC STUDIES

The purpose of the study is to describe different cultures and the understanding of human species, where the researcher becomes immersed in the culture as an active participant and records extensive field notes. The researcher not only observes these social phenomena; but he inquires about these phenomena to their social environment. According to Spradley (1979:4-5), the role of ethnographic studies expects the ethnographer to seek to learn and be taught from humans, instead of only collecting data about humans. The prominence in ethnography is on studying an entire culture in a natural setting; and there are no limits to what will be observed.

3.3.3.2 GROUNDED THEORY

This is a qualitative research method that uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductive grounded theory about a phenomenon; and it does not have a clearly defined demarcated ending point. A theory emerges only after the data concerning a particular phenomenon have been collected and analysed. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990:23-24), not all data collection and analysis exercises develop into a theory; some only describe the phenomena. According to Webb and Auriocombe (2006), the aim of grounded theory is to build theory that is faithful to and illuminates the area under study.

3.3.3.3 CASE STUDIES

This study emphasises the detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions. Yin (1994:1-12) defines the case-study research method as a practical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon with its real-life context, in which multiple sources of evidence are found. Case studies use documents, artefacts, interviews and observation as sources of evidence. According to Webb and Auriocombe (2006), a case could be an individual, a community, a group, an episode, an instance, an event, a subgroup of a town, city, rural area or population. Kumar (2014:155) explains that to be called a case study, it is important to treat the study population as one entity.

Webb and Auriocombe (2006) explain that case studies are used when researchers have little control over the events; and when the focus is on contemporary phenomena within some real-life context.

3.3.3.4 Phenomenological Studies

The focus of this study method is on people's subjective experiences and interpretations of the world. It involves studying a small number of subjects, in order to develop patterns and relationships of meaning.

3.3.4 Quantitative Research

Brynard and Hanekom (1997:29) described quantitative research as a process whereby the researcher assigns numbers to observations; and by counting and measuring objects, the data are produced. The quantitative approach encompasses working mostly with numbers; and it is closely associated with the natural sciences, where terminology, such as measurements and experiments are used. Research designs within the quantitative paradigm include the social survey, the experimental design, the analysis of the collected data and quantitative content analysis (Webb and Auriacombe, 2006:593).

Cloete (2007) explains that the quantitative research approach focuses on objectively observing, measuring and calculating phenomena; and it employs mainly technical statistical and mathematical approaches to gather and process the research data. The strengths of quantitative research paradigm are that its method produces quantifiable, reliable data specific to the target population (Webb and Auriacombe, 2006:592).

Webb and Auriacombe (2006:593) identify and explain the following quantitative research designs and techniques:

3.3.4.1 Experimental Research Designs

This type of research is mostly used in laboratory studies of animal and human behaviour; it is common in the natural sciences and in behavioural studies. The purpose is to determine whether one or more variables, affect another variable.

3.3.4.2 Quasi-experimental Research Designs

The quasi-experimental involves the researcher not employing experimental manipulation or random assignment of subjects to conditions; because the events have already happened; and it is a research method of choice in the social sciences. The design type of the current study takes a qualitative approach in the form of a case study, with explorative, descriptive and contextual approaches. A descriptive approach to research is relevant to the data that are collected from simple observation situations; because it searches for patterns and themes. When the data are neither generated, nor interpreted on the basis of existing theories or knowledge relating to a subject; but only a descriptive summary can be given (Neergaard et al., 2009).

In this study, the researcher attempts to describe the inconsistency in the representation of women in the institutions under study. The design type of this study takes a qualitative research approach, in the form of a case study with explorative, descriptive and contextual approaches.

According to Webb and Auriacombe (2006: 592-597), qualitative research refers to an approach to the study of the world, which seeks to describe and analyse the behaviour of humans. This includes observations, in-depth interviews, focus groups and the analysis of personal documents. Exploratory research aims at finding new insights, asking questions and assessing the phenomena in a new perspective (Saunders et al. 2007:133). For the purpose of this study, the research approach adopted is exploratory. The research seeks to explore the human-resource policies in attracting and retaining women from both the institutions under study. These are the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

3.3.4.3 The cross-sectional study design

The cross-sectional study design is best suited to studies aimed at finding out the occurrence of a phenomenon, problem, attitude, situation or issue, by taking a cross-section of the population. These are useful in obtaining an overall picture – as it stands at the time of the study. The major disadvantage of cross-sectional study design is that the researcher cannot measure change. Kumar (2014:126) explains that to measure change, it is necessary to have at least two cross-sectional studies on the same

population. On the positive side, these studies are comparatively cheap to undertake and easy to analyse; since they require only one contact with the study population.

3.3.4.4 THE BEFORE-AND-AFTER STUDY DESIGN

Another term for the before-and-after study design is the pre-test and post-test design. Kumar (2014:135-136) explains that a before-and-after study is the same process as a cross-sectional study; except that it comprises two cross-sectional datasets and is undertaken after a certain period. Webb and Auriacombe (2006:592-597) point out that the main advantage of the before-and-after design is that it can measure change in a situation, issue, phenomenon, attitude and problem; while the main disadvantage is that it is costly and time-consuming.

3.3.4.5 THE LONGITUDINAL STUDY DESIGN

The longitudinal study design is used in research to determine the pattern of change in relation to time; and it is useful when collecting factual information on an ongoing basis. Webb and Auriacombe (2006) explain that in longitudinal studies, the study is visited a number of times, at regular intervals – over a long period to time, to collect the required information. Kumar (2014:138-139) points out that a longitudinal study can be seen as a series of repeated cross-sectional studies. The disadvantage of the longitudinal study design is that if the same respondents are contacted frequently, they begin to know what is expected of them; so, may respond to the questions without thought; and they may lose interest in the inquiry. Kumar (2014:139) points out the advantage of a longitudinal study is that it allows the researcher to measure the pattern of change and to obtain factual information on a regular basis, thus enhancing its accuracy.

3.4 MIXED-METHOD APPROACHES

According to Webb and Auriacombe (2006), the mixed-method approach uses the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research; and it aims to select the best method – whether it is qualitative or quantitative – to find answers to the research questions. The mixed-method approach combines two or more methods to collect and analyse the data pertaining to the research problem; and for certain situations, qualitative techniques are better; while for others, the quantitative methods are better. Kumar

(2014:16) explains that a mixed-method approach can be used when the researchers examine aspects, such as; how many people hold a particular perspective; how many people have a particular problem; or how many people hold a particular view. Creswell and Clark (2007:5), on the other hand, explain that the mixed method approach focuses on collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative approaches in a study. The premise in doing so; is that the use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches can sometimes provide a better understanding of a research problem.

The use of the mixed-method approach in research has both advantages and disadvantages. Kumar (2014: 28) outlines some of the advantages and the disadvantages of using a mixed-method approach:

Advantages of the mixed-method approach	
The enhancement of the research possibilities.	When the research has multiple objectives, which leads to the use of multiple methods to find answers to the research questions. The use of the mixed-method approach increases the research possibilities within the study.
Better for more complex situations	It provides freedom to use the best methods in more complex situations. A combination of both quantitative and qualitative data provides the most complete analysis of problems.
Enrichment of data	When a mixed-method approach is used in undertaking a study, it enriches the data and enhances the accuracy of the findings.
Collecting additional research evidence.	The collection of data by two different methods is reasonable for complex and important situations where further evidence to support or contradict your argument is needed.
Disadvantages of the mixed-method approach	
More data means more work and resources	More time, financial resources, effort and technical expertise are required when two or more methods are used for collecting the data.

Requires additional and diverse skills	Researchers need to have knowledge, skills and be well-versed when using multi-method studies. Competency in data analysis, knowledge in data triangulation and information dissemination is required, by the researcher, for different methods of data collection.
Contacting two study populations	The mixed-method approach may involve contact with two or more different study populations.
Resolving disagreements in data	Significant disagreement between the datasets may be discovered.

Table 7 - Adapted from KUMAR (2014:28)

3.5   PURPOSES OF RESEARCH

Human capital is regarded as the most fundamental asset in every organisation; and retaining human capital is essential for the overall progress of the organisation. It is essentially no different in higher education institutions in recruiting and retaining talented applicants. Yet, South African higher education institutions experience a major challenge in recruiting and retaining talented women in senior and managerial positions. Various government policy programmes have emphasised equal opportunities and mainstreaming policies for women. However, higher education leaders still fail to recognise the institutionalised gender barriers, which disproportionately disadvantage women (Teelken and Deem, 2013:520).

The subject of staff retention has been explored extensively in the corporate sector; but what remain largely undocumented are the efforts of higher education institutions in retaining their valuable staff members (Netswera et al., 2005: 36). A review of the literature shows that there is a lack of published literature on the attraction and retention of women in Higher Education institutions. Over the last 20 years, the literature on women and their challenges has increased vastly; and various authors continue to write articles on the challenges women face in a predominantly male culture of higher education.

These articles included, but re not limited to the following: Gender Studies in Higher Education (Shackleton et al., 2006); Women in Higher Education (Cotterill and Letherby,

2005) and Gender Equity in Commonwealth Higher Education (Morley, 2005); yet, none of these articles refer to the attraction and retention of women in higher education.

This study investigates the factors contributing to the attraction and retention of women in Higher Education Institutions. This will be done by critically analysing the policy initiatives in place for the attraction and retention of women in Higher Education Institutions.

3.6 THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This study investigates the factors contributing to the attraction and retention of women in Higher Education Institutions. The study will critically analyse the policy initiatives in place for the attraction and retention of women in higher education institutions. The study aims to propose some recommendations for the attraction and retention of women in higher education institutions.

Research question: How can women be attracted and retained in senior positions in the Higher Education Institutions?

3.6.1 DESCRIBE THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The success of the most competitive companies throughout the world, including higher education institutions, lies in their highly skilled employees, on which these institutions spend millions to retain (Netswera et al., 2005). The slower progress towards changing the race, gender and disability profile of the academic workforce within higher education institutions stands in stark contrast to the demographic trends in student enrolment at South African Higher education institutions (Mkhwanazi and Baijnath, 2003:107).

One of the significant aspects of HR functioning in a company is the attraction and retention of employees. Once people are attracted, recruited and positioned in the company, the next job is to retain them by providing the necessary facilities for their development, and to harness their potentialities (Bhati and Ashokkumar, 2013).

A review of the literature shows that there is a lack of published literature on the attraction and retention of women in Higher Education institutions. Over the last 20 years, there has

been much written about women and their struggle to work in higher education; and various authors continue to discuss women's struggles in the predominantly male culture of higher education (Ashby-Scot, 2005). These articles have included, but are not limited to, the Gender Studies in Higher Education (Shackleton et al. 2006); Women in Higher Education (Cotterill and Letherby, 2005); and Gender Equity in Commonwealth Higher Education (Morley, 2005). However, the literature on the attraction and retention of women in Higher Education is very limited.

The proposed study can contribute significantly to the body of knowledge related to Human-Resource Management in Higher Education.

3.7   DESCRIBING THE DATA-COLLECTION METHODS/TECHNIQUES

3.7.1   INTERVIEWS

There are various methods that can be used out during the data collection; and it depends on the research being carried out. The major types of interviews, according to Bryman (2004) are:

- **Semi-structured interviews** – The interviewer has a series of questions that are in the general form of an interview schedule; but s/he is able to vary the sequence of an interview.
- **Unstructured interviews** – The interviewer has a list of topics or issues, and the style of questioning is usually informal.
- **Intensive interview** – This type of interview is more intensive; and it is referred to by using an alternative term to the unstructured interview.
- **Qualitative interview** – This embraces interviews of both the semi-structured and unstructured kind.
- **In-depth interview** – This interview is carried out in detail.
- **Focused interview** – Open questions are mostly used here, where the interviewees are asked questions about a specific situation or event that is relevant and is of interest to the researcher.
- **Life-history interview** – The aim of this type of interview is to gain information on the entire biography of each respondent.

According to Mann and Stewart (2000), an advantage of the telephone interview is that people from all over the globe can be interviewed, provided they have access to a telephone or computer; and a disadvantage is that the interviewer would not be able to view the body language of the interviewee.

3.7.2   FOCUS GROUPS

This type of data-collection method is where the interviewees discuss the specific issue or topic pertaining to the research in groups. Babbie and Mouton (2001) explain that the main advantage of focus groups is that the interviewer is able to observe a large amount of interaction on a topic in a short space of time, based on the researcher's ability to assemble and direct focus groups. Another advantage of this method of data collection is that it captures the experiences of the participants; and the interaction among the participants is usually very active. According to Saunders et al. (2009:347), the reason why focus groups are very familiar is that they have been used by political parties to test voters' reactions to certain policies in their election strategies. The disadvantage of focus groups is that they are carried out in an unnatural social setting, where the interviewee is not relaxed; and this may restrict him/her from answering comfortably and easily.

3.7.3   OBSERVATIONS

Saunders et al. (2009:288) explain that observation involves the systematic observation, recording, description, analysis and interpretation of an individual's behaviour. Observation can be distinguished into participant observation, where the participant is aware that s/he is being observed; and non-participant observation is where the observer is not aware of being observed. Kumar (2005:119) refers to observation as a cognitive process whereby the data are collected through watching and listening to an interaction among the individuals. Babbie and Mouton (2001:293) mention the following major types of observable data:

- External physical signs, which include consumables, clothing, radios, etc.
- Communicative movements, which include, eye movements, facial expressions, posture, bodily movements, etc.
- Language behaviour, which includes stammering, slips of the tongue, etc.
- Time duration (observing how long a person is engaged in an activity).

- Physical location (a person's personal space and surroundings).

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:294), one of the biggest advantages of observation is that it can be done anywhere; and it is vital when observing, that you make full and accurate notes of what went on. Three important guidelines when observing are mentioned by Babbie and Mouton (2001). Firstly, the research should not trust his/her memory as it is not very trustworthy; so notes should be taken during observation, or soon as possible after the observation. Secondly, it is a good idea for the researcher to take notes in stages. In the first stage, write words and phrases so that s/he can move fast and keep abreast of what's happening. In the second stage, the researcher can rewrite notes in detail in his/her own space and time; but this should be done soon as possible, as the longer the researcher delays, the less likely it would be that s/he is able to recall the actions and events accurately. Thirdly, determining how much information the researcher should record. In addition, the answer is record all the information; as one would never know what is important and what is unimportant.

Once the information is reviewed and analysed, the details of something "unimportant" may jog your memory to remember something that is important.

3.7.4 DOCUMENTARY REVIEW

The term 'documents' covers a wide range of different kinds of source. Personal documents, such as diaries, letters, memoirs, autobiographies and visual forms, such as photographs or videos also fall into the document range. Official documents deriving from the State, such as public enquiries and official documents obtained from private sources, such as documents produced by organisations all fall into this category. According to Maree (2007:82), documentary study is a data-gathering technique that focuses on all the different types of written documents that may shed light on the research under study; and these would include published and unpublished documents, newspaper articles, administrative documents and reports.

For the purpose of this study, employment equity plans of both the universities under study will be examined. Human-resource strategies in terms of attraction and retention of women and designated groups will be scrutinised. Higher education policies in terms of the recruitment of women will be identified and analysed. Due to the sensitive and

exploratory nature of the content, the research approach in this study is qualitative in nature. The primary method of data collection will be the review of documents, government legislation and institutional reports on Human-Resource strategies at Higher Education Institutions, as well as both the institutions under study. Government legislation will be scrutinised in regard to the advancement of women in Higher Education Institutions.

3.7.5 QUESTIONNAIRES

Babbie and Mouton (2001:233) distinguish between open-ended questions, whereby the respondent is asked to provide his or her own answer to the question; and closed-ended questions, where the respondent is asked to select an answer from among a list provided by the researcher. According to Bryman (2004), questionnaires are one of the main instruments for gathering data when using a social-survey design. The advantages of questionnaires are that they are cheaper and quicker to administer; there is an absence of interviewer interference; and they are convenient for the respondents to complete in their own space and time. The disadvantages of questionnaires are that there is no opportunity to probe the respondents to elaborate an answer; it is difficult to ask many questions; there is a greater risk of missing some of the data; and there is a lower response rate – particularly to postal questionnaires.

3.8 UNIT OF ANALYSIS

Babbie and Mouton (2001:84) definite the unit of analysis as follows: "The unit of analysis refers to the 'what' of your study: what object, phenomenon, entity, process, or events are interesting in the investigation." And it goes on to state that one has to be very clear on what the unit of analysis being researched is; as one can run the risk of making assertions about one unit of analysis, based on the examination of another (Babbie and Mouton 2001:88). The unit of analysis in this study will be women moving into senior positions and the employment-equity plans of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

The other methods of data collection will be credible sources obtained in articles, Acts of parliament, human-resource policies, frameworks and books.

Babbie and Mouton (2001:85) explain that units of analysis are those things, which are being examined, in order to construct summary descriptions of all the units, and to explain the differences among them. They further clarify several common examples of social science units of analysis:

- **Individuals** – Individual human beings are possibly the most common units of analysis for social-scientific research. Examples of specific groups at the individual level include: students, gays and lesbians, factory workers, voters, single parents and faculty members. Individuals may be characterised in terms of their membership of social groupings, as the units of analysis.

- **Groups** – If a study is carried out to identify all the gangs in a city, in order to learn the differences between them, such as, big gangs versus small gangs, "uptown" versus "downtown" gangs, the unit of analysis would always be gangs. Other examples of units of analysis at the group level could be married couples, friendship cliques, households, census blocks, cities, etc.

- **Organisations and institutions** – Formal social organisations and institutions may also be regarded as units of analysis in social-scientific research. Examples of formal organisations suitable as units of analysis would be: church congregations, army divisions and supermarkets. Examples of institutions as units of analysis would include educational institutions, such as schools, technikons and universities. Other examples of institutions as units of analysis are financial institutions, such as banks, investment companies and religious institutions, such as churches and temples.

- **Social artefacts/cultural objects –** Social artefacts include concrete objects, such as cars, buildings, books, poems, paintings, pottery, jokes, songs, students' excuses for missing exams, and scientific discoveries. Any product of social beings, or their behaviour, can be regarded as cultural objects.

- **Social actions –** Weddings are regarded as units of analysis, for example, when a researcher reports that weddings between partners of different religions are performed ritually compared with partners belonging to the same religion. Other examples of similar units of analysis are: court cases, traffic accidents, divorces, race riots, student demonstrations, etc.

- **Interventions –** Some examples of this type analysis include various kinds of courses and programmes, such as training, skills development, awareness,

education and so on. Other types of interventions, as units of analysis, are plans, such as organisational development plans for a business, plans and strategic plans; systems, such as performance appraisal systems and management-information systems; and various policies, such as national, departmental or organisational plans.

For the purpose of this study, the unit of analysis includes organisations and institutions of higher learning.

3.9   DESCRIBING THE ETHICAL ISSUES UNDERPINNING THIS STUDY

According to Lutabingwa et al. (2006), there are three broad areas of ethical concern in research: the ethics of data collection and analysis; the ethics of the treatment of participants; and the ethics of the responsibility to society. The researcher needs to ensure that, in order to carry out the research ethically, no harm should come to the participants; informed consent should be granted; there is no deception and lack of respect for their privacy. The research attempts to assess the environment, in which human-resource policies are implemented pertaining to the attraction and retention of women in higher education institutions. The researcher has the right to conduct research for truth – but not at the expense of the rights of other individuals in society (Babbie and Mouton, 2001: 520).

Some of the most important ethical agreements that prevail in social research as explained by Babbie and Mouton (2001:520-526) are:

- **Voluntary participation** – Social research often requires people to reveal personal information about themselves; and participation in a social experiment disrupts the person's daily routine. Although voluntary participation is important, it is often impossible to follow it; as it may significantly affect the social processes being studied.

- **No harm to the participants** – Harm should not come to any of the participants being studied in social research. The ethical norms of voluntary participation and no harm to participants have become formalised in the concept of "informed consent". There are some "populations" in social science that are more at-risk than others are; and these are regarded as vulnerable groups. Some of the

examples of the vulnerable groups are: children, the aged, mentally handicapped people, psychiatric patients and prisoners.

- **Anonymity and confidentiality** – Frequently, these two concepts are misconstrued; but anonymity is when the researcher cannot identify a given response with a given respondent. An example of anonymity would be the mail survey, in which no identification numbers are put on the questionnaires before submission. Confidentiality, on the other hand, is when the researcher can identify a given person's responses; but s/he guarantees not to publicise the survey. To ensure confidentiality, all names and addresses should be removed from the questionnaires and replaced by identification numbers. It is the researcher's responsibility to ensure that the respondent is rendered exceptionally clear on the difference between anonymity and confidentiality.

- **Deceiving subjects** – Sometimes researchers disclose that they are doing research; but they refrain from providing further information, such as why and for whom, they are carrying out the research. There is no reason why the participants should not know after the research is carried out, rather than not informing them at all.

- **Analysis and reporting** – As a social researcher, you have ethical obligations to your colleagues in the scientific community. Technical shortcomings and failures of the study should be known to the readers. Negative findings should be reported, if they are at all related to your analysis; and researchers should at all times, strive to maintain their objectivity and integrity when conducting scientific research. Researchers should always conform to the highest technical standards in their research. The limits of the findings and the methodological constraints that determine the validity of such findings should always be indicated at the closing stages of a research study.

3.10   ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:411), numerous data analyses are carried out with computers, ranging from small personal microcomputers to large, mainframe computers; and for computers to work their magic, they must be able to read the data collected. In qualitative research, data analysis is a continuous process, comparison and assessment procedures start when the researcher begins to collect the literature on the

subject or goes into the field to gather the empirical data (Cloete, 2007:513). A review of the data of both the institutions under study would give an indication of whether or not the staff composition of the institution is demographically representative of the population.

The data collected from the employment equity plans of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal will be analysed and compared with those of the Higher Education employment policies and documents pertaining to human-resource management practices.

3.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the research methodology used by explaining and describing the research approach used. The problem statement, the research questions, the research objectives and the significance of the study were explained and have been discussed. The chapter further explains the various data-collecting methods used in research, the unit of analysis, the population under study, the sampling methods used; and it finally ends with the analysis of the data. For the purpose of this study, qualitative research refers to research that analyses the social phenomena, and can be used to generate rich, detailed data for understanding the various behaviour patterns.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.   THE DOMAIN OF HUMAN-RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Human-Resource Management is related to the recruitment, selection, employment, placement, management, development and retention of people in organisations. Organisations experience a significant challenge in recruiting, retaining and developing their workforce across the globe. Human-resource managers must not only identify these challenges; but they must also find solutions to address these dynamics. For the purpose of this study, the sub-discipline that will be focused on is that of Human-Resource Management; because that is the scope within which employee attraction and retention reside; and therefore this comprises the focal point of this study.

Issues like affirmative action, equal opportunity and diversity will be discussed in detail in order to establish an understanding of the appointment of a diverse workforce in higher education institutions. Since the focus is on women in this study, the advancement of women and gender mainstreaming will be discussed. The legislative framework supporting Human-Resource Management will be discussed in detail in this chapter. International benchmarks and best practices will be identified and discussed, in order to give an understanding of those human-resource strategies that are adopted globally.

Human resources should be a vital ingredient to the success and triumph of every organisation across the globe. It is the priority of organisations to develop, care and nurture their employees, in order to meet individual and organisational needs. Human-resource management is no different in the higher education institutions. Higher education institutions have a vital role in adopting human-resource strategies that cater for women in a competitive economy. Higher education institutions are required to realign their mission to accommodate women; so that the inequalities and inefficiencies of the past are addressed adequately.

4.2   DEFINING HUMAN-RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Various definitions by several authors have been cited, in order to understand the complex nature of human-resource management. According to Anyim et al., (2012:68),

human-resource management is the management of an organisation's most treasured assets, that is, the people who independently and jointly contribute to the success of the organisation. Van Dijk (2014:314) describes human-resource management as the managing of an organisation's workforce through the effective and efficient acquisition of employees via their maximum potential. Aslam et al. (2013:88) view human-resource management as: the rules, regulations and procedures related to the management of employees within the organisation. Therefore, this study deduces that human-resource management entails the management of people through processes, in order to bring out their full potential and thus to be able to meet the objectives of the organisation successfully.

The concept of human capital has gained currency in the field of human-resource management. Van Dijk (2012:315) defines human-capital management as the approach to staffing that perceives people as assets, whose current value can be measured in terms of productivity, and whose future value could be enhanced through investments. According to Van Dijk (2012:316-317), there were many approaches to the study of human relations; but they fade away – being replaced by new approaches. Human-capital management is the current approach, which presents employees as intellectual capital; and here the emphasis is on utilisation and nurturing. Baron and Armstrong (2007) explain that human capital represents the human factor combined with intelligence, skills and expertise in the organisation, which, if properly motivated, can ensure a productive organisation.

According to Burke et al. (2013), there is a pressing need for public sector organisations all over the world to improve their products and services; while at the same time using tighter budgets and greater scrutiny from governments, media and community groups. To provide high quality services, organisations require high quality employees with high quality skills and knowledge. Key human-resource policies and practices relating to recruitment and retention, training and development, career progression and performance appraisal are necessary and important, in order to enhance the effectiveness of employees. Burke et al. (2013) therefore maintain that strategies for managing human resources have a vital role to play in ensuring that public sector organisations have the ability to address the needs of the communities they serve, and constantly to achieve high quality service.

For the purpose of this study, human-capital management is defined as the management of people in enriching their capabilities, in order to get maximum results in achieving organisational outputs. Organisations are compelled to invest in their employees where care and attention is bestowed upon them. In turn, the employees invest in their organisation. Retaining and sustaining best human capital demonstrates good human-resource-management practices. Organisations have to adhere to managing human capital effectively and efficiently, in order to gain organisational success.

4.3 THE OPERATIONAL FUNCTIONS OF HUMAN-RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

4.3.1 HUMAN-RESOURCE PLANNING

According to Van Dijk (2014:324), human-resource planning is believed to be the backbone in the effective management of people; and without appropriate planning, the execution of other functions and approaches would not be successful. Effective and efficient human-resource planning within an organisation ensures the successful recruitment of human capital. Anyim et al. (2012:69) state that human-resource planning involves a complex task of forecasting and planning for the appropriate applicants at the right positions and in time to perform their duties, which would benefit the organisation in carrying out its objectives. Anyim et al. (2012:70) posit that human-resource planning is a vital component for the success of an organisation in the long term; and it should be carried out within the objectives and policy framework of the organisation.

According to Anyim et al. (2012: 73), appointing new employees can be a challenging task of human-resource planning; since people can be complex in nature. Anyim et al. (2012:73) furthermore explain the challenges, problems and issues with human-resource planning:

- **Employee attitude** – The workplace is staffed with different kinds of people with negative tendencies, with which the employers must contend. This is where human-resource personnel are called upon to assist with mediation, coaching and disciplinary measures, in order to cultivate an orderly work environment. It is up to the human-resource planners to use applicable and dependable screening instruments to prevent the hiring of problem employees. It is also important to keep

the hiring process documentation, in order to define the expectations from suitable applicants.

- **Workplace diversity** – Organisations must encourage and adopt a diverse workforce in their human-resource planning, in order to promote growth, globalization and progress. Encouraging diversity can create a productive and innovative work environment; since a diverse workforce brings to the organisation new ideas and different perspectives.

- **Mismatch between applicants' skills and jobs** – This often happens in organisations, when there is a difficulty in filling vacant positions and the services of a consultant are required. Another valid reason may be that the organisation's recruiting strategies are not attracting the right applicant, which leaves the organisation in a weak position. Therefore, effective recruitment, replacement and a retention-policy framework should be in place to support the forecasting of human-resource needs.

- **Environmental factors** – Due to demographic changes, the internal work climate is severely affected; since it consists of different generations, such as Baby Boomers and Generations X and Y, who bring to the organisation different preferences, motivations, interests and aspirations.

Human-resource planning in higher education institutions should cater for gender-focused policies and practices. According to Ali (2014:3), gender-focused policies and practices attract a job applicant's attention and increase his/her chances of accepting the job. Those organisations that have gender-focused policies and practices are seen as being socially responsible and appreciated.

4.3.2   RECRUITMENT, SELECTION AND PLACEMENT

Nikandrou and Panayotopoulo (2012) explain that the process of recruitment and selection is a crucial one, as ensuring the right people who join the workforce helps the organisation meet its short-term and long-term objectives. Recruitment and selection comprise a two-way decision-making process. The organisation seeks, assesses and decides to make an offer of employment to the candidate; while at the same time, the candidate decides whether to apply and enter into an employment relationship with the organisation. Van Dijk (2014:315) explains that recruitment is the process of attracting the most suitable applicant for a job, in a timely manner, and within budget constraints;

while selection is the process of interviewing and assessing applicants for a particular position, within the standards. She further explains that placement is the process in which recruits are matched and placed, according to the job requirements within specific job tasks and developmental needs.

Currently, there are new practices related to recruitment, such as head-hunting, screening, selection/assessment/competency tests used by various employers, including universities. The 21st century brought with it many developments; and due to the advancement of technology, recruitment methods have become extremely modernised; and recruiting by using the social media has become a norm, in order to reach applicants all over the globe. Mitchell and Gamlem (2012: 61) have explained the various social media options, like Twitter, Facebook and LinkedIn to recruit applicants. This has resulted in cost savings for employers in finding candidates. According to Mitchell and Gamlem (2012: 61), the key to using the social media to recruit is not to limit employers to one network; but for employers to provide various ways for applicants across communities and platforms to find employers, and for employers to find them.

Shammot (2014: 24) explains that good practice in recruitment requires the knowledge of how technology can simplify a task, and reduce the cost thereof. According to Shammot (2014:24), organisations are publishing their names, their philosophies and their attributes, in order to attract applicants through a technique called "Employer Branding".

Berthon et al. (2005) identified the following five employer attraction factors in the study conducted at a large Australian university:

1. Interest Value	Exciting work environment; Advanced work practices Innovative products and services.
2 Social Value	Fun working environment Good relationships with peers in the workplace Working as a team.
3. Economic Value	Assess the extent to which an individual is attracted to an employer that pays a good salary.
4. Development Value	Recognition, Self-worth, Confidence and Career development programmes.
5. Application Value	Impact of providing an opportunity to employees to apply what they have learned in the workplace.

Table 8 - FIVE EMPLOYER ATTRACTION FACTORS (ADAPTED FROM BERTHON ET AL. 2005)

4.3.3 Retention

Schuler and Jackson (2006:216) define staff retention as occurring when an employer goes all out to nurture qualified and productive employees to continue working for the organisation. The endeavour made by a company to preserve a working environment that would ensure that the staff working there that would remain within the company for a long time (Van Dijk, 2014:315). According to Masango and Mpofu (2013), the retention of employees is a crucial element of human-resource management, which the management of the organisation needs to sustain. According to Masango and Mpofu (2013:883), retention is described as the systematic effort by employers to establish an environment that inspires the current workforce to remain in the organisation by developing policies and procedures that cater for the needs of a diverse workforce.

According to Munsamy and Venter (2009:2), compensation plays a key role in the attraction, retention and motivation of employees. However, more than a decade ago flexible work arrangements had already been used as a way of retaining valued

employees. Munsamy and Venter (2009:3) have designed a retention framework in their study, which identifies the factors that were integrated by the previous literature.
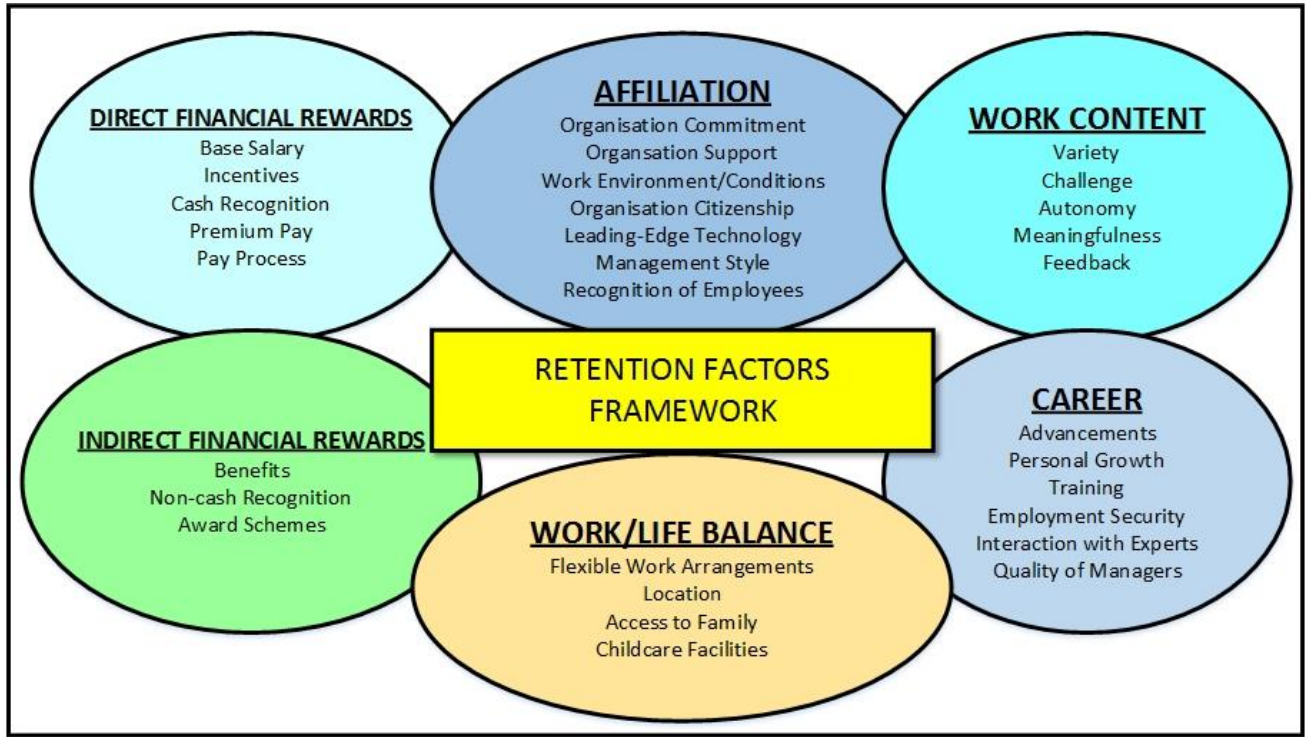
4.3.4   HUMAN-RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

According to the *Human-Resource Development Strategy 2010-2030,* human-resource development refers to formal and precise activities that would develop individuals to reach their full potential; and in the process, develop individuals' skills at the workplace. Harrison (1993:300) defines human-resource development as the co-ordinated learning and development of employees that would add value to the organisation: either in a group, or as individuals. Human-resource development is considered as a part of human-resource management; and it is necessary to equip the candidate with the necessary skills and knowledge to perform his or her job effectively and efficiently.

Human-resource development can be conducted in the form of formal training in a classroom, or informally as employee coaching and mentoring. Gonda (2014:156) states that human-resource development has become a crucial task for not only industrial organisations, but also government departments, as well as higher education institutions. Hiltrop (1999:423) clarifies that recent surveys propose that demographic changes are

generating extremely educated specialists who crave opportunities for development. Human-resource development plays a crucial part in an employee's work life; since it enables one to be successful as an individual; and, in turn, it adds to the success of the organisation. Formal education, career training and growth opportunities all form part of organisational development for employees. It is imperative that all organisations equip themselves with resources to develop their employees.

4.3.5 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Boselie et al. (2012:370) define performance management as the task given to organisations in defining, measuring and motivating employee performance with the intention of improving organisational performance in the process. Boselie et al. (2012:370) further posit that performance management deals with advancing and developing employees – either in groups, or individually – which would increase the success of the organisation. According to O'Callaghan (2005:3), performance management includes the following processes:

- **Planning performance** – setting Key Performance Areas (KPAs) and objectives that are linked to the organisation's strategic and development plans.
- **Maintaining performance** – performance should be monitored, feedback given, and coaching and mentoring should be carried out, where necessary, so that the organisation's goal can be achieved.
- **Reviewing performance** – formal discussion is carried out, where the employee is rated and evaluated on his/her performance.
- **Rewarding of performance** – performance is rewarded in the form of increases, bonuses or incentives.

Performance management is crucial in ensuring that human resources are used efficiently; and a high level of service delivery is maintained in an organisation. Organisations are required to set up mechanisms in place, when employees under-perform; so that they can be identified – to create a transparent work environment.

4.3.6 TALENT MANAGEMENT

Van Dijk (2014:315) defines talent management as the process through which a company's projected talent needs are planned via employment and development

strategies. Nel et al. (2011), on the other hand, define talent management as the strategic management of the flow of talent within the organisation, to ensure that the right people are aligned with the right skills, knowledge and experience, for the right job. The changing demographics of the workplace, the persistent skills shortages and workers' demands for work-life balance have created a battle for talent. And during this battle, thriving companies seek to improve their strategies, policies and practices for the attraction and retention of talent (Samuel and Chipunza, 2013:98). Kahn and Louw (2010: 178) state that acquiring talent rather than nurturing talent can be seen as a remedy for competence challenges; but they may not benefit an organisation in the long term.

According to Samuel and Chipunza (2013:98), because of the competition in the labour market, talented employees are being attracted by more than one company, with attractive incentives. This pattern is becoming evident in South African universities that are competing for the recruitment of top academics and researchers. Hiltrop (1999: 423), on the other hand, stated that the attraction and retention of talent is becoming more challenging, due to the fact that job mobility is increasing. According to Hiltrop (1999:423), switching jobs is no longer considered to be reckless behaviour. Dorasamy (2014:180) explains the following perspectives from which talent management can be viewed:

- The cultural perspective, which sights talent management as a mindset and a belief system to gain organisational success.
- The developmental perspective, which suggests fast-tracked development paths for the highest potential employees.
- The process perspective, which emphasises the processes required to increase the potential of people within the organisation.
- The human-capital planning perspective, which believes that talent management is where the right people are matched to the right job at the right time, doing the appropriate job.
- The competitive perspective, which denotes that talent management is about identifying talented people and fulfilling those needs to prevent competitors from succeeding in doing so.

4.3.7 COMPENSATION MANAGEMENT

Compensations are the benefits a company provides for to the employee in the form of financial and non-financial incentives, in order to attract or retain the employee. Van der Westhuizen et al. (2011:348) define compensation as the financial and non-financial rewards provided by the employer for the time, skills and effort contributed by the employee in fulfilling his or her job requirements in addressing the objectives of the organisation. Compensation is of the utmost importance for both employers and employees in organisations (Festing et al. 2012:139); since it is an important tool for motivation and a vital mechanism for attracting and retaining staff.

Financial incentives can consist of salaries, bonuses, medical aid, retirement benefits etc. Non-financial rewards consist of challenging work, personal development, improved autonomy and a wholesome work environment.

4.4 HUMAN-RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

According to Brunyee (2001:1), higher education is known to be quickly changing all over the world; and the environment in which it operates has become more and more complicated, unsure and unstable – due to the rapid change rate (Frone, 2003: 39). This author states that the reason for these environmental changes is the rising global competition, fluctuating stakeholder expectations, technological advancement, economic reform, work and management practices and social reconstruction. Gordon and Whitchurch (2007) affirm that regulatory and policy conditions for higher education systems have become more complex in respect of employee and employer rights and equity issues.

According to the National Commission on Higher Education 1995, the restructuring of South African higher education needs to address the inequalities and inefficiencies inherited from the apartheid era, and to respond to the new social, cultural and economic demands. Most importantly, Frone (2003: 40) states that importance should be given to the demographic and socio-political demands for Higher Education, varied skill and knowledge requirements for enhanced output. Gordon and Whitchurch (2007) explain that the role of Human Resources has become a serious issue for present-day universities, as a result of the increased pressures from governments and global markets.

The progress of human resources in higher education has been relatively new, considering how long universities have been in existence (Hasan et al., 2003).

4.5   AFFIRMATIVE ACTION, EMPLOYMENT EQUITY AND DIVERSITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

For the purpose of this study, affirmative action, employment equity and diversity will be discussed, in order to give a better understanding of the study in terms of attracting and retaining women in higher education institutions. Although the three subjects overlap in nature and content, it is necessary to explain their interplay in the study.

4.5.1   AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Tladi (2001:1) explains that the term 'affirmative action' originated in the USA in 1935; and it denotes an employer's responsibility in taking progressive measures 'to undo the effects of past unfair labour practices against unions, and to prevent them from recurring in the future'. According to De Beer (2011:12), affirmative action in the U.S.A resulted from deeply entrenched patterns of racial discrimination; and it aimed to improve the representation of disadvantaged groups, which were under-represented. Affirmative action in South Africa has been seen as a way to amend past imbalances and to inhibit future discrimination (De Beer 2011:12). After 1994, the new government brought about numerous transformation-oriented initiatives, to restructure and reconfigure the higher education institutional landscape (Development Bank South Africa: 2010).

According to Kola (2012:6), all higher education institutions were compelled to revise their current policies and to draw up and employment-equity plan. Aguirre (2000) explains that the reason for the increase in the number of women and disadvantaged groups in higher education is due to the affirmative-action initiatives that have been implemented in higher education, which have served as a driving force to increase representation. Taylor (2012:6) explains that affirmative action and equal opportunity programmes continue to be challenged in courts and ballots in increasing the access for under-represented groups to enter higher education.

Affirmative action, in terms of employment, focuses on increasing the representation of the designated groups through hiring, and a somewhat reduced effort through training, development or promotion (De Beer, 2011: 12). He further explains that a large number

of employers believe they have reached their targets in applying affirmative action measures, and in ensuring employment equity at their workplace.

4.5.2 EMPLOYMENT EQUITY (EE)

De Beer (2011:13) describes employment equity as the attempts by the government and organisations to increase equity in the workplace. They have established measures to remove discriminatory barriers in employment and promotion policies, and to practise to accommodate diversity amongst the workforce. In South Africa, the social inequalities were reflected in all spheres of social life, as the outcome of the complete rejection of blacks and women under the apartheid government. The higher education system was no exception; since discrimination and inequalities continue to influence South African higher education (DBSA, 2010: 4).

Booysen (2007: 48) states that transformation in the organisation must be all-inclusive and comply with legislation. He further states that Employment Equity implementation should be supported by well-defined employment-practice strategies, focusing on human-resource development.

The National Plan for Higher Education drawn up by the Department of Education explicitly states: "*The staff composition of higher education has not changed in line with the changes in the student composition. Blacks and women remain under-represented in academic and professional positions, especially at senior levels. Institutions will, therefore, be expected to develop employment equity plans with clear targets for rectifying race and gender inequities*" (National Plan for Higher Education, 2001:47). Articles by Shackleton et al. (2006) on 'Gender and the transformation agenda in South African higher education'; Morley (2005) on 'Gender equity in commonwealth higher education' and the dissertation by Padayachee (2003) all explore gender equity in higher education institutions. Despite these efforts by government and researchers to improve the situation of employment equity, there is still a crucial need to redress the gender-equity imbalance in higher education institutions.

4.5.3 DIVERSITY

De Beer (2011: 8) defines diversity as the many similarities and differences in individuals working together to reach a common goal. Ferdman (2014:3) explains that diversity is the representation of many identity groups and their cultures working in an organisation; and they would not necessarily produce positive results. According to (Klarsfeld et al., 2012:396), usually, diversity included people who fall in the category of race, colour, religion, sex or national origin; it has now expanded to include people of varied age groups and abilities as well (Lieber 2012:85). Klarsfeld et al. (2012:396) explain that while gender inequality is the oldest and most widespread diversity issue worldwide, in spite of the fact that religion and ethnicity separate people in India and the Middle East. It is noted that different countries experience different diversity issues.

Taylor (2012:1) explains that the promotion of diversity in higher education has become a focal point in its transformation and policies for eradicating unfair practices and legislation promoting equity. These policies are contributors to the racial composition of higher education institutions. De Beer (2011:7) contends that diversity management has a great responsibility to not only address inequality in the workplace, but also for the transformation of the nation's thinking. According to Lieber (2012: 86), a workplace that shows respect for all its employees not only creates a positive work environment, but also builds positive community relations. De Beer (2011:7) affirms that South Africa, by adopting a democratic political system, it is evident that leaders have their work cut out to take positive and lasting action in transforming the vast differences of individuals into a strategic advantage.

4.5.4 EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA AND THE UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

For the purpose of the study, employment equity plans have been identified and analysed at both the universities under study. The University of Pretoria reports annually on its employment equity status to the Department of Labour; and it prepares employment-equity plans on a 3-year cycle. The University of KwaZulu-Natal has an impressive employment equity policy in place, which endorses the principle of equal opportunity. According to the policy, the "*University of UKZN recognizes that certain actions are required, in order to create a platform, from which equal opportunities can be legitimately*

and effectively practised, and from which the race and gender imbalances in our staffing structures can be addressed. The University accepts that a policy, based exclusively on equal opportunities would simply perpetuate these disadvantages. The University, therefore, acknowledges affirmative action as a means of overcoming barriers to equal opportunity, and of redressing the disadvantages, inequities and imbalances of the past" (UKZN EE policy: 2010).

4.6   THE LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK SUPPORTING HUMAN-RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Institutions do not operate in a vacuum. There are legal and regulatory facets that influence the way institutions are managed; and legal frameworks are frequently important to retain the minimum standards throughout the institutions, to ensure employee protection, and that public funds are used resourcefully (Dubosc and Kelo, 2012). Human-resource policies and procedures are required in every organisation, in order to ensure that human-resource management concerns are appropriately dealt with in line with the organisation's standards and norms. Armstrong (2010:57) points out the distinction between policy and procedure: a policy provides continuous guidelines and regulations on how human-resource problems should be handled, ensuring that a suitable approach is implemented throughout the organisation; whereas a procedure is what steps should be taken to deal with issues, such as complaints, discipline, competence and dismissals.

The *Public Service Commission*, 2010, explains that Human-Resource Management in South Africa takes place within a specific legislative and policy framework. According to Van Dijk (2014: 319), the attraction, development and retaining of talent can only be made possible if the necessary legislative and other policy measures are in place to support these human-resource functions. The field of human-resource management is growing at a fast pace; and it is dynamic in nature; therefore, policy makers need to keep abreast of these developments.

The legislation vital to human-resource management in South Africa, as mentioned by the *Public Service Commission*, 2010, includes:

Act	Purpose
Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 and Section 195 (1) (i)	The Constitution makes provision that public administration should be governed by the democratic values and principles preserved in the Constitution, particularly human-resource management; Section 23 (1) (h) of the Constitution, which caters for fair labour practices. Section 195 of the Constitution states that good human-resource management and career-development practices to maximise human potential must be cultivated.
Labour Relations Act, 1995 66 of 1995, as amended	The Act makes provision for the protection of employees in the form of promoting sound and unbiased labour practices within organisations. The proclamation of the Labour Relations Act safeguards employees within the workplace, where they have an opportunity to voice their opinion with the protection of organised labour organisations. The Act aims to stimulate economic development, to uphold social justice, to enforce labour, peace and to support democracy in the workplace.
Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997, as amended	The purpose of this Act is to enhance economic development and social fairness in South Africa; and it applies to all employees and employers in an organisation, except for members of the National state security. The Act makes provision for the promotion and regulation of fair labour practices within the work environment in terms of working hours, leave administration, employment and remuneration and the termination of services.
The Public Service Act, 103 of 1994, as amended	The Act makes provision for the organisation and administration of the public service in South Africa; the guideline of the conditions of employment; regulation of

	the term of office for public servants, and managing members of the public service in terms of employee relations, employee well-being and employee retention.
The White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service, 1997	The policy makes provision for the establishment of a policy outline that would expedite the development of human-resource management systems in the public service. The vision of the White Paper on Human-Resource Management in the Public Service, 1997, is: 'Human resource management in the Public Service will result in a diverse competent and well-managed workforce; capable of and committed to delivering high quality services to the people of South Africa'. The mission of the White Paper on Human-Resource Management in the Public Service, 1997, is that Human-Resource Management should become a model of excellence; and the management of individuals should be carried out expertly and be given a high priority status.
The Employment Equity Act (EEA), 55 of 1998, as amended	The Act makes provision for the achievement of fairness in the workplace in terms of promoting equal opportunities for employees and the non-discriminatory treatment thereof. The EEA gave rise to the policy on Affirmative Action to address the inequities in employment methods, and to ensure equitable representation of the designated groups in the workplace. The Act defines designated groups as black people, women and people with disabilities, who are South African citizens by birth and descent.
The Skills Development Act, 97 of 1998, as amended	The Act makes provision for an institutional framework to formulate and apply nationwide, sector-based and workplace strategies to enhance the skills of the South African workforce. The aim of the Act is to integrate strategies within the National Qualifications Framework envisaged in the South African Qualifications Authority

	Act; and to make available learnership programmes that deliver professional attributes to unemployed youth.
The Public Service Regulations (PSR), 2001, as amended	The PSR makes provision for human-resource management, human-resource planning and human-resource practices in the public service. With the assistance and direction from the Executive Authority, the PSR aims to encourage managers to run their departments effectively and efficiently.

TABLE 9 – SOUTH AFRICAN LEGISLATIVE ACTS

All the above policies and Acts make provision to correct the mistakes of the past, where race, gender, attitudes and orientations were defined. Although the South African Constitution makes provision for gender equality and development through all its policies and Acts, inequalities still exist in higher education institutions. Institutions need to take these legislative undertakings seriously, in order to meet the transformation and imbalance requirements. Human-resource management practices need to adhere to the legislative frameworks and to ensure that this is taken into consideration when recruiting and developing a workforce.

4.7   ADVANCEMENT ON WOMEN

The *National Gender Policy,* 2000, outlines South Africa's vision for gender equality, human rights and equal opportunities for both women and men. The Gender Policy Framework further establishes guidelines for the South African nation, to remedy the past discrepancies by enabling equal access to products and services for both women and men. Whilst policies, like the National Gender Policy and Employment Equity legislation provide a good framework to eradicate sexism and racism, there is frequently a slight hint of discrimination, which exists in society and organisations. Ramphele (2008) states that South African higher education institutions are striving to be non-sexist and non-racist; yet universities are drenched with gender-based power constructs that keep women out of leadership positions in Higher Education.

Women today are beating social and cultural barriers and making enormous contributions to the advancement of the education and business environment, not to mention the

community as well. Although many women are shining and growing steadfastly in a dynamic Higher Education Sector, there still remains a huge challenge in a male-dominated environment. According to Aguirre (2000), the academic workplace displays a chilly environment, alienating women and expecting them to perform roles that are in conflict with their expectations. Aguirre (2000:7) further denotes that women face challenges, such as salary inequities, biased reward systems, seen as being less competent than their male counterparts; and they are questioned as regards their legitimacy as academics.

Ogbogu and Bisiriyu (2012:4754) state that the culture of universities can sometimes be indifferent to the needs of women; and this reduces the ability of women to flourish as full and equal members of the academic community. In order for universities to successfully attract and retain women, they are expected to be sensitive and to respond to gender issues.

4.8 GENDER MAINSTREAMING

According to Page (2011:318), gender mainstreaming is a process that seeks to develop gender equality, by placing gender in the forefront of mainstream political areas. Unterhalter and North (2010:389) posit that gender mainstreaming surfaced in the 1980s due to women's needs and interests being overlooked; and the development of economic and social policy was marginalised. Therefore, organisational strategies were needed to bring gender equality into the mainstream of social development, decision-making and grassroots work. Gender mainstreaming focused on the need to increase female participation and to reduce any gender gaps in employment, unemployment and salary inefficiencies.

According to the European Union (2008), gender mainstreaming involves not only restricting efforts to promote equality in the implementation of specific measures to help women; but also of mobilising all general policies and measures specifically for the purpose of achieving equality – by actively and openly taking into account at the planning stage, their possible effects on the respective situations of men and women. Organisations need to take into consideration gender mainstreaming, when implementing and defining policies and measures and the effects thereof.

Creating knowledge and awareness of gender issues should be the core responsibility of these organisations. The promotion of gender equality should be at the heart of higher education institutions; and gender-mainstreaming efforts should be promoted by examining measures and policies for the purpose of achieving equality.

4.9   BEST PRACTICES IN HUMAN-RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

The employment arena has changed dramatically during the last two decades, due to globalization, technological advancements, innovative ways of performing business and fluctuating market demands to keep ahead of competitors (Masibigiri and Nienaber, 2011). The elements of best practice in human-resource management rely on employers adopting high-cost, high-skill employment policies and practices (Marchington and Grugulis, 2011).   According to Macduffie (1995:199), innovative human-resource practices are liable to contribute to value-added economic performance – but only when three conditions are met, namely: when the labour force possesses the knowledge and skills that managers lack; when the labour force is motivated to apply their skill and knowledge through flexibly, and the organisations business or production strategy can only be achieved through the labour forces flexible approach.

Human-resource practitioners need to equip themselves with human-resource best practices to ensure they are in line with international standards. Human-resource practitioners cannot achieve success if they are unaware of the changes and trends in human-resource best practices. It is important for human-resource managers to play an active role in knowing the organisation's strategic plan; so that it is aligned with human-resource management's best practices. Implementing and adopting human-resource management best practices ensures the success of the human-resource department and prepares the organisation to face the challenges that may lie ahead.

4.10 CONCLUSION

Chapter 4 has elaborated on the literature of human-resource management, where the domain of human-resource management is explained. For the purpose of this study, the operational functions of human-resource management are identified and discussed. Chapter 4 further defines and explains in detail the concepts of affirmative action, employment equity and diversity in higher education. The various legislative frameworks in South Africa supporting human resource management are stipulated and briefly discussed. The chapter further discusses international experiences, benchmarks applicable to human-resource management and the best practices applicable to human-resource management. The advancement of women and gender mainstreaming conclude Chapter 4 of the study.

In every organisation across the globe, the acquisition of qualified and skilled human capital is a huge challenge – because of the changes in human-resource strategies. Organisations are competing with each other to acquire talented and competent employees, in order to achieve their organisation goals and plans. Organisation's recruitment strategies should meet with international standards, in order to achieve the desired result. Human-resource management and human-resource administration have taken on a paradigm shift in regard to human-capital management. The reason for the change in human-capital management is the investing in human beings for the benefit of the organisation.

Legislative frameworks should be seen as concepts and practices that guide organisations in aligning themselves with constitutional requirements. The implementation of legislative frameworks in human-resource management are aimed at appointing and promoting previously disadvantaged groups, whether in race, gender or disability because of the past unfair laws. Higher education institutions should recognize and implement these legislative frameworks, when it comes to human-resource planning in terms of appointments and the promotion of a talented workforce.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, ANALYSIS OF CASE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study has been to investigate and identify, if any, the human-resource strategies in attracting and retaining women in senior positions in higher education institutions, particularly those of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The results obtained in the study are discussed and visually presented, according to the main data analysis. The outcome of the study should provide an insight into the provisions made to mainstream women into leadership and management positions in higher education institutions. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the results, an analysis of the case study, and some recommendations for human-resource management practitioners.

South Africa has experienced a major transition from apartheid to democracy – now more than two decades ago; and this has shaped society and all the institutions to conform to the new legislation. The democratic South African government embarked on an Employment-Equity Legislation, as one of its strategies to promote equity, to prohibit unfair discrimination and to embrace diversity in the workplace. In view of this significant legislation and the unbalanced representation of women in senior management positions in the institutions under study, the study has sought to unravel the challenges facing women in higher education institutions and to investigate the underlying factors hindering their advancement.

5.2 CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

The University of Pretoria is a multi-campus research-intensive university located in the suburb of Hatfield in Pretoria – with nine faculties on the main campus (Hatfield Campus), as well as various other disciplines that are offered across the other five campuses: The L.C. de Villiers Sports Campus, Groenkloof, Prinshof, Onderstepoort and the Mamelodi Campus. The University of Pretoria is situated close to government departments and core research entities, such as the National Research Foundation (NRF) and the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR); and the university's core business is teaching

and research. This university is also situated in the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality; and it serves as one of the leading research-intensive universities in the Gauteng province. The other universities located in this province are, the University of South Africa, Witwatersrand University, the University of Johannesburg, the Tshwane University of Technology and the Vaal University of Technology. The University of Pretoria is commonly referred to by students, staff and the public as UP, Tuks or Tukkies.

The University of Pretoria's transformations years were during the period of 1982 and 2008, when it was transformed into a bilingual and multiracial institution. The rapid increase of Afrikaans-speaking students brought about an imbalance between the demographics of students and the language of instruction. The University of Pretoria was once an institution that only welcomed Afrikaans-speaking students; and in 1989 it opened its doors to all races. Since the advent of democracy in 1994, the demographics of the staff have changed considerably, in order to meet the legislative requirements. The student and staff body comprise both international and local individuals – with the demographics being of diverse origins, cultures, languages and religious backgrounds – consisting of Whites, Africans, Coloureds and Indians.

The recent student protests have brought about huge debates on the language of instruction and the assessment at the University of Pretoria, where Afrikaans was predominantly used in the past as the language of instruction. One of the key issues identified during the negotiations was the declining proportion of students choosing Afrikaans as a medium of instruction. This has decreased significantly from around 88% in 1990 to less than 18% in 2016. The outcome of the new language policy should enable the university to respond to the changing student demographics, as well as to promote social cohesion.

The vision of the University of Pretoria is to be a leading research-intensive university in Africa, and to make a difference locally and internationally.

5.2.1   CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

The University of KwaZulu-Natal is situated in the eThekwini Metropolitan Municipality in the province of KwaZulu-Natal; and the university's core business is teaching and

research driven by a proud and rich heritage of academic excellence. The university is geographically divided into five distinct campuses: Howard College; Westville; Edgewood Medical School; and Pietermaritzburg. The University of KwaZulu-Natal was formed as a result of the amalgamation of the merged universities, comprising the University of Durban-Westville and the University of Natal. Consequently, it brings together the rich histories of both the former Universities.

The University of Durban-Westville was founded in the 1960s, as a college for Indians on Salisbury Island in Durban Bay; and it was granted university status in 1971. The other universities located in the province of KwaZulu-Natal are: the University of Zululand, the Durban University of Technology and the Mangosuthu University of Technology.

The University became an independent institution in 1984; and it opened its doors for students of all racial groups. The Howard College was founded in 1931; and the Pietermaritizburg College was founded in 1910; and it became autonomous in 1949, due to the student numbers growing. The Medical School in Durban was approved by government in 1947 for African, Indian and Coloured students. Adhering to the government's higher education restructuring plan, the KwaZulu-Natal universities were among the first lot of South African institutions to merge in 2004.

The University of KwaZulu-Natal encourages and embraces diversity in all facets of student and staff affiliated with the university; and it promotes educational and employment opportunities for the disadvantaged.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

Each year, every university is required to submit an Employment Equity Plan and to report to the Department of Labour on the progress made in terms of its Employment Equity Plan. The following information draws a comparison between the University of KwaZulu-Natal and University of Pretoria, in terms of workforce profile, recruitment, promotion, termination and development of both men and women in senior management positions of all race groups, according to the Employment Equity reports of both universities under study. To get a better understanding of the analysis of the data, the following terms are defined:

- **Workforce profile** – This represents the number of employees or personnel employed in an organisation, according to the designated group (Africans, Coloureds, Indians and Whites) and gender (male and female).

- **Recruitment** – This indicates the employment or hiring of employees or workforce with pay, engaged at an organisation.

- **Promotion** – This indicates an advancement opportunity in status and pay given to an employee in an organisation.

- **Termination** – This indicates when an employee ends his or her term of employment in an organisation – due to better opportunities elsewhere – or it could also be due to retirement or dismissal.

- **Development** – This indicates when an employee is trained, developed and educated to work towards growth and promotion. Development increases the ability of an employee to work towards a higher position and to earn an increase in pay.

The workplace profile includes both male and female employees, including also foreign nationals, as well as employees with disabilities. The following themes were identified:

Year	University of KwaZulu-Natal		University of Pretoria	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
2012	8	5	23	4
2015	29	16	19	10

TABLE 10 – FINDING 1 – WORKFORCE PROFILE

According to the employment equity reports of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal, a review of the literature confirms that the following table represents the number of males and females that occupy the senior management positions at both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Pretoria for the years 2012 and 2015. The data further show that there has been an increase in the number of females in senior management positions from 2012 to 2015, in both the institutions. However, the representation of males is much higher than females for both these years.

Year	University of KwaZulu-Natal		University of Pretoria	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
2012	3	0	1	0
2015	1	0	1	3

TABLE 11 – FINDING 2 – RECRUITMENT

According to the employment equity reports of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal, a review of the literature confirms that the following table represents the number of males and females who were recruited in senior management positions at both the institutions under study for the years 2012 and 2015. The data reflect that at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, there has been no effort at all in recruiting women in senior management positions for both the years; however, the University of Pretoria has made significant progress in recruiting women in 2015.

Year	University of KwaZulu-Natal		University of Pretoria	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
2012	0	0	1	0
2015	4	3	3	3

TABLE 12 – FINDING 3 – PROMOTION

According to the employment equity reports of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal, a review of the literature confirms that the following table represents the number of males and females who were promoted to senior management positions at both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Pretoria for the years 2012 and 2015. The data further reveal that for the year 2012 at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, there were no promotions for either men or women. However, for the year 2015, more males were promoted than females. At the University of Pretoria in 2012, there were no promotions for females; however in 2015, there were an equal number of promotions for both males and females.

Year	University of KwaZulu-Natal		University of Pretoria	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
2012	2	0	2	2
2015	11	4	3	0

TABLE 13 – FINDING 4 – TERMINATION

According to the employment equity reports of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal, a review of the literature confirms that the following data represent the number of males and females in senior management positions who terminated their services at both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Pretoria in the years 2012 and 2015.

Year	University of KwaZulu-Natal		University of Pretoria	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
2012	0	0	15	25
2015	5	4	38	16

TABLE 14 – FINDING 5 – DEVELOPMENT

According to the employment equity reports of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal, a review of the literature confirms that the following data represent the number of males and females, who were promoted to senior management positions at both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Pretoria in the years 2012 and 2015.

5.4   DATA ANALYSIS

The following graphs have been created to establish a pattern in the workforce profile against the recruitment, promotion, termination and development of employees at the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal. A bar graph was used to

compare the results between both the institutions over a period of time. The bar graph depicts the findings accurately, as a way of measuring the data.
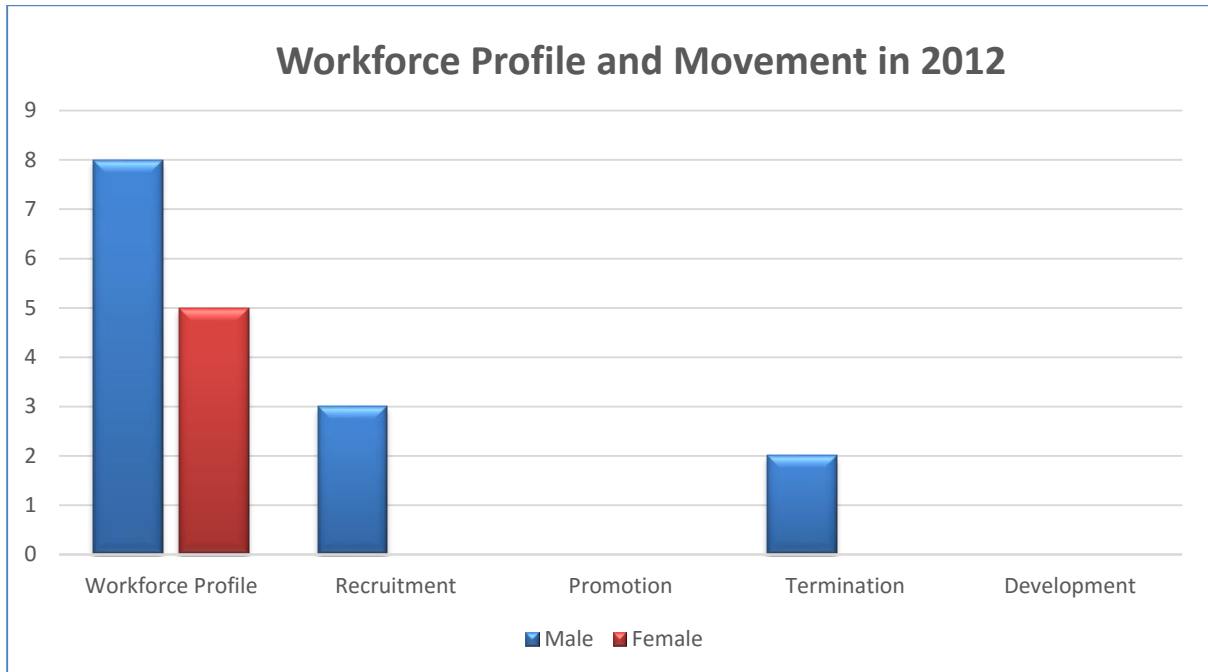
Workforce Profile and Movement in 2012

FIGURE 4 – UKZN GENDER REPRESENTATION OF EMPLOYEES IN SENIOR POSITIONS IN 2012

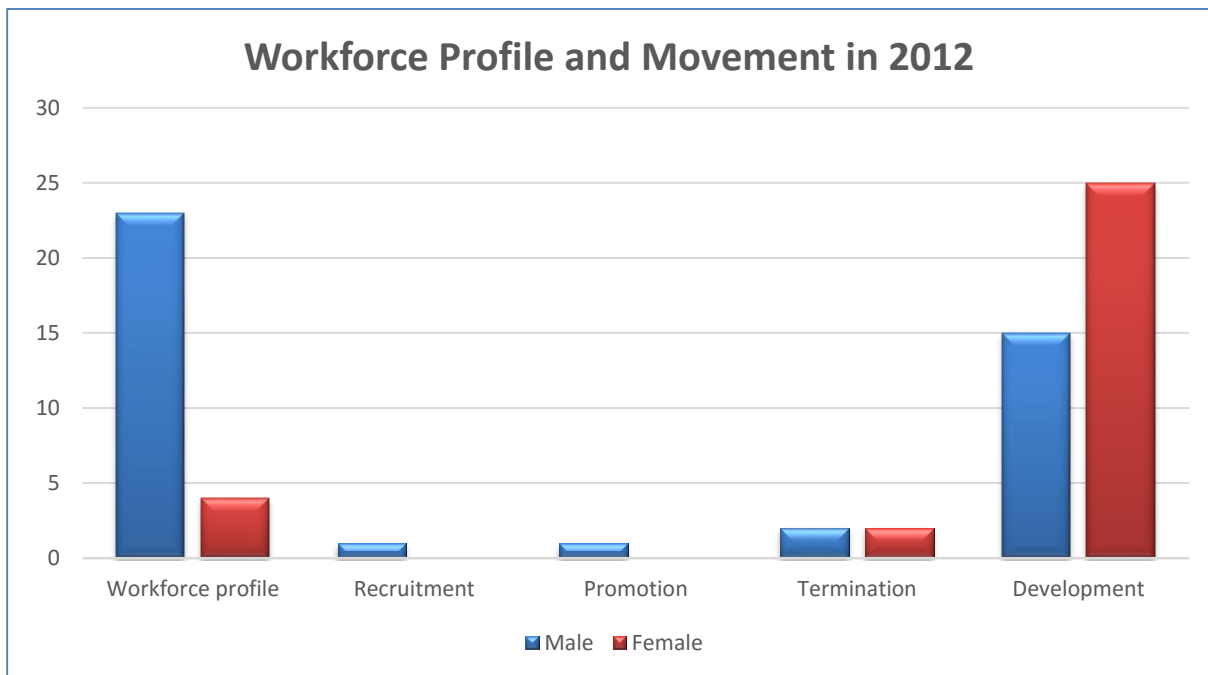**Workforce Profile and Movement in 2012**

FIGURE 5 – UP GENDER REPRESENTATION OF EMPLOYEES IN SENIOR POSITIONS IN 2012

The graphs above (Figures 5.1 and 5.2) reveal that, in the employment equity plan of 2012, both the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal had a wide representation of men in senior management positions compared to women. However, it is interesting to note that the University of Pretoria shows a huge effort in the

development of women in senior management positions, in contrast to the University of KwaZulu-Natal in 2012. From the graphs above, it is evident that no effort has been made for the recruitment and promotion of women in senior management positions at both the universities in 2012.

From the above results, it may be seen that the University of Pretoria has made significant progress in the appointment of women in senior management positions, in spite of the representation of women, according to the workforce profile, this being lower than for men. According to the Commission for Employment Equity Annual Report for 2014-2015, the overall representation of men and women at educational institutions in South Africa reflects that men dominated the senior management levels in comparison with females.
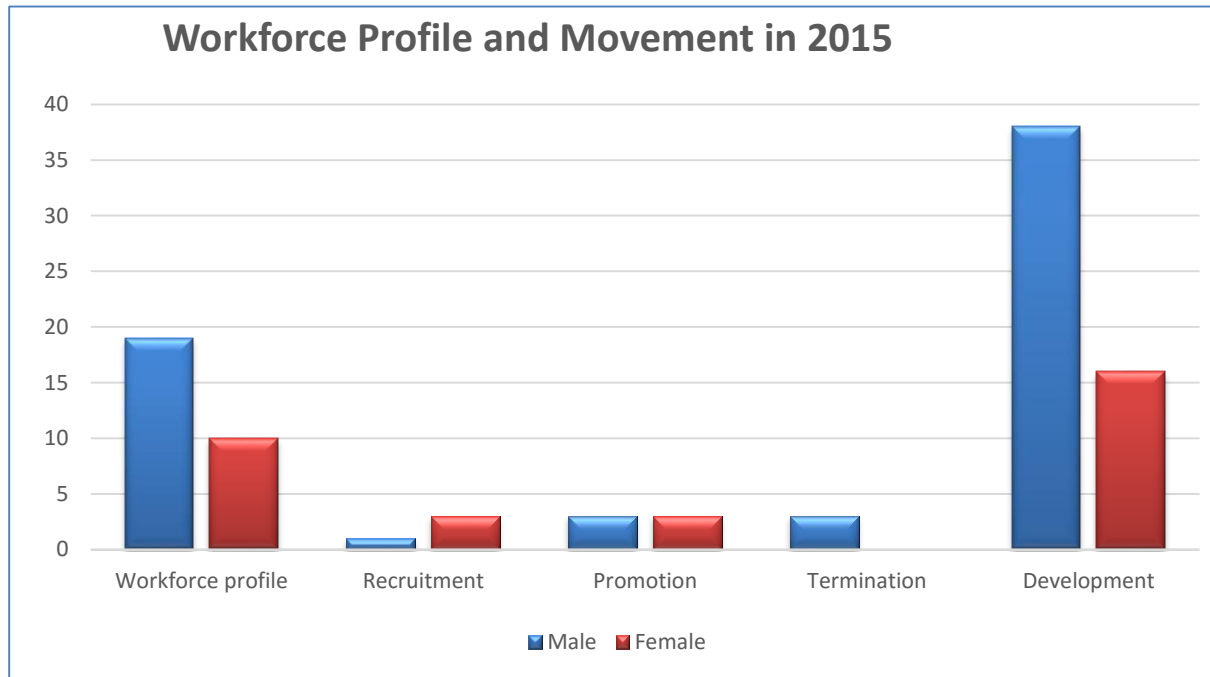

FIGURE 6 – UP GENDER REPRESENTATION OF EMPLOYEES IN SENIOR POSITIONS IN 2015
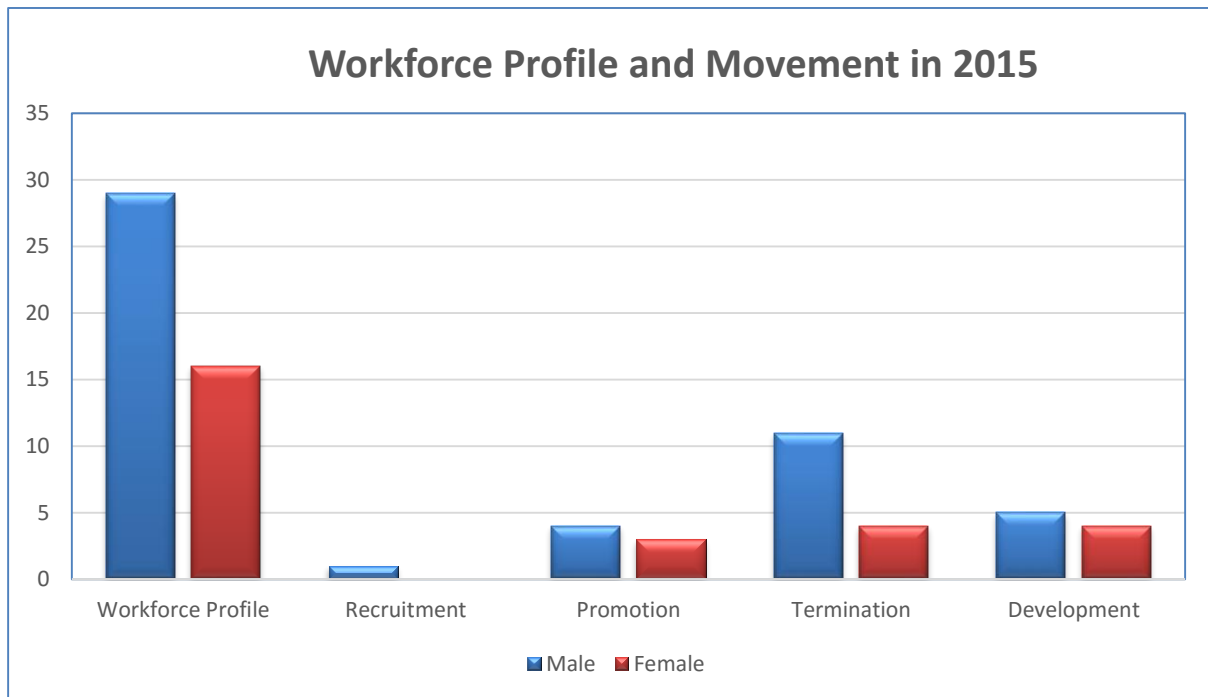
FIGURE 7 – UKZN GENDER REPRESENTATION OF EMPLOYEES IN SENIOR POSITIONS IN 2015

It is evident from the findings of Figure 5 and Figure 6 that the employment-equity plan of 2015 reflects that both the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal had a wide representation of men in senior positions compared with women. The University of Pretoria made some effort in the recruitment of women in 2015; and there is a fair balance in the ratio of the promotion of men and women into senior positions. However, in terms of development, there is a huge gap that exists; since the men appear to be exceeding the development status quo compared with women, who are lagging far behind.

According to the findings for 2015 at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, no women were recruited into senior positions; and in terms of promotion, the number of men exceeded the number of women promoted. Both these institutions maintained that men leave higher education – either because of retirement – or for better opportunities elsewhere. Development in terms of women at the University of KwaZulu-Natal in 2015 represents a lower percentage when compared with that of men.

5.5 FINDINGS FROM THE DATA ANALYSIS:

i. Males still dominate senior management positions in the selected universities (Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2);

ii. Reporting and progress, according to the employment equity plans of 2012 to 2015, these figures are not aligned to higher education transformation requirements.

iii. According to the University of KwaZulu-Natal, employment equity plans for 2012 and 2015 show that there was no effort made in recruiting women for senior management positions.

iv. The University of Pretoria has made some effort in recruiting women in senior managements positions in 2015 when compared with the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

v. According to the University of Pretoria, the employment equity plan for 2012 shows that a significant effort was made in placing women in senior management positions. However, in 2015, a significant effort was made in placing men in senior management positions as opposed to women being recruited.

vi. Males still dominate senior management positions in South African educational institutions.

It is evident from the findings that not much is being done to attract and retain women in senior management positions in either the University of Pretoria or the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Employment equity policies in higher education institutions need to be fairly implemented; so that one gender is not advantaged over another. The findings also established that neither of the institutions have succession plans in place.

In the findings pertaining to the Department of Higher Education's role in facilitating the advancement of women in Higher Education, the research has identified three initiatives so far:

i. In September 2015, the 1st International Conference of Women in Higher Education Management was held in Pretoria, where insights, strategies and skills for existing and aspiring female leaders to achieve success in higher education management were carried out. The Higher Education's policy for Women in Leadership Conference 2015 is an interactive and exciting event, bringing

together emerging and current female leaders in Higher Education to network and share inspiring leadership experiences, and to discuss key priorities and challenges confronting female leaders.

ii. The Department of Higher Education has developed a training manual on the 'Women in and into Management and Leadership Positions' in its aim to invest in women managers. The desired aim of the training manual is to contribute to women managers' pursuit for personal development in the hope of being more assertive; while still being sensitive to the rights of others.

iii. HERS-SA is a self-sustaining non-profit organisation (NPO); and it is dedicated to the advancement and leadership development of women in the Higher Education sector. The work of HERS-SA in partnership with Higher Education Institutions is to support the gender-equity agenda through their nomination of women to attend HERS-SA programmes. One of the activities of HERS-SA is to host the annual HERS-SA Academy, which is a professional development opportunity for women employed in higher education. It is aimed at those women that are aspiring to acquire senior leadership positions.

Various gender-advancement initiatives are being carried out in Higher Education; but universities fail to address these issues. This is evident in the literature that has been reviewed and discussed thusfar.

5.6   RECOMMENDATIONS

The study draws some recommendations for human-resource practitioners, who are responsible for employment at institutions of higher education – to be able to implement policies and strategies to attract and retain women in senior management positions. These recommendations include:

i. Evidence of staff development and career advancement opportunities must be shown on websites of higher education institutions; as these are important factors for attracting and retaining women. Measures must be put in place to ensure that women are not only retained; but their skills and capabilities are constantly upgraded to meet the changing landscape of the higher education sector.

ii.   Policies for work-life balance are important, especially for women; as they play a vital role in managing their households – so that they are given the flexibility to manage their homes as well as their jobs. Work-life balance is a concept that gives precedence to either one's career or one's lifestyle, which could be your family, health, leisure and pleasure. These policies envisage that women need to balance their personal and professional life successfully, whilst ensuring their productivity and excellence.

iii.   Strategies should include identifying women of other racial groups (Blacks, Indians and Coloureds) for promotion and development. Grooming and developing women, who are under-represented in senior positions, embraces diversity and gives a good image to an institution. Women in leadership positions make an organisation more appealing to other talented women and elevates the company to be an employer of choice.

iv.   Job shadowing or work shadowing can be introduced; where an opportunity is created for leadership development, career development and on-the-job learning. Job shadowing is where an individual, walks as a shadow through the working day of a senior employee or competent worker, in order to gain work experience. This allows for knowledge to be transferred from senior managers to their women successors.

v.   Leadership support networks for women should be encouraged and introduced by higher education institutions. This entails support received from upper levels of leadership in an organisation for building contacts and gaining access to networks. It enhances the opportunities for leadership development. Institutions should create networks for prospective women leaders to interact and develop ties with women in leadership positions; so that these individuals can assist each other in establishing and achieving their goals.

vi.   Management training programmes should be introduced to train and support women with leadership potential. The aim and objective of these training programmes could be for career development, gaining new skills and boosting in confidence. These programmes can enhance women to be confident, inspired, empowered and to create enthusiasm in the workplace.

vii.   The implementation of a succession-planning policy is a valuable human-resource planning and management component. Internal female candidates with high potential could be identified and developed to fill key positions in the institution.

5.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined the employment equity plans of both the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal for the year 2012 and year 2015 separately. The key themes that were examined in this chapter were the workforce profile, recruitment, promotion, termination and development of women in senior positions at the universities under study. The employment equity plans of both the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal were analysed and explained in the form of bar graphs. Recommendations were made to human-resource practitioners to improve the appointment and retention of women in higher education institutions. The findings from this chapter have provided important insight into the applicability of measures for the effective attraction and retention of women in higher education institutions.

CHAPTER SIX

6. CONCLUSIONS AND DEDUCTIONS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

6.1 OVERALL CONCLUSIONS

This study carried out a content analysis of the 2012 and 2015 employment equity reports of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The aim of this study has been to investigate and compare the employment equity reports for the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal and to identify whether if any progress has been made in attracting and retaining women in senior management positions. The findings revealed that no significant progress has been made over the 3-year period; and women are still in the minority in senior management positions in both the universities under study. The findings further revealed that, although the output of the employment equity plans is to provide progress in addressing equity, the results are not conclusive to confirm this issue. Women in senior management positions are still under-represented at both the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

6.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS

Chapter One gave an introduction of the planned research and introduced the topic to the readers. The chapter further outlines the field of human-resource management in detail, and shows how the elements of attraction and retention fit into the field of human-resource management. The drivers of attraction and retention were identified and explained in detail in this chapter. The chapter further described the background of the two institutions under study, as well as the staff composition, based on gender and designated racial groups. In addition, the role of higher education institutions was explained and the human-resource initiatives in place for the recruitment of women. Chapter One concludes with identifying and illustrating the important concepts that are used continuously in the study.

Chapter Two outlines the domain of public administration in detail; and it introduced the nature of public administration. Chapter Two further drew attention to the history of public administration, from the time of inception to the 19th century. The researcher gave an overview of how public administration has evolved over this time period. A differentiation was made between old public management and new public management in this chapter.

The main discussion in this chapter focused on the contribution of top scholars in the field of public administration and their views and opinion on the topic. The chapter concluded with identifying and analysing the factors of the external environment that influence the field of public administration.

Chapter Three of the study explored the research methodology of the study, in which a detailed description of the research design was presented. The aims and objectives, the problem statement and the significance of the study were also outlined in this chapter. The chapter further outlined the differentiation of the research approaches of quantitative research and qualitative research – with the qualitative approach being the choice of research approach used in the study. The various data-collecting methods and techniques were also described in this chapter. The chapter concluded with an explanation of the terms 'unit of analysis' and 'data analysis'.

An analysis of the literature on human-resource management was provided in Chapter Four, with specific reference to human-capital management in higher education institutions. Furthermore, the operational functions of human-resource management were identified and analysed. The three components of affirmative action, employment equity and diversity that contribute towards equity in the workplace were explained in detail in Chapter Four. The South African legislative frameworks supporting Human-Resource Management that are compulsory in terms of the legal and regulatory facets that influence the way institutions are managed were outlined in Chapter Four. Chapter Four concluded with the advancement of women, gender mainstreaming, and 'best practices' in human-resource management.

Chapter Five presented a discussion of the results and an analysis of the study and the findings, which were derived from the documentary review. Furthermore, Chapter Five analysed the employment equity plans of both the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal over a 3-year cycle for the period of 2012 to 2015. A case study was given of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal, in order to fully understand the background of both the institutions. The discussion of the results in terms of workforce profile, recruitment, promotion, termination and the development of both males and females in the form of graphs was analysed. The chapter concluded that despite the various gender-advancement initiatives that are carried out in Higher

Education, universities still fail to attract and retain women in senior management positions. The chapter concludes with some recommendations to human-resource practitioners, who are responsible for employment at institutions of higher education.

This chapter provides a summary of the important points that were highlighted in the previous five chapters of the study. Furthermore, deductions from the previous five chapters are outlined in chapter six, concluding with the limitations of the study, as well as suggestions for further research that are herein explained.

6.3   DEDUCTION

The principal aim of this study was to investigate the factors contributing to the attraction and retention of women in higher education institutions; and to critically analyse the policy initiatives in place for the attraction and retention of women in senior management positions: both at the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The findings pertaining to the Department of Higher Education's role in facilitating the advancement of women were also identified and discussed.

It may be deduced from Chapter One literature that no provisions are made in higher education institutions for the mainstreaming of women in senior management positions. Despite the numerous efforts that South Africa has made in addressing gender inequality, the attraction and retention of women from designated groups continues to be an area of concern in higher education institutions. Human-resource strategies in recruiting talented women should be implemented and reviewed annually, in order to meet equity requirements.

Deductions from Chapter Two highlight the importance of public administration; as human-resource management is a sub-discipline of public administration. It is deduced from Chapter Two that the teachings and practice of public administration are necessary to manage human resources in the workplace. Furthermore, a deduction was made from Chapter Two that although public administration has developed over the years with new ways of acquiring human resources, organisations are still struggling with implementation.

A deduction made from Chapter Three is that the research methodology used in this particular study, was qualitative in nature – with an exploratory-research approach, which was critical in getting the desired results.

Deductions made from Chapter Four is that higher education institutions need to overcome the challenges faced in human-resource management. The final deduction is that higher education institutions should comply with human-resource legislative frameworks and align themselves accordingly, in order to meet constitutional requirements when addressing the issue of employment equity.

6.4   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are several limitations to the study. The study includes the Higher Education Institutions of the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal; and it excludes public and private sector organisations. Despite the limitations, the findings from this research can provide answers to higher education institutions, and address the gaps that exist in the attraction and retention of women. The findings of the research were applicable to the University of Pretoria and the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Consequently, the findings cannot be generalised to the entire higher education sector.

The researcher would have preferred to acquire the attitudes and perceptions of women in their impediments on achieving their goals. Perhaps this could be considered for future research.

6.5   SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The current study focused on women in higher education institutions only; therefore, the results cannot be generalised to government and private sector organisations. Future research on the challenges and obstacles experienced by women in leadership positions in achieving their goals should be explored. Human-resource practitioners could analyse these challenges and find ways to ensure that the path leading to leadership positions can be a graceful and effortless one. Study in obtaining the insights of custodians of employment equity in the respective universities could provide some answers to fair employment practices. Findings from the above research topic could address the gaps

that exist in the development of women for leadership positions, and to provide useful information for human-resource practitioners in recruiting and retaining talent.

6.6   CONCLUSION

The difficulty in attaining gender equity in the workplace is a long battle, which will carry on for many years – unless mechanisms and measures are put in place to balance the inefficiencies. Although there are numerous initiatives in place to promote gender equity for the advancement of women in both government and higher education intuitions across South Africa, there is still a huge gap that exists. Higher education equity plans should address these gaps, in order to achieve employment equity and become an example to other institutions. Higher education institutions need to re-examine their human-resource management strategies and policies, with regard to the attraction and the retention of women. Effective policies and programmes would go a long way in expediting gender equity in the attraction and retention of women. This study has aimed to explain the under-representation of women in senior management positions in higher education institutions.

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