The Glass Ceiling: Career Progression Barriers for Female Employees in the South African Hospitality Industry

Tinaye Mwashita

School of Tourism and Hospitality, College of Business and Economics, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg, South Africa, Email, tinayemwashita@gmail.com

Nanikie Zungu*

School of Tourism and Hospitality, College of Business and Economics, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg, South Africa, Email, nanikiez@uj.ac.za

Diane Abrahams

School of Tourism and Hospitality, College of Business and Economics, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg, South Africa, Email, dabrahams@uj.ac.za

*Corresponding Author

Abstract

This study examined the glass ceiling phenomenon in the South African hospitality industry, with a particular focus on four hotels in Gauteng. The primary aim was to investigate the different perspectives held on the glass ceiling by exploring the key factors inhibiting women in the hospitality industry from proceeding to the next level of the corporate hierarchy, and, ultimately, to reach senior executive positions. Data was collected through informal semi-structured interviews and an online questionnaire that was targeted at men and women in lower to top management positions within the different hotels. The key findings show that the glass ceiling indeed exists, as a fluid and dynamic phenomenon, which takes on various ever-evolving shapes within different work environments. Many women resonated with the nature of the glass ceiling. The literature depicts the glass ceiling as an overarching and all-encompassing phenomenon affecting women. The study sheds more light on the circumstantial nature of the glass ceiling and shows that certain factors exacerbate the effects of the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon. A study found that a combination of variables affected the careers of women and their work life balance. The study revealed that the circumstantial nature of the glass ceiling and its dynamic nature makes it impossible for there to be a uniform solution to navigating one's career around it or to shatter it. This finding challenges the existing view of the glass ceiling and how women should be attempting to shatter it.

Keywords: Glass ceiling; women in the workplace, hospitality industry; gender; career progression

Introduction

In post-apartheid South Africa, women entering the workplace have faced several barriers which have negatively impacted on their career progression. The inclusion of women into a previously male-dominated industry has resulted in women globally fighting patriarchy in order to achieve parity and equality in the workplace (Bertrand, Black, Jensen & Lleras-Muney, 2014). Women have typically populated the lower echelons of the corporate hierarchy in large numbers and tend to be excluded from decision making and top management positions (Struckmann, 2018). According to Brownell (1994), corporate cultures and organisational structures are designed to continue benefitting men more than women. In South Africa, men

continue to dominate top tier positions, as women only have 22.9% representation in top management (Republic of South Africa. Department of Labour, 2018). Organisational systems, norms and structures have been engineered by men and they are still mostly influenced by men (Ballenger, 2010). The gendered organisational systems, norms and structures are the very factors that have driven the notion that male choices and behaviours are more acceptable as the default, and have thus become the ideal (Kirai & Kobia, 2018). The aforementioned has often influenced and set the narrative in the workplace resulting in very gendered organisational systems that have become a source of second-hand discrimination in the workplace (Makaula, Bozas, Munapo & Naidoo, 2012). The issue is a significant factor to address in the quest for gender equality, especially in terms of career progression. Globally there has been an increase in the economic participation of women. Approximately 60-70% of hospitality industry workers globally are women, yet only 15% are in top management positions (Blayney & Blotnicky, 2014). In South Africa, the participation of women in the hospitality industry has also increased by 9.9% over the past four years (Republic of South Africa. Department of Labour, 2018). In the hospitality sector, 54% of low to middle management positions are occupied by women (Republic of South Africa. Department of Labour, 2018). However, beyond this level women lack similar representation in the higher tiers of senior and executive management.

In Africa, across all industries a mere 5% of CEOs are women. The hospitality industry has progressively and significantly implemented the necessary measures to achieve equality and these have resulted in women comprising 29% of senior management. However, the increase in women's economic participation has not yielded the correlating influence within the workplace. Instead many women increasingly experience an inexplicable stagnation in their career progression after entering the workplace (Makaula, Bozas, Munapo & Naidoo, 2012). Despite great strides having been made to achieve equality for women within the workplace, women still find themselves greatly underrepresented in top management. The under-representativity of women in top management and their lack of career progression has brought the experiences of women in the workplace under scrutiny. Often the preconceived gains expected to be made by women from the implementation of equitable employment policies is seen as quite a stretch especially when reviewing the current number of women in positions of influence within the hospitality industry (Hills, 2015). This study sought to document the experience of women in the hospitality industry in relation to the glass ceiling phenomenon and to examine the factors hindering their career progression despite the existence of progressive policies and employment equity plans that are often in place. The paper starts with a broad literature review which explains the glass ceiling phenomena and then goes on to outline the research strategy that was engaged for the study. The key findings are then highlighted and the paper concludes with discussions and conclusions based on these findings.

Legislation and policy to support women in the workplace in a post-apartheid era
South Africa was challenged to void its society of sexism, discrimination and prejudiced resource allocation (Kornegay, 2000). Several pieces of legislation were introduced in the post-apartheid era to address unfair workplace practices and discrimination. The South African Employment Equity Act (No. 55 of 1998) (EEA) for example prohibits unfair discrimination on various grounds, including gender (Gordon-Davis & Cumberlege, 2013).). The Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality (WEGE) policy framework was drawn as a result of a consultative process, undertaken to build a better South African constitution which embodies the principles of non-sexism (Kornegay, 2000). This framework was aimed at remedying South Africa's historical legacy by defining new terms of reference for the interaction of genders in the workplace (Kornegay, 2000; Ngomane, 2017). In 2014, WEGE policy

framework was introduced to actively tackle the issue of gender inequality in South Africa. The policy targets several key factors that need to be systematically addressed. These factors included inter alia gender relations within the society; economic empowerment of women; redistribution of opportunities/ benefits; abolition of repressive customs and traditions; granting women access to employment; and the implementation of laws to help achieve gender equality (Hill, 2015). The WEGE policy framework also provides clear guidelines on how to tackle the aforementioned issues. In addition, sector-specific policies and programmes were to be drawn from this policy (Hill, 2015).

The 1996 South African Constitution advocates for the promotion of gender equality by acceding to the regional and international instruments calling for gender equality (Hills, 2015). The main international consultative forum for the advancement of gender equality legislation was the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women, held by the United Nations in Beijing (Kornegay, 2000). The above was further strengthened at a Southern African Development Community (SADC) Heads of State meeting that embodied ideals advancing women's place in the society and the economy, as well as in decision-making. South Africa subsequently introduced several laws to help advance women's equality-related interests (Hills, 2015).

In 1996 the South African government consented to the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (Kornegay, 2000). The Convention was aimed at all structures in the government, workplaces and society. Its main objectives were to create an environment to enable policies to be implemented that would assist in attaining the gender equality goal, and in establishing programmes and structures that would empower women and that would change the face of gender relations within the South African society. South Africa also introduced legislation designed to create equal opportunities throughout the workplace (Horwitz, Browning, Jain & Steenkamp, 2002). The laws concerned include: the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) Act of 1994; the Labour Relations Act (LRA) of 1995; the Basic Condition of Employment Act (BCEA) of 1997; the Employment Equity Act (EEA) of 1997; the Skills Development Act (SDA) of 1998; the Black Economic Empowerment Act (BEE) of 2003; and the more recent Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act (BBBEE) of 2007. These Acts were collectively aimed at reducing the degree of segregation of women and at helping to progress their career prospects while giving them access to equal opportunities, enhanced workplace relations, and increasingly conducive workplace conditions and skills development opportunities (Kornegay, 2000). The laws all collectively deal with the challenges that organisations face as part of South Africa's normalisation during the post-apartheid era (Meer, 2005). However, the intended results of the legislation were to work towards transformation and equity in the workplace and not necessarily towards the advancement of women's career prospects (Bosch, 2012; Hills, 2015).

Bosch (2012) further highlights that a number of organisations have made the transition into the discourse on rights and equality, which has led to a new labour regime designed to create an increasingly equitable workplace for women. More women than before are now entering the workplace. However, they remain overwhelmed by the demands of the organisations, and they spend more time learning the rules, rather than learning how to use them to their advantage (Ntuli & Wittenberg, 2013). Previously, women were often more preoccupied with procedures than with the power relations in the workplace, which might have contributed to the continued subordination of women in the workplace (Webster & Omar, 2003). Gender equality has become more of a 'numbers game', with the focus being on ensuring that the gender demographics in the workplace reflect some degree of change (Bosch, 2012).

The glass ceiling phenomenon
The glass ceiling is a term first coined in 1986, by two Wall Street Journal reporters to describe invisible barriers that blocked women from attaining top jobs in corporate America. This has seen a global trend pressuring the corporate world to have inclusive corporate cultures and implement quotas to increase women's participation in decision making and help increase their representation in top management positions (Ballenger, 2010). Literature details the barriers women face in the workplace, several international studies have been conducted in different economic sectors examining the glass ceiling and its relation to women's career progression (Bertrand et al., 2014; Blayney & Blotnicky, 2014; Carnes & Radojevich-Kelley, 2011; Dinakaran, 2016; Kiaye & Singh, 2013; Marinakou, 2014; Michailidis et al., 2012; Mooney & Ryan, 2009; Nguyen, 2013; Patwardhan & Venkatachalam, 2012; Samkange & Dingani, 2010). Scholars cited societal norms and biases, old boy networks and mentorship, stereotyping, gender bias and work-family balance.

Factors upholding the glass ceiling phenomenon
Societal norms and biases
Trust, cooperation and coordination between the sexes has historically hinged on social norms. The extent to which these norms exist seems to differ significantly across societies and countries (Rao, 2016). Internal and external sanctions are enforced by socially acceptable behaviour based on shared beliefs of how individual group members should behave in any given situation. All societies have a hierarchy and power this deeply entrenched in them, in organisations, these hierarchies reinforce discriminatory norms (Khuzwayo, 2016). At the top of the hierarchy, usually concentrated by men who assert their power and make all the important decisions in the organisation. Senior executives in originations talk in a manner that gives the impression that they have adopted an all-inclusive, participative and extensive decision-making process that includes women. Besides most current structures benefitting men more than women, administration rules, and requirement for skills and experience, have always tended to favour men, with them, effectively, limiting women's participation in the labour market (Rao, 2016). Too much power is often tied to the 'man at the top' and this upsets the power balance and perpetuates women's exclusion from the top hierarchical tier. The few women who secured positions relatively high up in the corporate hierarchy, in positions of so-called 'power', tend to be neither feminists nor political activists, as they do not tend to challenge the status quo, and they are not necessarily willing to address the goal of gender equality (Meer, 2005). Although there are many more women in the workplace now than before, there are still insufficient numbers of women in significant positions, for them to influence, change or make a difference in the workplace (Kiaye & Singh, 2013).

Old boy networks and mentorship
The 'old boy network, a term defining informal business interactions, systems and personal contacts between men, in which they use their position of power and influence to influence and advance one another's careers (Adams, 2010; Patwardhan & Venkatachalam, 2012). Women often are not invited or welcomed into these informal mentoring circles and are excluded from possible career growth opportunities that happen through mentoring and referrals in these networks. Bai and Inci (2010) further note that this form of networking, within familiar circles, has a well-informed group of expert agents whose opinions on some individuals are informative and useful during recruitment processes.
Some scholars (see for example Linehan, 2001; Bai & Inci, 2010; Patwardhan & Venkatachalam, 2012) describe the nature of these informal network and possible influence

that these have on career progression. These informal networks usually occur in places where women are not fully comfortable to be and at hours that are not conducive for women (Mooney, 2007). Due to family commitments, women have less time for such social interactions and these interactions often take place after work in the evenings. Unlike men, who have more free time at their disposal after work for networking (Linehan, 2001).

The 'old boy' network is built around the involvement in sport such as golf, tickets to a sporting event, or informal after-hours socializing evenings like drinks at a sports club or a local bar – all of which women rarely get a chance to be part of (Bai & Inci, 2010). The 'old boy' network's practice is valuable in the labour market and in business relations, many individuals use this type of networking to solicit reference letters and records for potential employees (Adams, 2010). Being associated with such a network proves invaluable when organisations are hiring, headhunting and conducting candidate searches, as such buffering it from female entrants makes it more exclusive and beneficial for men which makes men preserve these networks (Ibarra, 2013). The 'old boy' networks feeds into the dominant male organisational culture and thereby contributes to the lack of career progression for women into senior executive roles, whilst simultaneously exacerbating gender stereotypes.

Stereotypes

Within the workplace, stereotypes are preconceptions about a specific group of people based on diversity factors (Dominique, 2001), culture, race and gender are the most common forms of stereotypes. Gender stereotypes are intuitive delineations that people have about women or men, which affect how people process information, structure prior knowledge and frameworks that influence one's understanding gender relations (Ramington & Kitterlin-Lynch, 2018). Research by Brownell (1994) showed that feminine and masculine stereotypes exist about men and women and these affect how people perceive gender roles and their expectations of how women and men are expected to behave in the workplace. The notion that management roles should be occupied by males is a gender-based stereotype (Bai & Inci, 2010), driving the expectation that men and women are different and that men are better suited for decision making and high ranking positions and women are best suited to working as their subordinates (Linhan, 2001). This notion results in women ending up in submissive roles and men in more powerful and influential roles. Stereotyping results in unfavourable attitudes towards women's ability to function in certain situations and particular positions (Clevenger & Singh, 2013; Mooney, 2014). This contributes adversely to the career progression of women. Furthermore, this stereotyping streamlines women into gender-defined roles that are categorized as the 'pink ghetto' (dead-end, stressful and underpaid jobs that are usually dominated by women) instead of allowing them to be judged independently on their individual traits and performance (Dinakaran, 2016). Stereotyping becomes a powerful barrier to women achieving positions of authority, leadership and power (Clevenger & Singh 2013).

Gender bias, inequality/ disparity

Unequal treatment in the workplace opportunities in processes such as promotion, remuneration, employee benefits, privileges, and expectations due to attitudes based on the sex of an employee is referred to as gender bias (Pinar, McCuddy, Birkan & Kozak, 2010, Santero-Sanchez, Segovia-Pérez, Castro- Nuñez, Figueroa-Domecq & Talón-Ballestero; 2015; Kollamparambil & Razak, 2016). While gender bias can be a legitimate basis for a lawsuit under anti-discrimination statutes in South Africa the gender and skill gaps affecting women in the hospitality industry are unjustified and result in women earning less than men (Gordon-Davis & Cumberlege, 2013). Women in South Africa are paid upwards of 20% less than their

male counterparts in a similar position, even though women earn more now than they have ever earned in the past (Chaudhary & Gupta, 2010).

There is little or no possible means of measuring the pay gap between them and their male counterparts, women are not always aware of the income differentials (Kollamparambil & Razak, 2016). However, South African laws prohibit any form of discrimination in the workplace and has limited incidents of income differentials.

Employees rank jobs in the industry in terms of their desirability and rewards. In comparison, employers rank the jobs in terms of the skills and commitment needed to carry out the tasks (Konrad, 2012). Women tend to be crowded into typical office jobs that have poor pay (Mooney, 2007) and lack of career progression opportunities for women (Yukongdi & Benson, 2005). Segregation into "pink ghetto" jobs occurs when women are crammed into female-stereotyped jobs which are devalued and presumed to be less challenging. This reduces the chances of women receiving managerial promotion as they are streamlined through a bottleneck process in order to decrease the number of women in the selection pool (Weiler & Bernasek, 2001). It is also unfortunate that when the small fraction of men that land jobs that are stereotypically for women, they are thought to raise the status of these jobs (Pinar et al., 2010). Some men have admitted that they opted for careers in female-dominated occupations because they provided them with a stepping stone to management status (Linehan, 2001). However, women in these jobs have a different experience and find that their skills are often overlooked and that they are denied training opportunities (Mathur-Helm, 2004). The dynamics of lower pay and failure to attain training results in the lack of promotion into managerial positions (World Economic Forum, 2017).

Work-family balance
Work and family life are often deemed as two independent domains of a working woman's life, but in reality, they overlap for most women and often adversely affect women's career progression (Chaudhary & Gupta, 2010). The terminology to define the relationship between work and family differs from one scholar to another. It has been referred to as work-family tension; job-family role strain; work role incompatibility; inter-role conflict; and work-to-family interference (Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977; Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985; & Butler,1980; Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly, 1983; Magee, Stefanic, Caputi & Iverson, 2012).

Often the societal status of women is reflected in the roles that they play in the various institutions where they exist in and these institutions include family, politics, society as well as workplaces (Dreher, 2003). Women play one or more of these roles daily and their career progression is dependent on them successfully executing these roles with minimal conflict (Patwardhan, & Venkatachalam, 2012). Both roles being so demanding, require time sacrifices which affect women's ability to achieve work-life balance, as most times they are considered as the primary caregiver in the family (Dreher, 2003; Mooney, 2007; Magee et al., 2012).

Patriarchy and social norms further compound women's role conflict as women experiences social expectations which dictate that women be confined to their traditional subservient role (Khuzwayo, 2016). Women who work long hours and have more children experience higher levels of role conflict (Wille, De Fruyt & Feys, 2013), they are psychologically invested in these roles and become increasingly aware of the challenges related with each role. Women are therefore tasked to strategically plan their careers around starting a family, temporary career setbacks when they must take time off should they decide to have children or start a family (Dreher, 2003). The more time they take off from their work, the less their chances of promotion are, or they are viewed as less hungry for promotion (Dreher, 2003). Domestic responsibilities can cripple a women's career even more so if she does not have the necessary support system to cope with the two roles (Mooney, 2007).

The above variables combined in various combinations from the glass ceiling which women fail to shatter to reach top management positions. The societal and cultural norms in each country directly influence organisational cultures as they affect the extent patriarchy affects the workplace and lead to gender roles, biases and stereotypes in the workplace. Organisations' are not fully to blame for the glass ceiling but they are the main contributor to factors constituting the glass ceiling. The next section describes the research strategy that was used during the study and outlines some of the key findings.

Research strategy

The research study is exploratory in nature whereby the views of individuals in management positions on the glass ceiling phenmenon were canvassed as well as the factors and impact of this phenomenon has had in a section of the South African hospitality sector. The study took on a post-positivism approach as the methodology concentrated on theory verification and empirical observations (Creswell, 2009). The study used a mixed method approach and employed both quantitative and qualitative methods. Data was collected through informal semi-structured interviews and an online questionnaire. The online questionnaire targeted men and women in lower to top management positions and the interviews were conducted with hotel human resource managers, individuals in hotel top management positions as well as hotel general managers. A pre-structured online questionnaire was used for the survey as this was both time and cost-effective and it allowed participants to complete the questionnaire at their own convenience. The fast-paced nature of the hospitality industry limited the time available for participants to take the survey whilst working and an online questionnaire worked well. A brief description of the study's purpose and instructions were explained prior to survey completion and it was made clear that participation was voluntary and confidential. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to further substantiate the quantitative data findings.

The survey population included individuals in lower to top management positions within four (4) Gauteng hotel groups. Non- probability snowballing sampling technique was used to select survey participants. A sample size of 150 participants was used and the sample size for the interviews was 4 participants. The quantitative data was analysed through descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse general tendencies and the demographic data of the participants using frequency analysis. Inferential statistics were used to identify independent variables against a dependent variable with the use of multiple regression techniques.

Accuracy of the questionnaire's questions was achieved using content validity, which is intended to measure constructs in their domain of interest and excludes anything that could be of irrelevance. Exploratory factor analysis was used to measure all the constructs' validity. Each measure in the survey questionnaires was tested for its inclusion and relevance using face validity to see which concept about the glass ceiling the question related to and if it would contribute to the survey findings. Reliability analysis was conducted to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaire. After reliability was established, correlation analysis was done to measure the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, the glass ceiling being the dependent construct and the independent constructs, equity, gendered organizational systems, intrinsic factors, patriarchal structures benefits to the business from the removal of the glass ceiling.

Key findings

Demographic profile of the respondents

The demographic profile of respondents within this study were 170 female participants 74 (48.7%) and 78 (50.7%) male participants which is an even distribution with male participation slightly in the majority by 2%. Ethnicity data indicated that most of the respondents were Black (52%), 23.0% were White, 17.8% were Coloured and 5.9% were Asian. The highest number of participants (58.5%), fell within the ages of between 20 and 34 years old.   32.2% of the respondents fell within the category 35 and 44 years of age. The data showed that about 50.7% of the respondents of the survey earned between R5 000 and R14 999. This is significantly lower than the national average salary of R21 190 (Statistics South African, 2019). 43.3% of the respondents earned more than R15 000 with only 13.3% earning R50 000 or more. In terms of the highest qualification that the respondent was in possession of at the time they completed the survey, 11.8% had only a matric certificate; 17.8% held a Certificate, 35.5% of the respondents held a Diploma, 17.1% a Degree, 14.5% an Honours degree, and 3.3% with a Master's degree. With regards to marital status, 39.5% of the respondents were single, with no young children living at home. 21.1% of the respondents were single and living with young children at home and a further 21.1% of the respondents were married and living young children at home. This means 57.9% of the respondents had no young children living with them. The current positions held by the respondents were as follows: 31.1% of the respondents were in supervisory positions, 31.8% in middle management positions and 19.2% in top management positions. 82.1% of the respondents were in lower to top management positions. 14.5% professional and support staff in specialized positions.

Beliefs on equity and equality in the workplace

The findings with regards to beliefs on equity and equality in the workplace, in relation to beliefs on women, their career progression and abilities showed that 78.9% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that women, like men are capable of serving in executive positions (EE1), 57.2% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that women are afforded equal promotion opportunities (EE2), a significant majority (42.1%) of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that women are not easily promoted into middle management positions from entry-level management positions (EE3), the majority (56.4%) of respondents agreed that women are underrepresented in the boardrooms (EE4) while 20.1% remained neutral, 45.2% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that women's competitiveness and assertiveness in the workplace is regarded as a negative trait (EE5) and in response to the statement, "In my company, women have to perform better than their male counterparts to be promoted to the same position" (EE6), 44.8% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed. The respondents were most positive towards item EE1, which received a mean score of M=4.17, with a standard deviation of 0.992. Item EE6, had the lowest mean score (M=3.09), with a standard deviation of 1.361. The respondent's perceptions of equity and equality were negative overall.

Beliefs on gendered organisational systems

On questions that related to how organisational systems impacted on women's career progression, 51.3% of respondents identified organisational structures and corporate practices favouring male employees a significant or huge obstacle to women's career progress (GOS1). Women's lack of adequate general management and/or line experience (GOS2) was recognized as a significant obstacle by 1 in every 3 respondents (33.8%). Male domination of senior positions (GOS3), is deemed a significant or huge obstacle by the majority (57%) of respondents whilst, 49.7% of the respondents agreed that women have to work twice as hard than men in order to be promoted to senior management (GOS4) and deemed this as a

significant or huge obstacle. 46.7% of the respondents responded that hospitality industry companies are actively engaged in changing attitudes towards women (GOS5) and cited this as a minor or noticeable obstacle, this means they acknowledge that significant attention was being given to matters regarding women's welfare in the workplace (Sims & Hirudayaraj, 2016). The above reaffirms that the study's respondents found that male domination of senior positions was the greatest gendered organisational structure obstacle as it recorded the highest mean score (M=3.60), with a standard deviation of 1.249. The respondents were circumspect of the idea that hospitality industry companies are actively engaged in changing attitude towards women (M=2.43).

Beliefs on patriarchy and patriarchal structures influence in the workplace
50.3% of the respondents agreed that there is a perception that women should not be in a position of authority over men (PS1) as they responded that this is a significant or huge obstacle to women's career progress. 53.4% of the respondents agreed that the perception that women's careers are not prioritised because women are not considered the primary family provider (PS2) is a significant or huge obstacle for women's career progress in the workplace. 56% of the respondents agreed that there is a perception that men make better managers than women (PS3) is a huge or significant obstacle to women's career progress. To the statement "Women managers are just as capable of contributing to an organization's overall goal as are men (PS4)", 47.4% of the respondents this was a minor obstacle or an obstacle and 22.0% saw this as a noticeable obstacle. 38.4% of the respondents viewed women's exclusion from informal male networking circle (PS5) as a minor obstacle to women's career progression whilst 27.8 viewed it as a noticeable obstacle. In society, the assumption is that women have men providing for them and this results in them not being treated as men's equals in the labour queue as it is assumed, they are not the primary breadwinner in their home. Gender should not play a role in determining one's suitability for a particular job and the tasks associated with the job (Khuzwayo, 2016). Of the patriarchal structure factors, item PS2 recorded the highest score (M=3.37), with a standard deviation of 1.389. Item PS4 obtained the lowest score (M=2.59) and a standard deviation of 1.443. The responses in this section indicated that the respondents are significant believers that patriarchal structures negatively impact on women's career progression.

Beliefs on women's character and personality traits
45.4% of respondents attributed women's lack of career progression to their lack of sufficient self-confidence and timidity (CT1), they responded that this was a significant or huge obstacle to women's career progression and 21.7% of the respondents responded that it was a noticeable obstacle. When asked about women's lack of enthusiasm in taking on high-stake and challenging assignments (CT2), 37.5% of the respondents responded that this was as significant or huge obstacle and 29.6% agreed it was a noticeable obstacle. 49.3% of the respondents responded that women not being willing to make the sacrifices needed to get and remain in senior positions (CT3), is a huge or significant obstacle while 20% responded it was a noticeable obstacle. When asked if women's lack of ambition, in comparison to men (CT4) is an obstacle to women's career progression, 26.9% of the respondents saw this as a significant or major obstacle, while 21.5% of the respondents saw it as a noticeable obstacle while the remaining 51.7% saw it as a minor obstacle or not an obstacle. Women face role conflict and may find it difficult to balance their normal load of tasks that they may not be willing to take more time as this means that work hours will encroach into family time. Overall, the respondents tended to be lean towards character traits being noticeable or huge obstacles to women's career progression. Item CT3, recorded a mean score of M=3.26 and a standard

deviation of 1.343. Item CT4, had the lowest mean score (M=2.58) and a standard deviation of 1.405. The respondents were positive that character traits somewhat play a significant role towards the stagnation of women's careers.

Beliefs on women's qualifications and experience

40.1% of the respondents agreed to women's lack of qualifications making them less suitable for higher positions (QE1) being a significant or huge obstacle to women's career progress and 26.3% agreed to it being a noticeable obstacle. Women's lack of relevant job experience making them less suitable for higher positions (QE2), was viewed as a huge or significant obstacle by 40.1% of the respondents and 28.3% viewed it as a noticeable obstacle. 51% of the respondents viewed women not being presented with the same opportunities men are presented with to acquire further qualification (QE3) as a huge or significant obstacle to women's career progress. Women lacking the urgency to acquire more qualifications in order to be considered for promotions (QE4), 59.9% of respondents viewed this lack of urgency as an obstacle to women's career progression, this shows how comfortable women are and their lack of urgency in further acquiring qualifications works is detrimental to their careers. The overall highest mean score was recorded for item QE3 (3.23) and the lowest mean score was recorded for item QE4 (2.89), there was a general consensus among the respondents that a lack of qualifications and experience significantly accounts for women's lack of career progression.

Knowledge of the glass ceiling and its influence

When asked to what to extent respondents thought the glass ceiling barriers existed in today's South African Hospitality Industry (GC1), 50.4% of respondents responded to a great or very great extent. 38.4% of respondents when asked to what extent do they feel a glass ceiling exists in their organization (GC2), responded to a great or very great extent whilst 32.5% responded to a moderate extent and 29.1 % responded to no or little extent. 39.5% of the respondent responded that they had little to no awareness of the term glass ceiling (GC3) prior to completing the questionnaire and 26.3% of the respondents were moderately aware of the term. When asked that given all the issues facing their organization, to what extent is the issue of glass ceiling important (GC4), 46.7% of respondents responded to a great or very great extent and 22.7% responded to a moderate extent. The highest mean score was recorded for item GC1 with a mean score of M=3.46 and a standard deviation of 1.182. The findings indicate that the factors comprising the glass ceiling are easily identifiable and can be in the workplace, however, respondents do not know these factors collectively are referred to as the glass ceiling. Item GC3 recorded the lowest mean score of M=2.95 and a standard deviation of 1.254, most respondents generally do not believe that the glass ceiling is existent in their organization.

Additional tests for correlation

For reliability analysis, all constructs were checked for internal consistency using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (see Table 1), which provides an indication of the average correlation among the items making up a scale. The values concerned range from 0 to 1, with the higher the figure, the greater the relationship. A positive correlation existed between the two variables, $r = 0.365$, $n = 152$, $p < 0.005$, with the glass ceiling's presence being perceived to be attributed to the presence of unresolved equity- and equality-related factors within the hospitality industry workplace. When investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, the relationship between the glass ceiling and the gendered organisational systems results indicated the presence of a strong, positive correlation between the two variables, $r = 0.460$, $n = 152$, $p < 0.005$. The glass ceiling's presence is somewhat perceived to be attributed to the presence of the gendered organisational systems within the hospitality industry workplace. Subsequently,

the relationship between the glass ceiling and the patriarchal structures was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (see Table 2). A positive correlation was found between the two variables, $r = 0.468$, $n = 152$, $p < 0.005$. The glass ceiling's presence is perceived to be the result of the presence of patriarchy and structures derived from its presence within the hospitality industry workplace. The relationship between the glass ceiling and women's character traits was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality and linearity occurred. A positive correlation was found between the two variables, $r = 0.402$, $n = 152$, $p < 0.005$. The glass ceiling's presence is somewhat perceived to be exacerbated by women's character traits, which deem them to be 'not hungry enough' to exploit the available opportunities to further their careers. The relationship between the glass ceiling and women's qualifications and experience was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. A positive correlation was found between the two variables, $r = 0.496$, $n = 152$, $p < 0.005$. The glass ceilings seemed to be strongly perceived as being attributed to the women's lack of qualifications and experience, which, in turn, affects their suitability for promotion within the hospitality industry workplace. The correlation analysis confirms the positive relationship between the glass ceiling factors and the glass ceiling, with the severity of the factors' presence and effects proportionately increasing the impact of the glass ceiling on women's careers. The correlation does not, however, confirm the causality of the relationships concerned.

Table 1: Factor analysis and reliability test results

Factors	KMO	Bartlett's test of sphericity (ρ -value)	Cronbach's alpha
Equity/Equality	0.760	0.000	0.775
Gendered organisational structures	0.716	0.000	0.708
Patriarchal structures	0.769	0.000	0.769
Character traits	0.747	0.000	0.752
Qualifications and experience	0.771	0.000	0.803
Glass ceiling	0.759	0.000	0.728

Table 2: Correlation analysis

		Equity/ Equality	GOS	Patriarchal structures	Character traits	QE
Glass ceiling	Pearson correlation	0.365**	0.460**	0.468**	0.402**	0.496**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000/
	N	152	152	152	152	152
. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). GOS = **Gendered **o**rganisational **s**ystems QE = **Q**ualifications & **e**xperience						

The results of the analysis presented above (Refer Table 1 and Table 2) allow for the answering of the study's research questions: What are the views of various stakeholders on the factors comprising the glass ceiling that negatively impact women's career progression to senior executive positions? The model that includes the independent variables Equity/Equality, Gendered organisational systems, Patriarchal structures, Character traits and Qualifications and experience explains 33.6% of the variance in terms of glass ceiling factors. Qualifications and Experience make the largest unique contribution (beta = 0.320), although the combined beta values of extrinsic factors Equity/Equality (EE), Gendered organisational systems (GOS) and Patriarchal structures (PS) enable the conclusion to be drawn that the glass ceiling is mainly the result of extrinsic factors, which areexacerbated by the intrinsic factors, consisting mainly

of Qualifications and experience (QE). The respondents, generally, agreed with the statement that the glass ceiling negatively impacts on women's career progression to senior management positions. The exploratory factor analysis enabled the conclusion to be drawn that the factors that are said to cause the glass ceiling all to play their fair part in upholding the glass ceiling.

Women's family and work-life balance greatly influence their experience with the glass ceiling, being a primary caregiver to young children greatly exacerbates the effects of all the other variables (Mooney, 2007), the findings highlight the delicate balance required for women to successfully shatter the glass ceiling. The success was attributed to women having less work-life conflict, having alternative child caregivers. This supports Khuzwayo (2016) and Dreher (2003) whose notion was that single women without any children have a more positive career projection than that of their counterparts with family responsibilities. This invaluable opportunity cost is not one every woman can afford to successfully shatter the glass ceiling or avoid being trapped by it. The findings highlight how having no family or having a family later on in one's career proves invaluable in shattering the glass ceiling, this is noted to subliminally help combat the extent of the effects other glass ceiling factors have on career progression. The findings also concur with Mooney and Ryan (2009), who noted that the lack of women in the top echelons of management is attributed to women being offered equal opportunities in an attempt for organizations to window dress but not being considered equal for available posts (Mooney, 2007).

The nature of the hospitality industry exacerbates the prevalence of old boy networks. Hower, the findings show that other commitments in the workplace and at home women know of the old boy network but are not aware of its implications on their careers, further supporting Bai and Inci's (2010) notion on the abstract nature of the old boy network.

The general consensus in the findings is that women are equally capable of serving/occupying top positions. Literature (Jackson & O'Callaghan, 2009; Gneezy, Leibbrandt & List, 2016) notes this and the findings show how at least a third of the respondents do not see women as equal to men or able to deliver to men's standards. Khuzwayo (2016) attributes this to the toxic masculinity deeply entrenched in cultural biases and gender roles experienced in South African society. Men were noted as preferring not to occupy roles where they need to be subservient to women (Nguyen, 2013).

The social-economic set up in South African context tends to uphold gendered organizational structures. The findings on the glass ceiling uphold the notion by Sims and Hirudayaraj (2016), that women are not viewed as capable of achieving organizational goals as well as their male counterparts. This is an attributing factor to the glass ceiling and underscores how society views it. However, literature also shows how intrinsic factors especially the lack of urgency to acquire further qualifications as a major hindrance to the success of women. The literature (Ballenger, 2010; Khuzwayo, 2016; Powell, 2018) illustrates how with an already restricted schedule and work-life conflict, women tend to not be motivated to intentionally upgrade their qualifications. Many women are often compelled to upgrade their skill sets and knowledge by their employers. Women's lack of awareness of the glass ceiling has been cited as the main reason women cannot shatter the glass ceiling.

Conclusion

The findings from the survey were intended to shed more light on views held by various stakeholders on the factors constituting the glass ceiling. Many respondents acknowledged the factors constituting the glass ceiling individually but did not acknowledge that they knew of the term 'glass ceiling'. The majority of the respondents were aware of the effects of patriarchy on women's career progress. They corroborated that organisational structures, norms and corporate cultures played a major role in the state of women's career progress. In this study,

like many preceding studies, the glass ceiling is referred to as an encompassing phenomenon affecting all women the same. The findings of the study revealed the circumstantial nature of the glass ceiling and its dynamic nature makes it virtually impossible for there to be a uniform solution to navigating one's career around it or shattering it once trapped by it.

Many women resonated with the nature of the glass ceiling once they had completed the survey. They expressed how they experienced similar difficulties by pinpointing exactly how the phenomenon affected their careers. The women noted how it is virtually difficult to demonstrate the existence of the glass ceiling or income differentials in the workplace as the workplace was often viewed to be actively implementing several measures to advance the careers of women and thereby provide them with better workplace experiences. This possibly masks the existence of any existing discriminatory practices. Most organisations are still expected to employ affirmative action measures to mitigate the effects of any discriminatory practices to reduce the discrimination women face in the workplace. There was a general view that the glass ceiling is the greatest contributor to women's current state of career progression. Legislation has been used to ameliorate workplace inequalities but it has not yet yielded its intended goals and this has proved that the application and enforcement of legislation is challenging. It has been difficult to see the results on the ground, beyond the plans and reports that organisations are expected to produce that show their progress and efforts to achieve equity and alleviate career progression barriers for women in the workplace. Organisations require deeper organisational cultural changes. The hospitality sector needs the women in top management positions to be the voice and lead the change for women trapped by the glass ceiling. It can be achieved by challenging organisational cultures, norms and structures to ensure that women achieve equality and that the limiting career progression barriers are reduced which will ultimately enable them to shatter the glass ceiling and take up seats of influence within organisations.

References

Bai, M. & Inci, E. (2010). The old-boy network and the quality of entrepreneurs. *Journal of Economics & Management Strategy*, 19(4),889-918.

Ballenger, J. (2010). Women's access to higher education leadership: Cultural and structural barriers. *Forum on Public Policy Online*, 2010(5). Available at https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ913023 [Retrieved 17 September 2020]

Bertrand, M., Black, S.E., Jensen, S. & Lleras-Muney, A. (2014). Breaking the glass ceiling? The effect of board quotas on female labour market outcomes in Norway. *National Bureau of Economic Research*. (NBER Working Papers; no. 20256). Available at https://econpapers.repec.org/paper/nbrnberwo/20256.htm [Retrieved 5 September 2020]

Blayney, C. & Blotnicky, K. (2014). Career development of Canadian hotel managers in the hospitality industry: An examination of gender perceptions of barriers and facilitators in career advancement. *Journal of Management and World Business Research*, 11,1-10.

Blayney, C. & Blotnicky, K. (2017). Women's representation in the hotel Industry: An update five years later. *International Journal of Management & Human Resources,* 5(1),49-64.

Bosch, A. (Editor). (2012). *The SABPP Women's Report 2012*. Johannesburg: South African Board for People Practices. Available at: https://sabpp.co.za/wp-content/uploads/2016/12/SABPP-Womens-Report-2012-web.pdf [Retrieved 17 September 2020]

Brownell, J. (1993). Addressing career challenges faced by women in hospitality management. *Hospitality & Tourism Educator*, 5,11-15.

Brownell, J. (1994). Women in hospitality management: General managers' perceptions of factors related to career development. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 13,101-117.

Castro, M.R. (2012). Time demands and gender roles: The case of a Big Four firm in Mexico. *Gender, Work & Organization. Special Issue: Researching Gender, Inclusion and Diversity in Contemporary Professions and Professional Organizations*, 19(5),532-554. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0432.2012.00606.x

Chaudhary, M. & Gupta, M. (2010). Gender equality in Indian hotel industry – a study of perception of male and female employees. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Systems*, 3(1),31-41.

Clevenger, L. & Singh, N. (2013). Exploring barriers that lead to the glass ceiling effect for women in the US hospitality industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 12(4),376-399.

Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. 3rd edition. Thousands Oak, CA: SAGE.

Dinakaran, U. (2016). Assessing the existence of the glass ceiling that affects women's career growth in the Indian hospitality industry. *CLEAR International Journal of Research in Commerce & Management*, 7(5),18-23.

Dominique, M.É.D.A. (2001). New perspectives on work as value. *Women, Gender and Work*:21-32. Geneva: International Labour Office.

Dreher, G.F. (2003). Breaking the glass ceiling: The effects of sex ratios and work-life programs on female leadership at the top. *Human Relations*, 56(5),541-562.

Figueroa-Domecq, C., Pritchard, A., Segovia-Pérez, M., Morgan, N. & Villace-Molinero, T. (2015). Tourism gender research: A critical accounting. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 52,87-103.

Gordon-Davis, L. & Cumberlege, P. (2013). *The hospitality industry handbook on legal requirements for hospitality businesses.* Cape Town: Juta.

Hills, J. (2015). Addressing gender quotas in South Africa: Woman empowerment and gender equality legislation. *Deakin Law Review*, 20(1),153-184.

Horwitz, F.M., Browning, V., Jain, H. & Steenkamp, A.J. (2002). Human resource practices and discrimination in South Africa: Overcoming the apartheid legacy. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(7),1105-1118.

Ibarra, H. (1993). Personal networks of women and minorities in management: A conceptual framework. *Academy of Management Review*, 18(1),56-87.

Jaga, A., Arabandi, B., Bagraim, J. & Mdlongwa, S. (2018). Doing the 'gender dance': Black women professionals negotiating gender, race, work and family in post-apartheid South Africa. *Community, Work & Family*, 21(4),1-16.

Jones, A.P. & Butler, M.C. (1980). A role transition approach to the stresses of organisationally induced family role disruption. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 42(2),367-376.

Khuzwayo, Z. (2016). Separate space: An approach to addressing gender inequality in the workplace. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 17(4),91-101.

Kiaye, R. & Singh, A. (2013). The glass ceiling: A perspective of women working in Durban. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 28(1),28-42.

Kirai, M.N. & Kobia, M. (2018). Effects of social cultural beliefs on women career progression in Kenya's civil service. IJAME: International Journal of Advances in Management and Economics, 01(6). Available from:

http://www.managementjournal.info/index.php/IJAME/article/view/246 [Retrieved 22 Spetember 2020]

Kollamparambil, U. & Razak, A. (2016). Trends in gender wage gap and discrimination in South Africa: A comparative analysis across races. *Indian Journal of Human Development*, 10(1),49-63.

Konrad, A.M. (2012). *Business and gender.* C*ritical perspectives on business and management.* Abingdon: Routledge.

Kopelman, R.E., Greenhaus, J.H. & Connolly, T.F. (1983). A model of work, family, and interrole conflict: A construct validation study. *Organisational Behavior and Human Performance*, 32(2),198-215.

Kornegay, E. (2000). *South Africa's National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality*. Pretoria: Office on the Status of Women National Gender Policy Framework.

Linehan, M. (2001). Networking for female managers' career development: Empirical evidence. *Journal of Management Development*, 20(10),823-829.

Magee, C.A., Stefanic, N., Caputi, P. & Iverson, D.C. (2012). The association between job demands/control and health in employed parents: The mediating role of work-to-family interference and enhancement. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 17(2),196-205.

Makaula, S.Z., Bozas, A., Munapo, E. & Naidoo, V. (2012). Breaking the glass ceiling − A case of Durban corporate women. *Corporate Ownership & Control*, 12(4-1),200-216.

Marinakou, E. (2014). Women in hotel management and leadership: Diamond or glass? *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 2,18-25.

Mathur-Helm, B. (2011). Women in management in South Africa. In *Women in management worldwide: Progress and prospects,*361-370*.* Edited by Davidson, M.J. & Burke, R.J. Aldershot: Gower.

Meer, S. (2005). Freedom for women: Mainstreaming gender in the South African liberation struggle and beyond. *Gender & Development*, 13(2),36-45.

Michailidis, M., Morphitou, R. & Theophylatou, I. (2012). Women at work equality versus inequality: Barriers for advancing in the workplace. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23,4231-4245.

Mooney, S. (2007). *Where is she? A female manager's place in Australian and New Zealand hotels*. Master's thesis. Auckland: Auckland University of Technology.

Mooney, S. & Ryan, I. (2009). A woman's place in the hotel management: Upstairs or downstairs? *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 24(3),195-210.

Mooney, S.K. (2014). *How the intersections of age, gender, ethnicity and class influence the longevity of a hospitality career in New Zealand*. Master's thesis. Auckland: Auckland University of Technology.

Nguyen, T.L.H. (2013). Barriers to and facilitators of female deans' career advancement in higher education: An exploratory study in Vietnam. *Higher Education*, 66,123-138.

Ngomane, T.S. (2017). Women and leadership within the public service: Is the glass-ceiling effect real or imagined? A case study of Mpumalanga Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. *International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives (IPADA)*. Available from: http://ulspace.ul.ac.za/handle/10386/1864 [Retrieved 12 September 2020]

Ntuli, M. & Wittenberg, M. (2013). Determinants of black women's labour force participation in post-apartheid South Africa. *Journal of African Economies*, 22(3):347-374.

Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS survival manual*. London: McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Patwardhan, V. & Venkatachalam, V.B. (2012). A study on career management issues of women managers in Indian hospitality industry. *JOHAR*, 7(1):67. Available from: http://www.publishingindia.com/johar/7/a-study-on-career-management-issues-of-women-managers-in-indian-hospitality-industry/141/1132/ [Retrieved 5 September 2020]

Pillay, P. (2000). *The perception of the glass ceiling phenomenon*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Johannesburg). 1-139.

Pinar, M., McCuddy, M.K., Birkan, I. & Kozak, M. (2011). Gender diversity in the hospitality industry: An empirical study in Turkey. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(1),73-81.

PwC. (2018). Hotels outlook: 2018-2022: South Africa – Nigeria – Mauritius – Kenya – Tanzania. Available from: http://www.pwc.co.za/outlook [Retrieved 17 September 2020]

Rao, A. (2016). Challenging patriarchy to build workplace gender equality. *IusLabor*, (2). Available from: https://www.raco.cat/index.php/IUSLabor/article/view/312028 [Retrieved 10 September 2020]

Remington, J. & Kitterlin-Lynch, M. (2018). Still pounding on the glass ceiling: A study of female leaders in hospitality, travel, and tourism management. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 17(1),22-37.

Republic of South Africa. Department of Labour. (1998). Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Samkange, F. & Dingani, S. (2010). Beyond the glass ceiling: A gendered and cultural hospitality management discourse on the advancement of women based on integrated research paradigms. *Tourism & Management Studies*, 9(1),20-27. Available from: http://www.scielo.mec.pt/pdf/tms/ v9n1/v9n1a04.pdf [Retrieved 17 September 2020]

Santero-Sanchez, R., Segovia-Pérez, M., Castro-Nuñez, B., Figueroa-Domecq, C. & Talón-Ballestero, P. (2015). Gender differences in the hospitality industry: A job quality index. *Tourism Management*, 51,234-246.

Sims, C. & Hirudayaraj, M. (2016). The impact of colorism on the career aspirations and career opportunities of women in India. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 18,38-53.

Statistics South Africa. (2019). *Quarterly employment statistics report 2018/19*. P0277. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Struckmann, C. (2018). A postcolonial feminist critique of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development: A South African application. *Agenda*, 32(1),12-24.

Tran, T.T.T. (2014). *Identifying the existence of the glass ceiling and examining the impact on the participation of female executives in the Vietnamese banking sector*. Unpublished Master's thesis. Auckland: Unitec Institute of Technology.

United Nations. (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Report*. New York: United Nations. Available from: http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/2015_MDG_Report/pdf/ MDG%202015%20rev%20(July%201).pdf [Retrieved 10 September 2020]

Weiler, S. & Bernasek, A. (2001). Dodging the glass ceiling? Networks and the new wave of women entrepreneurs. *Social Science Journal*, 38(1),85-103.

Wesarat, P.O. & Mathew, J. (2017). Theoretical framework of glass ceiling: A case of India's women academic leaders. *Paradigm*, 21(1),21-30.

Wille, B., De Fruyt, F. & Feys, M. (2013). Big five traits and intrinsic success in the new career era: A 15-year longitudinal study on employability and work–family conflict. *Applied Psychology*, 62(1),124-156.

World Economic Forum. (2017). *Global gender gap report*. Geneva: Forum. Available from: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2017.pdf [Retrieved 19 September 2020]

Yukongdi, V. & Benson, J. (2005). Women in Asian management: Cracking the glass ceiling? *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 11(2),139-148.