EXPLORING GENDER INEQUALITY IN MANAGEMENT WITHIN THE TEXTILE AND CLOTHING INDUSTRY OF BOTSWANA

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Mini-dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Masters of Business Administration in the Faculty of Commerce and Administration at the Mafikeng Campus of the North-West University.

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November 2015

Declaration

I Kebabaletswe Ranthokwane, of **student no. 24815586** do hereby declare and solemnly affirm that this research project titled **"Exploring Gender Inequality in Management within the Textile and Clothing Industry of Botswana"** is the work solely done by me and no part of the work is copied or plagiarised.

K. RANTHOKWANE

Signature: .....November 2015

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my husband, Mr Tsholofelo Ranthokwane; my children; Berlina Ranthokwane and Mogakolodi Ranthokwane, and my nephew; Motlatsi Molefha.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It was not going to be easy without the support, encouragement, guidance and contribution of the following people whom I acknowledge, appreciate and humbly thank. I would like to acknowledge and humbly thank;

- The most high God, for with him everything is possible. Because of his eternal love for me, he gave me the strength, wisdom, faith, determination and I managed to compile this document and complete my studies.
- My employer, for giving me the opportunity to further my studies, sponsored me for 2 and half years to pursue Master of Business Administration (MBA).
- My sincere gratitude to my research supervisor, Professor Yvonne Du Plessis. I thank her for continuous, excellent guidance and being patient with me. Her valuable supervision really sustained and encouraged me to accomplish what I came in the Republic of South Africa for. You are really number one Supervisor!!! God bless you eternally.
- My great honour to the companies and participants for their positive contribution to the success of the Mini-Dissertation.
- My best friend, Lindy Tjia, who went through thick and thin with me during my studies. It was really hard, but teaming up with her made our studies easier. She welcomed and accommodated me during my stay in South Africa. She encouraged me to work hard and complete this document. She is the best friend ever. God bless you eternally.
- My lovely home girl, sister and friend, Nollie Seoseng, who assisted me during our studies in South Africa- Mafikeng. She encouraged and guided me to finish the research.
- My lovely friend, Sibongile Ntuli, who assisted and encouraged me to complete the mini-dissertation and never give up.
- My beloved husband, Mr Tsholofelo Ranthokwane, for his support and encouragement during my studies.
- My sister in law, Keene Molefha and niece, Lebogang Phuthego, for their support and caring for my children during my absence.

ABSTRACT

Title*:* **Exploring Gender Inequality in Management within the Textile and Clothing Industry of Botswana.**

The textile and clothing (TC) industry is one of the oldest and largest export industries in many countries including Botswana. Botswana established the textile and clothing (TC) industry during the period 1980-90 and the sector expanded rapidly as a result of the trade and preferences available to it under the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) agreement, the Cotonou Agreement and the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA). The textile and clothing industry is a huge generator of revenue and one of the biggest employers, especially of women. Employees in the textile and clothing industries to have low skill levels, low levels of education and thus earn low wages.

Gender inequality is a worldwide problem. Countries are trying by all means to improve gender equality in the workplace but there is little progress. Women are still under represented in the upper management positions. Under the textile and clothing industry, they are hired mostly as low-skilled labourers in most of the countries such as Botswana.

The main aim of this study was to explore gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana; to review literature on gender inequality in the workplace; to determine the demographic representation of females and males in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana; to identify criteria used to hire employees; to identify barriers for women to be promoted and or hired in management positions, and to determine the effects of gender inequality in the production and or performance of the textile and clothing industry. The study used the quantitative and qualitative methods. Primary and secondary data were utilised in this study. The secondary data included a literature review and the companies' personnel files. The researcher collected first hand data by the administration of a semi-structured questionnaire. Non-probability (convenience sampling) and probability sampling techniques (simple random sampling) were adopted for this study. In total 47 participants from the textile and clothing industry, (17 management team members and 30 low-skilled labourers), participated from eight (8) selected companies in Gaborone, out of 84 targeted

sample group from 12 Companies. The quantitative data was analysed using the descriptive statistics, namely, frequencies and percentages. The data was illustrated using tables, pie charts and graphs. Analysis of the qualitative data was carried out on the written response from the open-ended questions in the questionnaires. The responses were coded to make the data actionable. The data was also illustrated using tables and graphs.

The key finding of this research is that gender inequality does exist in the textile and clothing industry. More females are hired as low-skilled labourers compared to their male counterparts. Notably, males occupy more of the high rank positions than females in the textile and clothing industry. Females mostly occupy the administration positions such as Human Resources Manager and not the hard core managerial positions of production. The findings from the low-skilled labourers and management team participants from the textile and clothing industry reflect that there are more females (87 %) than males (13%) hired in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. The majority of the female participants were from the low-skilled labourer category while the vast numbers of the male participants were in the management team participants. Furthermore, the study revealed that the majority of the participants from the management team in the management positions are males (76.5%) and few females (23.5%).

It has been revealed that the reasons the textile and clothing industry prefer to hire more females compared to males under low-skilled labourer category is because; females are loyal; committed to work; always meet their targets; forthcoming to look for a job in the textile and clothing industry than their male counterparts; not difficult to supervise or work with, and do not disappear from work compared to their male counterparts.

The study discovered that there are obstacles for women to be promoted and/ or hired to management positions. From the findings of the study, the barriers for women to be promoted and/ or hired to management positions are said to be; low qualification, maternity leave, continuous sick leave and not forthcoming to apply for management positions. Furthermore, literature revealed the barriers for women to be hired and/ or promoted to management positions as gendered role expectations, cultural and stereotypical attitudes, family responsibility which contributes to the low

representation of women in the positions of power and *decision-making* and lack of women in senior positions.

The researcher made recommendations and suggestions for further research.

Keywords*:* textile and clothing industry, gender inequality, low skilled labourer, management.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AGOA	African Growth and Opportunity Act
BGCSE	Botswana Government Cambridge School Examination
BHWA	Bangladesh Home Workers Association
BCWP	Botswana Caucus of Women in Politics
BEDIA	Botswana Export Development Investment Authority (Currently, Botswana Investment Trade Center (BITC)
BIDPA	Botswana Institute for Development Policy Analysis
BMDG	Botswana Millennium Development Goal
BNCW	Botswana National Council on Women
BWASA	Business Women's Association South Africa
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women
CSO	Central Statistics Office
CTCP	Clothing and Textile Competitiveness Programme (CTCP)
CTFC	Clothing, Textile, Footwear and Leather Industry
DCC	Duty Credit Certificate
DCCS	Duty Credit Certificate Scheme
DPSM	Department of Public Service Management
EU	European Union
FAP	Financial Assistance Policy
GeAD	Gender Affairs Department (formerly Women's Affairs Department (WAD))
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IEPA	Interim Economic Partnership Agreement
IMF	International Manufacturer Federation
JC	Junior Certificate
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MFA	Multi Fibre Agreement
NGOs	Non-governmental Organisations

NSO	National Statistics Office
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSW	Office on the Status of Women
PSLE	Primary School Leaving Examination
SACU	Southern African Customs Union
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SSP	Special Support Programme
TC	Textile and clothing Industry
TCIDP	Textile and Clothing Industry Development Programme
UNDESA	United Nations Development Statistics
US	United States
WLSA	Women and the Law in Southern Africa

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION TO THE STUDY

Botswana has, over the past 35 years, been among the best performing economies in Africa. From one of the world's poorest countries it has evolved into a middle-income country. The discovery and prudent management of its vast diamond resources together with sound economic policies has elevated the country to the level where it is no longer considered poor. The heavy dependence of the economy on diamonds (83% of merchandise exports) leaves it vulnerable to trade shocks and this has prompted the government of Botswana to promote economic diversification (Salm, Grant, Haycock, Kennedy & Rubin, 2004).

However, while the country has experienced rapid and sustained economic growth, they have implemented deliberate policy measures to spread the benefits of growth to sectors other than mining. Despite growth in the economy, the country continues to face the challenge of high and persistent levels of unemployment (estimated at 17.5%) and poverty (30.6% during 2002/3) mainly due to the country's heavy reliance on capital intensive mining and quarrying activities. Labour-intensive sectors such as agriculture and construction do not contribute as much to the country's overall Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Decent Work Country Programme for Botswana, 2011).

The textile and clothing manufacturing industry transforms fabrics produced by the textile manufacturers into clothing and accessories. Traditionally, this industry consisted of production workers who performed the cutting and sewing functions in an assembly line. The industry remains labour-intensive, despite advances in technology, techniques, processes and workplace practices. The global textile industry particularly the apparel industry has seen remarkable changes in the past few years. The clothing wholesale supply is increasing worldwide in all the sectors of the industry, whether it is men's clothing, women's clothing, kids wear or infant wear (Weerakoon, 2012).

The textile and clothing (TC) industry is one of the oldest and largest export industries in many countries including Botswana. The industry exemplifies the challenges associated with global manufacturing: low wages, "flexible" contracts and sweatshop conditions. Informal garment and textile workers often experience isolation, invisibility and lack of power, especially those who produce from their homes (Salm *et al*., 2004).

Botswana established the textile and clothing (TC) industry during the period 1980-90 and the sector expanded rapidly as a result of the trade preferences available to it under the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) agreement, the Cotonou Agreement and the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) (www.fibre2fashion.org, 2013).

The textile and clothing sector of Botswana grew by making use of a number of policies including protective tariffs, quotas and export incentives. Furthermore, the preferential trade regimes put in place by the United States (US), the European Union (EU) and SACU were crucial to the economic growth and development of the country, the research report says (www.fibre2fashion.org, 2013).

Textiles and clothing industries are important in economic and social terms, in the short-run by providing incomes, jobs, especially for women, and foreign currency receipts and in the long run by providing countries the opportunity for sustained economic development in those countries with appropriate policies and institutions to enhance the dynamic effects of textiles and clothing. The potential of the textile and clothing industries to contribute to long-run growth and development will depend not only on the attributes (desirable or otherwise) of the investors, but also on the quality and effectiveness of government policies and institutions in developing countries to build on this investment (Keane & te Velde, 2008).

The textile and clothing industry is a huge generator of revenue and one of the biggest employers, especially of women. It also has huge prospects of empowerment, as employees who are trained in-house can use their skills to make a living outside their work places. For many years the textile industry was the biggest export revenue earner after diamonds and copper/nickel in Botswana (Salm *et al*., 2004).

Historically, the TC sector in Botswana has been linked to regional and international trade agreements that served to attract investors. The sector exists primarily because of regional and international trade agreements and not so much because the sector has a comparative or competitive advantage in the TC production. The TC sector underwent a major restructuring process in the late 1970s and early 1980s driven by the Zimbabwean firms which relocated their businesses from Zimbabwe to Francistown (Salm *et al.*, 2004). Their relocation led to the growth of the industry and this has been shown by the fact that by the end of 1980 about sixty present of foreign owned TC industries in Botswana were in the hands of Zimbabweans and most of them were exporting the majority of their production to Zimbabwe (Salm *et al.*, 2004, as quoted by Motswapong & Grynberg, 2013).

The textile and apparel sub-sector in Botswana has had a chequered history. It has seen a number of periods of impressive growth followed by periods of decline. The cyclical nature of the industry's development can be directly linked to periodic changes in Botswana's competitiveness both regionally and globally (Salm *et al*., 2004).

Due to the global economic downturn of 2008, the textile and clothing industry faced serious financial challenges, which threatened to push it to total collapse. To cushion the industry from imminent retrenchments, government created a Special Financial Support Programme-the Stimulus Package which assisted companies with payment of employee salaries during the recession. Findings from the monitoring exercise (in March 2011) carried out on firms receiving grants in the Special Support Programme for the Textile and Clothing Sector (SSP) revealed that large firms account for 67.9% of total employment; medium scale 18.9% while 13.2% of employees were in the micro and small-scale firms (*The Patriot on Sunday News*, 2014).

Korinek (2005:16) reports that export-oriented textile and clothing production has brought growth to many developing countries, providing jobs for relatively low-skilled, mostly female workers. She cites that it seems that a development strategy exclusively based on low-cost wages will not ensure long-term growth, due to the potential displacement of jobs to lower-cost countries, the phase-out of the Multi-Fibre Agreement (MFA), and the potential for reinforcement of the gender wage gap. Korinek reveals that workers in the textile and clothing industries tend to have low

skills levels, low levels of education and thus earn low wages. She explains that all of these characteristics make it more difficult for workers to adjust to changes in the labour market (Korinek, 2005:16).

There is pressing evidence, however, that employment in the textile and clothing industries is not contributing to the narrowing of the gender wage gap. The arrival of light manufacturing export-oriented jobs in developing countries has brought jobs for unskilled or low-skilled women workers, but has not permitted them to obtain higher wages or better working conditions. Wages remain significantly lower than in other manufacturing sectors where the majority of workers are men. There is also evidence that women's employment in the textile and clothing sector in developing countries is displacing women's employment in the sector in the OECD area (Korinek, 2005:15).

Gender inequality has been entrenched in all spheres of human existence since time immemorial. While it is important to establish appropriate baseline information in order to set achievable gender equality targets; it is crucial to realise that progress may be slow and envisioned outcomes may take longer than anticipated. However, instead of despondency all development planning must of necessity be systematic and human-centred, with gender specific targets. This approach should allow for effective transformative programming and associated processes, with clear targets and outcomes, as well as regular monitoring and evaluation of progress in implementing the gender and development agenda. Botswana has made considerable progress towards achieving gender equality in the prioritised critical areas of concern. However, more remains to be done to advance the rights of women and girls and to reverse the deeply and long entrenched inequalities emanating from patriarchal systems and discriminatory cultural practices (Gender Affairs Department, 2014:10-11).

There can be an assumption that women's rights have been achieved and inequality vanquished. If this were the case, there could be no need, at the beginning of the twenty-first century, for feminism, or for any feminist social activism like the women's liberation movement. Admittedly, women's entry to most professions is easier now than it was thirty years ago (Gatrell & Swan, 2008:9-10).Even though Botswana experiences low participation of women in political *decision-making*, about 40

percent of workers at senior and managerial positions are women and 53 percent of professionals and technical workers in Botswana are women, according to BIAS IV 2013 results. There is no significant difference between the gender groups in terms of attainment of secondary and higher education and participation in labour market (Botswana National Human Development Report, 2014).

The gender inequality problem in the developing countries is compounded further by the existence of very limited legal structures that support equality between the sexes (see e.g. Kibwana, 1995; Miller and Yeager, 1994, cited by Munyae, 2011). In Botswana in particular, gender inequality has received increased attention during the past two decades. The subject has been on the agenda of many development discourses in the country since the Nairobi Conference of 1985 (Selolwane, 1995, as quoted by Munyae, 2011) and has become the preoccupation of many organisations, both governmental and nongovernmental. These have organised workshops, seminars, and conferences with the objective to articulate the problems confronting women and to identify specific areas of inequality and the strategies required for eliminating them. Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) such as Emang Basadi, Botswana Caucus of Women in Politics (BCWP), Botswana National Council on Women (BNCW), Women and the Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) Research and Education Trust, and the Gender Affairs Department (formerly Women's Affairs Department (WAD)) have expended considerable resources to diagnose the various components of gender inequalities in Botswana and to prescribe remedies (Munyae, 2011*:*208).

The efforts of organisations such as NGO's and Government Departments have produced outcomes such as government commitment in the area of gender. Botswana government is a signatory to international conventions especially the Convention on the Elimination of ALL Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, and the Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development, among others. In this regard, it promulgated the National Policy on Women in Development whose major areas of focus included the elimination of all forms of inequalities and inequities among men and women in 1996 and as well as set up the Gender Affairs Department (formerly Women's Affairs Department) in the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs to deal with

gender issues. Attempts have also been made at legal restructuring involving the review of laws affecting the status of women in Botswana including the Labour Laws (including Employment Act of 1982 amended in 2003). Such progress, however, has not been able to eliminate the gender gap (Munyae, 2011:208).

Gatrell & Swan (2008:12) expressed that although women may be well-qualified, and might work in organisations purporting to have policies which offer equality of opportunity, the career ladder for women in large companies is often foreshortened, while the male ladder extends to the top of the career tree. Women are often hived off into specialist or gendered positions, such as human resources-known as the 'velvet ghetto'. They further indicate that this can have knock-on consequences such as less power and resources, shorter career ladders, less status, less value, less pay and fewer benefits. In sum, women are still segregated vertically in terms of career ladder and horizontally into particular jobs that are seen as less valued. Women and men work in different professions. Women are over-represented in service occupations, clerical jobs, sales, and professional and technical jobs, particularly in OECD countries. Men are highly over-represented in production jobs as well as in higher-paid administrative and managerial jobs (World Bank, 2001).

According to the Fourth Botswana Report on the implementation of CEDAW 2014, the Constitution of Botswana published in 1966, makes it clear that both women and men are equal before the law and does not allow for discrimination of women in any form. The report further states that Government has introduced the first Legal Aid Programme to assist women and men access justice. The programme was developed and rolled out based on Article 3 of Basic Human Rights which states that:

> State Parties shall take in all fields, in particular in the political, social, economic and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development and advancement of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men" (Gender Affairs Department, 2014:21).

Thus, women and men enjoy the same rights guaranteed in the Constitution of Botswana published in 1966. This indicates that in Botswana, there is no

discrimination in terms of the law whether you are a man or woman to be hired in any industry, for example, manufacturing. It depends on the qualification a person has acquired. Despite this, the textile and clothing industry is the largest employer in the manufacturing sector with predominant female employment (Motswapong & Grynberg, 2013:2).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Trade expansion typically results in an increase in labour-intensive exports from developing countries. Production of many of these exports requires manual dexterity and stamina but not great physical strength. Employers in these industries often prefer to hire women, and the growth of exports such as garments, shoes, jewellery, and electronics has almost always been accompanied by a significant increase in female wage employment in the formal sector (The World Bank, 2004).

According to Statistics Botswana Labour Force Report of the Population census of 2011, released in May 2015, there are more females than males hired in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. This is the case in 2010 and in 2011.Table 1.1 below reflects the data of labour force in the textile and clothing industry in Botswana.

Table 1.1 Labour Force in the textile and clothing industry

Year	Males	Females
2011	2091	5509
2010	1756	5471

Source*:* Statistics Botswana, Population Census, 2011

Evidently, Botswana has made progress in the advancement of women in the public service where women constitute the majority of employees than in the other sectors of the economy. However, the statistics indicate that women hold less than half of the *decision-making* positions. Furthermore, representation of women in political *decision-making* is the lowest in Botswana compared to other African countries such as Republic of South Africa. Thus, there is a need to explore ways through which

women's representation can be enhanced in all sectors and at all levels (Gender Affairs Department, 2014:38)

Studies indicate that in the rural garment factories, women workers are machine operators or helpers or are engaged in related tasks. Consequently, they are classified as low-skilled assembly line workers. The studies further reveal that a low percentage of women working in the factory reach positions of line leaders, supervisor or quality controller, where others are labourers. On the other hand, men constitute high percentage in the positions of machine operators, line leaders, supervisors, quality controllers, storekeepers and managers (The World Bank, 2004; El Haddad, 2010).

Thus, the research problem is *"Despite Botswana's support for equality in the workplace* ***the textile and clothing industry seemingly still sits with gender inequality and employs more females than males, more especially as low-skilled labourers and seemingly women are not represented equally in senior positions. Thus, what is the current situation with women in senior management roles and, what are the barriers and/ or factors which results in women not being hired or promoted to management positions in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana?"***

1.3 THE RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The main aim of the study is to explore gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. It is envisaged that the study will make a positive contribution to organisations which intend to improve gender equality in order to be in business for the long term and have a competitive advantage. Moreover, the findings and recommendations would assist policy-makers to come up with new or amend the policies regarding gender issues such as gender inequality in the workplace**.** The study fills in the gap in the literature regarding gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry within a specific context.

1.4 PRIMARY GOAL OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 The main aim of the study is to investigate gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana.

Secondary goals of the study

The secondary goals of the study are as follows;

1.4.2 To review literature on gender inequality in the workplace.

1.4.3 To determine the demographic representation of females and males in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana

1.4.4 To identify the criteria used to hire employees.

1.4.5 To identify barriers for women to be promoted and or hired in management positions.

1.4.6 To determine the effects of gender inequality in the production and or performance of the textile and clothing industry.

1.5 Delimitations of the study

The study was limited to the textile and clothing industry located in Gaborone, Botswana. This is largely because the companies in Gaborone are well-established compared to other parts of the country (such as villages). Moreover, the textile and clothing industry in Gaborone keeps proper records which the researcher utilised as a secondary data source. The study was also limited to companies in Gaborone only because of limited resources and time which would not allow the researcher to conduct the research nation-wide.

1.6 Research design and methodology

The aim of this chapter is to identify and explain the research approach, strategy and its related techniques. To meet the aims and objectives of the study it is important to select the most appropriate design for achieving the aims of the study (Parahoo,

2006). A research design provides the glue that holds the research project together (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:35-36). The function of the research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to answer the initial question as much as possible. Hence, to obtain the relevant evidence in this study, a designed questionnaire was utilised to collect data from both the management team and low-skilled labourers from the textile and clothing industry.

1.6.1 Research approach and processes

The primary purpose of this research is to investigate why the textile and clothing industry employs more females than males, more especially as low/semi-skilled labourers and seemingly, women are not represented equally in senior positions. Thus, what is the situation with women in senior management roles and, what are the barriers and or factors which prevent women from being hired and or promoted in management positions in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana?"

1.6.1.1 Research processes

1.6.1.1.1 By reviewing literature, the methodology adopted in the proposed study and data collected will be used to understand and analyse gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana.

1.6.1.1.2 To use the company's personnel records to determine the demographic representation of females and males in the company.

1.6.1.1.3 To use the collected information from the participants to identify the criteria used to hire employees.

1.6.1.1.4 To use the collected information from the participants and from the literature review to determine the barriers for women from being promoted or hired in management positions.

1.6.1.1.5 To use the collected information from the participants to determine the effects of gender inequality on the productivity and or performance of the textile and clothing industry.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009:152) believe that a mixed methods approach is appropriate when both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures are used in a research design. The researcher chose to use both approaches as the research questions required it. Furthermore, the researcher was able to look into all areas of the subject at hand and give thorough discussion and analysis. The quantitative method assisted in the analysis of information gathered from the participants (Management team and low-skilled labourers) via the designed questionnaire. On the other hand, the qualitative method assisted in the analysis of the qualitative data. Berndt and Petzer (2012) confirmed that qualitative methods attempt to develop an understanding of how participants experience a specific outcome or incident. Hence, the qualitative approach guided the researcher in understanding the subject of data collected from the participants (management team and low-skilled labourers) and defining the concepts whereas the quantitative approach involved questionnaires (which contained questions related to the research problem and objectives of the study) and the analysis of data.

The study adopted primary and secondary data. The primary data was the response from the management team such as Directors, Production managers, Supervisors and Human resource managers. Primary data was also collected from low-skilled labourers whom the researcher assisted to complete their response on the spot in the designed questionnaire. The management teams from the textile and clothing industry were selected to participate in this study, since they were considered to have more information relevant to the study, that is, they were information-rich sources. The secondary data was the relevant information obtained for the study from the company's personnel records such as employees' statistics (number of male and female employees). Moreover, the secondary data was also obtained from various sources such as journals, articles, books and literature review. With this medium of data collection, relevant information on the subject matter was obtained. Thus, it gave the study a high level of credibility.

1.6.2 Settings, population and sampling

The study was to be conducted from a total of twelve companies in Gaborone, Botswana. The researcher chose this location because it is convenient and accessible in terms of time, distance and costs.

Population is defined as the group of people, items or units under investigation (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:73). Since the population is often too large and logistically unmanageable to study directly, obtaining information from a selected sample is more practical, easier and accurate (Pienaar, 2014). In this study the target population is the management team (Managing Director/Director(s), Production Manager and Human Resources Manager) and low-skilled labourers from the textile and clothing industry.

Sampling is the act, process or technique of selecting a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population. The purpose of sampling is to draw conclusions about populations from samples using inferential statistics, which enables the researcher to determine a population's characteristics by directly observing an enumeration of the population for many reasons. Obviously, it is cheaper to observe a part of the population rather than the whole population (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:74).

The researcher opted to use probability and non-probability sampling in this study. The researcher utilised the simple random sampling as a starting point in the study. A simple random sample ensures that every unit in the sampling frame has an equal chance of being selected. It is free from sampling bias (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:80). The low-skilled labourers from the textile and clothing industry as well as the companies in Gaborone were selected using simple random sampling. The companies were classified in large, medium and small categories. The random sampling was performed separately for each company to select the participants from the low- skilled labourers. The researcher obtained the names of all the support staff from each of the companies. The list of the low-skilled labourers formed a sample frame from which the researcher selected the employees at random by assigning a number to each name and picking the numbers out of a box until the sample size had been reached.

The researcher furthermore used a non-probability sampling technique, that is, convenience sampling to select the management level from the textile and clothing industry. According to Cooper and Schindler (2011:167), convenience sampling is the process whereby researchers select any readily available individuals as participants. They cite that this kind of sampling is the least reliable, but is normally

the cheapest and easiest to conduct. Available sample of the management team (Director(s), Production Manager, Human Resource Manager(s) and line manager) from the textile and clothing industry was interviewed by the researcher. The reason non-probability sampling to select the participants from the management team was used is that most of the questions in the study were to be answered by them. Furthermore, convenience sampling was utilised to select the management team in the textile and clothing industry because they are information rich participants.

The sample size for the study was 84 respondents from twelve textile and clothing companies in Botswana, who completed questionnaires. That is, seven (7) respondents from each company, totalling 84. Three (3) participants from the management team (Managing Director/Director, Production Manager, line manager(s) and Human Resources Manager) and four (4) employees (low-skilled labourers) in each selected company were identified to participate in this study.

1.6.3 Data-collection method

Data was collected from the participants by the designed questionnaire (semi-structured). Moreover, the secondary data such as company's personnel records and a literature study was utilised.

The designed questionnaire consisted of four (4) sections, namely*:* Section A*:* Demographic information about the participants; Section B*:* Requirements of employment which are closed questions; Section C*:* Criteria to hire employees which are the open-ended questions and Section D*:* Opinion of the participants regarding the recruitment into the management position and gender equality, which are measured on a five point Likert scale. Each questionnaire had a covering letter, explaining the purpose of the study, indicating the estimated completion time of the questionnaire as well as assuring the participants that their responses would be confidential and their names would remain anonymous.

The data was planned to be collected from 84 participants from twelve textile and clothing industry plants using the designed questionnaire. The researcher requested permission to conduct the research from the management of each of the textile and clothing industry companies. After permission had been granted, the researcher

made an appointment with the relevant person from each of the textile and clothing industry (selected companies) telephonically concerning when to collect the data.

1.6.4 Data analysis and interpretation

The data was analysed and interpreted after collection. For the quantitative part descriptive statistics were used to determine frequency and percentage reflected by the quantitative data. The data was also illustrated using tables, pie charts and graphs. Analysis of qualitative data was carried out on the written response from the open ended questions in the questionnaires. The researcher coded the response to make data actionable.

1.7 Overview of chapters

The study is divided into five chapters as follows;

Chapter One: Introduction:

The chapter provides a detailed explanation of the background of the study, the rationale of the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, primary goal of the study, secondary goals of the study, research processes, research methodology, delimitation of the study, layout of the chapters and conclusion.

Chapter Two: Literature review

It reveals what previous research says in relation to the study.

Chapter Three: Research methodology.

It explains the research design, research approach, data-collection methods, instrument, sample size and sampling techniques implemented in the study.

Chapter Four: Data analysis and results/findings of the study.

This chapter explains the data analysis and presents the results and findings.

Chapter Five: Discussion, conclusion and recommendations.

This chapter draws everything together and discusses the findings in answering the research questions. It also provides recommendations for further research and managerial implications.

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter mainly looked at the introductory elements of the research project. The researcher pointed out that the research will focus on gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. Furthermore, the research problem, rationale of the study, primary goal, secondary goals, research processes and approach, research methodology, delimitations of the study and layout of the chapters were outlined.

It has been revealed that the textile and clothing industry is a huge generator of revenue and one of the biggest employers, especially of women. Employees in the textile and clothing industries tend to have low-skills levels, low levels of education and thus earn low wages.

The overview of gender inequality was outlined. This chapter reveals that gender inequality is a worldwide problem. Countries are trying by all means to improve gender equality in the workplace but there is little progress. Women are still under-represented in the upper management positions. Under the textile and clothing industry, they are hired mostly as low-skilled labourers in most of countries such as Botswana. Women are over-represented in service occupations such as clerical jobs, sales, and professional and technical jobs, particularly in OECD countries. Men are highly over-represented in production jobs as well as in higher-paid administrative and managerial jobs.

The next chapter will reveal more on the textile and clothing industry of Botswana and internationally, gender inequality in the workplace, barriers to women to being promoted and/ or hired in management positions and the conclusion.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study has been to investigate gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. In this section, existing literature is reviewed seeking to explore and gain a theoretical understanding of the textile and clothing industry and gender inequality. The chapter focuses on;

- Overview of the textile and clothing Industry
- Gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry in Botswana and internationally
- Overview of gender inequality in the workplace
- Barriers to women being promoted and/ or hired into senior and management positions
- Conclusion

2.2 Overview of the textile and clothing industries

The textiles, clothing and footwear manufacturing industries cover all stages of production of textiles, clothing, footwear and leather products, from processing of raw materials such as cotton, wool, leather and synthetics, through to the production of final goods such as clothes, shoes, household linen, carpets and industrial textiles. Generally, textile manufacture covers the processing of raw materials, both natural and synthetic, into yarns, fabrics and textile products spinning, weaving, knitting and finishing and cutting and sewing of fabrics into finished products other than apparel. In addition to woven and knitted textile products such as carpets and towels, there is also a non-woven textiles industry producing products such as felts, cleaning cloths, medical apparel and industrial textiles (Business Intelligence GGDA, 2014:2).

Textiles and clothing play a major role in the development and industrialisation process of countries and their integration into the world economy. The WTO (2006) notes that in 2004, developing countries as a group (low and middle income

countries) accounted for more than half of all world exports of textiles and clothing and that in no other category of manufactured goods do developing countries enjoy such a large net-exporting position (Business Intelligence GGDA, 2014).

The textile and clothing (TC) industries are very important for a handful of countries, in terms of trade, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and employment and have contributed significantly in several other countries. The TC industries provide opportunities for export diversification and expansion of manufactured exports for low-income countries that can exploit their labour cost advantages and fill emerging niches and meet buyer demands. There are also dynamic effects of TC industries and these dynamic effects are greater, where more linkages have been built up between the garment industry and local textile suppliers (Keane & te Velde, 2008).

The textile and clothing industry has the opportunity to create jobs and contribute immensely to the economic growth of the Botswana. It can be described as the diamond that can contribute to the economic diversification that the country is looking for.

Salm *et al.,* (2004) cite that the textile and clothing industry in particular is an ideal formal employment entry point for the poor. They further assert that the textile and clothing industry can also absorb relatively large numbers of employees where they can make an economic contribution and earn a cash wage even if they are not particularly well educated or literate.

The textile and clothing (TC) industry also contributes significantly to the empowerment of women. Job creation in the TC industry has been particularly strong for women in poor countries who previously had no income opportunities other than the household or the informal sector (Nordas, 2004, as quoted by Keane & te Velde, 2008). According to Keane and te Velde (2008), employment in global production is not inherently negative for women, as working in exports is better than working in the domestic economy, or being unemployed. They cite that there are notable differences in the ratio of male to female employment in the textile and clothing industries across countries and regions. They further explain that this is due to the physical demands of textile production being greater than that of clothing

production; and the context-specific nature of male and female relations and their roles within society.

Several trade incentives available to African countries including, the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA), the Cotonou Agreement with the European Union (EU), and the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) agreement, help in the revival of the African textile and clothing industry. The textile and clothing industry in Sub-Saharan Africa also has high potential for investments mainly due to the duty free access to the traditional markets such as the US and the EU, according to industry representatives (www.fibre2fashion.org, 2013).

According to the International Manufacturers' Federation (IMF), the total apparel exports from Africa under the duty free quota (free exports) to the US in 2012 were about US$ 2 billion. The official statistics from the US Department of Commerce state that Sub-Saharan African countries, including Lesotho, Mauritius and Kenya, exported textiles and garments worth US$ 815.310 million under AGOA in 2012 (www.fibre2fashion.org, 2013).

2.2.1 Textile and clothing industry- international perspective

The textile and clothing industry is considered the most labour-intensive sector of manufacturing and a very important employer, particularly in many poor communities, of low- skilled workers for whom few other opportunities exist. The textile sector employs a significant number of women in South Africa likewise in Botswana (MATRADE Johannesburg, 2007).

The **South African** fashion industry, including all its different sectors (manufacturing, retail, media and recruitment sectors), is the fifth largest employment sector in the country today. Combined, the industry and its affiliates generate an annual income of several billion South African rand, and are somewhat comparable in size to the domestic property investment market (Business Intelligence GGDA, 2014:2).

The textile and clothing industry in **South Africa** is a relatively small sector within the country's economy. However, it has the potential to be a significant employer within the manufacturing sector. The South African government is therefore supporting the development of textile and clothing industry clusters by helping with investment in

infrastructure and implementation of best practice, and providing incentives through the Competitiveness Improvement Programme (CIP) and the Production Incentive Programme (PIP). In the retail sector, demand has expanded as a result of growth in the economy since the global recession of 2009. However, the main beneficiaries of the expansion have been foreign suppliers mainly in Asia and other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and clothing imports have grown significantly in recent years (Textile Outlook International, 2013).

In 2013, the Clothing, Textiles, Footwear and Leather (CTFL) industry accounted for about 14% of manufacturing employment and represented South Africa's second largest source of tax revenue. The industry facilitates an estimated 60 to 80 000 jobs (down from 120 000 jobs) and contributes around 8% to the country's GDP. The number of jobs decreased from around 181 000 in 2002 to only 80 000 in 2013. However, government's rescue plan for the textile and clothing industry, the Clothing and Textiles Competitiveness Programme (CTCP), which was outlined in 2009, has helped to recover the industry in recent years (www.mediaclubsouthafrica.com and www.capeclothingcluser.org.za).

In **Zambia**, the textile and clothing industry is labour-intensive and hence, it can greatly contribute to employment and wealth creation at all stages of its value chain. Through the Commercial Industrialization Policy 2009-14 and the 2013 Strategic Paper on Industrialization and Job Creation, the Government of Zambia identified the textile and garment industry as one of the priority sectors that can drive economic growth in the country (www.fibre2fashion.org, 2014).

The textile and clothing sector has been at the heart of the economic success of **Mauritius**. The TC sector appeared in the Mauritian government's agenda for the first time in Meade's Report in the 1960s. James Meade conducted a study on the Mauritian economy to find a solution for diversifying the sugar-based mono-crop economy. Meade advocated for the setting up of labour-intensive industries if Mauritius does not want to face the problem of 'Malthusian Trap'. The setting up of the textile and clothing industry was successful in terms of income generation, employment creation and capacity building for local entrepreneurs. The success of the textile and clothing industry of Mauritius lies on three fundamental aspects:

Conducive environment for investment, exogenous factors and preferential trade arrangements (Joomun, 2006*:*193).

The success story of the textile and clothing sector coincides with many important changes in Mauritian society. It has undeniably contributed to the economic development of the country but it has also brought about important social changes such as emancipation of women. The textile and clothing sector has employed and is still employing a majority of women. Women, who were traditionally seen as housewives and who did not even get access to formal education, represented an important pool of labour for industrialists. Women also were and still are bringing income to their families. This has obviously brought a change in the role of woman; from a dependent housewife to an independent income earner (Joomun, 2006*:*201-202).

Textiles and clothing play an important role in **Egypt's** economy, notably their contribution to employment, value added, and foreign exchange earnings. Textile and clothing enterprises account for a fifth of all industrial sector firms, being the largest single employer with over 400,000 workers, that is almost a quarter of the industrial labour force (Industrial Development Authority 2009, as cited by El Haddai, 2010). In 2008 the industry accounted for 26.4 percent of industrial production with a total value added of LE 33.5 billion (Ministry of State for Economic Development (MOED) 2008), and close to 10 percent of the country's exports (International Trade Centre, 2008). The government has long utilised this sector to absorb Egypt's growing labour force and help tackle unemployment problems and generate incomes to about half a million Egyptian families. The growth of the sector was hoped to move workers away from the informal sector with worse, less secure, working conditions and low returns (El Haddai, 2010*:*1).

According to the Southern African Trade Hub (SATH) estimates, in 2010 about 314,000 people were directly employed in the SADC's formal sector textile and apparel manufacturing value chain – and more than 80% of these were women. Most of SADC's textile and apparel manufacturing enterprises are located in urban and peri-urban areas and are staffed by low-skilled workers who have often lost most contact with rural farming areas. The incomes earned by these city dwellers play an

important role in poverty alleviation and provides food security to people who generally have no access to land (Bennette *et al.*, 2011:6).

Although most studies on gender and equity in TC production find a gender bias against women in both working conditions and financial remuneration, employment levels are often in favour of women, e.g. 90% of garment workers in Bangladesh (nearly 1.5 million female workers) and **Cambodia** (around 250,000) are young females (Keane & te Velde, 2008).

Throughout the world, women are supporting themselves and their families by working in the factories that link global supply chains. Women represent roughly 80 percent of the global workforce in garment manufacturing, and a large percentage of workers in other manufacturing sectors such as home goods and electronics. In **China**, the story is no different. According to the All-China Federation of Trade Unions, the population of female workers from 1988 to the present day has increased by almost 63 percent, and many of these female workers are found in light manufacturing (BSR Report China, 2013).

One of the women in a factory in China said, “Men take up all the manager positions”. “Factories like to recruit men as managers because; they believe men are more capable and less bound by family issues” (BSR Report China, 2013). This is an indication that women in some cases are not given the opportunity to work as managers. They are still bound to by a culture which discriminate women against.

The textile and clothing industry in **India** traditionally, after agriculture, is the only industry that has generated huge employment for both skilled and unskilled labour in textiles. The textile industry continues to be the second largest employment generating sector in India. It offers direct employment to over 35 million in the country. The share of textiles in total exports was 11.04% during April–July 2010, as per the Ministry of Textiles. During 2009-2010, Indian textiles industry was pegged at US$55 billion, 64% of which services domestic demand. In 2010, there were 2,500 textile weaving factories and 4,135 textile finishing factories in all of India.

In **Thailand**, the garment industry is the largest export industry, accounting for 60 per cent of total exports (NSO, 2012). A survey by the National Statistics Office

found that, among subcontracted workers, about half of non-agricultural home-based employment was related to garments and textiles (NSO, 2007). Thailand's Office of Home-worker Protection (OHWP) estimated there were over 950,000 home-workers in 2005, the majority women. Home-Net Thailand believes the number could be as high as two million.

In **Bangladesh** the garment industry is the principal export earner for that country. In the late 1990s, it employed an estimated 350,000 workers in formal and semi-formal employment, making it the fourth largest employing sector (Bajaj, 1999:19). Although there are no estimates on the number of home-based garment workers, the Bangladesh Home Workers Association (BHWA) believes there are millions of home-based garment workers, as entire rural families are involved in traditional embroidery work (Bajaj, 1999:19). Garment workers around the world, especially those who do the basic stitching of children's and women's garments, are predominantly women. Also, the vast majority of home-workers are women.

In Bangladesh, the export-oriented growth in textile and clothing has largely benefited young women occupy the majority of jobs in the sector. Employment in the clothing sector is marked by relatively low levels of unionisation and wages. Despite increasing employment opportunities for women, daily wages for women in Bangladesh were about 40% below those of men during the mid-1990s (OECD, 2005a).

According to an article by Professor Woodruff and Machiavello, the data collected within factories reveals that out of every five production line workers are female, whilst just over one in 20 supervisors is a woman. If indeed workers were promoted on the basis of merit, this would mean that currently 95 percent of the managerial talent in factories emerges from 20 percent of the workforce. This begs the question as to whether it is efficient for factory owners not to invest in women, whilst at the same time the industry suffers from a scarcity of skilled workers (Sebastio, 2014).

El Haddad (2010:11) cites that exporting firms (textile and clothing) hire relatively more women compared to non-exporting firms. The findings of her research reveals that 41% of women were hired in exporting firms compared to 34% of non-exporting firms. She cites that these firms also have a lower hourly wage gap. In his finding,

the gap is LE2.32 for non-exporting firms but only 67 piasters for exporting firms, i.e. a third of that for non-exporting firms. El Haddad indicates that this finding is consistent with the evidence from India showing that the wage gap is less in sectors with a greater export orientation and using **German** firm-level data, find a smaller wage gap in firms which export more.

Studies reveal that there is a pay gap in the textile and clothing industry with men receiving an hourly wage 29 percent higher than that of women. El Haddad (2010) cites that this gap arises partly as women are concentrated in the lower-paid occupations and the lower-paying firms such as the textile and clothing industry. She indicates that there is clear a 'glass ceiling' in effect with women least represented in the highest paying management positions. Furthermore, she believes outright discrimination is the sole reason for discrimination within the TC industry and could be partially explained by the difference between the role society expects of men and that it expects of women, the former being the main bread earner.

The above international perspective indicates challenges with regard to gender inequality, whereas males benefit more than females. That is, there is evidence of gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry. Females are concentrated in lower-paying occupations and are less represented in the highest management positions. Furthermore, the pay gap does exist in the textile and clothing industry.

2.2.2 The textile and clothing industry in Botswana

The development of the textile and clothing (TC) sector has been vital to the economic interests of Botswana over the last twenty years as the sector has provided an important source of semi-skilled employment, which alleviates poverty, especially for women and has generated export revenue. This sector has traditionally benefited from a number of policies including relatively high Southern African Customs Union (SACU) tariffs, quotas and export incentives. Botswana has preferential access to important markets for TC products such as the United States (US), through the Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) and European Union (EU) markets. AGOA has had a significant impact on the country's TC sector by

providing duty free access to the US market. The preferential trade agreements are crucial to economic growth and the development of any country, hence they created Botswana's TC sector's potential (Motswapong & Grynberg, 2013:12).

According to a report by the Botswana Institute for Development Policy Analysis (2012:2), the textile and clothing industry of Botswana grew by making use of a number of policies including protective tariffs, quotas and export incentives. Furthermore, the preferential trade regimes put in place by the US, the EU and SACU were also crucial to the economic growth and development of the country.

Botswana's textile and clothing exports also enjoy duty and quota-free access to markets in Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa and Swaziland through the SACU Agreement and thus products produced within the union move freely within the common customs area. Furthermore, Botswana's exports including TC are also admitted duty and quota free to the EU market through the Interim Economic Partnership Agreement (IEPA). Botswana also has a free trade agreement with Zimbabwe that started in the early 1950s. SACU, in order to encourage exports in the region, introduced a Duty Credit Certificate Scheme (DCCS). Under this scheme firms earned Duty Credit Certificates (DCC) whenever they exported products outside the SACU market and a firm will then claim a remission of duties on imports of certain prescribed TC products. The DCCS was then replaced by the Textile and Clothing Industry Development Programme (TCIDP) (Motswapong & Grynberg, 2013:12).

The Government of Botswana (GoB), through the Ministry of Trade and Industry developed a rescue plan to resuscitate the sector owing to concerns over the job losses and declining production in the sector. The rescue plan came about after the 2008 global recession which forced some of the companies to close down. A total of P38 million was set aside for the support measure covering a period of two years, i.e. 2010 to 2011. The programme benefited 237 companies comprising 209 small and micro, fifteen medium and thirteen large-scale companies. The industry suggested that the support measure created more than 2000 jobs in two years (2010 to 2011) and this included workers who were retrenched in 2008 due to the recession and were re-employed after the industry was given a rescue package. The average total employment in the sector was 2816 in January 2010 that was covered

by the support measure and at the end of 2011 it was 5707, of which 90 percent were women, showing that the scheme has positively benefited the sector. Large firms accounted for 69.6 percent of total employment, medium scale 15.3 percent and 15.1 percent of employees were in the small and micro firms; the support measure expired at the end of 2011 (Motswapong & Grynberg, 2013).

In 1982, the Botswana government introduced the Financial Assistance Policy (FAP) aimed at providing incentives for prospective and existing investors. This policy contributed substantially to the growth of the industry by providing direct financial assistance in the form of grants to private sector firms. In addition, the FAP was aimed at creating employment opportunities and encouraging investment in a range of economic activities by providing incentives and subsidies. The government decided to phase out the FAP in 2000. FAP was then replaced by the Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency (CEDA), which was designed to increase the citizen economic empowerment by providing training, mentoring, monitoring and loans (instead of the previous FAP grants) and this led to the decline in employment and exports in the textile and clothing industry. Ever since the phasing out of the FAP, the TC industry in Botswana has faced many challenges (Salm *et al.*, 2004).

The Botswana Constitution recognises and acknowledges that women and men are equal before the law and gender dimensions remain central in the country's development agenda. Generally, structures are in place in both Government and non-Governmental organisations through which gender issues are addressed. In an effort to promote gender equality, the Government established the Gender Affairs Department (formerly Women's Affairs Department) whose primary role is to promote the enhancement of the status of women within the Botswana society **(**Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs Report, 2008).

Significant progress has been made to eradicate abject poverty and improve women’s economic well-being. Overall, Botswana has performed well in promoting women’s economic empowerment although women are predominantly found in the low paying jobs, especially in the informal sector such as the textile and clothing sector (Gender Affairs Department, 2014:9).

2.3 Overview of gender inequality

Gender inequality is systemic and entrenched in the structures, norms, values and perspectives of the state and civil society. It is pervasive but it is also often hidden, complex and insidious. The emancipation of women and the attainment of equality in the political, economic, social, cultural and civic spheres are long-term processes of social transformation that fundamentally challenge the way in which society is organized. At the level of the state it requires a new approach to the formulation and implementation of policy. Decision-makers need to develop new ways of thinking about the world; bureaucrats need to understand these in implementing policies, programmes and laws; and parliaments need to translate this thinking into law. At the level of civil society, women and men need to educate themselves and each other about the causes and manifestations of, and the solutions to, gender inequality and patriarchy (OSW, 2000*:*25, cited by Nkatumba, 2010).

Women, girls, men and boys experience discrimination and exclusion from the industrial sector for different reasons – however, women and girls tend to experience greater bias specifically because of pre-existing inequalities that are found at personal, situational, and structural levels (societal / cultural, organizational / institutional, and policy). Some of these include*:* lack of control of personal resources including income; low access to technology; geographical disadvantage; gender differentials in earnings; and bias in local, state and federal laws and regulations. Gender inequality means that individuals – especially women and girls – face barriers to participating in, accessing, benefitting and controlling resources and rights (Hausmann *et al.*, 2012).

2.3.1 Gender inequality in the workplace

Acker (2006*:*443) cites the forms of inequality, discrimination and oppression in the workplace which varies and include, among others, systematic disparities between participants in power and control over goals, resources, and outcomes; workplace decisions such as how to organize work; opportunities for promotion and interesting work; security in employment and benefits; pay and other monetary rewards; respect; and pleasures in work and work relations.

There are several unique causes and consequences of gender inequality within the manufacturing industries. These include, among others: Discriminatory local, state, federal laws and statutes, regulations, standards and rights; Low participation of women in leadership and *decision-making* positions; lack of gender-sensitive public sector spending, including a dearth of gender budgeting and audits; low levels of affirmative action and quota policies for women in national and state level development and welfare provision; low levels of public expenditure in health-care, education and training, child-care and infrastructure, including clean water and roads; gender-blind industrial policies, including low levels of industry competence and political will to work on gender issues; lack of recognition of women's 'reproductive'/unpaid work and lack of sex-disaggregated data (UNIDO, 2009).

Gender inequality is of concern—a 2010 Peking University survey of 3,000 workers revealed rampant workplace gender discrimination in recruitment, compensation, promotion, rights protection, and retirement. Cultural norms also influence women's roles in the workplace. While China historically has emphasized gender equality more than many other countries in the region, gender is still an important factor determining who does what job. Low-wage women workers in particular have limited access to the training opportunities needed to improve their management and communications skills (BSR Reports China, 2013).

The gender gap is not enormous (ranges between 0.93 and 0.98). However, it is to be noted that women constitute a major proportion of the population and also are predominate as employees in the civil service. These numbers tend to mask real income disparities and inequalities between women and men. Women in the civil service tend to occupy lower level positions in organisational structures, and are therefore, at the lower end of pay structures (Gender Affairs Department, 2012).

The Botswana Public Service has numerous organisational structures such as Ministries and independent bodies such as agencies and commissions. The Public Service covers all of the spheres of governance such as Political Administration, Public Administration and Law and Justice Administration. Except for the Permanent Secretaries and Leaders who are exclusively appointed by the State President as per the constitutional provisions, each Ministry appoints its own leadership team

ranging from the Directors to other ranks of power and *decision-making* (Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs Report, 2008).

Table 2.1 presents the share of *decision-making* positions between women and men in the public service **as per the Report of Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs.**

Table 2.1*:* General data on Civil Service decision- makers

Grade	**Female**	**Male**	**Total**
D1	173 (41%)	250 (59%)	423 (100%)
E2	88 (40%)	133 (60%)	221 (100%)
E1	27 (28%)	61 (69%)	88 (100%)
F2	19 (28%)	56 (72%)	78 (100%)
F1	11 (31%)	25 (69%)	36 (100%)
F0	5 (18%)	23 (82%)	28 (100%)
Total	**323**	**548**	**874 (100%)**
Percentage	**37%**	**63%**	**100%**

Source: DPSM July 2008.

Men occupy 63% of the Civil Service *decision-making* positions compared to women who occupy 37% of the Public Service *decision-making* positions. Women hold the lowest number of appointment to the salary grade of F0 (18%) while men hold the highest number of appointment to the same salary grade (82%). The majority of the decision makers are in the D1 position, followed by E2 and progressively become less the further up scale.

Women are employed in junior ministerial positions or leading ministries dealing with issues traditionally seen as falling within the women's sphere, such as women's affairs and social welfare (Mycotelwa, 2013).

In its 2008 Country Report to CEDAW, the South African government reported that women in South Africa still earn less than their male counterparts and have higher rates of unemployment (OSW, 2008*:*93). The report pointed out that government has put in place measures to address discrimination in the workplace and has enacted the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998. Various codes of good practice have been developed. These include the Code of Good Practice on the Integration of

Employment Equity in Human Resources Policies and Practice; Code of Good Practice on Key Aspects of Employment; and the Code of Good Practice on the Employment of People with Disabilities (OSW, 2008:96).

According to Statistics South Africa, the unemployment rate in the Republic of South Africa for women and men in the quarter January to March 2015 was **28.7 %** and **24.4%**, respectively. For the quarter of April to June 2015, it was **27.3%**for women and **23.1%** for men (Statistics SA, 2015). In Botswana, the case is not different. According to Statistics Botswana Labour Force Report of May 2015, the unemployment rate of females and males were **50.9%** and **40.1%,** respectively. These statistics indicate that, in general the unemployment rate for women is higher than for men (Statistics Botswana, 2015).

In Botswana, males are employed in more senior positions than their female counterparts. Table 2.2 following depicts the employment by occupation in the Population Housing Census of 2011.

Table 2.2*:* Employment by occupation

Occupation	**Males (000)**	**Females (000)**
Manager/Administrators	18	9
Professionals	20	18
Technician	20	28
Clerks	11	31
Skilled agricultural workers	32	15
Craft workers	70	15
Plant and machine operators	49	1

Source*:* Statistics Botswana, Population Census 2011

According to Statistics South Africa, men in the Republic of South Africa are hired in more management positions than women. The following table 2.3 depicts the quarterly labour force of the Republic of South Africa; based on the occupational categories determined by the Act.

Table 2.3 Quarterly Labour Force of the Republic of South Africa

	Jan-Mar 2014	Apr-Jun 2014	Jul-Sep 2014	Oct-Dec 2014	Jan-Mar 2015	Apr-Jun 2015
	In thousands (000)					
Manager						
Women	420	404	419	428	385	383
Men	923	884	939	909	867	863
Professional						
Women	389	396	414	297	402	**386**
Men	488	526	504	357	379	**364**
Technician						
Women	904	885	889	810	770	785
Men	677	706	679	657	650	694
Plant and machine operators						
Women	159	159	167	200	177	182
Men	1 104	1 100	1 103	1 116	1 148	1 189
Clerk						
Women	1 131	1 164	1 101	1 198	1 165	1 214
Men	479	487	500	552	505	423

Source*:* Statistics South Africa Labour Force Participation

Table 2.2 and 2.3 above indicate that most of the managers in Botswana and the Republic of South Africa are men. More women are found in the technician occupations than men. Unsurprisingly, the number of men is higher than of women in the plant and machine operators and the number of women is higher than that of

men in the clerk occupation. These results reveal that women are still occupying lower paying positions.

According to Olatunde (2010), the increased participation of women in politics remains a continuous struggle as gender inequality still exists in Nigeria. Although there has been a slight increase in the number of women in politics, the opportunities are generally available to those who are part of the elite and who benefit from the high levels of nepotism through family connections or connection by marriage.

Botha (2013) cites that despite all legislative measures and well-intended initiatives, the number of women in mining is still relatively low and they are mainly employed in administrative and supportive positions in the industry in countries such as Botswana and Republic of South Africa. According to the Mining Charter Impact Assessment Report (DMR, 2009:8, as quoted by Botha, 2013), only 26% of mining companies have managed to comply with the requirement of 10% women participating in mining in 2009. The report further reveals that the average rate of female participation in the mining industry was 6%, of whom most were occupied in supportive functions and less than 1% held core management positions, which was largely filled by white women.

Gatrell and Swan (2008:2) believe that women from a range of social locations are still held back by the existence of a wide range of formal and informal organisational practices and processes, often referred to as the ‘glass ceiling’. They further attest that in terms of career advancement, black and minority ethnic workers experience what is called the ‘concrete ceiling’ and are often pushed by employers into roles which give them responsibility for diversity in their workplace, but which are not recognised when it comes to promotion or recognition. Ahmed *et al.* (2006, as quoted by Gatrell & Swan, 2008) cite that the workers experience a range of racisms.

2.4 Barriers to women to being promoted and/ or recruited in senior or management positions

The global environment has become exceedingly competitive, and good employees enable corporations to compete. A top-quality human resources system provides a

strategic advantage, yet companies worldwide draw from a restricted pool of potential managers. Although women constitute over 50% of the world's population, in no country do they represent half, or even close to half of the corporate managers (Adler & Izraeli, 1988:3).

Throughout the world and for much of history, women have had dual roles as income generators (workers) and wives/mothers/caregivers, while men have largely functioned as income generators (Glick and Sahn 1998, Glick 2002, as quoted by AfDB 2011). Although women's representation in the workforce has increased dramatically over the past 30 years, they continue to assume most of the family and household responsibilities. Even in the developed world where gender roles in the household have evolved over several decades, significant inequality remains. This duality in women's lives has resulted in gender inequality, not only in the household and the labour market, but also in women's social position and well-being (AfDB, 2011).

Despite equal opportunity legislation, for example the Employment Equity Act of the Republic of South Africa, (Department of Labour, 1998) as well as decades of work by women fighting for equal opportunities, professional women seem to be making very little progress up the corporate ladder (Catalyst, 2007 as quoted by Mycotelwa, 2013).

Women's economic empowerment is defined in the context of the environment in which they operate; hence the definition is in terms of access to productive resources such as market, land and assets and the assessment of inheritance, marital laws and social norms that necessitates the progress of women. Participation of women in politics and *decision-making* positions is one of the indicators of empowerment of women. In Botswana, women constitute the majority of the population and working population that is poor compared to their male counterparts. A high proportion of female-headed households are poor and poorer (50%) than the male-headed households' category at 44%, the Government report (Gender Affairs Department, 2014).

Under-representation of women in senior leadership is problematic for several reasons. First, a lack of women in senior positions may indicate to lower-level

women that aspiring to an upper-level position is untenable. Highly-qualified and experienced women may thus not apply for upper level positions. As a result, organisations lose the opportunity to capitalise on the skills and talent of a portion of their workforce. Further, when employees perceive a lack of women in upper management, they may form ideas about the implicit values and culture of the organisation, such as it being an ‘‘old-boys club,’’ or discriminatory in its hiring and retention practices. A second reason women’s under-representation in upper management is problematic is that when there are fewer women in senior leadership positions, women lower in the organisational hierarchy have few, if any, female mentors with experience in upper management. Without experienced female mentors to guide women through what can be a politically driven succession planning process, women may feel unprepared for upper-management positions and thus not apply. Therefore, the glass ceiling is a problem because it blocks the opportunity for a substantial proportion of women, to contribute to organisations via powerful managerial roles (Hoobler *et al.*, 2011*:*151).

Vinkenburg *et al.,* (2000*:*121-122) also believe that women’s slow movement into management positions can be explained in three different ways;

i) Structural barriers or discrimination*:* According to them, the structural barriers approach (Kanter, 1977, as quoted by Vinkenburg *et al.*, 2000) emphasizes that minority group members encounter difficulties in adjusting to and fitting in with the majority culture. When group membership is related to occupational status, it is harder for minority members to cross boundaries between occupational status groups. Minority members become ‘tokens’; their behaviour is taken as an example of their entire group’s behaviour and they are always in the spotlight.

ii) Gender roles and stereotypes*:* They cite that gender roles and stereotypes have a major impact on selection and promotion procedures as well as on evaluation of managerial performance. They explain that the typical good manager is still described in traditionally masculine terms. They further allude that the bias (‘think manager’, ‘think male’) can lead to differential treatment of women in more than one way because*:* they are expected to be less effective managers anyhow; they are expected to want a family

and therefore will drop out of the career path; and because gender role incongruent behaviour is generally evaluated more negatively than gender role congruent behaviour.

iii) Individual differences or deficiencies. Individual differences as the main reason for the paucity of the advancement of women into management, look into the question of whether the stereotypes illustrated above are for real. Are women different from men in terms of personality, motivation or behaviour? If women and men are essentially similar, they should have equal rights to organizational roles. If women and men are essentially different, women can make a complementary contribution to organizations (Adler 1987, cited by Vinkenburg *et al.*, 2000*:*122).

Gilike (2009) concurs with Vinkenburg (2000) and Hoobler (2011). She reports that hindrances such as gendered role expectations, cultural and stereotypical attitudes, and family responsibility contribute to the low representation of women in Botswana's positions of power and decision-making.

In spite of the growing representation of women in managerial and professional positions, a number of social and cultural factors still constrain them from competing equally with their male counterparts (Chan, 1988:64). Chan cites that Director and chief executive of PA Consulting service observed the following to be some employers' more common reservations;

i. Married women are considered unsuitable for jobs that require frequent travel.
ii. Companies are reluctant to hire a woman to head a department staffed by men.
iii. Companies seldom recruit female managers from outside, preferring to promote female staff members who have proven track records within the company.
iv. Companies hesitate to employ women to supervise plants, shipyards, or construction sites, places labelled "off limits" to women.
v. Employers commonly believe that women will have a much more difficult time gaining the trust and respect of customers.

Much of the work on women in organisations has focused on trying to understand why women fail to progress to positions of leadership. It has been argued that women's career progression into leadership positions is impeded by organisational, interpersonal and personal barriers (Northouse, 2001). Practices such as the glass ceiling, homophilia, the "old boys" network, tokenism and the queen bee syndrome are all viewed as hindrances that not only exclude women but also limit women's access to leadership in organisations. These barriers, which are subtle and normalized, are believed to be the major causes of the low representation and negative experiences of women in leadership positions (Northouse, 2001, as quoted by Nkatumba, 2010).

Hoobler *et al.,* (2011:153) focus on Women's under-representation in upper management. The findings indicate that higher-level positions required less structured workdays and more availability, and that women were thought to be unable to meet the requirements of a variable work schedule due to family demands. From female employees' own perspective, they believed their managers felt they were unfit for managerial positions because they were too feminine. Based on the findings, Hoobler and *et al.* conclude that the "think leader", "think male" stereotype is alive and well. They further say that women are generally viewed as having greater family-work conflict (defined as family responsibilities interfering with their work) that is incompatible with a work environment that demands long hours and ''face time.'' Lastly, they believe that even today, when managers of both sexes envision the right person for a managerial job, especially in male-dominated industries (e.g., construction and transportation/utilities), a man is more likely than a woman to come to mind, because the male is associated with effective leadership characteristics (active hobbies, deeper, commanding voices as in the example above).

Botswana is one of the countries that have ratified the international and regional gender declarations. These are the Beijing Declaration-platform for action, Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), and Southern African Development Community (SADC) declaration on gender and development. These declarations

address human rights and components of gender equality and empowerment of women. All the countries that ratified these declarations are requested to conform to the commitment and report on the progress and status of gender equality and women in their respective countries. The areas of focus for Botswana included reporting on the status of women in power and *decision-making* positions. There are some obstacles that could inhibit women from participating in leadership and *decision-making* positions in Botswana. These obstacles include cultural stereotypes, attitudes, practices, norms and discriminatory laws, women's disproportional heavy burdens reproductive roles as well as limited financial resources (Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs, 2008).

Recent research has brought to light how gender discrimination affects the lives of the female operators and the potential repercussions on the efficiency in the textile and clothing sector. Professors Christopher Woodruff and Rocco Macchiavello (The International Growth Centre and the University of Warwick) have evaluated a training programme that trains female sewing machine operators to become line supervisors. The study investigates the impact of skills investment on female workers versus male participants and the effectiveness of female trainees who are subsequently promoted to supervisory roles. According to the study, vocational training has positive effects on gender equality as more than half of the female trainees were promoted after receiving the training (Sebastio, 2014).

However, their research also draws attention to the predominant bias against women taking on the role of supervisors. Promotion rates for the female trainees in their experiment proved to be significantly lower than for male trainees and hints of resistance to the promotion of female operators were detected amongst male colleagues. Hence, there is significant evidence that traditional gender roles perpetuate employment structures within factories and limits the career prospects of women entering the sector as line operators (Sebastio, 2014).

The research further reveals that three-quarters of the workforce will remain unskilled without adequate training, further perpetuating a vicious cycle within factories. Due to the gender bias within factories, women do not invest in the skills required to become supervisors, as they do not expect to have opportunities for career progress. Male employees on the other hand, enter factories with a

significantly higher expectation of becoming supervisors. It is not surprising then that women initially require more training *enroute* to becoming supervisors. With weaker career prospects, women are also likely to leave when offered better opportunities elsewhere. Consequently, the textile and clothing industry face high turnover rates, leading to large costs in terms of resource and efficiency losses. A story emerges then of an industry that has fuelled economic growth in Bangladesh, yet that has been unable to exploit its full potential because gender inequality still persists (Sebastio, 2014)

El Haddad (2010) indicates that there is an increasing trend for females to fill lower paying occupations, whereas the opposite is the case for men (of course, as it is the opposite side of the same coin). The findings further reveal that accordingly, the distribution of men and women along the TC occupational structure – before controlling for characteristics - supports the 'glass ceiling' hypothesis. The hypothesis argues that women are stopped at a lower level within the hierarchy of an organisation due to discrimination. The ceiling or barrier preventing women from advancing is believed to be not instantly apparent and is usually an unwritten and unofficial or informal policy hence, the term 'glass' (i.e. transparent and so can't be seen, that is, it is not written down anywhere). The research revealed that stereotypically "male jobs", in occupations such as managerial positions (executives, supervisors and production operators), specialists such as engineers, and specialists helpers and technicians, 80%-90% of the workers are males. The study further reveals that average wages for these occupations are higher than other occupations such as factory workers, machine workers and assembly workers, in which 40%-48% of the jobholders are women (compared to 38% of all occupations). This segregation of women into less-prestigious and lower-paid jobs decreases a woman's opportunity for promotion, as well as the chance of having any type of substantial management function over other employees (El Haddad, 2010:7).

Different experiment setups that Woodruff and Macchiavello explored suggested that after being trained, female trainees are as much or even more effective than male supervisors and that there are no differences between male and female trainees with regards to line-level efficiency, absenteeism or quality (Sebastio, 2014).

2.5 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to review the existing literature in relation to the research topic, problem and goals of the study.

The textile and clothing industry is one of the most important sectors which add value to the economy of many countries. Countries try to diversify the economy by the textile and clothing industry such as Botswana. It is an export-oriented industry and benefit from different bodies to mention the few, AGOA which mostly benefit African textile and clothing industries and SACU initiatives. Textile and clothing industry hires mostly females as the low-skill labourers. Studies all over the globe revealed that the majority of males are employed in high positions such as executive and technical skills positions. Barriers to women to being promoted and/ or recruited in the management positions have been revealed among others, family responsibilities, cultural stereotypes and the ‘glass ceiling’.

Further details about what literature has revealed will be discussed in Chapter 5. That is, the findings in the literature will be discussed as some of the objectives/goals are answered in this Chapter. Other objectives of this study such as Barriers to women being promoted and/ or recruited to management positions in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana will be answered by the findings or the data collected from the textile and clothing industries.

The next Chapter deals with the research methodology implemented in the study in order to answer the research question and achieve the study goals.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to identify and explain the research approach, strategy and its related techniques. To meet the aims and objectives of the study it is important to select the most appropriate design for achieving the aims of the study (Parahoo 2006). This chapter provides the research methodology used in this study. The research design, research approach, population, sampling, data collection methods, pilot of the study, role of the researcher, quality of the research, data analysis and ethical consideration are discussed. Research methodology focuses on the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used (Babbie & Mouton, 2011:74-75).

The primary purpose of this research is to investigate why the textile and clothing industry employs more women than men, more especially, under low-skilled labourer category, and furthermore, determine whether there are few women in the senior management positions and if so, uncover the barriers and/ or factors which results to women not being promoted and/or hired in the management positions.

3.2 Research design

The research design is the plan and structure of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions. The plan is the overall scheme or programme of the research. It includes the outline of what the investigator will do from writing hypotheses and their operational implications to the final analysis of data (Cooper & Schindler, 2011:139).

3.3 Research approach

The research approach should be decided by the nature of the research topic (Creswell, 2003). The research question is, *"the textile and clothing industry employs more women than men, more especially, as the low-skilled labourers, and seemingly, women are not represented equally in senior positions. Thus, what is the*

current situation with women in senior management roles and, what are the barriers and or factors which result in women not being hired and/ or promoted in senior or management positions in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana?"

Therefore, the most suitable approach for this study is the mixed-methods approach in order to verify and explore the situation in terms of gender equality in Botswana's Textile Industry. That is, the combination of the qualitative and quantitative methods was adopted for this study. Saunders *et al.* (2009:152) believe that a mixed-methods approach is the appropriate when both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures are used in a research design. Furthermore, the researcher was able to look into all areas of the subject at hand and give thorough discussion and analysis.

3.3.1 Quantitative and qualitative methods

The quantitative approach describes, infers and resolves problems using numbers. Emphasis is placed on the collection of numerical data, the summary of the data and the drawing of inferences from the data (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:15). According to Welman *et al.,* (2010:8), the purpose of quantitative research is to evaluate objective data consisting of numbers. The quantitative method assisted in the analysis of information gathered from the participants (management team and low-skilled labourers) by the designed questionnaire (which contained questions related to the research problem and objectives of the study).

Qualitative methods assisted in the analysis of the qualitative data. Berndt and Petzer (2012) cite that qualitative methods attempt to develop an understanding of how participants experience a specific outcome or incident. Hence, the qualitative approach assisted the researcher in understanding the results of the data collected from the participants (management team and low-skilled labourers) and defining the concepts.

3.3.2 Primary and secondary data

The researcher utilised both primary and secondary data.

Primary data is that data which is collected specifically for answering questions by the researcher. It can be carried out in different ways. In this study, it was carried out by the administration of the designed questionnaire.

Advantage of primary data

i. Accurate information/reliable information.

Disadvantages of primary data

i. It is expensive.
ii. Time consuming.

The primary data consists of responses from the management team such as Directors, Production managers, and Human resource managers. It also consists of responses from low-skilled labourers. The researcher administered the designed semi-structured questionnaire on the premises, that is, the interviewer-administered questionnaire. The researcher opted for the interviewer-administered questionnaire in order to maximize the chances of success of the study, that is, to reduce non-response rate. Moreover, the interviewer-administered questionnaire enabled the researcher to ensure accurate participation. In addition, the questionnaire improves the reliability of the data collected from the participants. The management team from the textile and clothing industry was chosen to participate in this study since they are considered to have more information relevant to the study, that is, they are information-rich sources. On the other hand, the researcher opted to choose low skilled labourers to participate in order to gather specific information necessary for this study. The researcher obtained first-hand information from the textile and clothing industry of Botswana.

Secondary data

Secondary data is the data that already exists and there is a variety of sources available to a researcher (Saunders *et al.*, 2003).

Advantages of secondary data

i. Saves time and costs.

Disadvantages of secondary data

i. It might be irrelevant in answering new questions.
ii. It might not be accurate.

The previous chapter, the literature review was mainly secondary data. Secondary data was useful to understand gender inequality in the workplace, the textile and clothing industry in Botswana and internationally and barriers to women on career ladder. The researcher used thesis, journals, articles, books and websites to gather the information necessary to answer the research questions and objectives. Theses, articles and journals were accessed online from the North-West University Library website.

3.4 Research settings

The study was conducted in twelve textile and clothing companies in Gaborone, Botswana. The researcher chose this location because it is convenient and assessable in terms of time, distance and costs.

3.5 Population and Sampling

A *research population* is generally considered to consist of all potential research participants forming the main focus of the study (Pienaar, 2014).*Population* is the group of people, items or units under investigation (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004*:*73). Since the population is often too large and logistically unmanageable to study directly, obtaining information from a selected sample is more practical, easier and accurate (Pienaar, 2014). In this study the target population is the management team (Managing Director/Director(s), Production Manager and Human Resources Manager) and low-skilled labourers from the textile and clothing industry.

Sampling is the act, process or technique of selecting a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population. The purpose of sampling is to draw conclusions about populations from samples using inferential statistics, which enables one to determine a population's

characteristics by directly observing an enumeration of the population for many reasons. Obviously, it is cheaper to observe a part of the population rather than the whole population (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:74).

The researcher opted to sample the companies (textile and clothing industry) from Gaborone and low-skilled labourers from the textile and clothing industry instead of collecting the data from all the textile and clothing industry in the whole country. This is because of limited time and resources. Furthermore, to save time and costs incurred in subsistence costs (travelling, accommodation, food).

There are two types of sampling*, viz.* probability and non-probability samples.

Coldwell and Herbst (2004*:*75) define probability sampling and non-probability sampling as follows;

Probability sampling: This sampling is based on the principle that every unit in the sampling frame has a known chance, but not necessarily an equal chance, of being selected. They cite that the great advantage of the probability sample is that, given that the sampling frame is complete and the samples are adequate, it is unbiased and representative of the population. Cooper *et al.,* (2011*:*369) explain that *probability sampling* is based on the concept of random selection, a controlled procedure that assures that each population element is given a known non-zero chance of selection. Probability sampling techniques are simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sample and cluster sampling (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:80).

Non-Probability: This sampling is based on selection criteria using, for example, the expertise or judgement of the investigator. According to Cooper and Schindler (2011*:*369) in non-probability sampling, each member of the population does not have a known chance of being included. The probability of selecting population elements is unknown. The advantage of non-probability sampling is that it is less complicated and more economical (in terms of time and financial expenses) than probability sampling. The following non-probability sampling methods are distinguished*:* convenience sampling, quota sampling, snowball sampling and purposive sampling (Maree and Pietersen, 2012:177-178).

The researcher utilised both the probability sample and non-probability sample for data collection. The probability sample used in this study is the simple random sampling technique. A simple random sample ensures that every unit in the sampling frame has an equal chance of being selected. It is free from sampling bias (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:80).The low-skilled labourers from the textile and clothing industry as well as the companies from Gaborone were selected using simple random sampling. The companies were classified in large, medium and small categories. The random sampling was performed separately for each company to select the participants from the low- skilled labourers. The researcher obtained the names of all the support staff from each of the companies. The list of the low-skilled labourers formed a sample frame from which the researcher selected the employees at random.

The non-probability sampling technique used by the researcher is convenience sampling achieved by selecting the management level participants from the textile and clothing industry. According to Cooper and Schindler (2011:167), convenience sampling is the process whereby researchers select any readily available individuals as participants. They cite that this kind of sampling is the least reliable, but is normally the cheapest and easiest to conduct. Available samples of the management team (Director(s), Production Manager, Human Resource Manager(s) and line managers) from the textile and clothing industry were chosen to participate in this study. The reason why non-probability sampling was used to select the participants from the management team is that most of the questions in the study were to be answered by them. Furthermore, convenience sampling was utilised to select the management team in the textile and clothing industry because they are information rich participants.

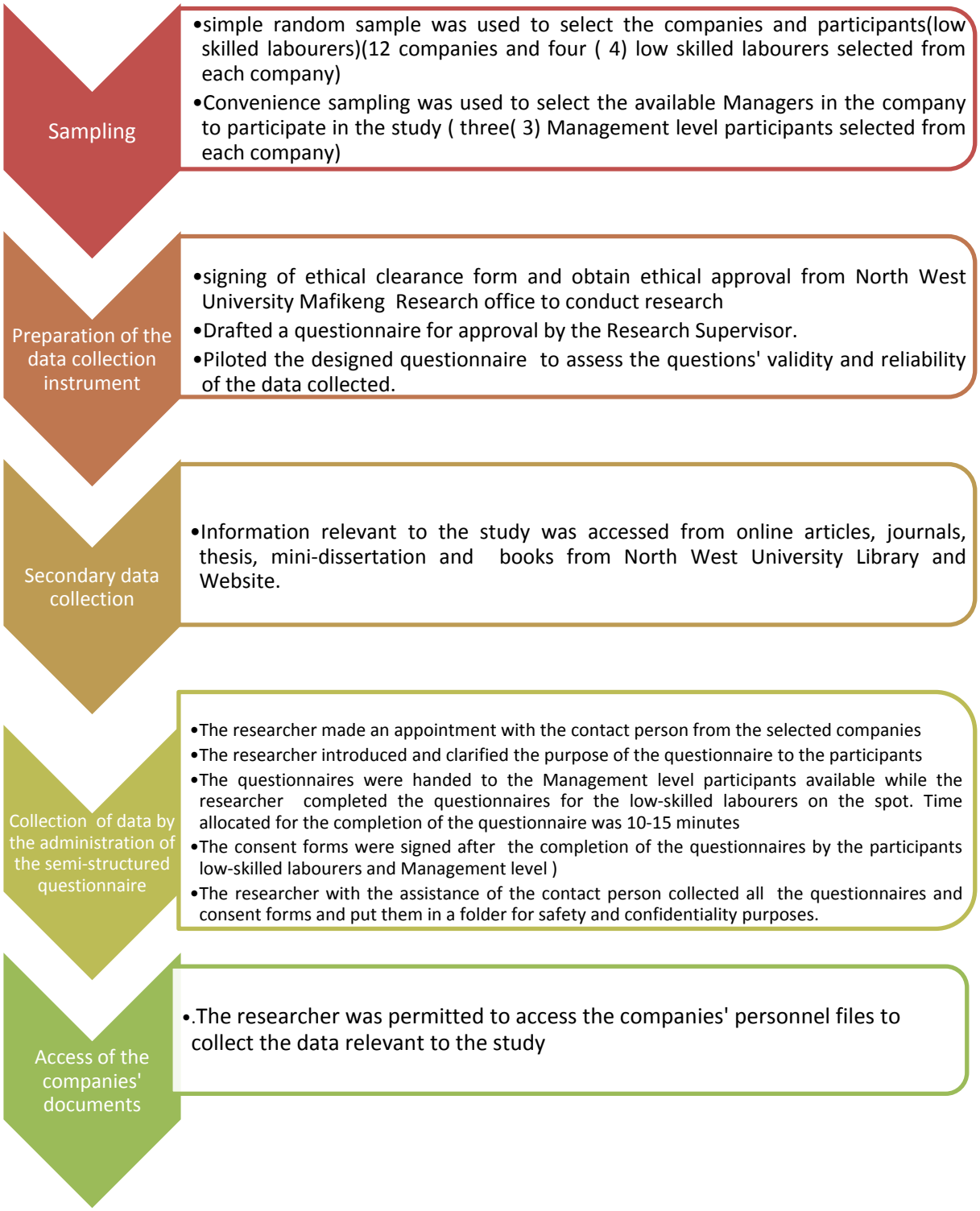
The sample size for the study was 84 participants from twelve textile and clothing companies in Botswana. The researcher chose this sample size in order to have better representation of the whole population. Three (3) participants from the management team (Managing Director/Director, Production Manager, line manager(s) and Human Resources Manager) and four (4) employees (low-skilled labourers) in each selected company participated in the study. That is, seven (7) participants from each company, totalling 84 participants.

3.6 Data collection

3.6.1 Data Collection Process

The data collection process for this study is depicted in the figure below;

Figure 3. 1*:* Data collection Process



Source: constructed by the author (2015)

Pilot of the study

Prior to using the questionnaire to collect data, it was piloted. The purpose of a pilot test is to refine the questionnaire so that respondents will have no problems in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data. In addition, it will enable the researcher to obtain some assessment of the questions' validity and the likely reliability of the data that will be collected (Saunders *et al.*, 2009*:*394). Piloting is the process whereby the data-collection methods which the researcher has in mind are "tried out" to determine how well it works in practice and if necessary, be modified accordingly (Blaxter *et al.*, 2010*:*138).

The researcher conducted a pilot study in three (3) companies from Gaborone. Six (6) participants, that is, three (3) participants from the management team and three participants from the low-skilled labourers completed the questionnaire. The participants did not report problems with the length of the questionnaire, time it took to complete and questions asked in the questionnaire. The low-skilled labourers needed the questionnaire to be translated into Setswana. The researcher and participants agreed that the researcher will ask the questions in the questionnaire in Setswana even-though written in English. Furthermore the researcher would complete the questionnaire on behalf of the low-skilled labourer participants (write the response of the participants on the premises).

3.6.2 Role of the researcher

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:344) describe the role of the researcher as "a relationship acquired by and ascribed to the researcher in interactive data collection". The researcher requested permission to conduct research from the management of the selected companies (textile and clothing industry) formally. The covering letter written by the researcher accompanied by the letter from the Research Office (North-West University Graduate School of Business and Government Leadership) and the questionnaire were sent through via email and fax to the textile and clothing industry (selected companies).

After permission had been granted by the management of the textile and clothing industry, the researcher made an appointment with the contact person from each of

the companies telephonically on when it was suitable to collect the data. The researcher worked closely with the contact person from each of the selected companies during the research. The duties of the contact person involved organising an office to conduct research, called and directed the selected participants from the low-skilled labourers to the office, introduction of the researcher, explanation of the goal and purpose of the study as well as collecting the completed questionnaires from the Management team.

The researcher translated the questions into Setswana for the low-skilled labourers during the collection of the data via the administration of the interviewer-administered questionnaire. Consideration of the participants of their privacy, anonymity and confidentiality regarding information gathered during the research was observed. Lastly, the researcher thanked the participants for their contribution and cooperation during the research.

3.6.3 Data-collection method

Data was collected using a semi-structured questionnaire as well as secondary data. Secondary data entailed the companies 'personnel records and literature study. The data was to be collected from the sample size of 84 participants over a period of three (3) weeks from twelve companies. Each participant was issued with the questionnaire which was accompanied by the covering letter.

A questionnaire is a method of data collection that asks participants to give written or verbal replies to a written set of questions (Parahoo, 2006). It is a quick, convenient and inexpensive method of collecting standardized information (Jones & Rattray, 2010). According to Parahoo 2006, a questionnaire can be used to collect information on attitudes, knowledge and experience of staff.

The data-collection strategy was a survey and the instrument was a designed semi-structured questionnaire. The questionnaire contained questions linked to the research problem, aims and the objectives of the study. It provided open-ended -as well as closed-ended questions. Closed-ended questions provide a greater uniformity of responses and are more easily processed. In the open-ended questions participants get the opportunity to provide their own answer to the question. Open-

ended responses must be coded before they can be processed (Babbie & Mouton, 2011:233).

The questionnaire consisted of four (4) sections, namely;

Section A*:* Demographic information about the participants which contained five (5) closed questions;

Section B*:* Requirements of employment which are closed questions;

Section C*:* Criteria to hire employees which are open-ended questions, and

Section D*:* Opinion of the participants regarding the recruitment to management positions and gender equality which are structured as five-point Likert scale questions. Each questionnaire had a covering letter, explaining the purpose of the study, indicating the estimated completion time of the questionnaire as well as assuring the participants that their responses would be confidential and their names would remain anonymous.

The researcher made an appointment with the contact person from each of the companies telephonically regarding when to collect the data. That is, to set the day and times to collect the data from the participants. The researcher completed the questionnaire on behalf of the low-skilled labourers in order to work within the allocated time. The management team from the textile and clothing industry completed the questionnaires themselves. The researcher completed the questionnaire on the premises with the participants in order to reduce non-response rate and to quicken the collection of the data.

3.7 Credibility of the research findings

3.7.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which the data-collection techniques or analysis procedures will yield consistent findings (Saunders *et al.*, 2009*:*156). According to Swart *et al.,* (2006:88), the achievement of reliability involves ascertaining whether

the results are consistent with the data and that the same results be obtained should the study be replicated.

It can be assessed by posing the following three questions (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008*:*109, cited by Saunders *et al.*, 2009*:*156);

1. Will the measures yield the same results on other occasions?
2. Will similar observations be reached by other observers?
3. Is there transparency in how sense was made from the raw data?

A pilot study was conducted in order to check the validity and reliability of the designed questionnaire to collect the data.

3.7.2 Validity

Saunders *et al.* (2009:157), assert that validity is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about. According to Coolican, cited by Welman et al., (2010*:*142), validity refers to the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation. Furthermore, it means that an effect or test is valid if it demonstrates or measures what the researcher thinks or claims it does.

The researcher used different sources such as interviewer-administered questionnaires, company's personnel files and reviewed literature. Moreover, selected rich information source participants (management team from the textile and clothing industry) and support staff (low-skilled labourers), to acquire valid findings.

3.8 Data analysis and interpretation

The data was analysed and interpreted after collection. Analysis of quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire was carried out using descriptive statistics. Analysis of qualitative data was carried out in order to answer the research question and objectives. The response from the questionnaires was compiled and analysed. The quantitative data was presented in the form of graphs, pie charts and tables and further analyse to obtain the findings.

The qualitative data collected on the questionnaire as part of the open ended questions were coded. Coding involves assigning numbers or other symbols to answers so that the responses can be grouped into a limited number of categories (Cooper & Schindler, 2011*:*405). According to Lee and Lings (2008*:*244), a code is simply a label which you attach to a bit of text, whether it be a simple word, a whole paragraph, or even an entire document (transcript). They cite the fact that codes are designed to capture the meaning of that unit of the text –not just the words. They further mention that once raw data is coded, it can be retrieved, compared and used to answer the research questions. The researcher coded one (1) master questionnaire which she referred to when entering the raw data. Coding consisted of assigning a code number to each answer category. The researcher used numbers (male and female are coded “1” and “2”, respectively) to code the questionnaire.

3.9 Ethical considerations of the study

Cooper and Schindler (2006:116) define ethics as “norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationships with others”. The goal of ethics in research is to ensure that no one is harmed or suffers adverse consequences from research activities (Cooper & Schindler, 2001:112, cited by Coldwell & Herbst, 2004*:*18).

The researcher applied for and obtained ethical clearance from North West University Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (NWU-RERC)-Mafikeng Campus to conduct research.

Permission to conduct the research was requested and obtained from the management of the selected companies (textile and clothing industry). The researcher ensured that informed consent was obtained from participants. The participants were informed about the aim, purpose and procedures of the study. They were informed about the reasons they had been chosen to participate. Participants’ privacy, confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed. Consent forms and a covering letter were provided. Similarly, the companies selected gave permission for the researcher to access archival material and documents useful to the study. Moreover, the participants were assured that findings would be used appropriately, as would their reporting and dissemination.

3.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the chosen research methodology was outlined and explained. The researcher discussed the research approach, population and sampling techniques utilised in the study, data collection methods, credibility of the research findings, pilot study, role of the researcher, data analysis and ethical consideration of the study.

The next chapter deals with data analysis and findings of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

4.0 ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the methodology used in collecting and analysing data for the study. The purpose of the study was to *Explore Gender Inequality in the Textile and Clothing Industry of Botswana.* This chapter reports on the results obtained by means of the survey conducted through the administration of the semi-structured questionnaire. Results are presented in terms of the response rate, demographic information of the participants and the responses made by the participants on the survey questions related to the study. Results are further presented in terms of the main objectives of the study.

The primary research question is "*the textile and clothing industry employs more females than males, more especially as low-skilled labourers and seemingly women are not represented equally in senior positions of employment. Thus, what is the situation with women in senior management roles and what are the barriers and/ or factors which results in women not being hired and/ or promoted in management positions in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana?"*

4.2 Presentation of the quantitative and qualitative data

4.2.1 Response rate

Data was collected from 47 participants (management team and low-skilled labourers), which represents 56% response rate of the targeted population. It is generally accepted that the larger the sample size the greater the likelihood of its precision and reliability (Struwig & Stead, 2003:119). The response rate obtained during the study is representative enough of the total population to generalise the findings of the study to the wider population of participants targeted for the study.

Eight (8) companies out of 12 granted permission for the researcher to conduct research. The response was 17 and 30 participants from the management team and

low-skilled labourers respectively, from the textile and clothing industry. Four (4) companies did not grant permission to conduct research. The reason for some companies not to grant permission was that they were busy working on their financial year end reports. Other companies indicated that some of the researchers gave the information to their competitors in the past.

There was no response received from the management team from one (1) company which granted permission to conduct the research. Furthermore, only two (2) out of the four (4) low-skilled labourer participants responded from the same company due to the fact that the production manager indicated that they were behind schedule on delivering the products for a tender. Thus, he could only allow two (2) employees to participate in the research.

The response rate of the participants is presented in Table 4.1below;

Table 4.1*:* Response rate of the participants

Participants	**Number of responses**	**Percentage (%)**
Low-skilled labourers	30	64
Management team	17	36
Total	**47**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

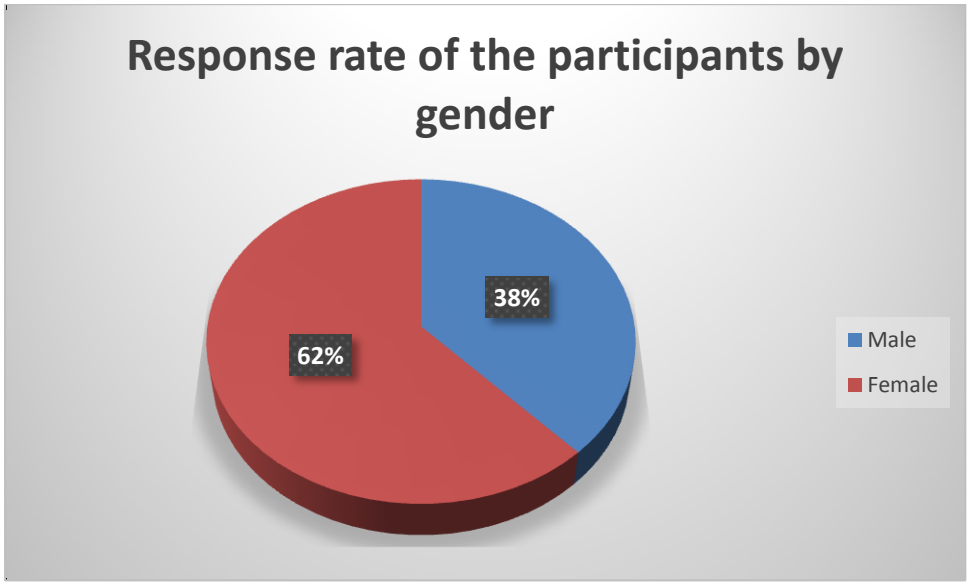
Table 4.1 shows the response rate of the low-skilled labourers and management team participants from the textile and clothing industry.64% and 36% are the response rate of the low-skilled labourers and management team participants respectively, from the textile and clothing industry.

The response number was 17 and 30 participants from the management team and low-skilled labourers, respectively from the textile and clothing industry.

4.2.1.1 Response rate according to gender

Figure 4.1 reflects the response rate of the participants according to gender. The majority of the participants are females (62%) while 38% are males from the textile and clothing industry.

Figure 4.1*:* Breakdown of the response according to gender



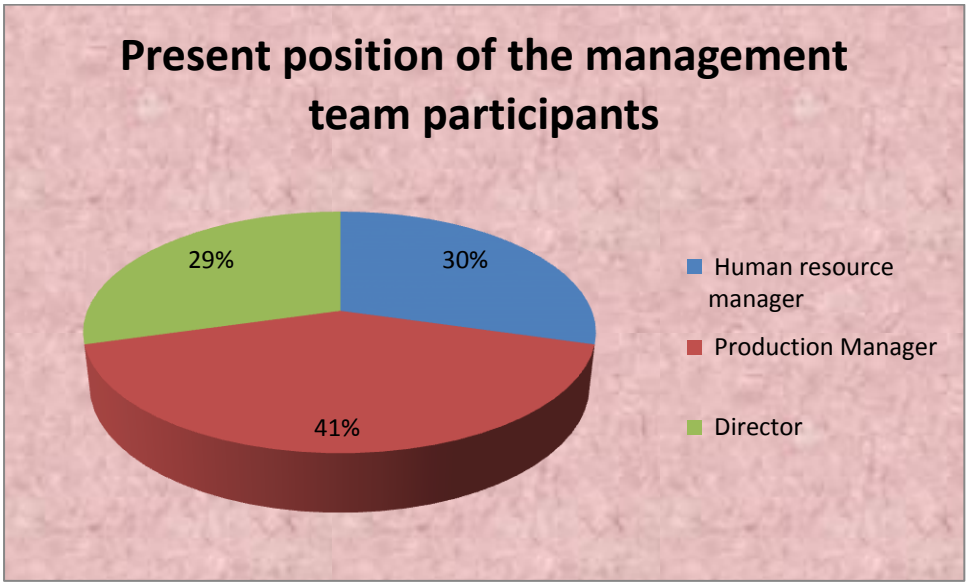
Source*:* Constructed by author (2015)

4.2.2 Section A*:* Demographic Information

4.2.2.1 Present position of the participants

In Figure 4.2, the present positions of the participants from the management team from the textile and clothing industry are reflected. The figure shows that the majority of the participants are Production Managers (41%), followed by Human Resource Managers (30%) and Directors (29%). That is, the participants from the management team who were available and targeted by the interviewer during the data collection were from the above-mentioned positions.

Figure 4.2: Present position of the Management Team Participants



Source: Constructed by author (2015)

Table 4.2 depicts the present positions of the management team participants according to gender. The majority of the participants from the management team in the management positions are males (76.5%) while 23.5% are females. Females in the management positions are skewed under the Human Resource Manager position while only males hold Director and Production Manager Positions. That is, the findings reveal that more males are in management and in the core of the business. On the other hand, females are found in the support side of the business, that is, lower management positions.

Table 4.2: Present position of the Management Team Participants according to gender

Positions	Male	Female	Total
Human Resource Manager	1	4	5
Production Manager	7	0	7
Director	5	0	5
Total	**13**	**4**	**17**
Percentage (%)	**76.5**	**23.5**	**100%**

Source: constructed by author (2015)

The present position(s) of the low-skilled labourer participants is reflected in Table 4.3. All the participants from the low-skilled labourer category work as labourers.

Table 4.3*:* Present position of the low-skilled labourers

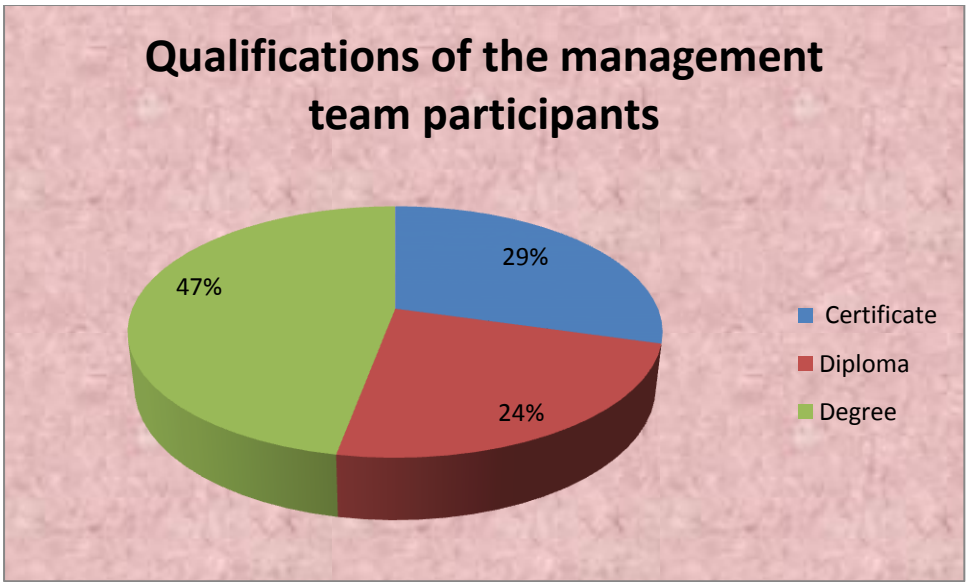
Participants	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Labourer	30	100.0	100.0

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

4.2.2.2 Qualifications of the participants

Figure 4.3 reflects the qualifications of the management team participants from the textile and clothing industry. It is depicted in the figure that the majority of the management team participants have degrees (47%), followed by certificates (29%) and diplomas (24%).

Figure 4.3*:* Qualifications of the Management team participants



Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

In Table 4.4, qualifications of the management team participants according to gender are reflected. 75%, 100% and 60% of the male participants have degrees, diplomas and certificates, respectively. The rest of the percentages go to female participants (25%, 0% and 40%) for these qualifications. The data indicates that the majority of

the male participants from the management team in the textile and clothing industry have acquired higher-level qualifications than their female counterparts. Moreover, even-though women in Botswana are more educated today than in the past, the study reveals that the textile and clothing industry attracts more educated males in the management positions than females.

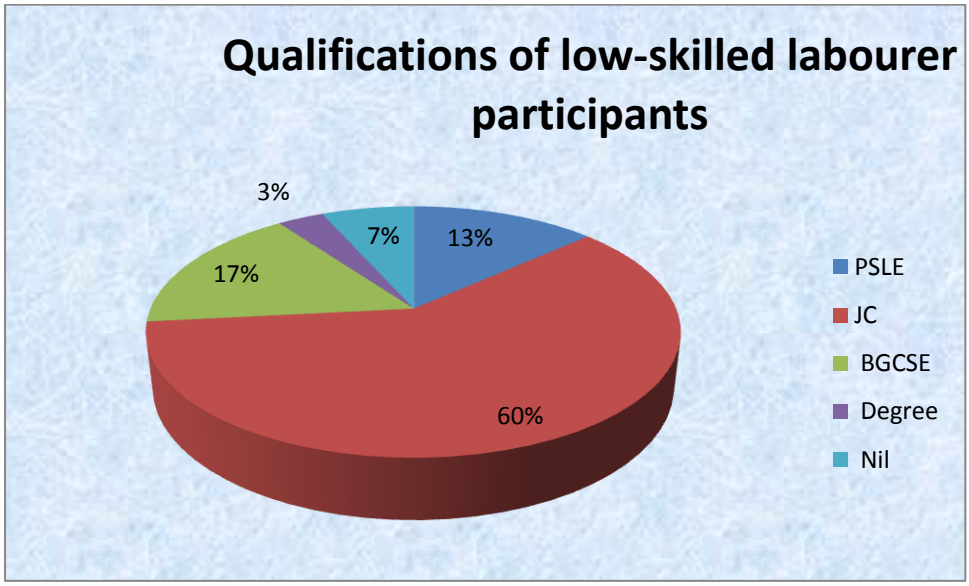
Table 4.4*:* Qualifications of the Management Team Participants according to gender

Qualifications	Male	Percentage (%)	Female	Percentage (%)	Total
Degree	6	**75**	2	**25**	**8**
Diploma	4	**100**	0	**0**	**4**
Certificate	3	**60**	2	**40**	**5**
Total	**13**	**76.5**	**4**	**23.5**	**17**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Figure 4.4 depicts the qualifications of the low-skilled labourer participants in the textile and clothing industry. According to the figure, the participants have Junior Certificate (JC) (60%), Botswana Government Cambridge School Examination (BGCSE) (17%), Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) (13%), Degree (3%) as well as those who do not have any qualification (7%). This indicates that the textile and clothing industry hires employees under the low-skilled labourer category regardless of the qualifications acquired.

Figure 4.4*:* Qualifications of the low-skilled labourer participants



Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Table 4.5 shows the qualifications of the low-skilled labourer participants according to gender in the textile and clothing industry. It appears that the majority of the female participants (15) have JC. Besides other qualifications such as BGCSE and PSLE, the table reflects that there are two (2) females who do not have any qualification.

Table 4.5*:* Qualifications of the low-skilled labourer participants

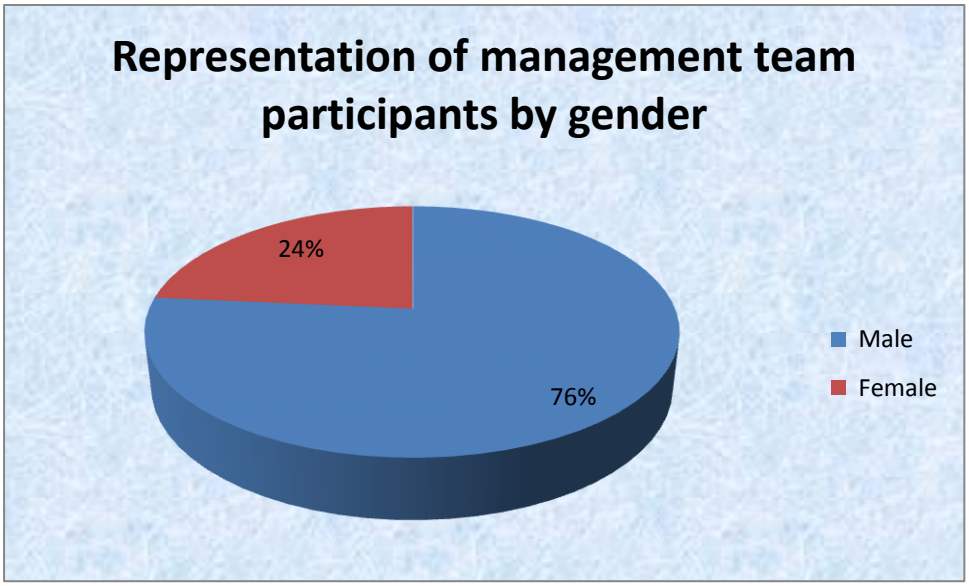
Qualifications	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
PSLE	1	3	**4**
JC	3	15	**18**
BGCSE	1	4	**5**
DEGREE	0	1	**1**
NIL	0	2	**2**
TOTAL	**5**	**25**	**30**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

4.2.2.3 Gender of the participants

Figure 4.5 depicts the representation of the management team participants according to gender in the textile and clothing industry. Most of the participants are males (76%) while 24% are females. The data indicates that there are more males than females in the management positions in the textile and clothing industry.

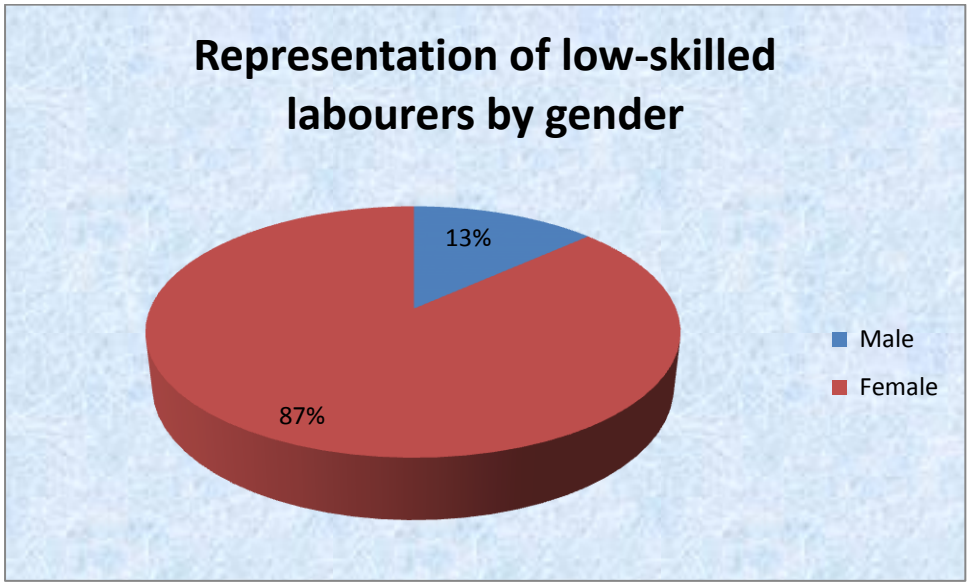
Figure 4.5*:* Management team participants according to gender



Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Figure 4.6 depicts the representation of the low-skilled labourers according to gender in the textile and clothing industry. According to the figure, the majority of the participants are females (87%) while 13% are males. Notably, the data reveals that there are more females than males hired under the low-skilled labourer category in the textile and clothing industry.

Figure 4.6*:* Low-skilled labourer participants according to gender

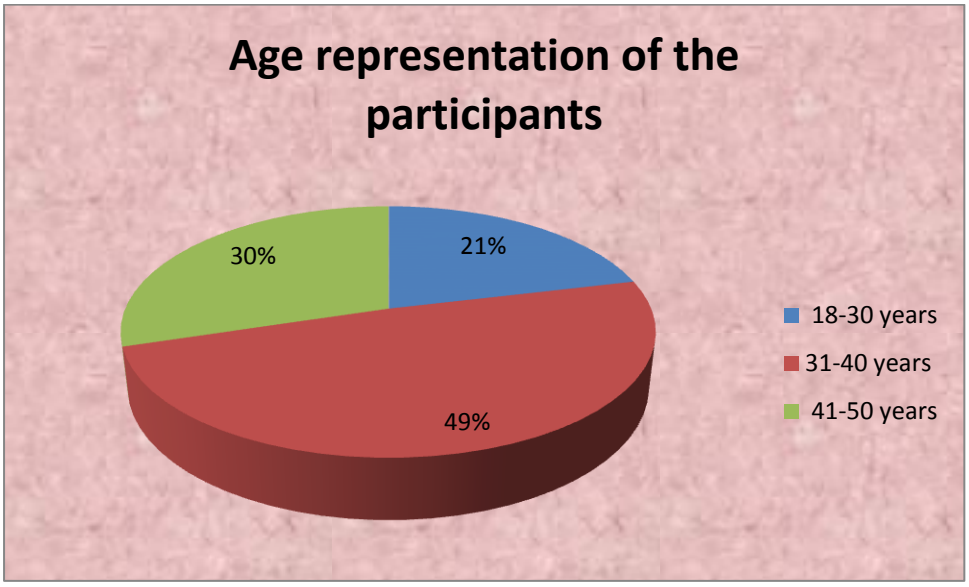


Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

4.2.2.4 Age representation of the participants

Figure 4.7 represents the age of the research participants both from low-skilled labourers and the management team in the textile and clothing industry. The majority of the participants are aged between 31 and 40 years (49%). Few participants are aged between 18 and 30 years (21%).

Figure 4.7*:* Age category of the participants



Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Table 4.6 highlights the age category of the low-skilled labourer and management team participants from the textile and clothing industry. A large number of the low-skilled labourer participants are in the age category 31-40 years (38%) and 18-30 years (21%). The management team participants are mainly in the age category 41-50 years (26%). Few participants from the low-skilled labourers are in the age category 41-50 years (4%) whereas the management team age category falls between 31-40 years (11%).

Table 4.6*:* Representation of the age category of the participants

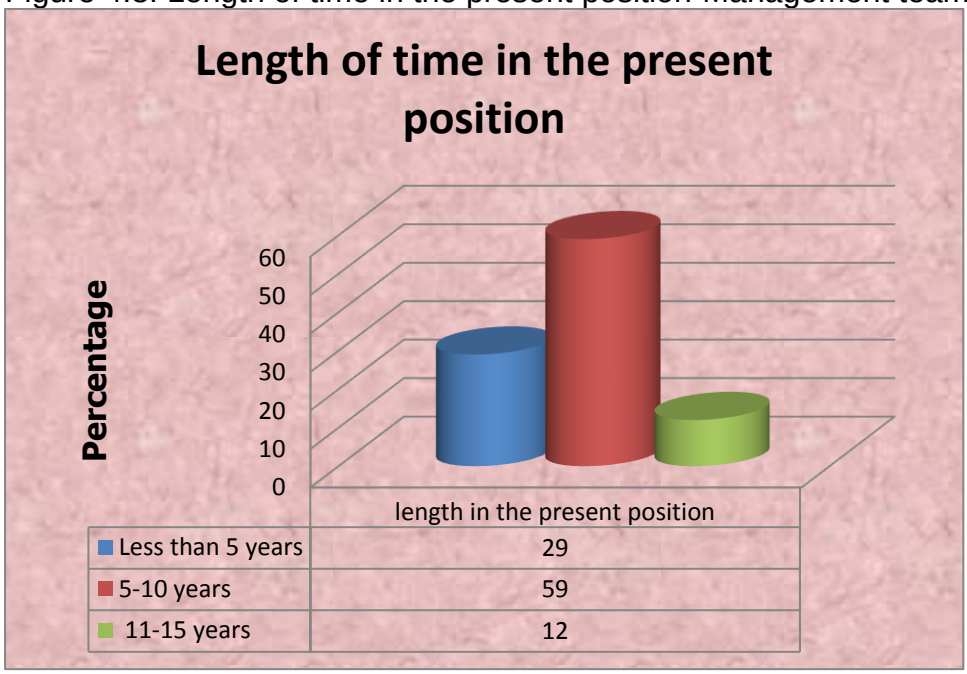
Participants	Age category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Low-skilled labourers	18-30 years	10	21
	31-40 years	18	38
	41-50 years	2	4
Management team	31-40 years	5	11
	41-50 years	12	26
	TOTAL	**47**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

4.2.2.5 Length of time in the present position of the research participants

In Figure 4.8, the length of time in the present position of the management team participants is highlighted. The majority of the Management team participants have a tenure period between 5-10 years (59%) in the same position, followed by a tenure period less than 5 years (29%) and lastly a tenure, period between 11-15 years (12%).

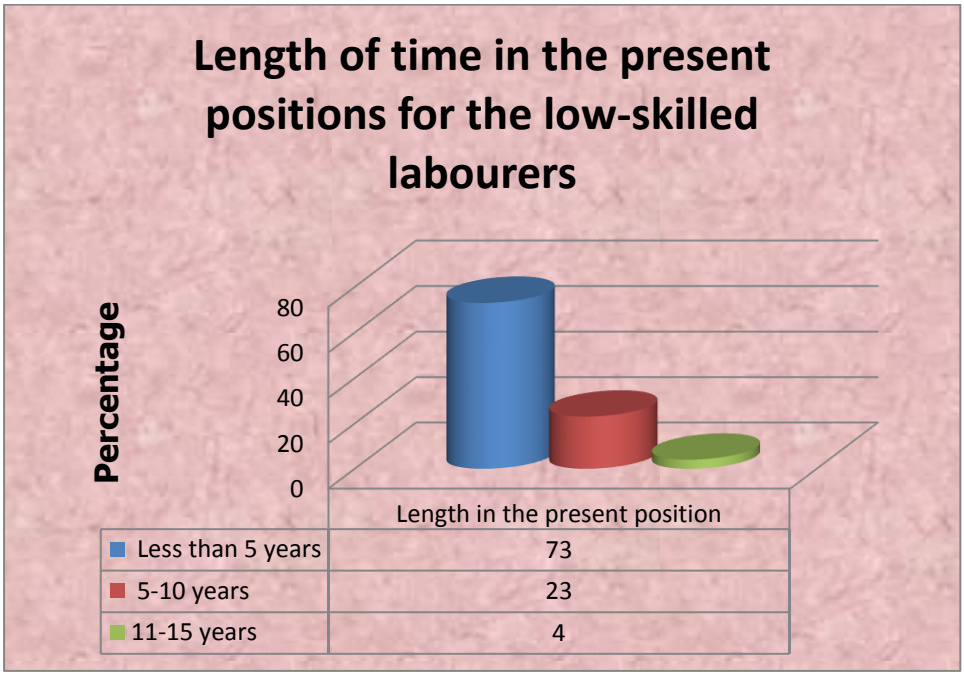
Figure 4.8: Length of time in the present position-Management team



Source: constructed by author (2015)

Figure 4.9 highlights the length of time in the present position(s) of the low-skilled participants from the textile and clothing industry. A large number of the participants have a tenure period less than five years (73%) in their present position. 23% and 4% of the participants have a tenure period between 5-10 years and 11-15 years in their present positions, respectively.

Figure 4.9*:* Length of time in the present position-Low-skilled labourer participants

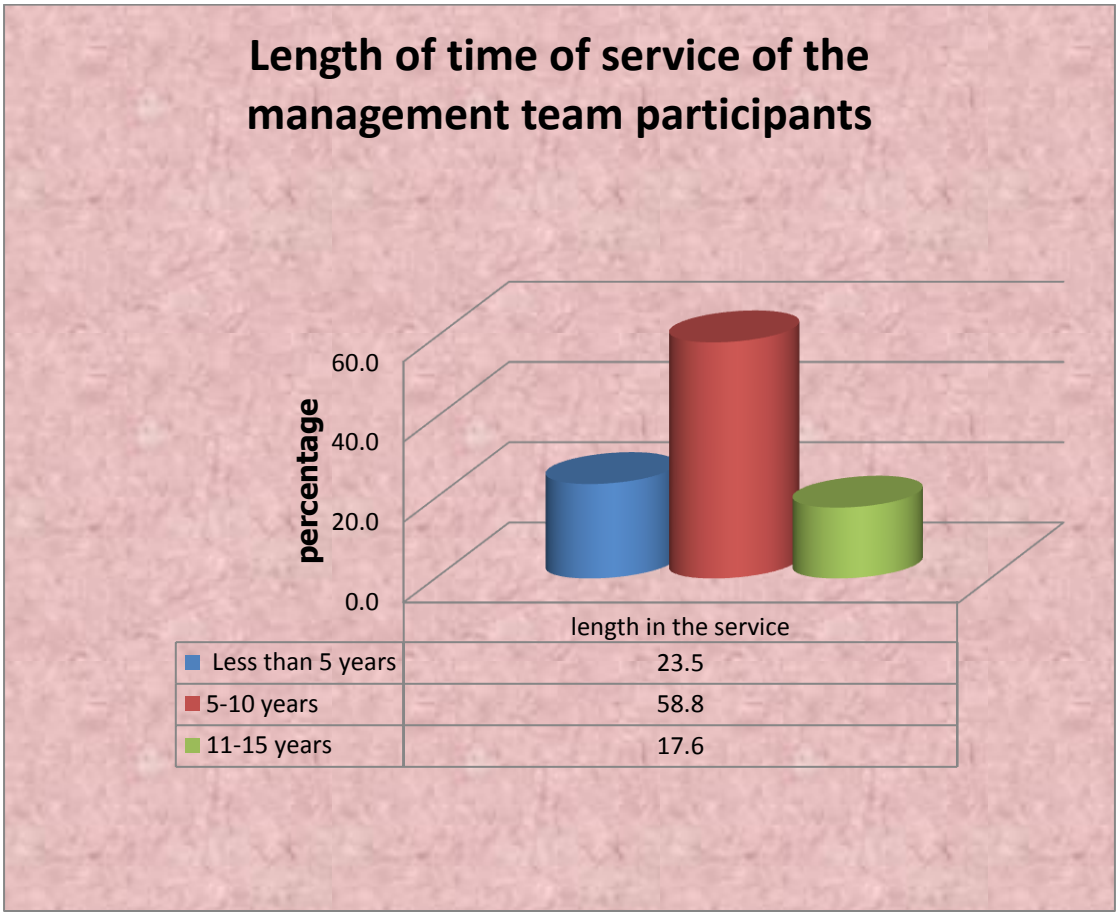


Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

4.2.2.6 Length of service of the participants

Figure 4.10 highlights the length of service of the management team participants from the textile and clothing industry. Most of the management team participants have been working for a tenure period between **5-10 years** (58.8%). 23.5% and 17.6% of the participants have been in service for a period **less than 5 years** and **11-15 years** respectively**,** in the textile and clothing industry.

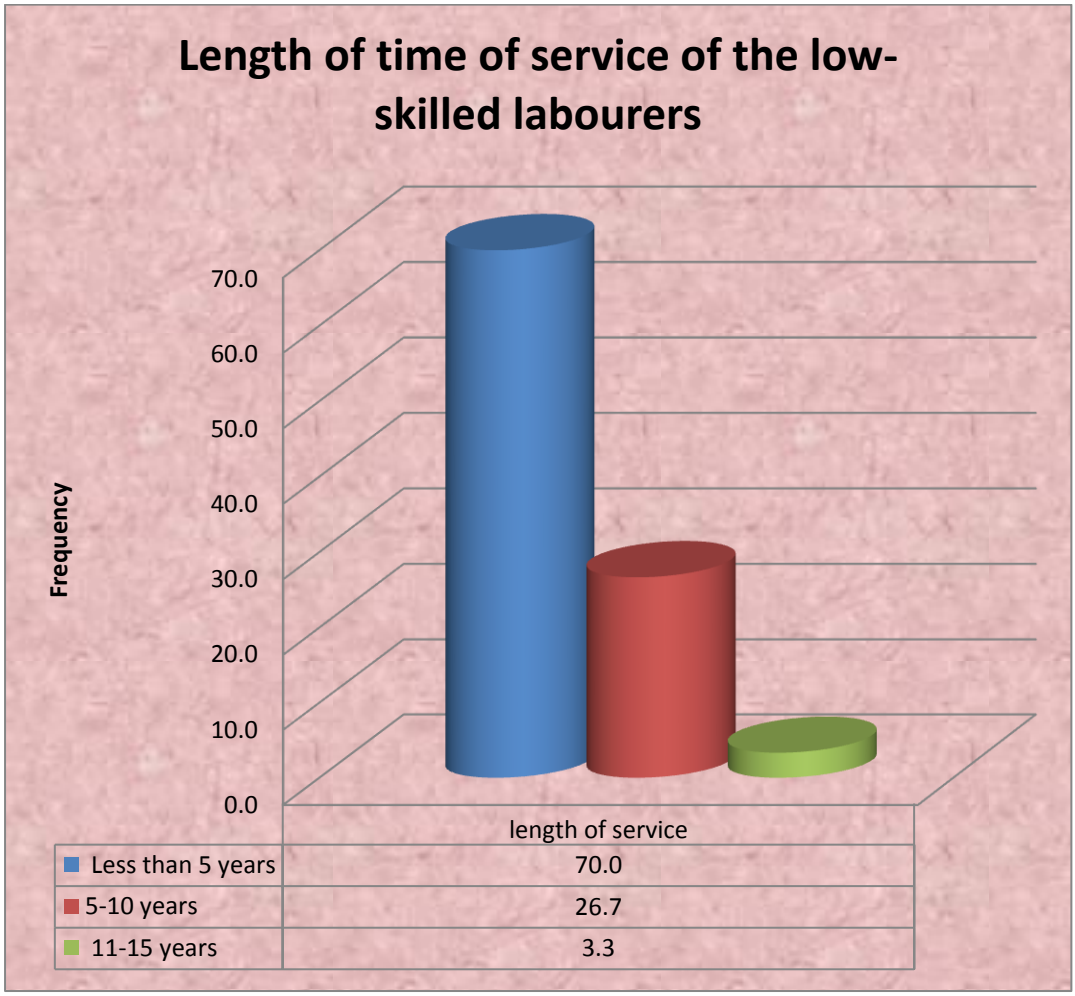
Figure 4.10*:* Length of time of service- Management team participants



Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

The data in figure 4.11 depicts the period the low-skilled labourer participants have been in service. The majority of the participants have been employed for a period of less than 5 years (70%).27% of the low-skilled labourer participants have been employed for a period between 5-10 years and few participants (3%) for a period between 10-15 years.

Figure 4.11: Length of time of service– Low-skilled labourers



Source: constructed by author (2015)

4.2.2.7 Basis of appointment

According to Table 4.7, all the participants from the management team are employed on a full-time basis.

Table 4.7: Basis of appointment for Management team participants

Basis of appointment	Frequency	Percentage
Full-time appointment	17	100.0

Source: constructed by author (2015)

The data in Table 4.8 highlights that all the low-skilled labourer participants are employed on a part-time/hourly basis.

Table 4.8: Basis of appointment for low-skilled labourer participants

Basis of appointment	Frequency	Percentage
Part-time/hourly appointment	30	100.0

Source*:* Constructed by author (2015)

4.2.3 Section B*:* Requirements for employment-Response by Management team

Q1. What are the requirements needed to hire employees under the semi-skilled labourer category?

Table 4.9*:* Requirements for employment-low-skilled labourers

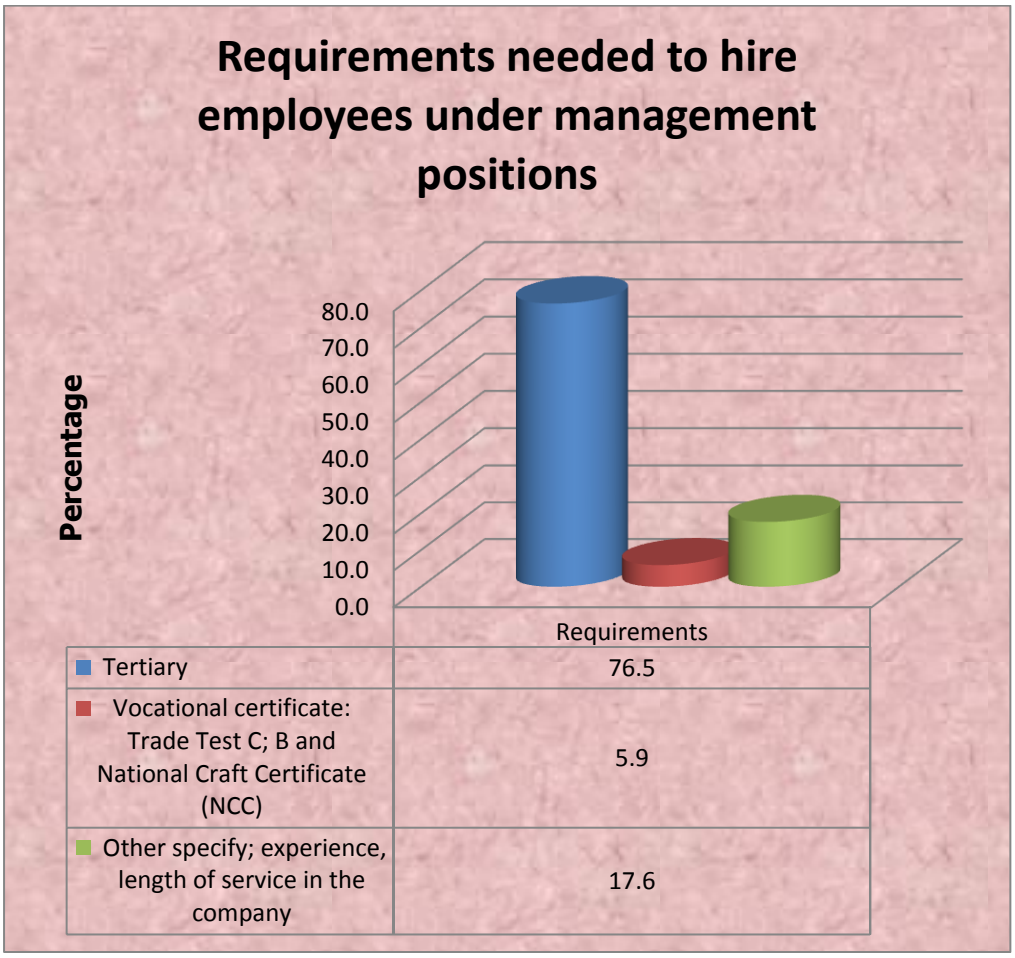
Requirements	Frequency	Percentage
Primary level		
Junior- Secondary level		
Tertiary		
Certificate		
National Identity		
All of the above	17	100

Source*:* Constructed by author (2015)

Table 4.9 reflects that all of the 17 management team participants indicated that the requirements needed to hire employees to work as low-skilled labourers either Primary level, Junior-Secondary level, Tertiary, Certificate and National Identity.

Q2. What are the requirements needed to hire employees in the management positions/senior management roles?

Figure 4.12*:* Requirement to hire and/ or promote employees in the management positions /senior management roles

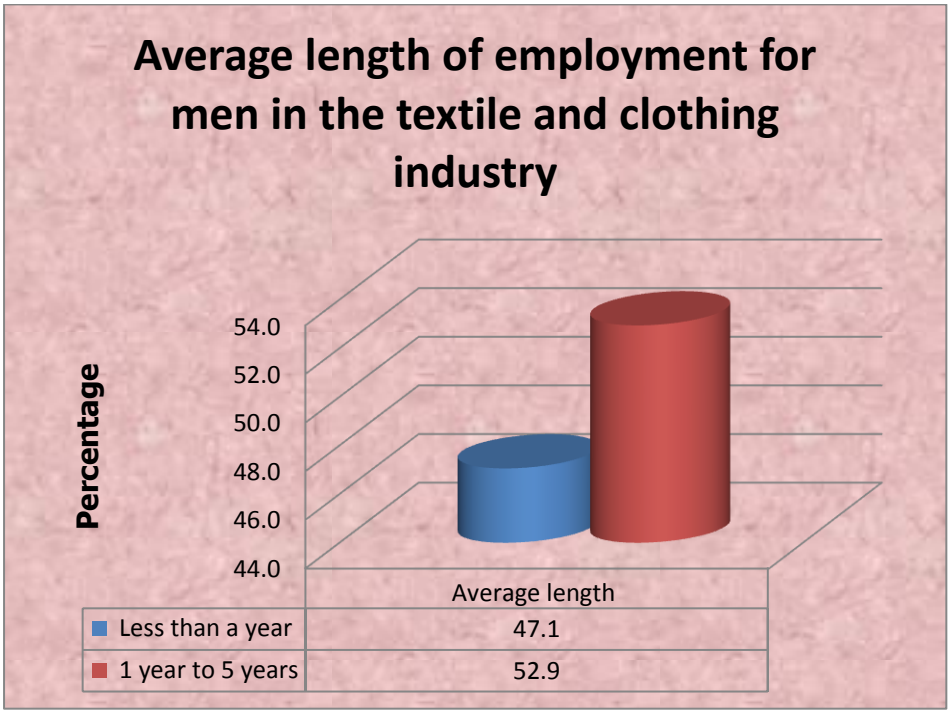


Source*:* Constructed by author (2015)

Figure 4.12 depicts the requirements needed to hire and/ or promote employees into the management positions/senior management roles. The requirement mostly needed is tertiary education level (76.5%), followed by others specified as experience and length of the service in the company (17.6%). The least important requirement being holding a Vocational Certificate (5.9%). The data indicates that the textile and clothing industry hire and or promote when an employee has acquired education at tertiary level (degree). Moreover, experience and length of service in the textile and clothing industry are considered for hire and/ or promotion in management positions.

Q3. What is the average length of employment for men in the company under the low-skilled category?

Figure 4.13*:* Average length of tenure for male employees in the company

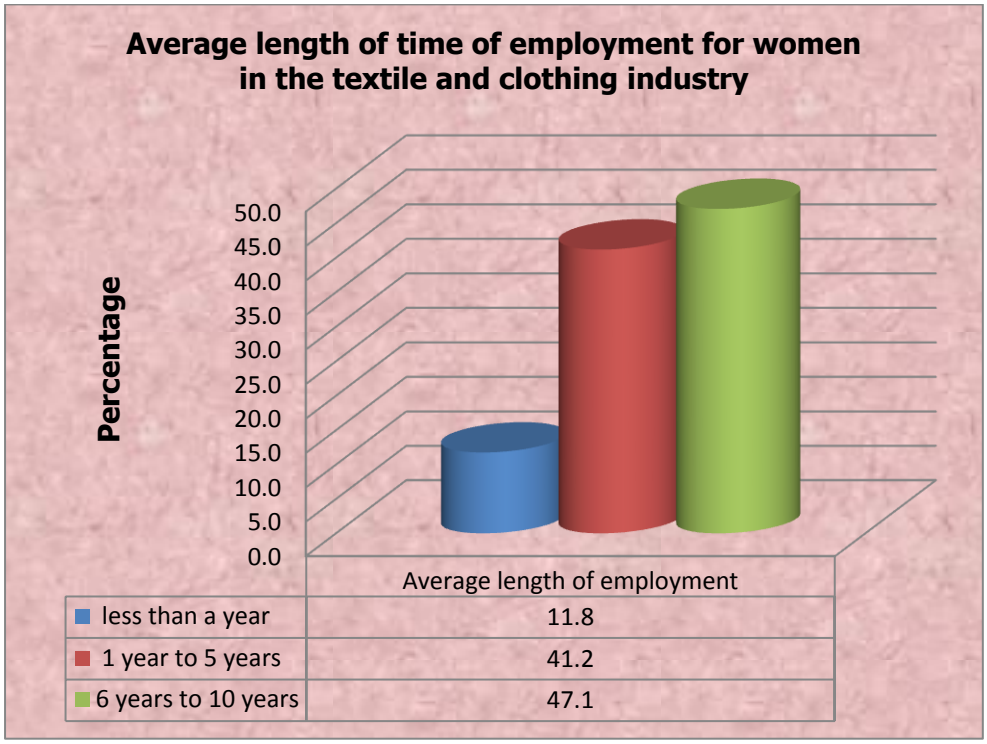


Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

The statistics in Figure 4.13 show the average length of employment for men in the textile and clothing industry. Large numbers of the management team participants highlight that men under the low-skilled labourer category have a period tenure between one (1) and five (5) years (52.9%) as well as a period tenure of less than a year (47.1 %) in the textile and clothing industry.

Q4. What is the average length of time of employment for women in the company under low-skilled labourer category?

Figure 4.14: Average length of tenure for females employees in the company



Source: constructed by author (2015)

Figure 4.14 reflects the average length of employment for women in the textile and clothing industry. The majority of the management team participants indicate that female employees under the low-skilled labourer category tenure have a period between six (6) to ten (10) years (47.1%) , followed by a period of tenure between one (1) to five (5) years (41.2%) and lastly a period of tenure less than a year (11.2%) in the company (textile and clothing industry).

The data in Figure 4.13 and 4.14 indicates that the maximum length of employment is one (1) to five (5) years for males and six (6) to 10 years for females in the textile and clothing industry. The statistics shows that males do not work as long to work in the textile and clothing industry as females. This highlights one of the reason why the textile and clothing industry prefers to hire more females than males under the low-skilled labourer category.

4.2.4 Section C: Criteria to hire employees

Data obtained from the open-ended questions from the semi-structured questionnaire are presented below:

- Firstly, the criteria used to hire employees under the low-skilled labourer category and management positions.
- Secondly, the barriers to women to being promoted and/ or hired in management roles in the textile and clothing industry.
- Thirdly, the effects of misrepresentation of males and females in the company's performance/productivity.
- Fourthly, whether the company has any documented policy which deals with gender based discrimination.

The questions were answered by the management team participants from the textile and clothing industry.

Q5. Why does the company prefer to hire more females than males under the semi-skilled labourer category?

Table 4.10: Reasons to hire more females than males under low-skilled labourer category

Reasons the textile and clothing industry prefer to hire females	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Loyal, committed and hard workers	14	82.4
Not difficult to work with and mostly forthcoming to seek job	2	11.8
Textile is a job for women and they do not disappear from work as their male counterparts do	1	5.9
Total	**17**	**100.0**

Source: constructed by author (2015)

As depicted in Table 4.10, the management team participants indicated that the company hires more females than males under the low-skilled labourer category because:

Women are Loyal, committed, hard workers, not difficult to work with, are mostly the ones coming to look for a job, and textiles is meant for women and lastly they do not disappear from work as their male counterparts do.

Q6. What are the criteria used to hire or promote employees to the senior management roles?

Table 4.11*:* Criteria to hire and or promote employees to the senior management roles

Criteria to hire or promote employees in the senior management roles	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Qualification, experience, length of service in the company	16	94.1
Loyal	1	5.9
Total	**17**	**100.0**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

The criteria used to hire or promote employees to the senior management roles as highlighted in Table 4.11 are;

- Qualification
- Experience
- Length of service in the company and
- Loyal

Q7. What are the barriers to women to being promoted and/ or hired to the senior management roles in the company?

Table 4.12*:* Barriers for women to be promoted/hired to the senior management roles

Barriers to women to being hired and/ or promoted in the senior management roles	Frequency	Percentage (%)
nothing in my mind	1	5.9
not forthcoming to apply for management positions	2	11.8
maternity leave, low qualification levels and sick leave	14	82.4
Total	**17**	**100.0**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

The participants outlined the barriers/obstacles for women to be promoted and or hired in the senior management roles in the textile and clothing industry as indicated in Table 4.12 as follows;

- Low qualifications
- Not forthcoming to apply for the management positions
- Maternity leave
- Continuous sick leaves

Q8. Does misrepresentation of males and/ or females have any effect in the company's performance/productivity? Explain the answer given above.

According to Table 4.13, all the participants expressed their views that misrepresentation of males and/ or females has no effect in the performance of the company. Table 4.14 reflects that in the textile and clothing industry, they work with shifts and targets, thus, low-skilled labourers are required to comply with them.

Table 4.13*:* Effect of misrepresentation of males and/ or females in the company's performance/productivity

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	0	0.00
No	17	100.00
TOTAL	**17**	**100.0**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Table 4.14*:* Explanation by Management team participants

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
work with targets	5	29.4
Shifts	3	17.6
work with target and shifts	7	41.2
no response	2	11.8
TOTAL	**17**	**100.0**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Q9. Does the company have any documented policy which deals with gender based discrimination and or gender issues?

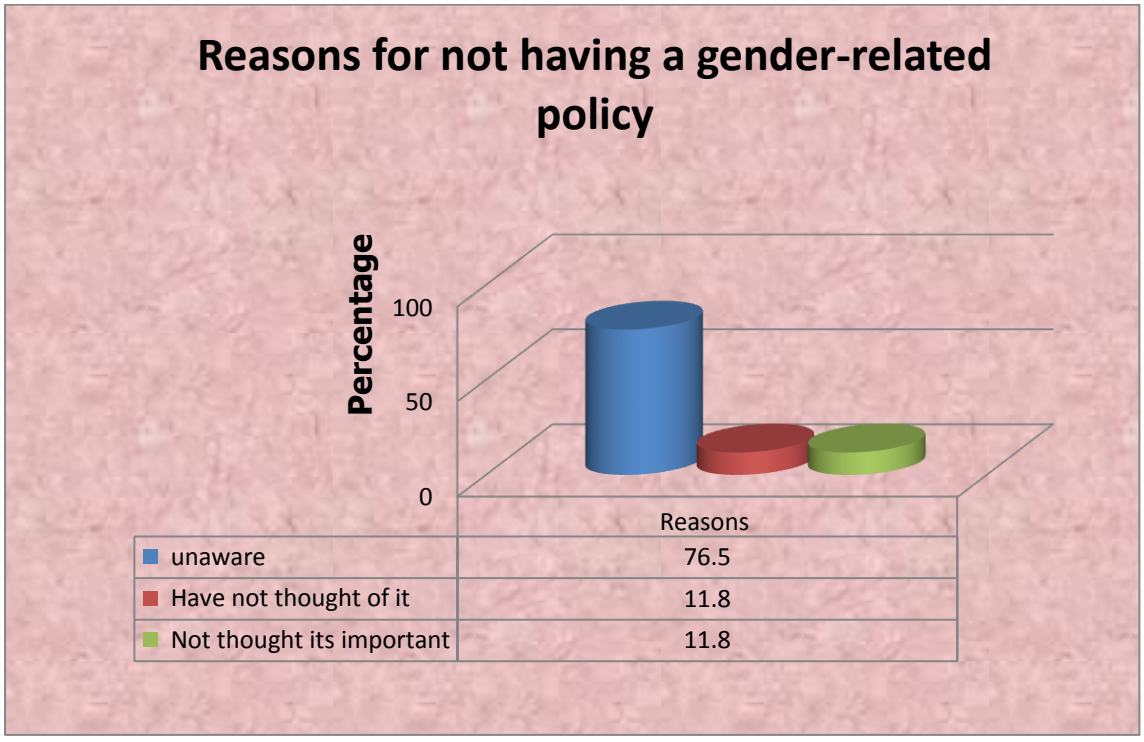
If no, why?

Table 4.15*:* Documented policy in the company

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	0	0.00
No	17	100.0
Total	**17**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Figure 4.15: Reasons for not having a gender-related policy document



Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

The management team participants indicated that the companies do not have any documented policy regarding gender issues as highlighted in Table 4.15. They gave the following reasons also reflected in Figure 4.15;

- Unaware
- Have not thought of it
- Not thought it is important

4.2.5 Section D*:* Opinion of the participants regarding recruitment to the management position

In this section, a Five-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” was used to determine participants’ opinion regarding recruitment in management positions.

Q10. The company hires both males and females in the high rank positions

Table 4.16*:* Both male and female hired in the high rank positions

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly disagree	22	47
Slightly disagree	5	11
Agree	3	6
Slightly agree	5	11
Strongly agree	2	4
No Vote	10	21
Total	**47**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Table 4.16 reflects the response from the management team and low-skilled labourer participants from the textile and clothing industry. 47% of the participants

indicated that they strongly disagree that the company hires both females and males in the high rank positions. 11%, 6% and 4 % of the participants slightly agree, agree and strongly agree that the company hires both females and males in the high rank positions, respectively. According to the data in Table 4.16, the majority of the participants do not agree that the company hires both females and males in the high rank positions. Thus, these results indicate that the textile and clothing industry do not hire both females and males in the high rank positions.

Q11.Promotion and recruitment occurs without consideration of gender in the company.

Table 4.17*:* Consideration of gender in promotion and recruitment

	Frequency	**Percentage (%)**
Strongly disagree	19	40.4
Slightly disagree	2	4.3
Agree	1	2.1
Slightly agree	10	21.3
Strongly agree	4	8.5
No Vote	11	23.4
Total	**47**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

According to Table 4.17, 40.4% of the participants strongly disagree that promotion and recruitment occurs without consideration of gender in the company. 21.3 % and 2.1% of the participants slightly agree and agree with the statement, respectively.

Hence, the data indicates that the textile and clothing industry appears to consider whether a person is a male or female during promotions and recruitments.

Q12. The company promotes considering the years in the company.

Table 4.18*:* Consideration of years to promote

	Frequency	**Percentage (%)**
Strongly disagree	23	49
Slightly disagree	2	4
Agree	1	2
Slightly agree	8	18
Strongly agree	4	8
No Vote	9	19
Total	**47**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

The data in Table 4.18 is the response of the participants from the textile and clothing industry. The majority of the participants strongly disagree (49%) with the statement. 18% slightly agree, 8% strongly agree and 2% agree that the company promotes considering the years in the company. The findings highlight that the textile and clothing industry appear to not consider the number of years an employee has been in the company when promoting.

Q13. Female managers are less efficient than their male counterparts.

Table 4.19*:* Female managers less efficient than male managers

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly disagree	40.0	85.1
Slightly disagree	3.0	6.4
Agree	2.0	4.3
Slightly agree	1.0	2.1
Strongly agree	1.0	2.1
Total	**47.0**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

According to Table 4.19, large numbers of the participants strongly disagree (85.1%) that female managers are less efficient than their male counterparts. 4.3 % and 2.1% of the participants agree, slightly and strongly agree with the statement, respectively. The data indicates that female managers are as efficient as their male counterparts.

Q14 Females have a lower self-esteem than their male counterparts.

Table 4.20*:* Females have lower self-esteem than males

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly disagree	15	31.9
Disagree	9	19.1
Agree	10	21.3
Slightly agree	13	27.7
Total	**47**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by the author (2015)

Table 4.20 indicates that 31.9% of the management team and low-skilled labourer participants strongly disagree with the statement above. Moreover, the table highlights that 27.7% of the participants slightly agree that females have a lower self-esteem than their male counterparts. The results reflect that the majority of the participants do not agree that females have lower self-esteem than males.

The following statements except statement in Q18 were answered by the low-skilled labourers only.

Q15. I feel comfortable to be managed by a female manager.

Table 4.21*:* Opinion about being managed by a female manager

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly disagree	1	3.3
Slightly Disagree	3	10
Agree	20	66.7
Slightly agree	3	10
Strongly agree	3	10
Total	**30**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

The above statement was responded to by the low-skilled labour participants. The data in Table 4.21 depicts that the low-skilled labourers do agree (66.7%) with the statement. 10% of the participants strongly and slightly agree with the statement. Few of the participants strongly disagree (3.3%) with the statement. Overall, the majority of the participants (86.7%) do agree with the statement above.

Q16. I feel comfortable to be managed by a male manager

Table 4.22*:* Opinion to be managed by a male manager

	Frequency	**Percentage (%)**
Agree	13	43.3
Slightly agree	6	20
Strongly agree	10	33.3
No Vote	1	3.3
TOTAL	**30**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

According to Table 4.22, the majority of the participants do agree with the statement. 43.3% of the low-skilled labour participants agree, 33.3% strongly agree and 20% slightly agree with the statement, totalling 96.3%.

The findings from Table 4.21 and Table 4.22 indicate that the majority of the participants feel comfortable to be managed by male managers (comparing 86.7% and 96.3% overall).

Q17. Women are discriminated against in the company.

Table 4.23*:* Women discriminated against in the company

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly disagree	2	6.7
Slightly Disagree	4	13.3
Agree	6	20
Slightly agree	8	26.7
Strongly agree	8	26.7
No Vote	2	6.7
Total	**30**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Table 4.23 reflects the response by the low-skilled labour participants for the statement above. A large number of the participants do agree with the statement. 26.7% of the participants strongly and slightly agree with the statement. The findings indicate that women are discriminated against in the promotion and recruitment in the textile and clothing industry.

Q18. Female managers are supportive of their female colleagues and subordinates in the company.

Table 4.24*:* Female managers supportive of their female colleagues and subordinates

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly disagree	2	4.3
Slightly disagree	3	6.4
Agree	24	51
Slightly agree	11	23.4
Strongly agree	1	2.1
No Vote	6	12.8
Total	**47**	**100**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

The data in Table 4.24 reflects that the majority of the participants (management team and low-skilled labour participants) agree (51%) with the statement. 23.4 % of the participants slightly agree with the statement. Few of the participants (10.7%) disagree that female managers are supportive of their female colleagues and subordinates in the company.

Overall, the findings indicate that the textile and clothing industry considers gender during recruitment and promotion in the high rank positions. There is an indication that males are considered more favourably during recruitment and promotion. Furthermore, women are discriminated against in the textile and clothing industry during recruitment and/ or promotion in the high rank positions.

4.3 Findings from the companies' personnel files

Some of the objectives were answered from the data collection and using the companies' personal files. Objective 2, "To determine the demographic representation of females and males in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana" was determined using the companies' personnel files.

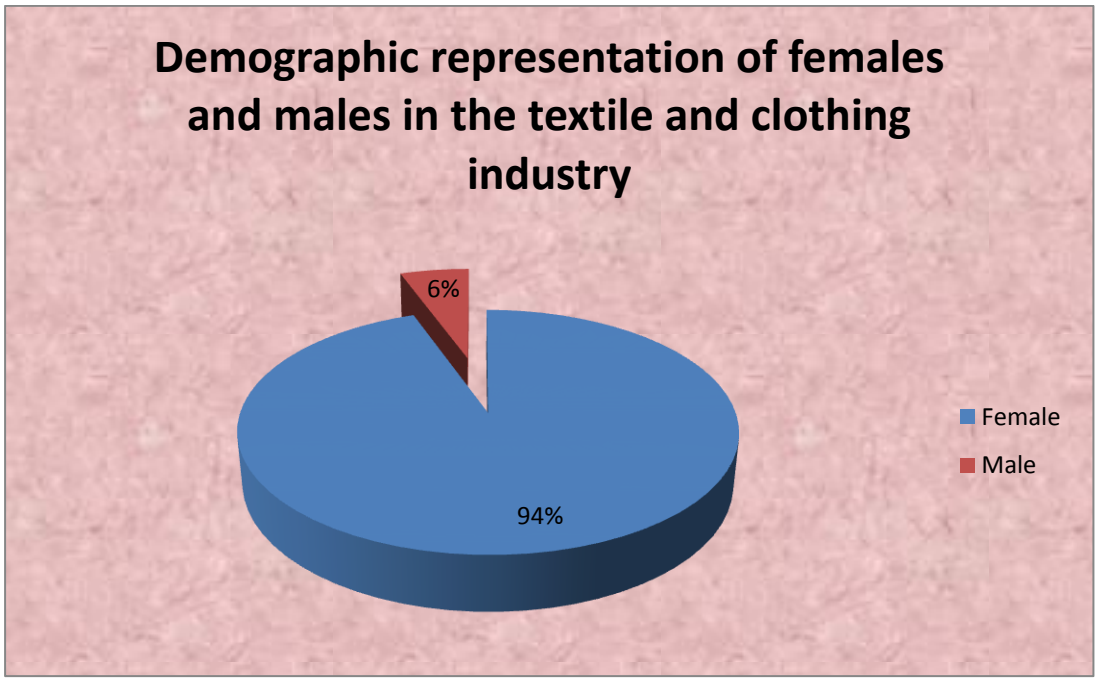
The demographic representation of females and males in the textile and clothing industry were determined using the company personnel files.

Table 4.25*:* Employment in the Textile and Clothing Industry

Company	**Gender**		
	Female	**Male**	**Total**
A	23	1	**24**
B	676	19	**695**
C	22	6	**28**
D	20	12	**32**
E	21	5	**26**
F	210	12	**222**
G	41	4	**45**
H	13	2	**15**
TOTAL	**1026**	**61**	**1087**

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Figure 4.16*:* Demographic representation of females and males in the textile and clothing industry



Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

Figure 4.16 reflects the demographic representation of females and males in the companies (textile and clothing industry). The majority of the employees as depicted in the figure are females (96%) and 4% are males.

Table 4.26*:* Demographic representation of males and females in the Management team of the textile and clothing industry

Company	Gender	Directors	Managing Director	Production Managers	Human Resource Manager	Sales and Marketing Manager	TOTAL
A	Male	3	1	1	1	2	**8**
	Female	0	0	0	1	1	**2**
	TOTAL	**3**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**3**	***10***
B	Male	2	1	1	0	1	**5**
	Female	1	0	0	1	0	**2**
	TOTAL	**3**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	***7***
C	Male	4	1	1	0	2	**8**
	Female	0	0	0	1	1	**2**
	TOTAL	**4**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**3**	***10***
D	Male	3	0	1	1	1	**6**
	Female	0	0	0	1	1	**2**
	TOTAL	**3**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**2**	***8***
E	Male	2	1	1	0	1	**5**
	Female	0	0	0	1	1	**2**
	TOTAL	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**2**	***7***
F	Male	3	0	1	1	1	**6**
	Female	0	0	0	2	1	**3**
	TOTAL	**3**	**0**	**1**	**3**	**2**	***9***
G	Male	4	1	1	0	1	**7**
	Female	0	0	0	1	0	**1**
	Total	4	1	1	1	1	**8**
H	Male	2	1	1	1	1	**6**
	Female	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
	TOTAL	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	***6***

Source*:* constructed by author (2015)

According to the data in Table 4.26, the vast numbers of the employees in the management positions are males. As shown in the table, males are mostly in the Director, Managing Director as well as Production Manager positions while females are in the Human Resources Manager position.

4. 4 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the data analysis and findings of the study on ‘Exploring the Gender Inequality in the Textile and Clothing Industry of Botswana’. The findings revealed that there is indeed gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry. The majority of the employees working under the low-skilled labourer category are females while the vast numbers of males are in management positions, especially in the core business areas. The criteria for the textile and clothing industry to hire employees in the low-skilled labourers and management positions were also identified. The barriers for women to be hired and/or promoted to high rank positions were also highlighted in the findings. The Chapter further identified that the textile and clothing industry has no documented policy regarding gender related issues. The opinions from the participants were also revealed regarding recruitment to the management positions.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The main objective of the study was to explore gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. An investigation was carried out in eight (8) companies from the textile and clothing industry. The participants were from the management teams and low-skilled labourer category from the selected textile and clothing industry/companies. A semi-structured questionnaire was design, piloted and administered to collect the data from the participants.

The study set out to address the following objectives:

- To investigate gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana.

Secondary goals of the study are as follows;

- To review literature on gender inequality in the workplace.
- To determine the demographic representation of females and males in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana.
- To identify the criteria used to hire employees.
- To identify barriers for women to be promoted and/ or hired to management positions.
- To determine the effects of gender inequality in the production and/ or performance of the textile and clothing industry.

The number of questionnaires completed by the participants was 56 from eight (8) companies who granted permission to conduct the research. Only 47 questionnaires were completed by the participants (17 management team and 30 low-skilled labourers) from the selected companies in the textile and clothing industry. The management team participants had to complete all the questions except questions 15 to 17 in the questionnaire. The low-skilled labourers completed Section A and D only.

Data analysis for this study was therefore based on the 47 questionnaires and the information from the companies' personnel files. Findings for both the questionnaires and secondary data are incorporated in the discussion to follow.

5.2 Findings from the literature on gender inequality in the workplace

The researcher reviewed the literature on gender inequality in the workplace to obtain a deeper understanding on the topic and what authors have found to be the major challenges. Gender inequality in the workplace is an international issue which almost all countries are trying to address. Several authors, articles, websites, journals, books, thesis and newsletters were used to review literature on the topic. Acker (2006:443) cites the forms of inequality as:

- discrimination and oppression in the workplace which varies and includes among others, systematic disparities between participants in power and control over goals, resources, and outcomes;
- workplace decisions such as how to organize work;
- opportunities for promotion and interesting work;
- security in employment and benefits; pay and other monetary rewards;
- respect; and pleasures in work and work relations.

The causes and consequences of gender inequality within the manufacturing sector were highlighted. These include among others:

- Low participation of women in leadership and *decision-making* positions;
- Lack of gender-sensitive public sector spending, including a dearth of gender budgeting and audits;
- Low levels of affirmative action and quota policies for women in national and state level development and welfare provision;
- Low levels of public expenditure in health-care, education and training, child-care and infrastructure, including clean water and roads;
- Gender-blind industrial policies, including low levels of industry competence and political will to work on gender issues;
- Lack of recognition of women's 'reproductive'/unpaid work, and
- Lack of sex disaggregated data.

Literature revealed that Botswana has made progress in advancement of women in the public service where women constitute the majority of employees, and this is also true in other sectors of the economy. However, the statistics indicate that women hold fewer than half of *decision-making* positions, which is still the case as per the data collected and findings of this research. Furthermore, representation of women in political *decision-making* is the lowest in Botswana, compared to other African countries while women constitute a major proportion of the population, and also predominate as employees in the civil service. These numbers tend to mask real income disparities and inequalities between women and men. Women in the civil service tend to occupy lower level positions in organisational structures, and are therefore, at the lower end of pay structures. The Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs Report of 2008 revealed that the majority of the decision makers in Botswana at high positions (D1 scale) are males. That is, males are employed in higher positions than their female counterparts. Authors cite that females are employed in junior ministerial positions or leading ministries dealing with issues traditionally seen as falling within the women's sphere, such as women's affairs and social welfare.

It has been identified in the literature that high numbers of women are seen in some sectors, such as government and textile and clothing industry. Botha (2013) alludes to the fact that despite all legislative measures and well-intended initiatives, the number of women in the mining sector is still relatively low and they are mainly employed in administrative and supportive positions in the industry.

5.3 Demographic representation of females and males in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana

This research used primary and secondary data to find the demographic representation of the females and males in the textile and clothing industry. Literature review, the companies' personal files and findings from the questionnaires were utilised. Literature reveals that there are more females hired in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. According to Statistics Botswana Labour Force Report of the Population census of 2011, released in May 2015, there are more females (5509) than males (2091) hired in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. The case was likewise in 2010 and 2011. There were 5471 females and 1756 males

hired in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana, however the level of seniority of females in the organisation is questioned.

Further findings from the literature highlight that the distribution of men and women in the various occupations along the textile and clothing occupational structure shows a degree of occupational segregation. Men are disproportionately represented in the upper, more powerful professions, such as supervisors, managers, executives, and production operators. On the other hand, women tend to be over-represented in the lowest-ranking, lowest paid occupations in the workforce, such as secretaries, sewing machine operators and sales associates. Unsurprisingly, the largest single occupation, accounting for 56% of all workers, is factory workers. However, nearly half of all men (47%) occupy this category whilst for women the figure is 71% (El Haddad, 2010:5).

Notably, in this study it was confirmed that the majority of the high-rank positions in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana are held by males. Unsurprisingly, 76% and 24% of the male and female participants respectively, were from the management team. Females are mostly found at low-skilled labourer levels while males are hired for management positions. Those positions are Director, Managing Director and Production Manager. Females hold lower managerial positions such as Human Resource Manager.

The findings from the questionnaires completed by the low-skilled labourers and management team participants from the textile and clothing industry reflect that there are more females (87 %) than males (13%) hired in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana, which corresponds with previous findings and reports. Evidence from this research is that out of the 47 participants, 64% were females while 36% were males. The majority of the female participants were from the low-skilled labourer category while the majority of the male participants were in the management team.

5.4 The criteria used to hire employees in the textile and clothing industry

The findings from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire identified the criteria used to hire employees in the textile and clothing industry. It has been revealed that the reasons the textile and clothing industry prefer to hire more females

than males under the low-skilled labourer category is because; females are loyal, committed to work, always meet their targets, forthcoming to look for a job in the textile and clothing industry compared to their male counterparts, not difficult to supervise or work with, do not disappear from work compared to their male counterparts and finally, the textile industry is jobs are preferably for women.

The findings also highlight that the average length of females in the textile and clothing industry as per the management team participants is mostly between six (6) and ten (10) years (47.1%), one (1) and five (5) years (41.2%) and less than five (5) years (11.8%). On the other hand, the average length of the males in the textile and clothing industry according to the response by the management team is between one (1) and five (5) years (52.9%) and less than a year (47.1%). The researcher's view is that the textile and clothing industry further prefers to hire more females than males mainly because the females spend a longer period in the company compared to their male counterparts. Thus, the textile and clothing industry, as a profit-making entity, attempting to deal with high turnover rates, leads to high costs in terms of resources and efficiency losses. Furthermore, they are attempting to reduce regular training for new employees who are replacing the employees who left without serving notice. This situation also hinders the production schedule.

The researcher identified that the criteria used to hire and/ or promote employees to the senior management roles are; tertiary qualifications, experience, length in service and loyal.

Further findings from the questionnaire regarding the recruitment to management position were identified as follows;

i. It has been evident from the study that the textile and clothing industry does not hire both males and females to the high rank positions. 58% of the participants disagreed with the statement.
ii. The textile and clothing industry's promotion and recruitment occurs with consideration for gender. 44.7 % disagreed with the statement, "**Promotion and recruitment occurs without consideration of gender in the company**" while 31.9% agreed with the statement and the rest did not vote.

iii. The industry/sector does not promote individual based on consideration for the years in the company. 53% of the participants disagreed with the statement.

iv. The participants from the textile and clothing industry disagreed (91.5%) that female managers are less efficient than their male counterparts.

v. The participants from the textile and clothing industry disagree (51%) that females have a lower self-esteem than their male counterparts.

vi. The low-skilled labourer participants in the textile and clothing industry agreed (86.7%) that they feel comfortable to be managed by a female manager.

vii. The low-skilled labourer participants from the textile and clothing industry agreed (96.6%) that they feel comfortable to be managed by a male manager.

viii. The sector discriminates against women in the company. The findings indicate that 73.4% of the participants agreed with the statement that, “Women are discriminated against in the company”.

ix. It has been evident from the study that female managers are supportive of their female colleagues and subordinates in the textile and clothing industry. 76.5% of the participants from the textile and clothing industry agreed with the statement.

In conclusion, regarding the recruitment of employees to management positions, it is highlighted by the findings that the textile and clothing industry hires more males than females to management positions. The promotion and recruitment procedures are biased against females.

5.5 Barriers for women to be promoted and/ or hired in management positions

Although women constitute over 50% of the world’s population, in no country do they represent half, or even close to half of the corporate managers (Adler & Izraeli, 1988:3). Over the past 30 years, women's representation in the workforce has increased dramatically but they continue to assume most of the family and household responsibilities. Even in the developed world where gender roles in the household have evolved over several decades, significant inequalities remain. This

duality in women's lives has resulted in gender inequality, not only in the household and the labour market, but also in women's social position and well-being (AfDB, 2011).

It was evident from the study that there are obstacles for women to be promoted and/ or hired to management positions. From the findings of the study, the barriers for women to be promoted and/ or hired in management positions are said to be; low qualification, maternity leave, continuous sick leave and not forthcoming to apply for management positions.

The researcher's view is that the barriers outlined above are concerning as maternity leave and sick leave for women are expected and will remain a barrier if family support is not shared by males and females alike. It means that companies are denying women their rights and to occupy senior management positions/roles to prove their ability to manage. Secondly, there is a period given for a woman to be on maternity leave. Thus, the company can make alternative arrangement such as hiring a temporary officer to execute that person's duties.

To be fair, the textile and clothing industry is a profit-making industry. There is competition locally and internationally. Moreover, globalisation is taking its toll. There are a lot of imports from overseas coming into the country with modernised designs. Thus, companies in the textile and clothing industry need to hire well-qualified people in order to be competitive and have a sustainable business.

The findings from the literature revealed the barriers to women to be hired and/ or promoted to management roles/ women underrepresented in the management positions are as follows;

i. Lack of women in senior positions is said to indicate to lower-level women that aspiring to upper-level positions is untenable. Highly qualified and experienced women may thus not apply for upper level positions.
ii. Women's under-representation in upper management is problematic in that when there are fewer women in senior leadership positions, women lower in the organisational hierarchy have few, if any, female mentors with experience in upper management. That is, without seasoned female

mentors to guide women through what can be a politically driven succession planning process, women may feel unprepared for upper-management positions and thus not apply.

Vinkenberg (2000) outlined the following as the reasons for the slow movement of women in management positions;

iii. Structural barriers or discrimination
iv. Gender roles and stereotypes
v. Individual differences or deficiencies

Gilike (2009) concurs with Vinkenburg (2000) and Hoobler (2011). She reports that hindrances such as gendered role expectations, cultural and stereotypical attitudes, and family responsibility contribute to the low representation of women in Botswana's positions of power and *decision-making*.

Chan (1988:64) cites that Director and Chief Executive of PA Consulting service observed the following to be some of employers' more common reservations for women to be considered for management positions;

i. Married women are considered unsuitable for jobs that require frequent travel.
ii. Companies are reluctant to hire a woman to head a department staffed by men.
iii. Companies seldom recruit female managers from outside, preferring to promote female staff who have a proven track record within the company.
iv. Companies hesitate to employ women to supervise plants, shipyards, or construction sites, places labelled "off limits" to women.
v. Employers commonly believe that women will have a much more difficult time gaining the trust and respect of customers

Other barriers hindering the progression of women into leadership positions revealed from the findings of the literature are organizational, interpersonal and personal barriers (Northouse, 2001, as quoted by Nkatumba, 2010). Consequently, practices such as the 'glass ceiling', homophilia, the "old boys" network, tokenism and the

queen bee syndrome are all viewed as hindrances that not only exclude women but also limit women's access to leadership (Northouse, 2001, as quoted by Nkatumba, 2010).

It was evident that more research has been conducted on women in management roles. Hoobler *et al.,* (2011:153) focused on women underrepresentation in upper management. The findings indicate that higher-level positions required less structured workdays and more availability, and that women were thought to be unable to meet the requirements of a variable work schedule due to family demands. From female employees' own perspective, they believed their managers felt they were unfit for managerial positions because they were too feminine. Based on the findings, Hoobler *et al.,* conclude that the "think leader", "think male" stereotype is alive and well. They further say that women are generally viewed as having greater family-work conflict (defined as family responsibilities interfering with their work) that is incompatible with a work environment that demands long hours and ''face time.'' Lastly, they believe that even today, when managers of both sexes envision the right person for a managerial job, especially in male-dominated industries (e.g., construction and transportation/utilities), a man is more likely than a woman to come to mind, because the male is associated with effective leadership characteristics (active hobbies, deeper, commanding voices as in the example above).

5.6 The effects of gender inequality in the production and or performance of the textile and clothing industry

The findings from the study highlight that misrepresentation of females and/or males have no effect in the production and/ or performance of the textile and clothing industry. The participants indicated that in the textile and clothing industry, employees work with shifts and targets, hence, employees/ low-skilled labourers are forced to work hard in order to meet their target. That is, whether there are more females or males in the textile and clothing industry more especially among the low-skilled labourer or production site, the work still continues without any hindrances.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The main goal of this study was to “Explore the gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana”. The research question was “*Despite Botswana’s support for equality in the workplace* ***the textile and clothing industry employs more females than males, more especially under the low/semi-skilled labourer category and seemingly, women are not represented equally in senior positions. Thus, what is the current situation with women in senior management roles and, what are the barriers and or factors which results women not being hired and/or promoted to management positions in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana?”***

The data collected from the participants from the textile and clothing industry as well as the secondary data was analysed and discussed. The findings from the data collected as well as from the literature were also evaluated.

It has been revealed that indeed there is gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. The textile and clothing industry of Botswana is populated with more female employees than male employees in low-skilled labourer positions. In the management positions, there are more males than females. Females are mostly over-represented in the low management positions such as Human Resource Manager and Sales and Marketing Positions. Unsurprisingly, males occupy high rank positions such as Director, Managing director, Production manager, Operations manager and Supervisors. That is, occupations are “sex-typed” as either being specifically male or female jobs. The findings in the literature revealed that females are overrepresented in lowest ranking, lowest paid occupations such as secretaries, sewing machine operators and sales associates.

It has been evident from the study that the textile and clothing industry does not hire both males and females into the high-ranking positions. It has been revealed that the sector promotes and recruits with consideration for gender. The sector does not promote with consideration to the years of service in the sector. Furthermore, findings from the study highlight that female managers are not less efficient than their male counterparts. Females do not have lower self-esteem than their male counterparts. According to the study, low-skilled labourers feel comfortable to be

managed by both males and females. The study reflects that female managers are supportive of their female colleagues and subordinates in the textile and clothing industry. Therefore, there is evidence of discrimination towards women in the textile and clothing industry when it comes to promotion and recruitment to management positions.

The findings from the literature highlight that women are not promoted or are under-represented in the upper management positions because of the 'glass ceiling', gender role expectations, cultural and stereotype attitudes, family responsibility, organisational, interpersonal and personal barriers. The barriers revealed from the study are low qualifications, not forthcoming to apply for management positions, maternity leave and continuous sick leave.

It was evident from the study that misrepresentation of the males and/ or females in the textile and clothing industry more especially under the low-skilled labourer category does not have any effect on performance/production. What matters is whether the target is met and employees are present during their shifts.

It has been highlighted that the textile and clothing industry does not have documented policy (ies) dealing with gender-related issues. The participants indicated that they were not aware that the companies should have them.

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations arising from the literature and findings of this study are as follows;

i. The Textile and Clothing industry should implement the policies and regulations regarding the gender and labour related issues since they are key areas for the economic development of the country. Moreover, the sector should be trained on different programmes concerning gender and labour-related issues.
ii. The Textile and Clothing industry should be empowered by the government of Botswana since it mostly hires females who are the most vulnerable in society through subsidies and any other benefits such as

AGOA and SACU incentives. Also it is a sector which contributes hugely to the country's economy.

iii. Women should be encouraged to apply for management positions as opportunities are available for them in different sectors through workshops, meetings and seminars by the Gender Affairs Department, Botswana or other stakeholders such as the Ministry of Trade and Industry and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO's). Moreover, women should upgrade their qualifications to enable them to occupy high rank positions. It has been revealed in the study that most of them acquired PSLE and some do not have any qualifications.

iv. The Government of Botswana should encourage males to enrol in the Textile or Fashion-related courses in order for them to be encouraged to work in the textile and clothing industry. That is, the Government should set a target for females and males for enrolment in textile related courses.

v. The textile and clothing industry should conduct exit interviews where possible to identify reasons why the employees leave work and at times to do so even without serving notice.

vi. The textile and clothing industry should learn and understand more on the Labour Act and Employment Act of Botswana and implement the provisions accordingly.

5.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Possible weaknesses of the study are listed below for improvement in future research.

i. The research was limited to one location (Gaborone). The findings could have been of more value if it had been conducted from different places in the villages, town and cities). That is, to have better and well-represented findings. Therefore, the finding cannot be generalised.

ii. The time allocated for the study was not enough. The research could have been done much better if it had been given a period of a year without simultaneously being executed with the course-work from the University. The research needs time and a lot of concentration and thinking.

iii. The researcher did not have many of the skills in conducting the research of this high calibre.

5.10 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study uncovers the gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. No or few studies have been conducted under this topic in Botswana. More research should be conducted on this topic and identify other subtopics such as “Women in Management Roles in the textile and clothing industry”, “Courses offered in the Tertiary Schools/Vocational Schools in Botswana” and “The enrolment rate of Females and Males students in the textile related courses” in order to fill in the gap in the literature regarding the topic. The researchers should avoid the option **“No Vote”** in their questionnaire as the participants tend to be reluctant to answer the question(s) when this is an option. In total, (6) six out of the nine (9) five point Likert scale questions had “No Vote” responses.

5.11 FINAL CONCLUSION

The researcher’s final conclusion is that based on the findings of the study, the main aim of this research “**To explore gender inequality in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana”** and the research questions, *Despite Botswana’s support for equality in the workplace* ***the textile and clothing industry employs more females than males, more especially under the low/semi-skilled labourer category and seemingly, women are not represented equally in senior positions. Thus, what is the current situation with women in senior management roles and, what are the barriers and or factors which result in women not being hired and/ or promoted to management positions in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana?”*** were answered. The primary and secondary data was utilised. The most critical questions or objectives such as, “To identify the criteria used to hire employees” and “To determine barriers for women to be promoted and/ or hired to management positions” were answered and their findings were from the primary data which confirms and also contributes to the existing literature.

The researcher is confident that the study would be of assistance to other researchers. Moreover, the study should assist the textile and clothing industry and

the Government of Botswana and other countries to come up with better policies and programmes concerning the gender-related issues.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participants,

As part of my studies in Master of Business Administration Degree, I am conducting an academic investigation into gender inequality in management within the textile and clothing industry of Botswana. The purpose of this study is to investigate why the textile and clothing industry employs more females than males in seemingly lower level jobs and what is the case with women in senior or managerial positions. Thus, what is the situation with women in senior management roles and what are the barriers and or factors which lead to women not to be hired in or promoted to management positions in the textile and clothing industry of Botswana?" I therefore, seek your kind participation in this study. The questionnaire consists of 18 questions which will take 10-15 minutes of your time to complete. Please complete all the questions related to you as indicated under each section.

Your opinion will be kept anonymous and the study findings will be used strictly for academic purposes only. Please be assured that all information supplied by you will be treated as confidential at all times. Please tick/fill in your responses on the box or blanks provided accurately.

Thank you in advance for your willingness to participate.

Section A Part 1*:* Demographic information of the participants (*both managers and low-skilled-labourers)***

Fill in the following and please tick (√) inside the box which relevant to you.

Company name:.....

Present position:.....

Qualification: .....

What is your gender?

Male	
Female	

What is your age category?

18-30 years	
31-40 years	
41-50 years	
51-60 years	
Above 61 years	

How long have you been in the present position?

Less than 5 years	
5-10 years	
11- 15 years	
16-20 years	
20-30 years	

What is the length of your service in the company?

Less than 5 years	
5-10 years	
11- 15 years	
16-20 years	
20-30 years	

Indicate the basis of your appointment

Full-time appointment	
Fixed-term contract appointment	
Part time/Hourly appointment	

Section B*:* Requirements for employment and length of stay by employees in the company *(should be answered by Managers only)*

Please tick (√) inside the box to answer the following:

1. What are the requirements needed to hire employees under semi-skilled labourer)

Primary level	
Junior-Secondary level	
Tertiary e.g. Degree, Diploma, Associated Degree, Certificate	
Vocational certificate*:* Trade Test C; B and National Craft Certificate(NCC)	
National Identity	

All of the above	

2. What are the requirements needed to hire employees in the management position/senior management roles?

Primary level	
Junior-Secondary level	
Tertiary e.g. Degree, Diploma, Associated Degree, Certificate	
Vocational certificate*:* Trade Test C; B and National Craft Certificate(NCC)	
Other specify:	

3. What is the average length of employment for men in the company?

Less than a year	
1 year to 5 years	
6 years to 10 years	
10 years and above	

4. What is the average length of employment for women in the company?

Less than a year	
1 year to 5 years	
6 years to 10 years	
10 years and above	

Section C*:* Criteria for hiring of employees*:* *open-ended questions to be answered by the Managers only*

Please feel free when answering these questions.

5. Why does the company prefer to hire more females than males under the low-skilled labourer?

   a. .....
   b. .....
   c. .....

6. What are the criteria used to hire or promote employees in the senior management roles?

   a.----------

   b.----------

   c.----------

7. What are the barriers for women to be promoted and or hired in the management roles in the company?

a----------

b----------

c.----------

8. Does misrepresentation of males and or females have any effect in the company's performance/ productivity?

   Yes---------- No----------

   Explain----------
   ----

9. Does the company have any documented policy which deals with gender-based discrimination and or gender issues?

   Yes------ No----------

   If no, why? ----------

   If yes, what are the core elements in the policy?

Section D. Opinion of the participants regarding recruitment in the management position (*to be answered by both managers and low-skilled labourers except for questions 15-17 which should be answered by low-skilled labours only)*

Please tick (√) inside the box to the relevant answer according to your own opinion. All answers are right. Just feel free to give your honest feeling.

QUESTIONS	**Strongly disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Agree**	**Slightly agree**	**Strongly agree**	**No vote**
10. The company hires both male and female in the high rank positions						
11. Promotion and recruitment occurs without consideration of gender in the company						
12. The company promotes considering the years in the company						
13. Female managers are less efficient than their male counterparts						
14. Females have a lower self-esteem than their male counterparts						
15. I feel comfortable to be managed by a female manager						
16. I feel comfortable to be managed by						

a male manager						
17. Women are discriminated against in the company						
18. Female managers are supportive of their female colleagues and subordinates in the company						

Thank you for your participation