STATE SERVICES COMMISSION
Te Komihana O Ngā Tari Kāwanatanga

Career Progression and Development Survey, 2000

Results for the New Zealand Public Service

April 2002

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FOREWORD

A GOOD PLACE TO WORK

A high-performing Public Service can make a difference – to New Zealand's success as a society and to the individuals and communities that make up that society. But if the Public Service is to perform, the best and the brightest must see the Public Service as "a good place to work". Is it, in fact, a good place to work? It certainly provides the richest menu of personally rewarding and socially important work in this country. Public servants work in areas as diverse, and as important, as preserving our endangered species, investigating and prosecuting serious crime, directly supporting individuals and families in distress, and helping shape the educational, economic and social base of our country. But what do public servants feel about their workplaces and career prospects?

Myths and facts

Until now, our knowledge of conditions in the Public Service has been patchy at best and, in most cases, based on anecdote and hearsay. For the first time we now have information based on solid data and analysis. That has been made possible by the 6,500 public servants who participated in the Career Progression and Development Survey. I take this opportunity to thank them.

Of course, the results of the survey are a single snapshot in time. We have no reliable way of knowing whether things are improving or deteriorating, compared with the past. Nor do we have much in the way of comparisons with other sectors. I suspect that many of the themes and findings in this report are applicable to most organisations, whether they are in the private or public sectors. I want to concentrate on using the results of the survey to ensure that the Public Service is an employer of choice for the best and the brightest.

It is clear from the results that public servants are primarily motivated by the desire for challenging work that makes a difference. Making a difference in our society is, after all, what public service is all about. Public servants have also confirmed that they remain highly concerned about fairness and equity, concerns that have traditionally set the Public Service apart from the wider labour market.

Some challenges

But where are the challenges for those of us with leadership responsibilities for the Public Service? New Zealand's Public Service has traditionally been viewed as "family-friendly" – a place where staff could balance their work commitments with other aspects of their lives, including their family and community responsibilities. The survey results suggest that we may not be living up to our reputation, or our view of ourselves, in this area. Although family-friendly provisions are well entrenched, and staff generally seem satisfied with them, the systems and support underpinning those provisions are not as strong as they could be.

Public servants also appeared concerned about heavy workloads. I expect public servants to work hard – the taxpayer deserves nothing less – but I want them to "have a life" as well. The Public Service should be an exemplar of a good employer. That reflects the values enshrined in the State Sector Act. It makes good business sense as well.

Room for advancement

I am reassured to see the levels of ambition among public servants. Most are keen to move ahead in their careers, and want to be trained to do so. But I am concerned that many also consider their opportunities for advancement to be poor. Their perceptions of access to some training and development opportunities clearly signal areas where there is room for improvement. One of these relates to the role of managers in encouraging and supporting the career development of their staff. I am delighted at the overall positive picture that staff painted of their immediate managers. Staff felt well supported by their managers and considered that they were given freedom to use initiative in carrying out their work. However, staff were less enthusiastic in rating their managers on giving them performance feedback and on actively assisting their career development.

Managing performance and the workplace

People management is hard. Whether in the public or private sectors, and no matter what the industry or organisation, one of the hardest roles for a manager is getting the best out of people. But good performance management is such an important contribution to personal and professional growth that we must do better in this area.

Public servants also deserve to work in an environment characterised by fairness, and free of discrimination and harassment. Although the few comparisons available suggest we are better than the private sector in these areas, I am concerned by some of the results. There has been a lot of effort put into creating systems to eliminate discrimination and harassment in the Public Service. The survey shows that some renewed emphasis in these areas

is timely. Like society itself, the workplace is not perfect. Nevertheless, we have to set the highest possible standards and constantly work to reinforce and maintain them.

Diversity for the future

I want also to achieve real diversity in the Public Service – at all levels. Popular perceptions of public servants tend in the main to be of "old grey men". While older men still dominate the senior ranks, the Public Service is, in fact, predominately female. Women make up 56% of the Public Service, a higher percentage than their representation in the labour force as a whole. But women make up only a third of senior managers. Since my appointment as State Services Commissioner I have been concerned about this under-representation of women at the senior levels of the Public Service. One of the main reasons I commissioned the Career Progression and Development Survey was to see if there were any indications of specific barriers preventing women from advancing to the senior ranks. The survey has exploded some myths about gender differences, and offers pointers to what we need to do to advance more women into senior management positions. A lot of the remaining barriers tend to be cultural and indirect, and therefore harder to tackle. But some are about giving women the opportunity to gain the right experience, and encouraging them to apply for more senior jobs. We cannot afford to waste talent.

Similarly, Māori and Pacific peoples are also more highly represented in the Public Service than in the employed labour force, but they are not well represented at senior management level. Māori and Pacific staff increasingly represent the future of the Public Service, and they have indicated clearly that they want to move ahead. Improving their opportunities for advancement and access to the right sort of training and development is fundamental to enhancing the long-term capability of the Public Service. This is another area where I will be looking for some improvement.

This report provides a diagnosis. It is not a prescription. I see the survey as having three main uses:

- the data it has generated will be used in developing programmes to make the Public Service a career of choice;
- it will provide a benchmark against which we can measure progress in future surveys; and
- data for individual departments will help Public Service chief executives build on success and address areas of concern.

The survey should not be regarded as the complete and final word on the Public Service workplace. A survey cannot report where a staff member is unwilling to reveal, for example, a history of mental illness or their sexual orientation because of a fear of adverse consequences in the workplace. This serves to reinforce the message that management is hard, and that constant vigilance is needed to ensure that the workplace allows all staff to work to their potential.

Action now

The survey results are already being used. Messages from the survey about where managers need to improve will directly inform the Senior Leadership and Management Development Programme to identify and develop future Public Service leaders. Rollout of that programme will begin this year.

Increasingly the central agencies in general, and the State Services Commission in particular, are engaged in facilitating or brokering best practice within the Public Service. The survey shows considerable diversity between departments – some are doing well in some areas, but less well in others. The brokering role will ensure that good practice is identified and shared.

Two particular areas are already on the drawing board – "Coaching and Staff Development Skills for Managers" and "Creating a Positive Work Environment". Facilitating a more active network of human resources managers from departments is also part of this initiative.

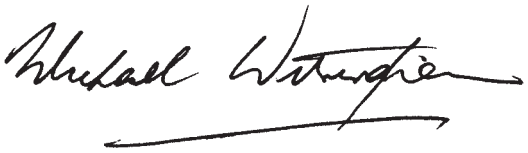
The recently released report on the "Review of the Centre" made a number of recommendations for improved Public Service performance. One was the development of a "Human Resources Framework" for the Public Service – a more systematic and uniform approach for the employment, development and career management of public servants. The survey results will directly inform the implementation of this recommendation.

The larger story

Finally, this survey should be seen as part of a larger story. The Public Service I joined more than 30 years ago, although considerably larger, was much less diverse than it is today. In those days, people looked to their employer to offer a long-term career. Today, the labour market we

operate in is increasingly Australasian or global, and many talented people coming into the labour force look to employers to tailor the working environment to suit their own professional and personal requirements.

We must recognise and respond to the diversity of our workforce – in gender, ethnicity and aspirations – and the more complex labour market in which we operate. The Public Service must be smarter and more responsive as an employer if we are to be successful in attracting and keeping the people we need. This survey is a major step in getting us there.



Michael Wintringham
State Services Commissioner

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

INTRODUCTION

Generational changes in approaches to work mean that the labour market is becoming increasingly competitive for employers in search of top talent. To attract and retain skilled staff, the Public Service will have to maintain its traditional competitive advantages and develop new ones.

Why a Career Progression and Development Survey?

The Career Progression and Development Survey was designed to investigate public servants' perceptions of their career progression opportunities and of the work environment in the Public Service. It sprang from longstanding concerns of the State Services Commissioner about the number and diversity of candidates putting themselves forward for chief executive positions, and in particular the dearth of women. Information derived from the survey will underpin work to make the Public Service an 'employer of choice'.

Research method and reporting issues

The Career Progression and Development Survey was conducted by the State Services Commission (SSC) in late 2000. A stratified random sample of public servants[1] was invited to respond by questionnaire to a broad range of questions[2] related to their careers, including their career aspirations, their access to training and development opportunities, factors that had helped or hindered their career progression, and what, if anything, had prevented them from applying for senior positions.

Staff were asked how important certain factors were to them and how they rated their job or their department in terms of those factors. To be clear about what was most important to public servants, only the proportions of staff responding that a factor was "Highly important" to them are reported in the text. Likewise, as indications of satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction, only the proportions indicating "Good" and "Poor"[3] in their ratings of their jobs or departments are reported. "Fair" ratings are reported only exceptionally.

The overall response rate was 52%, which equates to 6,522 respondents[4]. Respondents were broadly representative of the Public Service population. The sampling method allows the results to be reported as if all staff had responded to the survey. A very stringent approach has been taken to the reporting of both quantitative and qualitative results. Qualitative comments are cited only where they represent a recurring theme or give context to the quantitative results.

The first part of the report (Chapters 2-8) is issues based and analyses the responses for all staff, while the latter part (Chapters 9-13) reports separately on the survey results for women, Māori, Pacific peoples, people with disabilities and Public Service managers. The report ends with conclusions and areas for attention, and lists suggested topics for further research (Chapter 14).

Statistics New Zealand provided advice on and reviewed the survey design and research method.

Career aspirations and inhibitors

Levels of ambition in the Public Service were high: 60% of public servants aspired to a higher-level job in the Public Service, and 16% had their sights set on a chief executive position. They were flexible about what they would do to get ahead – 55% said they were prepared to move to another work area to further their careers while 50% were prepared to move to the private sector. However, only 28% were prepared to relocate geographically.

When asked what had stopped them from applying for a more senior position, about a third said they simply preferred to stay in their current job. The main deterrents appeared to be related to clashes with life outside the workplace – 25% were concerned they would not be able to balance work and family responsibilities, 24% said they had no desire to relocate, and 19% said they did not want to work the long hours associated with more senior jobs. Other important deterrents were a perceived lack of experience (26%) and/or qualifications (21%). Almost one in five public servants (18%) said that concerns about the fairness of selection processes had put them off seeking a more senior job. 18% said the political nature of higher-level positions had deterred them from applying for one.

[1] See Appendix 2 for a description of the survey research method.
[2] See Appendix 3 for a copy of the questionnaire.
[3] "Good" and "Poor" include also "Very good" and "Very poor", where those categories were offered.
[4] Departmental response rate range was 29% to 78%.

Despite high ambitions, half of all public servants felt that their opportunities for advancement were "Poor"; only 13% felt they were "Good". In qualitative responses, they suggested this was due to flat management structures, a lack of visible career paths, inadequate information about job vacancies, and a perception that Public Service organisations preferred to source talent externally rather than to 'grow' their own.

What motivates public servants?

The survey results suggest that public servants care more about the nature of their jobs than about material rewards or job security. In terms of what they considered "Highly important", in their jobs, 91% said a feeling of accomplishment, 86% said quality of management, and 77% said having challenging work.

Staff were satisfied that their jobs were challenging (60% rated their jobs as "Good" in this regard), but were less satisfied with their sense of accomplishment (43% "Good") and with the overall quality of management (29% "Good", 25% "Poor", 46% "Fair"). While 47% rated their pay and benefits as "Fair", 29% rated them as "Good", and 24% rated them as "Poor".

Just over half said their job security was "Good", confirming the relative stability of the Public Service workforce, with redundancies at a low level and core unplanned turnover at moderate levels (11% per annum).

Development and training opportunities

Public servants concurred with previous research in considering informal development opportunities as generally more important to their career development than formal training and development activities. They were most satisfied with the development opportunities they considered most important for their career development, but overall their satisfaction appeared only moderate.

44% rated their organisations as "Good" at providing them with opportunities to demonstrate their skills and abilities, as did 38% at allowing them to gain experience in a range of tasks (although 18% gave "Poor" ratings on the latter factor). 35% of public servants felt their organisations were "Good" at providing on-the-job training, but almost a quarter (23%) felt they were "Poor". Similarly, 37% rated their organisation as "Good" at providing access to training courses and seminars, but almost a quarter (24%) gave a "Poor" rating.

Public servants appeared even less satisfied with the other development factors surveyed – study leave, working on high-profile projects, acting in higher positions, and secondments. Sizeable proportions of staff felt these opportunities were not applicable to them, and as many staff rated their organisations "Poor" as rated them "Good" on opportunities to 'act up', secondments to other work areas or organisations, and access to study leave.

In qualitative comments, staff complained of a lack of an overall training and development strategy in their organisation, and suggested that development opportunities were allocated on an ad hoc basis and were inadequately linked to the skills needs of individuals or the organisations they worked in. Variations in satisfaction in relation to development and training did not appear to be linked to the size of the organisation.

Managers and mentors

Public servants' ratings of their immediate managers and supervisors paint a largely positive picture. 65% felt their manager offered them "Good" general support. Managers were rated highest at allowing staff to use initiative (77% "Good") and encouraging staff input into decisions that affected them (67% "Good"). However, they were rated lowest on aspects of management most related to staff career progression: encouraging and supporting career development (54% "Good", but 18% "Poor"), and providing regular and constructive performance feedback (50% "Good", but 24% "Poor"). In qualitative responses, staff suggested that managers did not pay enough attention to staff development because they did not see it as an explicit requirement of their role and their performance would not be judged on it, and/or that they did not have the time or skills to actively 'coach' staff, given the volume of substantive work they had to deal with.

18% of public servants had a mentor. Of those, only 14% had made contact with their mentor through a formal mentoring scheme. The survey responses of mentored staff suggest that being mentored might have a positive impact on access to development and training opportunities and getting the most out of relationships with managers.

There was some unmet demand for formal mentoring. Of those staff who did not already have a mentor, 42% said they would like access to a formal mentoring scheme, while 28% said they would not. Of those who had an

informal mentor, 37% expressed a desire to be part of a formal scheme, but 34% had no such desire. In qualitative responses some staff explained that their lack of desire to be part of a formal programme was because they saw informality as the key to a successful mentoring relationship.

Work environment – expectations and experiences

Public servants strongly indicated that they wanted to be treated fairly and to work in an environment where staff worked co-operatively, where their ideas were valued and where they had equitable access to rewards. More than three-quarters of staff felt these factors were "Highly important" to their work environment.

While they were most satisfied in the areas they considered most important, their overall satisfaction was not high. 40% rated their organisations as "Good" at treating them fairly and 17% as "Poor". More staff rated their organisation as "Poor" (35%) than as "Good" (22%) at giving equitable access to rewards. Issues related to fairness were also a major theme in qualitative responses, many related to areas where managerial discretion was a factor. 43% rated their organisation as "Good" on the extent to which staff worked co-operatively, although 81% of public servants reported that they received "Good" support from their co-workers. 36% rated their organisation as "Good" in terms of having their ideas valued, while 18% gave a "Poor" rating.

Working to live or living to work – balancing work and personal lives

Public servants were reasonably satisfied with the provisions related to leave for family or other reasons and with flexibility in working hours. 61% rated their organisation as "Good" at allowing them to work flexible hours. Of those for whom it was applicable, 49% rated their organisation as "Good" at allowing part-time work, but almost one in five (19%) gave a "Poor" rating. 59% rated their access to parental leave as "Good", as did 53% in terms of caregiver leave. 59% overall rated their managers as "Good" at taking a flexible approach to resolving work and family conflicts.

However, concerns about heavy workloads, and working long hours to meet performance expectations, and the impacts of these on life/work balance and career progression, were dominant themes in qualitative responses. While a third of public servants rated their job as "Good" at providing a "reasonable workload", 21% rated them as "Poor". More than three-quarters (76%) of public servants reported working more hours each week than they were employed for. Regardless of family-friendly provisions, the clash between work and family seemed to act as a dampener on career progression, in particular for women caregivers. As noted above, life/work clashes were significant deterrents to public servants in seeking higher-level jobs.

Perceptions of unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour

Despite a long history of legislation, policies and programmes to eliminate unfair discrimination in employment in the Public Service, one in five (21%) public servants reported having experienced unfair treatment based on a personal characteristic in the 12 months prior to the survey. This treatment was perceived to be based mainly on gender (8%), followed by ethnicity (6%) and/or age (5%).

A third (34%) of public servants reported having experienced in the same 12-month time frame unwelcome behaviour that had "humiliated, intimidated or offended" them. The most commonly reported behaviour was offensive remarks (22% of public servants reported this). Reporting of behaviour that could be classified as sexual harassment was very low (2% or less of public servants for each behaviour), although from a zero-tolerance benchmark this is still of concern. Indications of workplace bullying emerged in both quantitative and qualitative results as an area for some vigilance. The vast majority (82%) of affected staff knew about formal complaints processes in their organisations. Few (16%) had used them, which may suggest that issues were resolved informally. Reported confidence in complaints procedures signals an area for attention.

The survey results confirmed the negative impacts of unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour both for individuals and for the organisations they work in. These impacts included stress-related illnesses, absenteeism, damaged relationships, and lessened productivity.

Women in the Public Service

The survey showed that women and men generally valued the same things in the workplace. Women tended to be more positive than men in their ratings of their jobs and of the organisations they worked in, even when corroborating evidence (for example on the gender pay gap) would suggest that they should be less satisfied than men.

However, in qualitative responses women gave many examples of feeling that their gender had disadvantaged them. Women were more likely than men to report gender-based discrimination, and of having experienced unwelcome behaviour in the workplace. Moreover, the survey results appear to confirm the findings of other recent studies that even when women and men equally report having responsibilities for the care of dependants, women are much more likely to adjust their career aspirations and working lives to accommodate these responsibilities.

Apart from clashes with non-work responsibilities, the barriers to women seeking higher-level jobs centred on a perceived lack of experience. The survey revealed women and men to be equally qualified academically. Women also appeared keen to advance their careers, displaying high aspirations to achieve higher-level jobs and placing high value on development and training opportunities.

Māori in the Public Service

In general, Māori appeared to experience employment in the Public Service in similar ways to other staff, only differing in their ratings on one factor – pay and benefits – where they were less satisfied than other staff.

Life/work balance provisions seemed to be more important to Māori than to other staff. While they appeared as satisfied as other staff with their access to those formal provisions, the juggle between work and their commitments outside the workplace was perhaps more acute for Māori because proportionately more of them had responsibilities for the care of dependants.

Māori were more likely than non-Māori to report having experienced unfair treatment on the basis of a personal characteristic and to have experienced unwelcome behaviour in the workplace.

Māori displayed high ambitions to move ahead in their Public Service careers: two-thirds said they wanted a higher-level job in the future. More than one in five wanted to become a chief executive. However, they appeared deterred from applying for more senior jobs by their relative lack of qualifications and experience. The importance they attached to development and training opportunities confirmed their desire and willingness to improve their readiness for a more senior job. They were more likely than other staff to have a mentor, suggesting that some strategies are already in place to support Māori in their Public Service careers.

Pacific peoples in the Public Service

Pacific staff showed high levels of ambition: almost three-quarters aspired to a higher-level job, and almost one-quarter had their sights set on a chief executive position. Yet a lack of qualifications and/or experience seemed to have put them off applying for higher-level jobs. The high value placed on training and development opportunities indicated that they were keen to enhance their experience and qualifications. However, they appeared less satisfied than other staff with their access to some of the development and training opportunities surveyed.

Fairness was a theme for Pacific staff. They were less satisfied than other staff with their pay and benefits and were less satisfied that they had equitable access to rewards. They appeared less satisfied that they were treated fairly, and that their ideas were valued. They were more deterred than other staff from applying for a higher-level job by concerns about the fairness of selection processes. Moreover, they were more likely to feel that they had been treated unfairly on the basis of a personal characteristic, and more likely to report having experienced unwelcome behaviour.

Pacific staff were more likely than other staff to report having responsibilities for the care of dependants, and as such they generally attached higher importance than other staff to the life/work balance factors surveyed. They appeared less satisfied with their access to caregiver leave and less satisfied that their outside commitments were accommodated at work.

People with disabilities

People with disabilities had the same aspirations as other staff to advance their careers, and they had similar expectations as to how that should occur. However, they appeared less satisfied that managers actively encouraged their career development, and cited lack of support from managers as a deterrent to applying for higher-level jobs. They also rated managers less well than did other staff on being allowed to use initiative in carrying out their work. They were less satisfied that they had access to high-profile work.

Some fairness issues also emerged. People with disabilities were more likely than other staff to report that concerns about the fairness of selection processes had put them off applying for a more senior job, and were more likely to report having experienced unfair treatment, although notably on the grounds of age more than disability.

Staff with disabilities appeared less satisfied that their jobs involved a reasonable workload, and were more likely to report being set unrealistic goals. They were less satisfied that their managers took a flexible and supportive approach to work and family conflicts.

While the barriers of the physical environment did not feature in their responses to the survey, the potential barriers created by the social environment, including managerial support, did emerge as an issue, suggesting that colleagues and managers may not be as aware and inclusive of staff with disabilities as they might be.

Managers in the Public Service

Managers (women and men equally) showed high aspirations to reach senior positions in the Public Service. More than two-thirds (69%) reported wanting a more senior job, while just over a quarter (26%) wanted to become a chief executive. Managers appeared more satisfied than other staff with the development and training opportunities available to them, and with their relative autonomy and flexibility in their work – including being able to use their initiative and having input into decisions that directly affected them.

In general, managers attached less importance to life/work balance factors than did other staff, but they also appeared more satisfied in relation to most of them. The notable exception was not feeling their workloads were reasonable (30% giving a "Poor" rating). 45% reported working 10 or more hours a week more than they were employed for, with 5% working 20 or more extra hours a week. The main deterrents to managers' applying for higher-level level jobs were related to potential clashes with life outside the workplace – a quarter (men and women equally) were deterred by concerns they would not be able to balance their work and family responsibilities.

In general, female and male managers valued the same things in the workplace and displayed similar levels of satisfaction. However, women managers were around three times more likely than male managers to consider caregiver leave and parental leave to be "Highly important". Women managers were also more likely than their male peers to cite lack of experience as a deterrent to their seeking a higher-level job.

Managerial status appeared to act as 'protection' from unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour – but only for men. Women managers were as likely as other women, and much more likely than male managers, to report both having been treated unfairly on the basis of a personal characteristic and having experienced unwelcome behaviour.

Conclusions and areas for attention

There is no lack of ambition in the Public Service – most public servants wanted a higher-level job. However, they generally perceived their opportunities for advancement to be poor. This means there was a large pool of individuals wanting to move up the Public Service ranks but feeling there was nowhere to go. Moreover, their perceptions of their access to development and training opportunities also suggested some room for improvement.

Managers emerged as key players in facilitating the career development of their staff. Public servants indicated clearly that they valued good management. They painted a positive picture of their immediate supervisors and managers. However, managers were perceived as less skilled at actively encouraging and supporting their staff's career development and at giving regular and constructive performance feedback. There also appeared to be unmet demand for more active coaching – by managers and/or more experienced colleagues – and for more access to formal mentoring arrangements. The remarkable uniformity in how managers were assessed by their staff (regardless of the level, gender or ethnicity of those staff) points to general areas where Public Service managers – regardless of level – are doing well in terms of 'people management', and where they might need to improve.

The positive picture of immediate managers and supervisors contrasted somewhat with staff's less positive perceptions of the overall management of the organisations in which they worked. Some of this dissatisfaction appeared to be linked to staff not feeling fully informed about the overall direction of their organisation and their place in it. This appeared to be particularly acute in times of organisational change, and suggests a need for better information and communication between management and staff – a challenge not unique to the Public Service and arguably applicable to any organisation, public or private.

Fairness was crucial to public servants and was a major theme running through the results. It stood out in relation to a diverse range of issues, from access to rewards and development opportunities, flexibility in work schedules

and leave arrangements, to the fairness of selection processes. Perceptions of fairness might be improved if managers ensured that human resources policies and provisions are transparent and applied evenly, and if they communicated decisions and the reasons behind them clearly to staff.

Public servants reported working long hours. Heavy workloads were a recurring complaint. While there was relative satisfaction with the formal provisions around flexible hours and family leave, the overall picture suggested that maintaining life/work balance involved a constant juggle, especially for women with family responsibilities. This juggle might also be operating as a barrier to career progression, for both men and women, including by making it difficult for them to take advantage of available development opportunities. Again, these issues are not unique to the Public Service.

Despite a long history of equal employment opportunities initiatives in the Public Service and longstanding policies and provisions to ensure good conduct, sizeable proportions of public servants perceived that they had been treated unfairly on the basis of a personal characteristic, or had experienced unwelcome behaviour at work. Much of this unwelcome behaviour was at the level of offensive remarks. The incidence of sexual harassment appeared very low, but from a zero-tolerance benchmark is still of concern. 'Bullying' was an emerging concern and warrants some vigilance.

Overall, public servants seemed to be motivated by a desire for work that was challenging and gave them a sense of accomplishment. They appeared relatively satisfied on both fronts. The survey therefore corroborated previous research that suggested public servants were more motivated by job interest than by material rewards. The interesting and challenging nature of their work will need to be maintained to ensure they remain motivated and want to stay working in the Public Service.

The findings of the Career Progression and Development Survey signal areas to target to improve public servants' satisfaction with their work environments and to ensure that their desire to progress their careers is facilitated, supported and encouraged. These include:

- Public Service organisations taking a more integrated approach to training and development that marries individual development needs with the skills and capability requirements of departments and of the wider Public Service. There appears to be a role for a central agency, notably the State Services Commission, in identifying good practice and acting as a 'broker' to disseminate good practice information throughout the Public Service;
- emphasising the importance of staff development in management training, to consolidate what the survey suggests Public Service managers are good at and, most importantly, to improve their skills in areas such as performance management and promoting fairness and equity;
- responding to public servants' apparent desire for a better balance between work and other commitments. Promoting the Public Service as an employer that enables life/work balance is likely to give it an increasingly important competitive advantage;
- ensuring Public Service organisations are more inclusive of people with disabilities, including by training managers in how best to support the career development of staff with disabilities. This could be part of departmental responses to the New Zealand Disability Strategy;
- strengthening the infrastructure to fortify good working relationships in the Public Service, including regular promotion of what is good conduct, and ensuring that policies and processes (including formal complaints procedures) are robust and well understood; and
- integrating equal employment opportunities principles into strategic human resources policies and planning. There is a particular challenge to sustain the ambitions of women and the particularly high aspirations of Māori and Pacific peoples. This will be essential for the future capability of the Public Service. While employers can do little about discrimination in society that channels these groups into a narrow range of typically lower-paid occupations, they can provide opportunities for their employees to move into new work areas, and to gain the formal qualifications to 'step up' into new occupations.

The survey results provide a benchmark against which to evaluate human resources strategies and to measure progress in developing the Public Service as an employer of choice.

CHAPTER ONE

CAREER PROGRESSION IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE: EXPECTATIONS AND EXPERIENCES

CHAPTER ONE

CAREER PROGRESSION IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE: EXPECTATIONS AND EXPERIENCES

Generational changes in approaches to work and attachment to organisations have been highlighted in research in New Zealand and overseas. Younger people are much less likely than those of previous generations to have expectations of a life-long career in a single organisation, institution or even sector. They place high value on training and development opportunities that enable them to keep moving ahead in what will be multi-dimensional as opposed to traditionally linear career trajectories. They are more likely to move from one organisation to another if their development needs are not being met[5]. These factors suggest that the labour market will become increasingly competitive for employers in search of top talent. Public Service[6] organisations will have to compete not only against each other but also increasingly against employers in the wider public sector and in the private sector. Under these conditions, to attract and retain skilled and talented staff, the Public Service will have to enhance its traditional competitive advantages and develop new ones[7].

The ethnic composition of the Public Service is also expected to change considerably over the medium to long term, mainly due to changes in the demographics of the New Zealand population. Māori are expected to increase from 13% (1996 base) to 21% of the working-age population in 2051, and Pacific peoples from 5% (1996 base) to 13% in 2051[8]. Moreover, the age structure of Māori and Pacific peoples in the population and in the labour force shows very high proportions in the younger age groups. This is expected to flow through into a considerable increase in the Māori and Pacific composition in the Public Service in future.

While the age structure of women in the Public Service is slightly younger than that of men, the majority of younger staff in the managerial and professional occupations are women. Women are therefore an increasingly important part of the senior management talent pool.

Taken together, these demographic trends suggest that the composition of the Public Service is likely to change considerably over the next few decades. Most importantly, if the Public Service does not ensure that it provides the conditions and career opportunities demanded by women, Māori and Pacific peoples, then it will limit its access to increasingly large proportions of its labour supply.

The Career Progression and Development Survey provided a unique opportunity to test staff perceptions of the Public Service work environment and career progression opportunities, for staff overall and for the various population groups that make up the Public Service. The survey also offered the opportunity to investigate longstanding concerns of the State Services Commissioner about the number and diversity of candidates putting themselves forward for Public Service chief executive positions. His desire to strengthen the pool of future candidates, and in particular to address the dearth of women applicants, was the original impetus for an investigation into career progression and development in the New Zealand Public Service.

1.1 The Career Progression and Development Survey

The Career Progression and Development Survey was conducted by the State Services Commission (SSC) in late 2000. It invited a sample of public servants[9] to respond to a broad range of questions[10] related to their careers, including their career aspirations, their access to training and development opportunities, factors that had helped or hindered their career progression, and what, if anything, had prevented them from applying for senior positions.

All levels of staff were surveyed. In this way, the entire Public Service was viewed as a potential pool for future management talent. To explore assumptions about gender differences in career aspirations and progression, particular attention was paid in the survey design to factors likely to impact differently on women and men. A range of other demographic data was also collected to enable examination of differences based, for example, on ethnicity, disability and care of dependants.

5 Watts, A.G. *The Future of Career and Career Guidance.* Paper presented at the conference "Career Planning: Signposting the Future", Wellington, 21-23 January 1997.
6 The Public Service comprises the departments listed in the First Schedule to the State Sector Act.
7 Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. *Competitive Public Employer.* PUMA/HRM, 2001.
8 Source: Statistics New Zealand. *Population Projections* (1996 *(Base) – 2051).* Wellington, SNZ, 1998.
9 See Appendix 2 for a description of the survey research method.
10 See Appendix 3 for a copy of the questionnaire.

Public servants were also asked about personal experiences related to unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour. Until now there has been no quantitative information on perceptions of discrimination and harassment in the Public Service and the impact of this behaviour on public servants and the organisations in which they work.

1.2 What the report represents, and how it will be used

This report reflects perceptions at one point in time. Because it is the first of its type in the New Zealand Public Service, it is impossible to compare the results with the past. Therefore it is not possible to say whether conditions and satisfaction are improving or deteriorating. Similarly, there are no comparable results for the private sector. Previous studies elsewhere have argued that, in general, conditions in the public sector are likely to be superior to those in the private sector – particularly in terms of equity and fairness – because human resources policies and systems are more formalised and uniform[11]. Public Service departments must also meet the requirements of the "good employer" clause in the State Sector Act. Where possible, other information sources and the results of previous research have been used to give some indicative comparisons to the Public Service results.

It should be noted that research instruments such as these tend to elicit more negative than positive comments. Because this survey was designed to highlight areas of most concern to public servants, the reported results, while not ignoring areas of relative satisfaction, focus on areas requiring attention.

The report provides a diagnosis. In analysing public servants' responses to the survey questionnaire, it raises issues for attention but does not attempt to provide solutions to those issues. Instead, the findings will be used to inform current and future work to improve the overall capability of the Public Service. As guardian of the Public Service, the State Services Commissioner intends to use the survey results to underpin the Commission's ongoing strategic human resources work. This includes the development of a strategic human resources framework for the Public Service (and, where appropriate, for the wider state sector) as recommended by the recent Review of the Centre[12], the Senior Leadership and Management Development programme to identify and nurture future Public Service leaders, and the Commission's ongoing promotion and monitoring of equal employment opportunities in the Public Service. The survey is part of the Commission's desire to enhance and solidify the reputation of the Public Service as an 'employer of choice'. The Commission will also be developing guidelines for use by Public Service departments, in consultation with them, in some of the specific areas identified by the survey as warranting attention across the Public Service.

1.3 Structure of the report

Following the introductory chapter, the report is split into two main parts. The first is issues-based:

- Chapter 2, *Moving Up the Ladder: Career Aspirations, Intentions and Inhibitors,* reports the career aspirations and intentions of public servants, and what factors, if any, had prevented them from applying for higher-level positions;
- Chapter 3, *What Motivates Public Servants*, explores the factors that public servants valued in the workplace and whether their expectations were being met in their current jobs or departments;
- Chapter 4, *Development and Training Opportunities,* reports on the training and development opportunities that public servants considered most important to their career development and the extent to which they felt they had access to these in their current organisations;
- Chapter 5, *Managers and Mentors,* discusses public servants' assessments of their immediate managers or supervisors and the extent to which they felt supported in their career development; it also looks at the role, incidence of and demand for mentoring;
- Chapter 6, *Work Environment: Expectations and Experiences,* reports on the workplace environmental factors that were important to public servants, and their ratings of the organisations in which they worked;
- Chapter 7, *Working to Live or Living to Work: Balancing Work and Personal Lives,* examines the

[11] For a discussion of public and private sector differences in Australia, and evidence from other literature, see Burton, Clare, *Women in Public and Private Sector Senior Management,* a research paper for the Office of the Status of Women, Canberra, Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet, 1997.

[12] The Review of the Centre was undertaken by a Ministerial Advisory Group reporting to the Minister of State Services in late 2001. It reviewed the core of the state sector and how it could be strengthened to serve the public more effectively.

extent to which public servants felt able to balance their work and other commitments, including their assessments of their access to family leave provisions and flexible work arrangements; and

- Chapter 8, *Perceptions of Unfair Treatment and Unwelcome Behaviour*, looks at the extent to which public servants perceived they had experienced discrimination and/or harassment in the organisations in which they worked, the consequences of this, and their knowledge of procedures for addressing complaints.

Each of these chapters includes differences in the responses between selected population groups that make up the Public Service – women, Māori, Pacific peoples, people with disabilities and Public Service managers. The second part of the report concentrates on the results for those groups and where they differed from their comparators. It is split into five chapters:

- Chapter 9, *Women in the Public Service;*
- Chapter 10, *Māori in the Public Service;*
- Chapter 11, *Pacific Peoples in the Public Service;*
- Chapter 12, *Public Servants with Disabilities;* and
- Chapter 13, *Managers in the Public Service.*

Because those chapters are intended to be complete in themselves, there is some repetition of survey results and commentary from the issues chapters.

Chapter 14 contains overall conclusions and key findings, with a listing of areas for further research. The State Services Commissioner's foreword highlights the areas he has deemed to require future attention.

1.4 Research method

1.4.1 Sampling and respondents

A stratified random sample of staff from the Public Service participated in this survey. In departments with less than 400 staff, all staff were asked to participate. In departments of 400 or more, a random sample was selected. The overall response rate was 52%, which equates to 6,522 respondents[13]. Respondents were broadly representative of the Public Service population, when compared with the SSC Human Resource Capability data[14].

The sampling method allows the results to be reported as if all staff had responded to the survey. Those results are subject to error in the same way that an opinion poll has a margin of error. These margins of error were used to construct 99% confidence intervals around the proportions shown in the report. This 99% confidence limit represents a conservative approach to reporting results and differences between groups. Confidence intervals are included in Appendix 2.

1.4.2 Reported results

Staff were asked how important certain factors were to them and how they rated their job or their department in terms of those factors. To give a clear impression of what was most important to public servants, only the proportions of staff responding that a factor was "Highly important" to them (and not the proportions indicating the factor was "Somewhat important" or "Of little or no importance") are reported in the text. Likewise, to gain a clear impression of where there was high satisfaction and/or high dissatisfaction, only the proportions indicating "Good" and "Poor"[15] in rating their departments are reported. The relatively neutral "Fair" ratings are reported only exceptionally in the text, and where they relate to an issue – for example, remuneration – where a "Fair" rating might be a reasonable expectation. In the text, figures are rounded to the nearest whole percentage.

There are no benchmarks against which the results can be measured. That is, it would be inappropriate to set a benchmark, for example, that 50% of staff should give a "Good" rating, and conclude that anything above that level was acceptable and anything below was substandard. Expectations on the level of satisfaction are highly dependent on the issue concerned. However, there are some areas, such as perceptions of "fairness", where expectations of any Public Service organisation are and should be high. The analysis takes into account these differences between areas.

[13] Departmental response rate range was 29% – 78%.
[14] The Human Resource Capability (HRC) survey is an annual collection of anonymous, unit record human resource-related data from Public Service departments as at 30 June. The Career Progression and Development Survey was conducted in December 2000, between the 2000 and 2001 HRC data collection, so June 2000 figures are cited in the report, unless otherwise stated.
[15] "Good" and "Poor" include also "Very good" and "Very poor", where those categories were offered.

The stringency applied to analysing the quantitative data has also been applied to reporting qualitative responses – the responses to open-ended questions where respondents were able to write about their experiences, as opposed to simply ticking a box. Approximately 15,000 comments of this nature were categorised into areas related to career progression. They are reported only where they represent a recurring theme and/or give context to the quantitative results. Quotations are presented in text boxes where they are indicative of the types of qualitative responses received. Many of these express concerns or negative sentiments. This is in line with the balance of qualitative responses received, in that most were negative rather than positive.

1.4.3 Sub-populations

While the report analyses differences in responses according to gender, ethnicity, disability, age, etc., the survey research method did not lend itself to – and the sample size did not support – repeated disaggregation. Therefore, small sub-group comparisons, such as Māori women managers compared with Māori men managers, were not undertaken. This does not mean that these areas were considered unimportant. They are areas where further targeted research would be warranted.

1.4.4 Inter-departmental comparisons

This report represents results for the Public Service as a whole. However, for some factors, inter-departmental ranges of results are also given. While most of the themes in this report were common to all departments, the inter-departmental ranges of results on each factor indicate considerable diversity across the Public Service in terms of the magnitude of the issue. For example, while opportunities for advancement were generally perceived to be poor across the Public Service, they were considered more or less poor in different government departments. The inter-departmental ranges are given to show this diversity and to demonstrate that the Public Service is not a homogeneous workplace.

Inter-departmental ranges are sometimes depicted as 'box-and-whiskers' graphs. The report uses a slightly modified format. The boxes in those graphs show the range of ratings from the middle 50% of departments, while the 'whiskers' give the full range (including outliers). Where the boxes are extended, there is considerable diversity even between departments falling within the middle range. Where they are condensed, there is relative homogeneity within that half of departments.

A full discussion of the survey research method is provided in Appendix 2. Statistics New Zealand provided advice on the survey design, checked that the estimation method for the point and confidence interval estimates was implemented correctly, and reviewed the key tables and technical description of the survey contained in this report. Interpretation of the results of the survey is entirely the responsibility of the State Services Commission.

1.5 Composition of the Public Service

Recent research conducted through the State Services Commission[16] and through the Public Service Association[17] on public perceptions of the Public Service suggests that it is often stereotyped as an institution of "old grey men". Before discussing how public servants responded to the survey, it is important to give a picture of the Public Service, including its overall size and composition.

1.5.1 Size of the Public Service

The Public Service employs a diverse workforce across a large range of varied occupations. At 30 June 2000, the Public Service consisted of 38 departments, comprising just over 30,000 staff (29,055 full-time equivalent staff). Those departments ranged in size from 15 to over 5,000 staff, performing a range and mixture of policy and service functions. The Public Service workforce represented approximately 2% of the New Zealand employed labour force[18].

1.5.2 Occupational make-up[19]

The Public Service is numerically dominated by frontline occupations such as customs officers, probation workers, quarantine officers and social workers, among others. The professionals occupation group, which is constituted from areas such as audit, legal, policy, and computing, is also more heavily represented in the Public Service than in the

[16] NFO CM Research. *How is the Public Service Perceived as a Potential Employer?* Market research report prepared for the State Services Commission, Wellington, 2001.
[17] UMR Research. *Perceptions of the Public Service*. Presentation at the PSA Partnership in the Modern Public Service Conference, Wellington, 2001.
[18] Statistics New Zealand. *Household Labour Force Survey (June 2000 Quarter)*. Wellington, SNZ, 2000.
[19] Occupations have been classified using the NZ Standard Classification of Occupations (NZSCO). Detailed occupation codes have been grouped together in a structure that more closely reflects the occupations in the Public Service.

employed labour force. Largely in response to the introduction of new technology and public sector downsizing, the range of work in the Public Service has changed. This has affected the types of jobs performed by employees, mainly increasing the demand for skills such as policy analysis and computer expertise, while decreasing the need for clerical work. However, despite this reduction, there still remains a sizeable clerical presence in the Public Service (about 21%), required to undertake the administrative activities carried out by a number of departments.

1.5.3 Gender

A recent OECD report[20] indicated that across most member countries there has been an increase in the numbers of women in the civil service over the last decade. Women tend to be better represented in the public sector than in the economy as a whole. Consistent with other OECD countries, women were better represented in the New Zealand Public Service (56% at June 2000) than in the employed labour force (46%). Women's representation in the Public Service also appears to be increasing. Women represented 60% of permanent employees recruited into departments over the 12 months to 30 June 2000.

However, women's representation varies considerably across departments – between 32% and 75% at the time of the survey (excluding the Ministry of Women's Affairs, which was 97% female). It also varies within the various occupation groups that make up the Public Service. Almost one-third (29%) of women were employed in clerical occupations, compared with only 12% of men. Moreover, women were under-represented in some of the non-traditional employment areas, such as the science and technical occupations, and were also under-represented in management.

The OECD report also noted that despite the increasing proportion of women in the civil service, the proportion of women in managerial and senior level positions was still relatively low. This is also true for New Zealand. At the time of the survey, women held eight and were acting in two of the 38 Public Service chief executive positions, and made up one-third of senior managers in the Public Service[21]. Only 7% of all women public servants were in the managerial occupation group, compared with double that proportion (13%) of all men.

A more detailed profile of women in the Public Service is provided in Chapter 9 of this report. Figure 1.1 shows both gender and age distribution of Public Service staff as at 30 June 2000.

1.5.4 Ethnicity

The proportion of Māori and Pacific peoples in the Public Service continues to grow, and remains above the respective proportions in the employed labour force.

At June 2000, Māori made up 17% of the Public Service compared with 9% of the employed labour force. However, the aggregate figures mask the variations between departments, where at June 2000 the representation of Māori ranged from 0% to 36% of staff (excluding Te Puni Kōkiri, where 67% of staff were Māori). Seventeen departments had a lower representation than the proportion of Māori in the employed labour force. Compared with non-Māori in the Public Service, Māori were over-represented in the associate professional occupations and in the personal and protective service workers group (largely made up of prison officers). In contrast, Māori tended to be under-represented in the professional, managerial, and science and technical occupations. Only 8% of senior managers were Māori.

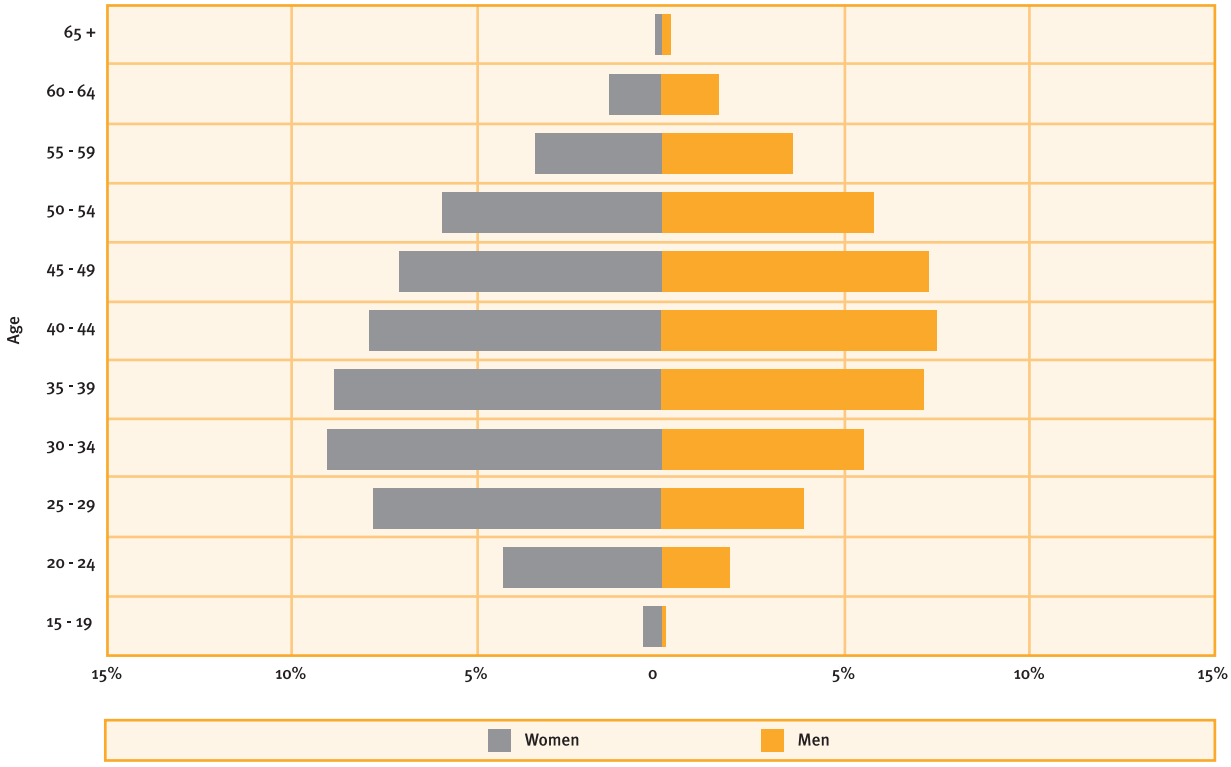
Pacific peoples made up 7% of the Public Service compared with 4% of the employed labour force. Their representation in Public Service departments ranges from 0% to 11% (excluding the Ministry of Pacific Island Affairs, where 90% of staff are Pacific). Pacific peoples had a similar occupation profile to Māori, except that they were also over-represented in the clerical occupation groups. They made up just over 1% of senior managers in the Public Service.

1.5.5 Regional distribution

At the time of the survey, nearly 40% of public servants worked in the Wellington area (based on regional council boundaries). Lower proportions of staff worked in the

[20] Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. *Recent Developments on Human Resources Management in OECD Member Countries*. PUMA/HRM, 2001.
[21] As at the end of February 2002, women held seven of the 37 Public Service chief executive positions, and one was in an acting position. Women continue to make up a third of senior management positions.

Figure 1.1 Gender/age distribution for the New Zealand Public Service, 2000



Auckland region (19%) and outlying regional areas. The regional presence of departments reflects their size and function. Smaller policy-focused departments typically have a sole or predominant presence in the Wellington area, whereas larger service-oriented departments have a greater national presence.

1.5.6 Age profile

The Public Service workforce tends to be older than the private sector workforce. This is because many occupations in the Public Service require tertiary level qualifications. Individuals therefore enter the Public Service at older ages, and are likely to be more highly qualified academically than their counterparts in the employed labour force. However, those with whom citizens have direct contact, as the public 'face' of the Public Service, are more likely to be from the younger age groups. They are also more likely to be women, Māori, and Pacific peoples compared with the overall Public Service. However, it is true that those representing the other public face of the Public Service – senior staff providing media comment, for example – are more likely to be older and male (although not necessarily grey!).

CHAPTER TWO

MOVING UP THE LADDER: CAREER ASPIRATIONS, INTENTIONS AND INHIBITORS

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Aspirations are a prerequisite for career progression. It would be pointless to attempt to improve employees' opportunities for advancement if they had no desire to move ahead. This chapter examines public servants' aspirations to higher-level jobs, what they were prepared to do to get one, and what they perceived were the main deterrents to their applying for such positions.

2.1 Aspirations to achieve a higher-level job

2.1.1 Who wants a higher-level job?

Most public servants wanted to hold a more senior job in the Public Service at some time in the future. 60% overall reported that they "definitely" or "probably" wanted to eventually hold a more senior position.

More than two-thirds of managers (69%) wanted a more senior job, compared with 58% of non-managers. Men overall (65%) were more likely than women overall (57%) to want a higher-level job, but there was no gender difference at the management level. Male and female managers were equally likely to want a more senior job.

Māori and Pacific staff showed high levels of ambition. Two-thirds (67%) of Māori and almost three-quarters (74%) of Pacific staff aspired to a higher-level job. There might be some age effect operating here, given the relatively younger age profile of Māori and Pacific staff. The survey results suggest that a desire to work at a higher level decreased with increasing age. However, this age effect could not account for the level of difference between Māori and Pacific staff and other public servants.

2.1.2 Who wants to be a chief executive?

16% of public servants overall had their sights set on a chief executive job in the Public Service. This aspiration varied between groups. Men (21%) were more likely than women (12%) to want to become a chief executive. However, this gender difference disappeared at the management level. Women managers were just as likely as their male counterparts to want to become a chief executive. Managers overall (26%) were almost twice as likely as non-managers (14%) to want such a position, perhaps reflecting the extent to which they were already some way up the ladder.

Having caregiving responsibilities did not appear to dampen the desire to reach the top echelons of the Public Service. Indeed, 18% of staff reporting that they had responsibilities for dependants said they wanted a chief executive position, compared with 14% of non-caregivers[22]. However, this was probably related to the age profile of caregivers. Most (65%) were in the 35-49 age group, typically a stage of career consolidation. Within the caregiver group, however, women (15%) were less likely than men (25%) to aspire to a chief executive position. So while having caregiving responsibilities did not impact adversely on men's career aspirations, it did have a dampening effect on women's.

Māori and Pacific public servants again showed high levels of ambition. Māori (22%) and Pacific staff (23%) were more likely than their non-Māori or non-Pacific colleagues (15%) to want to become a chief executive.

Some departments seemed to have more chief executive aspirants than others. The proportion of staff with their sights set on a chief executive job ranged between departments from 7% to 44%. This might simply reflect the type of functions carried out in those departments, but it might also suggest that some departments are seen as 'stepping stones' to senior positions. Departments with the highest proportions of staff wanting to become a chief executive were central agencies and specialised policy ministries. Central agency experience also features in the career histories of chief executives appointed over the last decade and a half (see box).

[22] "Caregivers" are defined as those answering "Yes" to Question 56 of the survey questionnaire, "Do you have (or share) primary caring responsibility for children or adults?"

Where do our chief executives come from?

An examination by the State Services Commission's chief executive branch indicated some patterns in the employment backgrounds of chief executives appointed over the last 15 or so years. Central agency (Treasury, Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet and State Services Commission), Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade and/or large social sector department experience featured strongly in their employment histories. The employment histories of women chief executives tended to suggest more zig-zagged career trajectories, which were likely to include experience in a more diverse range of organisations both inside and outside the Public Service.

2.1.3 *Who had already achieved all they wanted in their career?*

Only 13% of public servants reported that they had achieved all they wanted in their careers.

Not surprisingly, this proportion increased with age. Only 4% of staff under 30 years reported that they had already achieved all they wanted in their careers, compared with 10% of staff in the 30-45 age cohort and 32% of staff over the age of 45. There were no differences between Māori and non-Māori and no gender differences, either overall or at the management level, in this area.

2.2 Career intentions – staying or going

A third of public servants said they were planning to stay in their current positions in the long term. A further 27% of staff were planning to stay in the short term.

10% of public servants were actively applying for other jobs at the time of the survey. This figure is consistent with the unplanned annual turnover for the Public Service of 11% in 2000[23]. The survey results also indicate some likely mobility. One in five public servants were thinking about changing jobs. There were no differences between women and men on this front, or between managers and non-managers. However, proportionately fewer female managers were thinking about changing jobs: 15%, compared with 23% of male managers. Some of this difference might reflect the extent to which women managers in general had shorter tenure than male managers in their current organisations.

Staying or going – why?

The survey did not ask respondents to indicate why they were planning to leave their current positions. However, the responses of 'stayers' compared with those of 'leavers' (staff thinking about changing jobs or actively looking for other jobs) suggest that there was no one trigger for leaving. There were indeed differences between 'leavers' and 'stayers' – many quite substantial – on virtually all of the factors covered in the questionnaire. Some factors appeared to 'pull' staff elsewhere, that is, staff were leaving in search of something. For example, opportunities for advancement, pay and benefits and all but two of the development and training factors surveyed were more important to 'leavers' than to 'stayers'. However, leavers were also less satisfied than stayers on almost every factor, which might operate as 'push' factors. For example, two-thirds of leavers rated their opportunities for advancement as "Poor", compared with 41% of stayers; and leavers were less satisfied on all of the development and training factors and less happy with support from their managers. A quarter of leavers rated their managers as "Poor" at communicating effectively, compared with 10% of stayers; more than a third (37%) rated their managers as "Poor" at giving performance feedback, compared with 17% of stayers; and 30% of leavers rated their manager as "Poor" at encouraging their career development, compared with 12% of stayers.

The survey did not ask respondents to specify whether they were thinking about moving within their current organisation or to another organisation. At least some public servants had their sights set on an internal move for their next career step. Almost a third (32%) saw their current jobs as a training ground for their next career move within their current organisation. This was particularly true for Māori and Pacific staff. 42% of Māori staff, compared with 30% of non-Māori staff, saw their next career move as an internal one, as did 42% of Pacific staff, compared with 32% of non-Pacific staff.

34% of public servants saw their current organisation as a training ground for a career move to another organisation. Managers (41%) were more likely than non-managers (32%) to see their current organisations in this light, as were Māori staff (40%) compared with non-Māori staff (33%), and Pacific staff (44%) compared with non-Pacific staff (33%).

[23] State Services Commission. *Human Resource Capability: Survey of Public Service Departments as at 30 June, 2001.* Wellington, SSC, 2001, p 6. Core unplanned turnover shows the number of unplanned cessations, primarily resignations, of open-term staff as a proportion of total open-term employment (calculated as the average of the number of open term staff at the start and end of the period).

2.3 What are staff prepared to do to move ahead?

2.3.1 Change work area

Public servants appeared reasonably flexible about what they would do in order to further their careers. 55% of staff were prepared to move into another work area to further their careers. Managers appeared to have broader horizons than non-managers: 63% of managers, compared with 55% of non-managers, said they were prepared to move into another work area in order to progress their careers. There were no gender differences in this area, either overall or at the management level.

Māori (63%) were more likely than non-Māori (55%) to report a willingness to move to another work area. It is possible there was some age effect in this latter result. The survey results indicated that a willingness to move work areas decreases with age. As noted before, Māori have a younger age profile than non-Māori. However, in contrast, there was no difference between Pacific and non-Pacific staff in this domain.

2.3.2 Move to the private sector

Public servants had not limited their future employment options to the Public Service. Half overall said that they were prepared to move to the private sector to further their careers. Managers (58%) were more likely than non-managers (48%) to see the private sector as a viable employment option. There were no gender differences in this area, either overall or at the management level.

Perhaps reflecting the general difficulty in making a significant career shift later in life, the willingness to move to the private sector decreased with increasing age. Two-thirds of staff under the age of 30 were prepared to move to the private sector to further their careers, compared with 51% of staff in the 30-45 year age cohort, and only 29% of staff over the age of 45. Younger public servants were also more highly represented in occupations that would also be more directly transferable to the private sector, for instance clerical and call-centre type roles.

However, despite the potential age and occupation effect, there were no differences between Māori and non-Māori or Pacific and non-Pacific staff in terms of willingness to move to the private sector. This might indicate a preference amongst Māori and Pacific peoples for work in the Public Service. Their greater representation in the Public Service than in the overall employed labour force lends credence to this proposition.

2.3.3 Move geographically

Public servants were less willing to move to another geographical area to progress their careers. Only 28% said they were prepared to move geographically, with men overall (31%) a little more willing to move than women overall (26%). However, there was no gender difference at the management level. Female and male managers were equally willing to move. Managers overall (33%) were more prepared to shift than non-managers (27%).

Māori appeared to be more mobile than non-Māori. More than a third (35%) of Māori staff were prepared to move to advance their careers, compared with just over a quarter (26%) of non-Māori staff. There might be some age effect here, as the willingness to move geographically decreased with age. Younger people tend to be generally more mobile. However, in contrast, there was no difference between Pacific and non-Pacific staff with a similarly younger age profile.

Staff without caregiving responsibilities (30%) were slightly more prepared to move than those with such responsibilities (25%). Moreover, caregiving responsibilities appeared to inhibit women's willingness to move geographically more than men's. 27% of male caregivers, compared with 21% of female caregivers, said they were prepared to move in the interests of their careers.

Wellington-based staff (29%) were a little more prepared to move than their non-Wellington counterparts (26%). However, there was no difference at the management level. Managers based outside Wellington were as prepared as Wellington-based managers to move geographically in order to further their career.

2.4 Inhibitors – what deters people from applying for a higher-level position?

In order to identify factors acting as barriers to career progression, public servants were asked whether any of a list of 15 factors had stopped them from applying for a more senior job in the previous 12 months. They responded in the proportions shown in Table 2.1.

Almost a third of public servants did not apply for a higher-level job in the 12 months prior to the survey because they simply preferred to stay in their current positions. This would not appear to suggest any deterrent that would need to be rectified. The survey results suggest that the greatest deterrents to applying for more senior jobs could be categorised as:

- the individual's assessment that they are not ready for a more senior job, that is, they do not have the requisite experience and/or qualifications;
- concerns that taking on a more senior job would adversely affect non-work aspects of their lives – family responsibilities, relocation, having to work long hours associated with higher-level jobs;
- perceiving less than attractive aspects of the job or selection process – the perceived political nature of senior jobs or concerns about unfair selection processes.

2.4.1 Lack of readiness for a senior job

Not having the right experience and qualifications for a more senior job might be seen as valid reasons for not applying for one, assuming the individual concerned had correctly assessed their 'fitness' for the job. The literature[24] suggests that women underestimate their readiness for jobs and only apply when they meet the majority, if not all, of the job requirements, while men are more likely to 'give it a go' even when they meet only some of the criteria.

The results of this survey showed that women were more likely than men to say that a lack of necessary experience

Table 2.1 What deters people from applying for a higher-level position?

In your current organisation in the past 12 months, have any of these things stopped you from applying for a position at a higher level in the Public Service?	*All staff %*
Preference to stay in my current job	32
Don't yet have the necessary experience	26
Concern that I would not be able to balance work and family responsibilities	25
No desire to relocate to another area to take up a higher-level position	24
Don't yet have the necessary qualifications	21
No desire to work long hours associated with higher-level positions	19
No desire because of the political nature of higher-level positions	18
Concern that the selection process would not be fair	18
Other factor(s)	18
No desire to take on management responsibilities	17
Lack of confidence in myself	15
No desire to work in a higher-level position	14
Lack of support from my manager	12
No desire to undertake extensive travel	12
Lack of other people's confidence in me	8
Concerns about my health	6

[24] For example, see Burton, Clare, *The Promise and the Price*, Sydney, Allen and Unwin, 1991.

(29% of women, 23% of men) had deterred them from applying for a higher-level job, but there was no difference in relation to their perceptions of their qualifications. Indeed, women and men public servants were equally qualified academically.

A perceived lack of experience was the only gender difference at the management level in terms of deterrents to applying for a higher-level job. Women managers (23%) were more likely than their male counterparts (13%) to see lack of experience as a deterrent to seeking a more senior job. This might reflect the extent to which male managers were generally older and had more Public Service experience than women managers. Proportionately more women managers reported having 11-15 years' experience in the Public Service, while male managers (55%) were twice as likely as women managers (26%) to report having more than 20 years' experience. However, there may also be an element of women under-estimating their experience and their readiness for more senior jobs.

Women overall were almost twice as likely as men (19% compared with 10%) to report that lack of self-confidence had deterred them from seeking a higher-level job. However, there was no gender-based confidence barrier at the management level.

Proportionately more Pacific (14%) than non-Pacific staff (7%) cited lack of confidence in them by others as a deterrent. In contrast, there were no differences between Māori and non-Māori on either lack of self-confidence or lack of confidence in them by other people.

Māori (32%) were more likely than their non-Māori counterparts (25%) to cite lack of experience as a deterrent to seeking a higher-level job. Similarly, a third of Māori, compared with 19% of non-Māori, cited lack of qualifications as a deterrent. The story was similar for Pacific staff, with 39% compared with 25% of non-Pacific staff citing lack of experience as a deterrent, and 41% compared with 20% of non-Pacific staff citing lack of qualifications. In terms of relative qualifications, this reflects the reality that Māori and Pacific staff tend to be less highly academically qualified than non-Māori and non-Pacific staff. There is also likely to be some age effect in these results, given the younger age profile of these two groups and the fact that both lack of experience and lack of qualifications were greater deterrents to younger age groups.

2.4.2 *A more senior job would clash with life outside the workplace*

A quarter of public servants said they were put off applying for a higher-level job because they were concerned they could not balance those responsibilities with their family commitments. Concerns about being able to balance family commitments and work responsibilities were also a recurring theme in qualitative responses to the survey. This applied to staff at all levels of the Public Service.

Almost a quarter (24%) of public servants also said that they did not want to relocate to take up a higher-level job, while almost a fifth (19%) said that the long hours associated with more senior jobs had stopped them from seeking one.

There were no overall gender differences in terms of reporting concerns that taking on a higher-level job would create difficulties balancing work and family responsibilities. Similarly, women were no more likely than men to express an aversion to relocating to take up a more senior job. In contrast, women (21%) were a little more likely than men (17%) to be put off by the long hours associated with higher-level jobs. On a related factor, 10% of men and 13% of women reported that they did not want to undertake extensive travel. There were no gender differences at the management level on any of these factors.

In short, while there were some gender differences in these areas, they were not great, and only applied to non-managers. This contrasts somewhat with a recent British survey prepared for "Opportunity 2000" ("an employer-led campaign to make better use of women in the workforce") which found that *"a large minority of women had turned down promotion because it would have made their lives unmanageable, though only a handful of men felt similarly constrained"*[25]. Moreover, the findings of the Career Progression and Development Survey tend to

[25] "Women and work: for better, for worse", in *The Economist,* 18 July, 1998, p 14.

counter traditional arguments that women are less attractive employees – in what is described as 'statistical discrimination[26] – because "their family responsibilities would interfere with their work", and "they would not be as flexible in terms of work-related travel or relocation".

These deterrents are often less gender-related per se than they are the effects of a combination of gender and responsibilities for the care of dependants. Not surprisingly, these life/work clashes affected caregivers more than non-caregivers. 41% of caregivers, compared with 15% of non-caregivers, reported being deterred from applying for a higher-level job because they were concerned they would not be able to balance their work and family commitments. Caregivers (27%) were also more likely than non-caregivers (23%) to see relocation as a deterrent, and not to want to undertake extensive travel (14% of caregivers compared with 10% of non-caregivers). However, there was no difference between the two groups in terms of not wanting to work the longer hours associated with more senior jobs.

Again, the above factors were greater deterrents to female caregivers than to male caregivers (see Table 2.2). 45% of female caregivers, compared with 38% of male caregivers, were deterred by concerns about balancing work and family, 24% of female caregivers compared with 18% of male caregivers were deterred by the prospect of working longer hours, and 17% of female caregivers compared with 11% of male caregivers were deterred by not wanting to undertake extensive travel. Perhaps related to this is the fact that 17% of female caregivers and 12% of male caregivers said that not having a desire to take on management responsibilities was the reason for their not applying for a more senior job. However, in contrast to the results indicating that female caregivers were less prepared to move geographically to advance their careers (discussed above), there were no differences in the

Table 2.2 What deters people from applying for a higher-level position: differences between female caregivers and male caregivers

In your current organisation in the past 12 months, have any of these things stopped you from applying for a position at a higher level in the Public Service?	*Female caregivers* %	*Male caregivers* %
Concern that I would not be able to balance work and family responsibilities	45	38
Don't yet have the necessary experience	29	21
No desire to work long hours associated with higher-level positions	24	18
Lack of confidence in myself	19	10
Concern that the selection process would not be fair	17	22
Other factor(s)	17	22
No desire to take on management responsibilities	17	12
No desire to undertake extensive travel	17	11

[26] 'Statistical discrimination' occurs when a characteristic of some members of a group is imputed to all of them and is used to treat all differentially. For example, the greater propensity for some women to take career breaks is used as a reason not to hire or not to invest in women staff, because "they might leave". For a discussion of this phenomenon, see Burton, 1997, op. cit.

proportions of male and female caregivers citing lack of desire to relocate as a deterrent to seeking a more senior job.

Almost a third (31%) of non-Wellington-based managers cited "No desire to relocate" as a deterrent to seeking a higher-level job, compared with only 15% of Wellington managers. This seems to contradict their responses to another part of the survey where they indicated equal willingness to relocate to take up a higher-level job. Overall, non-Wellington staff (30%) were also more likely than Wellington staff (16%) to be deterred from applying for a higher-level job because they had no desire to relocate.

Consistent with their reported willingness to relocate to further their careers, Māori (19%) were less likely than non-Māori (25%) to see possible relocation as a deterrent to seeking a more senior job. Similarly, Pacific staff (17%) were less deterred than non-Pacific staff (25%) by the possibility of relocation. They were also less likely to be deterred by the prospect of working longer hours: 13% of Pacific staff, compared with 20% of non-Pacific staff, cited this as a deterrent. There might be some age effect in these results, as staff under 30 were the age group least deterred by potential relocation and long hours, in essence the group indicating relative mobility.

2.4.3 *The job is unattractive*

Anecdotal evidence suggests that senior Public Service jobs are becoming less attractive as the 'faceless public servant' becomes a thing of the past. Under this scenario, senior Public Service jobs expose incumbents to a political minefield involving media and public scrutiny, which might include having to answer for actions that might in the past have fallen within the realm of ministerial accountability.

"Managerial positions usually take you out of 'hands-on' work into managing staff. If what you like to do is create 'product' you won't necessarily want to become a manager with prime responsibility for ensuring the welfare and well-being of staff...The challenge is to stay in 'practice' and be paid commensurate to my skills and experiences."

18% of public servants said that the political nature of higher-level jobs had deterred them from applying for one. This response was uniform across various groups. Managers, who are arguably closer to the political frontline, were no more likely than non-managers to say they were deterred by the political nature of higher-level jobs. Qualitative responses suggested that staff interpreted 'political' in its broadest sense, with more commenting on not wanting to be involved in "internal politics" than being put off by involvement with politicians and potential public criticism. However, comments on both domains were only a minor theme in qualitative responses.

17% of public servants said they did not apply for a more senior job because they did not want to take on management responsibilities. There was a gender difference in this response, with proportionately more women (19%) than men (13%) citing this as a deterring factor.

Qualitative responses suggested that some staff did not want to take on a management role because it would take them away from their primary substantive interests. Others felt that the extra pay involved did not make up for the additional stress and personal 'exposure'.

2.4.4 *Lack of fairness in selection processes*

Despite the merit principle being well established in legislation, 18% of public servants said that they had been deterred from seeking a higher-level job because they felt the selection process would not be fair. Non-managers (19%) were more likely than managers (11%) to respond in this way, perhaps reflecting the extent to which managers were more familiar with selection processes generally (not just those where they were a candidate) and were more likely to understand how and why decisions are made, and that they might often involve 'trade-offs'.

"All possible positions available for advancement have had hand-picked temporary appointees and then permanent positions only advertised internally. This means that any chance for advancement is not based on merit, but who is the 'flavour of the month'."

Interestingly, given that most literature suggests that women are more likely than men to be disadvantaged in selection processes[27], men (20%) were more likely than women (16%) to express concerns about the lack of fairness in those selection processes[27]. While there was no difference between Māori and non-Māori public servants, more than a quarter (28%) of Pacific staff felt deterred by a perceived lack of fairness in selection processes, compared with 17% of non-Pacific staff. A quarter of people with disabilities similarly expressed concerns about fairness in selection processes, compared with 17% of staff without disabilities.

Claims of favouritism, pre-determined selection processes, "old boys' networks" and not applying for promotion because "my face doesn't fit" were recurring themes in qualitative comments. It must be of concern that nearly one in five public servants felt deterred from applying for a more senior job because they felt the selection process would be unfair. Issues of fairness are discussed in Chapter 6 on work environment.

2.5 Conclusions

Levels of ambition in the Public Service appeared to be high, and the survey results suggest there is no shortage of staff wanting to develop and move ahead in their careers. The levels of ambition amongst Māori and particularly Pacific staff suggest that strategies for improving diversity in the Public Service have a willing group to target. And while women overall were less likely than men to want a more senior job, female managers were as eager as their male counterparts to reach the top levels of the Public Service.

Public servants seemed to be relatively flexible about what they would do in order to advance their careers, including changing work areas and moving to the private sector. They appeared less flexible when it came to geographical relocation.

The main deterrents to applying for higher-level jobs were as much about the nature of those jobs – that they would clash with family responsibilities and require long hours at work, and to a lesser extent that they were too political – as they were about the relative readiness of individuals to take on those jobs.

Men were as likely as women to cite work and family clashes as a deterrent to seeking a higher-level job. However, caregiving responsibilities still appeared to impact more on women's career aspirations and flexibility than on those of men.

That almost one in five public servants said they were put off applying for a more senior job because they feared the selection process would not be fair is a concern.

[27] For a discussion of the literature in this area, see Loughlin, Sue, *Barriers to Womens' Career Progression: a Review of the Literature,* Wellington, State Services Commission, Working Paper No. 6, 1999, pp 8-10.

CHAPTER THREE

WHAT MOTIVATES PUBLIC SERVANTS

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Previous research in New Zealand and elsewhere has suggested that public servants are motivated more by job interest than by material rewards or job security[28]. A PricewaterhouseCoopers study of government executives in the United States found that *"...the rewards for a career in government service are primarily non-financial. The most frequent reason given by career executives was that their government work was interesting, exciting, and challenging. One interpretation of these results is that, for a sustained career in government, the work itself has to be appealing"* [29].

Other studies have focused on the factors that demotivate public servants. Australian research found that *"only 10% of employees leave organisations because of pay. Their reasons for leaving are more likely to be based on work that fails to make use of their skills, poor management, few promotion prospects and too much pressure"* [30]. A recent New Zealand national study found that the main reason people leave their jobs is to pursue more interesting work elsewhere. The most common reasons for staying with an employer are *"having interesting work and having good relationships with co-workers and the supervisor, as well as good job security"* [31].

If what New Zealand Public Service staff said was most important to them in terms of general workplace factors is used as an indication of what had attracted them to the Public Service and motivated them in their jobs, then the Career Progression and Development Survey largely supports previous findings. The results suggest that public servants care more about the nature of their jobs than material rewards, although pay is not unimportant to them. Their levels of dissatisfaction, particularly in relation to overall quality of management, opportunities for advancement, and the extent to which they perceived their workloads to be "reasonable", signal some areas for concern.

3.1 What do staff value in the workplace?

The survey asked public servants to consider how important nine aspects of work were to them (see Figure 3.1). The top three general workplace factors – considered "Highly important" by more than three-quarters of public servants – were:

- a feeling of accomplishment;
- quality of management; and
- challenging work.

This ranking was consistent across gender, management status, and ethnicity. Pay and benefits were ranked as the fourth highest priority, while job security came in at fifth.

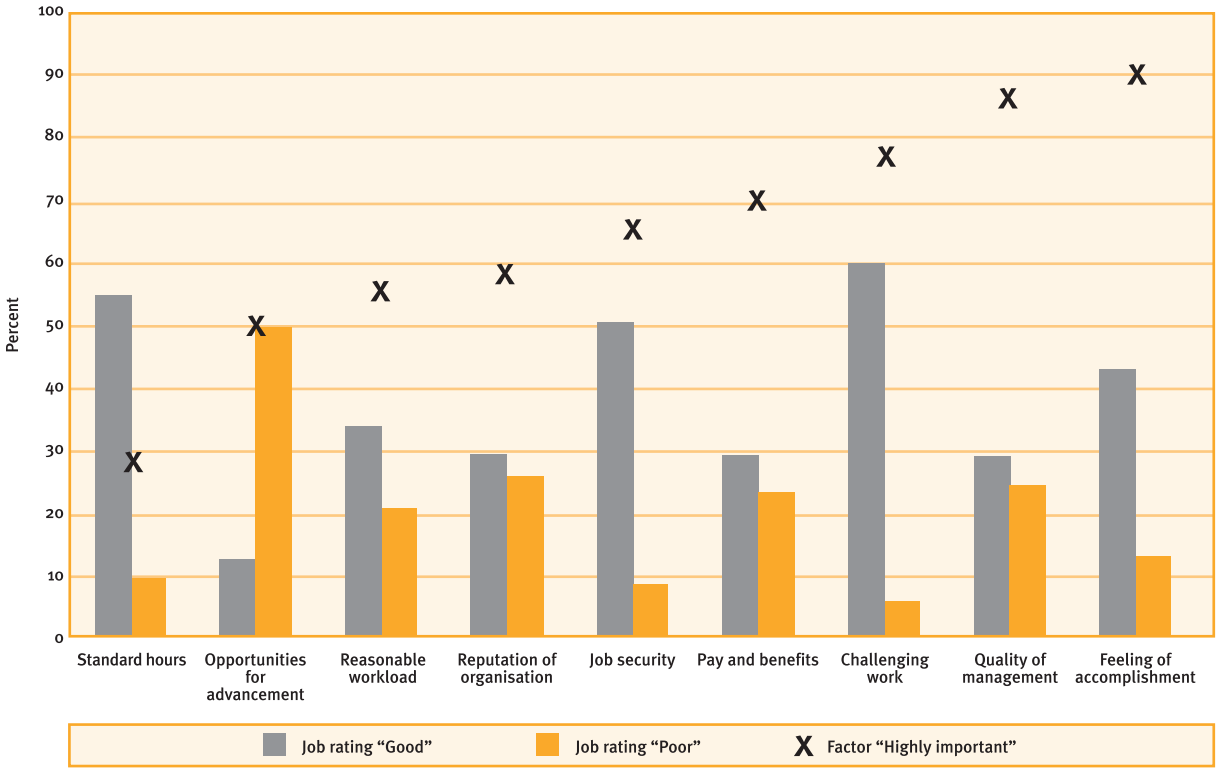
While the rankings of factors were relatively consistent across the various groups that make up the Public Service, the relative importance attached to various factors varied between groups. Managers attached less importance than non-managers to pay and benefits, job security, having a reasonable workload and working standard hours, but having challenging work was more important to them than to non-managers. Male and female managers were remarkably consistent in their views.

Proportionately more women than men considered feelings of accomplishment, quality of management, job security, having a reasonable workload, and being able to work standard hours as "Highly important" to them. The differences were not large, although almost a third of women, compared with a quarter of men, considered being able to work standard hours as "Highly important".

Similarly, there were differences between Māori and non-Māori staff on more than half of the factors. Māori staff valued pay and benefits, opportunities for advancement, job security, having a reasonable workload, and being able to work standard hours, more highly than non-Māori staff. Some of these differences might be partly a

[28] Norman, Richard and McMillan, Rod. "Variety and challenge key motivators for top public servants", in *Human Resources*, 2(2), 1997.
[29] PricewaterhouseCoopers Endowment for the Business of Government. *Government Leadership Survey*. 1999.
[30] Bosser, Kate. *Challenges for the APS Employer*. [Australia] Department of Employment, Workplace Relations and Small Business, 1999.
[31] Boxall, P. and Rasmussen, E. *Labour Turnover in New Zealand: Preliminary Report on a National Survey*. Paper presented to EMA (Northern) Conference, Auckland, 21-22 June, 2001.

Figure 3.1 Importance of workplace factors and how staff rated their jobs on those factors



function of the younger age profile and occupational distribution of Māori staff. For example, the survey results indicated that the importance of opportunities for advancement decreases with age. 62% of Māori staff considered opportunities for advancement to be "Highly important", compared with just under half of non-Māori staff (48%). In terms of occupational effects, previous research has concluded that individuals in jobs that might be considered less skilled value material rewards more than people in more highly skilled jobs do. This may account for why pay and benefits appeared more important to Māori than to non-Māori in this survey.

Age and occupational effects might similarly be a factor in why Pacific staff valued opportunities for advancement, job security, and standard hours more highly than non-Pacific staff. Notably, 71% of Pacific staff considered opportunities for advancement to be "Highly important", compared with just under half (49%) of non-Pacific staff. Pacific staff were also more concerned about the reputation of the organisations where they worked. Three-quarters of Pacific staff considered this "Highly important", compared with 57% of non-Pacific staff.

Some of these findings – particularly the importance attached to opportunities for advancement – were mirrored in recent research conducted as part of the State Services Commission's "Public Service as Employer of Choice" project. That study found that opportunities for career advancement and ongoing training were important job-related 'attraction' factors for tertiary students nearing graduation, as well as for recent graduates exploring employment options. Māori and Pacific students indicated they were definitely seeking an employer who offered them development opportunities and a chance to move ahead. Also important to graduates was the opportunity to work in a challenging but supportive environment, and for Māori and Pacific students this appeared to mean organisations that value and recognise cultural skills and knowledge. The importance that Pacific public servants attached to the reputation of the organisations in which they worked might be a reflection of this. Further inquiry is warranted as to how Public Service organisations can attract Māori and Pacific staff, and can develop and retain them.

3.2 Are public servants' expectations being met?

3.2.1 *A feeling of accomplishment*

The top priority for staff in carrying out their work was having a feeling of accomplishment – 91% of public servants considered this "Highly important". 43% said that their jobs were "Good" at providing them with a sense of accomplishment, while 13% rated their jobs as "Poor" on this.

Managers (55% rating "Good") appeared more satisfied than non-managers (42%) with their sense of accomplishment. As managers, they are likely to have more control over what they do and are more able to "make things happen". Indeed, satisfaction with feelings of accomplishment appeared to increase with age, perhaps reflecting increasing seniority.

While there was no difference between male and female managers in terms of their "Good" ratings on this factor, 10% of male managers, compared with 4% of female managers, rated their jobs as "Poor" at providing them with a sense of accomplishment. Overall, women were more likely than men to report "Good" feelings of accomplishment in their jobs. Given the younger age profile of women public servants, and the fact that women are less represented in the management ranks – where levels of satisfaction in terms of feelings of accomplishment appeared higher – women could have been expected to have lower levels of satisfaction than men. The results indicate that women seem able to derive satisfaction even when their actual conditions would suggest they should be less satisfied than their male counterparts.

3.2.2 *Challenging work*

Public servants appeared satisfied that their jobs offered them challenging work: 60% rated their jobs as "Good" in this domain. The Public Service was fairly homogeneous on this factor, although managers appeared considerably more satisfied than other staff that their jobs were challenging: 82% gave a "Good" rating, compared with 57% of non-managerial staff. Younger staff, aged under 30 years, appeared the least satisfied on this front, perhaps reflecting the type of occupation and type of work – typically clerical and administrative – that younger public servants have access to.

3.2.3 *Quality of management*

86% of public servants considered quality of management to be "Highly important". However, only 29% of them gave their department a "Good" rating on this factor, while a quarter gave a "Poor" rating. 46% of staff gave a "Fair" rating.

Managers were more likely than non-managers to rate the overall quality of management as "Good", but there was not a great difference, despite the extent to which it might reflect on them. Again, women were more positive than men, with 32% giving their department a "Good" rating, compared with 27% of men.

There was some diversity across the Public Service in this domain. The proportions of staff rating the quality of management in their department as "Good" ranged between departments from 16% to 68%, while "Poor" ratings ranged from 7% to 39%.

Qualitative responses indicated that much of this apparent dissatisfaction was related to staff not fully understanding the overall direction of the organisation they worked in, their views on the adequacy of communication between staff and management, their perceptions that senior management did not fully understand issues at the 'coal face', and their belief that people and their career development were not high priorities for management. There were also numerous comments about the destabilising effects of restructuring. "Senior management" was held responsible for organisational change and its associated uncertainties.

It should be noted, however, that this assessment of overall management contrasted with the largely positive perceptions staff had of their immediate managers. This is discussed later, in Chapter 5.

3.2.4 *Pay and benefits*

Research[32] on the motivation of workers suggests that pay is not a priority for staff unless there are specific concerns about it. Pay has been described as a "hygiene" factor. The absence of hygiene factors can create job dissatisfaction, but their presence does not motivate or create satisfaction. That is, poor remuneration may create dissatisfaction, but good remuneration in itself is unlikely to be a motivating factor.

[32] For a discussion of the literature in this area, see Paterson, David, *An Examination of the Design of Remuneration Policy for Public Service Chief Executives and the Extent to Which It Can Impact on the Recruitment and Performance of High Calibre Senior Managers*, MPP dissertation, 1993, pp 32-33.

Although pay and benefits were not one of the top three workplace priorities, 71% of public servants did consider them "Highly important". 29% rated their pay and benefits as "Good", while almost a quarter (24%) felt they were "Poor". However, given the different connotations of "Fair" in relation to remuneration, it is important to note that 47% of public servants rated their pay and benefits as "Fair".

Managers (43%) were more likely than non-managers (27%) to rate their pay and benefits as "Good" – probably reflecting their higher earning potential. However, as mentioned above, pay and benefits were relatively less important to managers than to their non-managerial colleagues. Proportionately more women (32%) than men (27%) rated their pay and benefits as "Good". Women's relative satisfaction compared with men is unexpected, given the continued existence of the gender pay gap in the Public Service (see box), where women in general earn less than men.

Pay – the reality

For the Public Service as a whole, the average salary of women at 30 June 2001 was 17% less than that of men. The comparable figure for the employed labour force was 16%[33]. However, taking into account the types of occupations in which women work in the Public Service, and their younger age distribution compared with men, the "unexplained"[34] part of the gender pay gap reduced from 17% to 6%. A similar analysis of data on the employed labour force (based on June 2000 data) *increased* the gender pay gap from 13% to 15%.

About half of the pay gap in the Public Service can be explained by occupational segregation. Women typically work in occupations that are less well paid than those where men predominate. Where women and men worked in the same occupations, the average salaries for women were around 10% less than those for men. However, in the managers occupation group, women managers on average earned 16% less than their male counterparts.

The State Services Commission has recently carried out more rigorous modelling of gender pay gaps in the Public Service[35]. In addition to including the effect of occupation on pay for men and women, this modelling also included age, ethnicity, region, department, length of service with the department, collective bargaining and employment term (fixed/open). The modelling found an unexplained pay gap of 5% between men and women for both 2000 and 2001.

The "explanations" for the pay gap are worth unpicking further. For example, occupational segregation is the outcome of direct and indirect discrimination that occurs prior to entry to the workplace and channels women into a narrower range of typically lower-paid occupations. Also, where women and men enter into individual employment contracts, the modelling found that men are typically able to extract a better salary than women.

The average salary for Māori staff was 12% less than the average salary for non-Māori staff[36]. There was an even greater differential for Pacific peoples. Their average salaries were 19% less than the average salaries of non-Pacific peoples. The pay gaps for both Māori and Pacific peoples are heavily affected by the younger age distributions of these groups compared with the population overall. When the effect of both occupation group and age are taken into account[37], the pay gaps fall to 4% for Māori and 6% for Pacific peoples. However, the pay gap between Māori and non-Māori managers remains at 11%. But the pay gap between Pacific and non-Pacific managers is less, at 4%.

Both Māori and Pacific staff appeared less satisfied with their pay and benefits than their comparator groups, reflecting the reality that Māori and Pacific staff do earn less.

People reporting that they had a disability were also less satisfied with their pay and benefits.

Satisfaction varied between Public Service departments. The proportions of staff rating their pay and benefits as "Good" ranged between 10% and 61%, and as "Poor" between 0% and 55%.

Qualitative responses to the survey included some references to poor pay relativities with the private sector, but overall, remuneration was not a major theme. Instead, qualitative responses suggested that the

[33] Statistics New Zealand. *Quarterly Employment Survey*, May 2001, average ordinary time hourly pay rate.
[34] The unexplained pay gap is the difference in male and female salary that is not due to differences in characteristics such as age, tenure and occupation. Where there are no differences between a man and a woman on any measured characteristic, the woman will earn, on average, 95% of the man's salary.
[35] Gosse, Michelle A. *The Gender Pay Gap in the New Zealand Public Service*. Wellington, State Services Commission, 2002 (in press).
[36] State Services Commission. *Human Resource Capability: Survey of Public Service Departments as at 30 June, 2001*. Wellington, SSC, 2001.
[37] These figures were derived by taking the pay gaps for each age group within each occupation group and weighting the pay gap by the total number of staff in each cell.

distribution of rewards – that is, fairness in how rewards are allocated and the existence of pay differentials between staff working in the same department – was more of an issue than overall pay levels. This is supported by the importance public servants attached to equitable access to rewards, and how they rated their organisations in this regard (discussed in Chapter 6).

3.2.5 *Job security*

The literature suggests that job security is becoming less important to employees as career patterns change and individuals seek *"not employment security but the security of 'employability'"*[38]. While job security was not one of the top priorities for public servants, two-thirds considered it "Highly important". Just over half (51%) felt their job security was "Good", while 9% felt it was "Poor".

Satisfaction across the various population groups was fairly uniform. Managers were slightly less likely than non-managers to feel they had "Good" job security, but as noted above, job security was considerably less important to them than to non-managers. Women were more satisfied than men that their jobs offered "Good" job security. It was also slightly more important to women than to men. Māori and Pacific staff were no more or less satisfied than others with their job security.

These results reflect the extent to which job security remains relatively robust in the Public Service. The State Services Commission's Human Resource Capability survey for 2000 showed that the Public Service workforce was relatively stable, with redundancies at a low level and core unplanned turnover at moderate levels (11%).

Any concerns related to job security in qualitative responses were related to the uncertainties surrounding "restructuring" a catch-all term used by staff to describe any form of organisational change.

3.2.6 *Reputation of the organisation*

Public servants were not very complimentary in assessing the reputation of the organisations in which they worked. 30% rated the reputation of their organisation as "Good", while just over a quarter (26%) rated it as "Poor". There was relative unanimity in ratings across the different population groups, although men (30%) were more likely than women (24%) to rate the reputation of their organisation as "Poor".

Ratings varied considerably across departments. Qualitative responses revealed that negative media and public criticism had impacted on some staff perceptions of the reputation of their organisation and that this had influenced staff morale. Other staff were at pains to praise their organisations, in some cases suggesting that public perceptions were ill founded. These latter comments revealed that at least some public servants had a good deal of pride in the organisations in which they worked.

3.2.7 *Having a reasonable workload*

As noted above, work pressure was found in one Australian study[39] of public sector employees to be a 'demotivator'. The Career Progression and Development Survey showed that while a third (34%) of public servants rated their jobs as "Good" at providing a reasonable workload, just over one in five (21%) rated their jobs as "Poor" on that front.

In contrast to most other areas of the survey, where managers appeared more satisfied than other staff, managers were less satisfied that their jobs involved a reasonable workload. Similar proportions of managers gave "Poor" (30%) and "Good" (26%) ratings on that front. Perhaps as a result of their relatively heavy workloads, 91% of managers also reported working more hours than they were employed for (compared with 71% of non-managers).

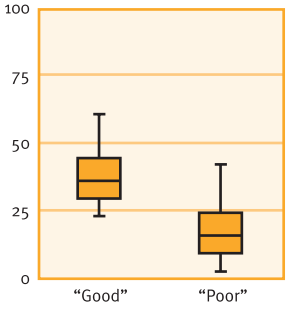
People with disabilities (22%) were less likely than staff without disabilities (35%) to rate their jobs as "Good" in terms of having a reasonable workload.

Concerns about heavy workloads and working long hours to meet performance expectations were major themes in qualitative responses to the survey, and were expressed by staff at both management and non-management levels.

Again, there was considerable diversity across Public Service departments. The proportions of staff rating their jobs as "Good" on reasonable workload varied between departments from 23% to 61% (see Figure 3.2). The proportions giving a "Poor" rating varied between 3% and 42%.

[38] Mallon, Mary and Cohen, Laurie. "Time for a change? Women's accounts of the move from organisational careers to self-employment", in *British Journal of Management*, 12, 2001, pp 217-230.
[39] Bosser, op.cit.

Figure 3.2
Inter-departmental ranges: reasonable workload



3.2.8 Opportunities for advancement

Public servants appeared dissatisfied with their advancement opportunities. Indeed, half of them rated the opportunities for advancement in their current jobs as "Poor". Only 13% felt they were "Good".

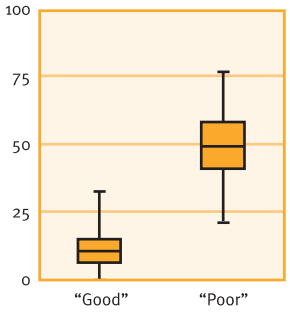
These low ratings were common across the Public Service, although there were some differences between the various population groups. Managers appeared more satisfied – or at least less dissatisfied – than non-managers. Managers (39%) were less likely than non-managers (52%) to rate their opportunities for advancement as "Poor". Within the managers occupation group, female managers (32%) were less likely than their male counterparts (43%) to rate their advancement opportunities as "Poor". This may reflect the extent to which women managers are generally in lower level management positions than are male managers and hence may see more room for advancement. Overall, men were slightly more likely than women to rate their opportunities for advancement as "Poor".

Pacific staff (20%) were more likely than non-Pacific staff (13%) to rate their opportunities for advancement as "Good". This may be partly a reflection of their lower age profile. The lowest "Good" ratings in the overall survey came from staff over 45 years of age, while the lowest "Poor" ratings came from staff under 30 years old. This is perhaps because younger staff have plenty of time and space in front of them to advance, while older staff are likely to have a clearer picture of how far they can realistically progress. However, given the importance attached to opportunities for advancement by Pacific staff, and their high aspirations to move ahead, their ratings are a positive sign.

Staff with disabilities were less likely to rate their advancement opportunities as "Good" (9% compared with 13% of other staff).

In qualitative responses, public servants blamed a lack of advancement opportunities on flat management structures that entailed fewer supervisory or management positions to aspire to. Some commented that there was nowhere to go if you did not want to be a manager. Many staff also mentioned the lack of any visible career path in their particular organisation or area. These concerns were not confined to any one occupational group, but were expressed by a range of public servants, including administrative staff and clerical staff, frontline staff, policy analysts, and self-defined "specialists". There were also recurring comments on a lack of information about job vacancies both within departments and elsewhere in the Public Service, and a perception that even if there were opportunities 'out there' staff did not find out about them. Some also perceived that their organisation did not place enough emphasis or importance on career progression, preferring to source talent from outside the organisation rather than "growing" their own staff.

Figure 3.3
Inter-departmental ranges: opportunities for advancement



The qualitative responses seemed to suggest that public servants had assessed their opportunities for advancement in relation to their own organisation rather than to the Public Service as a whole. Very few mentioned opportunities outside their current organisations.

Satisfaction was generally low in this area throughout the Public Service (see Figure 3.3). While the inter-departmental range of results showed a broad spread, the inter-quartile range was relatively compact. Proportions of staff rating their jobs as providing "Good" opportunities for advancement ranged from 0% to 33%, while the "Poor" ratings ranged from 22% to 78%. However, half of departments fell into a relatively narrow range of results – between 8% and 15% rating "Good" and between 41% and 59% rating "Poor". This suggests that perceptions of poor opportunities for advancement are a problem common to many departments.

3.2.9 Standard hours

Being able to work standard hours was not a high priority for public servants. Even so, 55% rated their jobs as "Good" in this domain. Women were more likely to give a "Good" rating than men, a positive result given that being able to work standard hours was relatively more important to them.

Reflecting the extent to which managerial jobs typically involve some non-standard hours, managers (38%) were less likely than non-managers (59%) to rate their jobs as "Good" on this factor. Almost one in five (19%) managers rated their jobs as "Poor" in terms of being able to work standard hours, compared with 8% of non-managerial staff.

3.3 Conclusions

Public servants seemed generally motivated by the same things. They wanted challenging work that gave them a sense of accomplishment. They wanted to be managed well. Material rewards and job security were not unimportant to them, but were relatively less important than work interest.

Staff appeared relatively satisfied that their Public Service jobs offered them challenging work, but were only moderately satisfied with their sense of accomplishment. They were even less satisfied with the overall quality of management. However, qualitative comments indicated that perceptions of the quality of management might be improved through better communications with staff and by ensuring that all staff know where the organisation is going and where they fit in.

Widespread perceptions of poor opportunities for advancement are a cause for concern and may signal an area where a whole-of-government approach is required, especially since staff appeared to assess their advancement opportunities in relation to their current department rather than in terms of the wider Public Service.

CHAPTER FOUR

DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES

CHAPTER FOUR

DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES

Training and development can be split into two main types. Formal training is defined as training that occurs when time is set aside for staff development, while informal training is the acquisition of skills and competencies undertaken in the normal course of an employee's work. Informal training is associated with continuous learning. In terms of career development, the training and development literature[40] argues that on-the-job training and being able to accumulate and demonstrate skills in the context of performing a job influence an individual's advancement prospects more than formal training does.

The literature also suggests that different types of development opportunities are more or less important at different stages of an individual's career. Training to develop the right technical skills and qualifications is more important for advancement at the lower levels of organisational hierarchies, but to reach the top echelons of management, 'being seen' and belonging to the right networks is more important. Having the opportunity to 'act up' and to work on high-profile projects is likely to put individuals in a position where they are visible to senior management and able to establish relationships with them. Previous studies have also shown that employees in 'advantaged' positions – for example, managers more than other staff, men more than women, full-time workers more than part-time employees – tend to get superior access to training and development[41].

The Career Progression and Development Survey results corroborate some of the previous findings in this area, and contrast with others.

4.1 What development and training opportunities are important to public servants?

Public servants considered informal development opportunities as more important than formal training for their career development. When asked how important a range of factors was to their jobs and careers (see Figure 4.1), staff considered the following informal development opportunities as most important:

- being able to demonstrate their skills and abilities;
- on-the-job training; and
- gaining experience in a range of tasks.

Around three-quarters (between 72% and 77%) of public servants considered each of these factors "Highly important". However, access to training courses and seminars was also considered "Highly important" by two-thirds of public servants, and was consistently ranked as the fourth highest priority development factor. Other more time-specific development factors – study leave, working on high-profile projects, 'acting up', and secondments – were considered "Highly important" by less than 40% of public servants overall, although more important to some groups than others.

While the *rankings* in importance of the development opportunities were remarkably consistent across the various groups that make up the Public Service population, there were some notable differences in the *relative* importance attached to various factors.

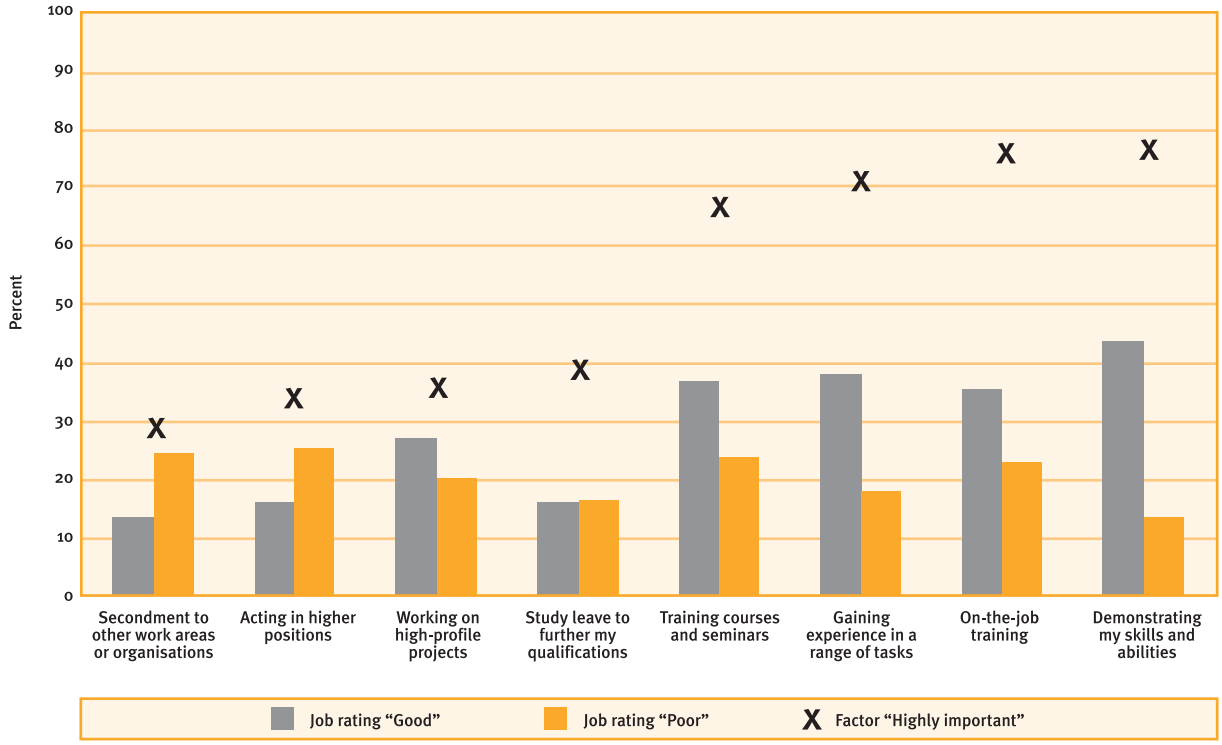
Women attached higher importance than men to all of the development factors surveyed except two – 'acting up' and working on high-profile projects. In particular, women seemed to place higher value than men on gaining experience in a range of tasks. More than three-quarters of women (77%), compared with just under two-thirds of men (65%), considered this "Highly important".

Māori staff also attached higher importance than non-Māori staff to five of the development opportunities surveyed, in particular to training courses and seminars, study leave, and secondments. Similarly, Pacific peoples attached higher importance to study leave and secondments than did non-Pacific public servants.

Given their younger age profile, there is likely to be some 'age effect' associated with the factors to which Māori and Pacific staff attached particular importance. People at the outset of their careers are more likely to want training that leads to formal qualifications – hence the importance

[40] See, for example, Burton, 1997, op. cit. and Rusaw, A. Carole, "Mobility for Federal women: is training enough?", in *Public Personnel Management*, 23(2), 1994, pp 257-262.
[41] Long, Michael, Ryan, Rose, Burke, Gerald and Hopkins, Sonnie. *Enterprise-based Education and Training: A Literature Review*, [Wellington] Ministry of Education, 2000.

Figure 4.1 Importance of career development opportunities and how the organisation rated



attached to study leave and formal training courses. Indeed, all of the training and development factors appeared more important to younger public servants than to their older colleagues. All factors were least important to staff aged over 45 years. This mirrors the extent to which older staff were also more likely to report that they had achieved all they wanted in their careers. This does not mean that older staff were not interested in training and development. Rather it means that younger staff attached relatively more importance to those factors.

Also mirroring the literature, managers' views on the factors likely to help their advancement differed from those of non-managers, and related more to opportunities to 'be seen' and roles offering them some 'stretch':

- 43% of managers regarded working on high-profile projects as "Highly important", compared with 35% of non-managers;
- 44% of managers considered opportunities to 'act up' as "Highly important", compared with 33% of non-managers;
- while 58% of managers considered on-the-job training "Highly important", 80% of non-managers did so;
- 58% of managers considered training courses and seminars "Highly important", compared with 68% of other staff; and
- 31% of managers considered study leave "Highly important", whereas 40% of non-managers did so.

There was no difference between women managers and male managers on any of these factors.

Public servants aspiring to a chief executive position appeared particularly keen on gaining development and training opportunities. They were more likely than other staff to value the time-specific development opportunities such as study leave (54% compared with 36%) and secondments (46% compared with 25%). They were almost twice as likely to consider opportunities to work on high-profile projects as "Highly important" (61% compared with 32%) and more than twice as likely to consider the chance to 'act up' (66% compared with 29%) as "Highly important".

4.2 Are development and training expectations being met?

Public servants were most satisfied with the development opportunities they considered most important for their career development. However, their overall satisfaction with their access to development and training was not high. 44% rated their organisations as "Good" at providing them with opportunities to demonstrate their skills and abilities, while 14% gave "Poor" ratings. 38% rated their organisations as "Good" at allowing them to gain experience in a range of tasks, but 18% rated their organisation as "Poor" on this front. 35% of public servants felt their organisations were "Good" at providing on-the-job training, but almost a quarter (23%) gave a "Poor" rating in this domain. Similarly, 37% rated their organisation as "Good" at providing access to training courses and seminars, but almost a quarter (24%) gave a "Poor" rating.

Public servants appeared even less satisfied with the other development factors surveyed – study leave, working on high-profile projects, acting in higher positions and secondments. Sizeable proportions of staff – between just under a quarter and just over half – responded that these factors were not applicable to them[42]. Of those who did offer a judgement, more staff rated their organisation as "Poor" than as "Good" on opportunities to 'act up' and secondments to other work areas or organisations. Equal proportions of staff rated their organisations as "Good" and as "Poor" on access to study leave. In terms of access to work on high-profile projects, just over a third of staff (35%) for whom it was applicable rated their organisation as "Good", while just over a quarter (27%) gave a "Poor" rating.

4.2.1 *Variations between departments*

Recent research has highlighted the difficulties in measuring the levels of training and development in the Public Service, and suggested that some *"government agencies often have no separate training function and limited if any central collection of training information"*[43]. The survey showed considerable diversity across Public Service departments in terms of staff satisfaction with their development and training opportunities, perhaps reflecting the different emphasis put on staff development, the relative resources available and attached to it, and the type of activity the organisation is engaged in (and the associated strategy for skill acquisition and development). For example, the proportions of staff rating their organisation as "Good" at allowing them to demonstrate their skills and abilities ranged between 31% and 72%, while the proportions rating "Poor" on that factor ranged between 0% and 29% (see Figure 4.2). On the provision of training courses and seminars, between 18% and 74% rated their organisations as "Good", while between 0% and 50% rated them as "Poor" (see Figure 4.3).

Figure 4.2
Inter-departmental ranges: opportunities to demonstrate skills and abilities

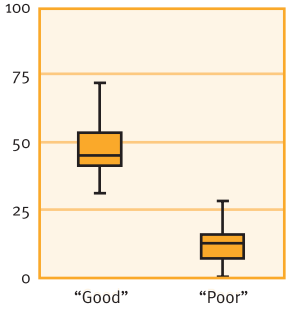
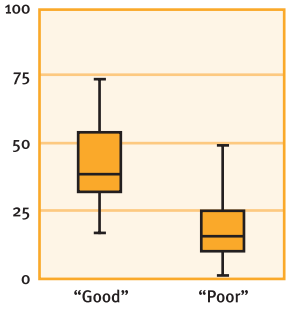


Figure 4.3
Inter-departmental ranges: provision of training courses and seminars



There has been some debate in the literature about the relationship between the size of firms and expenditure on staff development and training. Most of this literature suggests that larger firms offer more training than smaller organisations[44]. Some researchers have advanced the explanation that the internal labour markets of larger firms provide employees with greater possibilities for internal promotion and create expectations of longer tenure. The longer tenure contributes to the higher level of training within larger firms[45]. On the other hand, some recent research has concluded that there is little

[42] The questionnaire asked public servants to rate their organisation on access to these development opportunities thinking about "your own situation in your current organisation within the past 12 months".
[43] Rendall, Robyn. *A Framework for Measuring Training and Development in the State Sector*. Wellington, State Services Commission, Working Paper No. 12, 2001.
[44] See, for example, Baker, M. and Wooden, M. (eds) *Small and Medium-sized Enterprises and Vocational Education and Training*, Adelaide, NCVER, 1995; Wooden, M, "Introduction" in Baker, M. and Wooden, M., op. cit., pp 1-12; Frazis, H.J., Herz, D.E. and Horrigan, M.W., "Employer-provided training: results from a new survey", in *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1995, pp 3-17; Shields, M., "Changes in the determinants of employer-funded training for full-time employees in Britain, 1984-1994" in *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 60, 1998, pp 189-214.
[45] Idson, T. "Employer size and labor turnover", in *Research in Labor Economics*, 15, 1996, pp 273-304.

difference in the mean hours of total training (formal and informal) provided in small and large workplaces, and it is the middle-sized workplaces that provide more hours of total training[46]. While the Career Progression and Development Survey does not lend itself to this sort of direct analysis, an examination of staff satisfaction among departments suggests that there is little relationship between the size of the organisation and staff satisfaction with their development and training opportunities.

4.2.2 *Variations between population groups*

There were also differences between the various groups in the Public Service population in terms of their satisfaction with their access to development and training opportunities.

4.2.2.1 *Managers*

Consistent with previous studies that suggested that 'advantaged' workers tend to have superior access to training and development opportunities, managers were more satisfied than non-managers with their access to all of the development opportunities, with one exception (on-the-job training). Notably, 61% of managers, compared with 42% of non-managers, rated their departments as "Good" at providing them with opportunities to demonstrate their skills and abilities. Proportionately more managers than non-managers also rated their organisations as "Good" at allowing them to gain experience in a range of tasks (48% of managers compared with 37% of non-managers) and at giving them access to training courses and seminars (46% compared with 36%). Managers were also more likely than non-managers to rate their access to study leave, work on high-profile projects, opportunities to 'act up' and secondments as "Good". While it might be expected that managers would have greater access to work on high-profile projects (senior staff are more likely to be allocated high-profile projects where experience and judgement are required to manage potential risk) and opportunities to act in higher positions (which might suggest a management role anyway), it is less expected that managers would have superior access to study leave and secondments. Interestingly, non-managers were also more likely to report that these opportunities were "Not applicable" to them.

Table 4.1 Ratings of their organisation's provision of development and training opportunities: differences between managers and non-managers

Thinking about your own situation in your current organisation within the past 12 months, how would you rate your organisation on providing the following opportunities?	*Managers % "Good"*	*Non-managers %"Good"*
Demonstrating my skills and abilities	61	42
Gaining experience in a range of tasks	48	37
Working on high-profile projects*	52	32
Training courses and seminars	46	36
Acting in higher positions*	36	22
Study leave to further my qualifications*	44	31
Secondment to other work areas or organisations*	30	23

* Percentage of those responding that the provision was applicable to them.

[46] Frazis, H., Gittleman, M., Horrigan, M. and Joyce, M. "Results from the 1995 survey of employer-provided training", in *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1998, pp 3-13.

In a report for the US Glass Ceiling Commission, Wernick[47] suggested that women managers have limited access to the development experiences that build the credibility and visibility needed to advance to senior management positions. Whether or not this is true in the New Zealand Public Service context, women managers did not perceive it to be the case. Indeed, there were virtually no gender differences at the management level in staff ratings of their access to development opportunities. Instead, in the only difference that did emerge, women managers were more positive in their ratings than their male counterparts. Women managers were more likely than their male counterparts to report "Good" access to opportunities to 'act up' (46% of women managers compared with 31% of male managers for whom it was applicable). Given that proportionately more women managers cited lack of experience as a deterrent to applying for a higher-level job and that they appeared to value development factors likely to enhance their work experience, this would seem to be a good sign for the future.

4.2.2.2 Chief executive aspirants

Public servants aspiring to become a chief executive were more likely than other staff to give "Poor" ratings on being able to gain experience in a range of tasks, being able to demonstrate their skills and experience, opportunities to 'act-up' and access to study leave. They were less likely than other staff to give a "Not applicable" response when asked to rate their organisation on access to study leave, work on high-profile projects, 'acting up' and secondments. Taken together, and seen in the context of the development factors this group identified as "Highly important", these findings suggest that public servants aspiring to a chief executive position are clear about what they need to do to get ahead, have high expectations as to what access they should have, have probably tried to get access to development opportunities, and are unequivocal in their judgements as to the outcomes of attempts to secure such opportunities.

4.2.2.3 Women and men

In a review of the literature on barriers to women's career progression, Sue Loughlin concluded that previous "research indicates that women are offered fewer development experiences than men"[48]. In contrast to this, the Career Progression and Development Survey results show that where there were gender differences women appeared more satisfied than men with their development and training opportunities. Of staff who gave a rating, proportionately more women than men rated their organisation as "Good" at providing on-the-job training, gaining experience in a range of tasks, secondments and 'acting up'.

Women were also more likely to say that secondments, 'acting up', study leave and work on high-profile projects were "Not applicable" to them. Some of these perceptions of applicability might be related to occupational segregation, in that proportionately more women work in occupations where opportunities to work on high-profile projects, for example, would be less available to them. However, it might also signal a possibility that women perceive certain opportunities as less available to them, and hence are discouraged from even trying to access them. Further research would be required to shed further light on why women responded in the way they did.

4.2.2.4 Māori and Pacific staff

There were no differences in the way Māori public servants rated their access to development and training opportunities compared with their non-Māori colleagues. However, Māori were less likely to consider gaining experience in a range of tasks and study leave as "Not applicable" to them.

While there were few differences between Pacific and non-Pacific staff, a quarter of Pacific staff, compared with 17% of other staff, rated their opportunities to gain experience in a range of tasks as "Poor". Of those to whom it was applicable, Pacific staff were less likely to rate their access to study leave as "Good" (22% compared with 34% of non-Pacific staff). Like Māori, Pacific staff (38%) were less likely than non-Pacific staff (53%) to give a "Not applicable" response when asked to rate their department on access to study leave. This may give some indication of what access they felt they should have.

As noted above, Māori and Pacific staff attached high value to formal development, especially study leave. Yet they were less likely to see study leave, at least, as applicable to them. It is not possible to tell whether this

[47] Wernick, Ellen D. *Preparedness, Career Advancement and the Glass Ceiling.* Draft report to the Glass Ceiling Commission, US Department of Labor, 1994, cited in Loughlin, op. cit.
[48] Loughlin, op.cit., p 11.

"Not applicable" response reflects differential access or whether they had simply not tried to access such opportunities. However, in the context of earlier responses related to their perceived lack of qualifications as a deterrent to seeking a higher-level job, this might signal an area for further inquiry.

People with disabilities appeared less satisfied than people without disabilities with their access to opportunities to work on high-profile projects. Of those to whom it applied, 38% of people with disabilities compared with 26% of people without disabilities rated their organisations as "Poor" on this front.

4.3 Public servants explain their experiences

In qualitative responses, public servants said that their organisations did not have any overall strategy for career development and that this meant training and development opportunities were often ad hoc, not based on skills needs (of the organisation or the individual) and not allocated fairly. Perhaps the most dominant theme in qualitative comments related to this area was that even when development opportunities were offered, staff felt they did not have the time to take advantage of them, or that they did so at the cost of having to make up for lost time by completing their regular work after hours.

"No back-up systems exist when staff are on leave, or to be able to free them up to take advantage of secondments or development opportunities, so these are often lost."

In terms of the development of skills and experience on the job, the relative lack of support and 'coaching' also emerged as a theme in qualitative responses. These responses indicated that staff often felt that they were put in a 'sink or swim' situation, partly because senior staff or supervisors and managers were too involved with their own work to offer substantive support and advice. Some staff revelled in this, in that it allowed them to show how far they could 'stretch', but others felt unsupported and vulnerable. This is discussed further in Chapter 5.

"While there are many development courses offered, there really isn't time to take many of them up. My work simply doesn't get done while I'm away, which means I have to make up the time. I've now learned not to do the courses because I am too busy."

With more formal development assignments, such as secondments, qualitative responses suggested that these were often not part of a development strategy or plan but rather the result of individuals finding an opportunity for themselves and then seeking corporate support for it. While this bottom-up self-selection worked well for the individuals concerned, it sometimes seemed to have the effect of leaving other staff feeling that they did not have the same opportunities, which led to claims of favouritism. Other related themes were that sometimes the 'right' candidate was declined their request for a secondment because of the impacts on remaining staff and workloads. This left the sentiment that 'only people who could be spared' were allowed to take up development assignments. Some of these views are mirrored in research conducted by the SSC related to secondments[49]. This suggested that external secondments were typically arranged on an ad hoc or informal basis, were often initiated by staff themselves, and were not often part of a formal process related to the current needs of the department or staff. It found that much of the 'advertising' of such opportunities was informal and involved 'shoulder-tapping' and using personal contacts. While favouritism might not be the reality or intention, when the allocation of development assignments is not part of a transparent process, staff are likely to draw the conclusion that some people get special treatment.

"Some development opportunities don't come on a plate, organised by the Department. Individuals can organise their own opportunities and then ask for support to undertake these opportunities. I've done this within the last 12 months and, as in the past, the organisation has allowed me to take up the opportunity at some expense to the Department and my normal workload..."

In the Career Progression and Development Survey, similar views were expressed by staff in terms of access to 'acting up' opportunities. A common scenario was that

[49] State Services Commission. *Learning and Returning: The Use of Secondments and Rotations in the New Zealand Public Service*. Wellington, SSC, Occasional Paper No. 23, December 1999.

staff were perceived to be hand-picked for acting positions which other staff felt they had no opportunity to 'put their hat in the ring' for. The opaque process for selecting someone for an acting role was then seen to have an influence over the results of any ensuing process

"I am currently on a 2-week trial in another part of the Ministry. If this is successful it will develop into a 6-12 month secondment. This is potentially a huge boost for my career and is greatly appreciated."

to fill that role permanently. Similar concerns were expressed in terms of opportunities to work on high-profile projects, where 'tried and true' staff always seemed to get the nod to work on interesting projects involving career-enhancing contacts with senior managers, staff from other departments, or external consultants. Women in particular seemed to feel that they missed out on such opportunities. When the allocation of these opportunities is not well managed, not only do staff feel there is a lack of equity, but also the mutual benefits to staff (in advancing their professional development) and to the organisation (by broadening the base of skills and experience and enhancing capability) might be lost[50].

Despite these concerns about the processes surrounding the allocation of development assignments, there were also numerous comments in qualitative responses about how important such assignments had been for individual career development. They seemed to have offered a career 'jump' – for example, study leave allowing a qualification to be gained that then opened new career possibilities.

There were also numerous comments about other development opportunities that staff perceived as career-enhancing, such as working on inter-departmental or intra-departmental groups and contact with counterparts in other jurisdictions, including through international conferences. In short, staff highlighted the value of opportunities to learn by observing others (especially more senior staff) and opportunities to make valuable contacts with and to be visible to senior officials from their own and other departments.

4.4 Conclusions

Public servants saw unstructured learning and continuous development as more important to their jobs and careers than more formal development activities. But for managers and staff aspiring to become a chief executive, opportunities to work on high-profile projects and to act in higher positions – that is, the opportunity to 'be seen' by senior people who could make a difference to their careers – was more important than for other staff.

Public servants were most satisfied in the development and training areas they said were most important to them. However, their satisfaction even in these areas was generally not high. Staff comments suggested that a lack of time for development and training activities, a perceived lack of departmental emphasis on, or strategy for, staff development, and a lack of systematic approach to the allocation of development opportunities (including some concerns about fairness) all influenced their access to development and training opportunities. These findings mirror the conclusions of previous research highlighting the lack of a strategic approach to training and development in Public Service departments. This results in development opportunities being allocated on an ad hoc basis and seeming only tenuously linked to the development needs of staff and/or the capability needs of organisations.

Managers appeared generally more satisfied than non-managerial staff with their development opportunities. This corroborates the research literature, which typically shows that advantaged workers get superior access to training and development. In contrast to the literature, where there were gender differences in the Career Progression and Development Survey results, women rated their departments more positively than men. However, they were also more likely to perceive some development opportunities as "Not applicable" to them. There were few differences based on ethnicity, although Māori and Pacific staff seemed to place greater value than other staff on development opportunities associated with gaining formal qualifications, especially study leave. Differences in satisfaction between Public Service departments did not appear to be linked to the relative size of the organisation.

[50] See State Services Commission, 1999, op. cit., for a discussion of the benefits and risks of secondments and rotations.

CHAPTER FIVE

MANAGERS AND MENTORS

CHAPTER FIVE

MANAGERS AND MENTORS

Individuals need advice, encouragement and support as they seek to advance their careers, most importantly from those senior to and more experienced than themselves. Managers play a large part of this role, either explicitly or implicitly. As part of performance management, they suggest to their staff areas for improvement, they advise them on the skills and competencies they need, and they facilitate related development opportunities. Extra support, advice and encouragement can also be gained from mentors. While managers may mentor their staff, mentoring is qualitatively different from management. Mentoring relationships rest on the assumption that the mentor and the protégé both want to see the protégé get ahead. It is typically decoupled from the process of performance management and assessment, where managers need to apply principles of equity and fairness in dealing with all their staff. Nonetheless, both managers and mentors can act as 'champions' for staff with advancement potential. The Career Progression and Development Survey results shed light on the type and quality of career development support public servants receive from both managers and mentors.

5.1 Support from managers

Managers influence the day-to-day experiences of their staff and the quality and pace of their career development. They mediate the expectations and demands placed upon staff, the extent to which staff are afforded flexibility in when and how they work, the type of work they have access to, their development and training opportunities, and how their performance is monitored, managed and measured. Consequently, managers also influence the job satisfaction of their staff and staff loyalty to their work group.

The Career Progression and Development Survey invited public servants to rate their immediate managers or supervisors against a range of factors (see Table 5.1). The results paint a largely positive picture of Public Service managers: 65% of public servants rated the overall support they received from their immediate manager or

Table 5.1 Staff ratings of immediate manager or supervisor

In your current organisation within the past 12 months, how would you rate your immediate manager or supervisor against the following factors?	*All staff % "Good"**	*All staff % "Poor"***
Allows me freedom to use my initiative in performing my job	77	8
Encourages my input into decisions which directly affect me	67	13
Communicates effectively	62	15
Provides me with the information I need to do my job	61	13
Takes a flexible approach to resolving work and family conflicts	59	11
Acknowledges when I have performed well	58	18
Encourages and supports my career development	54	18
Provides regular and constructive feedback about my performance	50	24

* The "Good" category includes both the "Good" and "Very good" response options.
** The "Poor" category includes both the "Poor" and "Very poor" response options.

supervisor as "Good". This was consistent across the population groups in the Public Service.

When asked to rate their managers against a range of specific management functions, at least half of staff rated their managers as "Good" on all factors. Within this relatively positive overall picture of managers, the results give an indication of what Public Service managers were perceived by their staff to be good at in terms of 'people management', and where they were perceived to be less accomplished.

5.1.1 *Freedom to use initiative*

Public servants rated their managers highest on the extent to which they allowed their staff freedom to use their initiative in carrying out their work. More than three-quarters of staff rated their managers as "Good" in this area. This high rating was remarkably consistent across the various population groups that make up the Public Service. The only differences were that managers (87% rating their managers as "Good") seemed more satisfied than non-managers (77%) on this front, perhaps reflecting the extent to which they are likely to have greater autonomy and control over their work. In contrast, staff with disabilities were more likely than other staff to rate their managers as "Poor" in this domain (12% compared with 7%).

Satisfaction in this area was also consistently high across Public Service departments. The proportion of staff rating their managers as "Good" at allowing them to use initiative in their work ranged between departments from 69% to 94%.

The vast majority of related qualitative responses suggested that most public servants revelled in being given relatively free reign to carry out their work. This was seen to offer them 'stretch' and to allow them to show their potential. However, some felt that being "left to get on with it" left them exposed and vulnerable. This appeared to be an area of management where "one size does not fit all".

5.1.2 *Information and input*

Public servants also rated their managers highly on the extent to which they encouraged staff input to the decisions that directly affected them, on being effective communicators and on the provision of information to enable staff to do their job. Again, there was striking consistency in these areas between the groups that make up the Public Service. The only notable difference was that managers (7%) were less likely than non-managers (13%) to rate their own managers as "Poor" on encouraging input into decisions, again probably reflecting managers' greater control over their work.

"My manager is one in a million and extremely supportive in both career planning, learning and development, as well as being supportive of me being a working mother."

While managers across Public Service departments were rated fairly highly on these factors, there was some diversity. For example, the proportions of staff rating their managers as "Good" at communicating effectively ranged from 49% to 84%.

5.1.3 *Flexibility in resolving work and family conflicts*

Public servants largely concurred on the extent to which their managers took a flexible and supportive approach to resolving work and family conflicts. 59% rated their managers as "Good" on this front. Caregivers (65%) were more likely than non-caregivers (56%) to give "Good" ratings, perhaps reflecting the extent to which people with responsibilities for dependants are seen by managers to have more 'legitimate' conflicts to resolve.

As noted in Chapter 7, qualitative responses suggest that the extent to which staff were able to balance their work responsibilities with their outside commitments depended on the relative 'goodwill' of their particular manager.

5.1.4 *Performance management and career development*

At least half of staff rated their managers as "Good" at acknowledging good performance, giving regular and constructive feedback on performance, and encouraging and supporting their career development. However, these aspects of their management role were those where managers were rated least well. Of particular note was the fact that there were no differences in ratings, regardless of managerial status, gender or ethnicity. In addition to the fact that managers scored their lowest "Good" ratings in these areas, they also scored their highest "Poor" ratings. Almost one in five (18%) public servants rated their immediate manager as "Poor" at acknowledging good performance and at encouraging and supporting their career development. Almost a quarter (24%) rated their manager as "Poor" at providing regular and constructive feedback about their performance.

Staff ratings varied between departments. Between 39% and 79% of staff rated their immediate managers as "Good" at encouraging and supporting their career development, while between 0% and 40% rated them as "Poor" (see Figure 5.2). However, half of departments fell into a narrow range of between 50% and 60% of staff rating their managers as "Good" on this factor and between 13% and 21% rating them as "Poor". Between 35% and 74% of staff rated their immediate managers as "Good" at providing regular and constructive feedback on performance, while between 5% and 37% rated them as "Poor" (see Figure 5.3). However, again, half of departments fell into a narrow range of between 44% and 53% rating their manager as "Good" on this factor and between 19% and 28% rating their manager as "Poor".

Figure 5.2
Inter-departmental ranges: managers' encouragement of career development

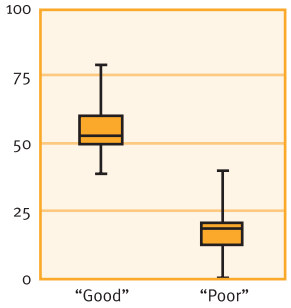
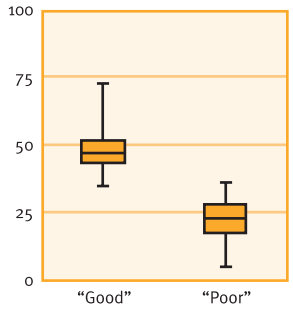


Figure 5.3
Inter-departmental ranges: managers' provision of regular performance feedback



Notably, staff with a mentor rated their managers consistently higher than non-mentored staff on these career development and performance management factors. This might indicate that mentoring assists in the development of relationships with managers, particularly in giving staff the skills to seek support for their career development. Mentoring is discussed further below.

Staff with disabilities were less satisfied than staff without disabilities on these factors: 44% rated their managers as "Good" at encouraging and supporting their career development, compared with 55% of staff without disabilities. They were also more likely to rate their managers as "Poor" at allowing them the flexibility to resolve their work and family conflicts. It would seem that further investigation is warranted as to whether these results are a reflection of managers' discomfort with disabilities, or their lack of knowledge and training on how best to support people with disabilities in their day-to-day work and in their ongoing career development.

While there was also diversity between Public Service departments, there was a consistent trend in terms of managers scoring less well on these performance management and career development factors than on the other management roles surveyed.

"Coaching and developing staff requires time, a luxury which few managers in my experience have. They are too busy trying to keep the work moving and to get the required products delivered."

In qualitative responses, some 'explanations' were offered by staff for this apparent lower emphasis on staff development: that it was not an explicit requirement for managers and not part of their performance assessment, that managers often did not have the requisite skills to actively manage or 'coach' staff, or that managers were already fully occupied with their own substantive work and did not have time for 'people management'.

In some cases performance management systems came in for criticism, including the extent to which performance management was not a continuous process of assessment and feedback, or was not designed to assist staff in their skills and career development.

"My team leader has helped my development and career enormously...No other team leader has ever encouraged, supported and believed in me to this extent before."

It should also be noted that there were numerous comments in qualitative responses in praise of individual managers and the support and encouragement they had provided to staff members.

5.1.5 Immediate managers compared with 'corporate' management

The relatively positive overall picture painted of immediate supervisors or managers also contrasted with the less positive rating by staff on quality of management overall in their department (discussed in Chapter 3). This suggests that staff may be critical of management overall

– the corporate 'hierarchy' – but are relatively satisfied with support from their own immediate manager. It is perhaps easier to criticise those at a 'distance' than those an employee works with on a day-to-day basis. Staff appeared willing to temper their assessments of their individual managers and supervisors with an understanding of the constraints and context in which those managers worked. They were less sympathetic to management overall who, as noted earlier, were held responsible for any general overall concerns about the functioning of the department.

5.2 Mentoring

The literature on mentoring is consistent in demonstrating that individuals who are mentored are more frequently promoted, have more career mobility, and advance faster[51]. It also suggests that mentoring is mutually beneficial for both mentored staff and their mentors, for example by enhancing the latter's managerial and interpersonal skills. The benefits of mentoring – specifically, mentoring arrangements within organisations – also accrue to organisations by helping to transfer knowledge, inculcate values and train and develop staff[52].

The literature also shows that certain groups are less likely to be mentored than others. Mentoring has been shown to be most successful where *"both parties see parts of themselves in the other person: the protégé sees someone whom he* [sic] *wants to be like in the future. The mentor sees someone who reminds him* [sic] *of himself* [sic] *years ago"*[53]. Because there are so few women and ethnic minorities in senior positions, members of those groups have more difficulty finding a mentor. For women, it has been shown that same-sex mentors work best, both because there tends to be greater empathy related to issues of juggling work and family responsibilities and because having a male mentor can sometimes be problematic[54]. The same applies to people from ethnic minorities who need a mentor who understands the particular issues they face in their career progression.

The Career Progression and Development Survey asked public servants to indicate whether they had a mentor, whether they had made contact with that mentor through a formal mentoring scheme and, if not, whether they would like access to a formal scheme. The results show some interesting contrasts with the literature on mentoring.

5.2.1 *What is mentoring?*

The survey questionnaire did not define mentoring. However, it is typically defined as a *"nurturing process in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels, and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or personal development. Mentoring functions are carried out within the context of an ongoing, caring relationship between the mentor and protégé"*[55]. It is symbolised by an ongoing relationship where the mentor plays the role of coach, counsellor and sometimes champion. It can be formal, as part of a formalised mentoring scheme, or informal, organised and structured by the two individuals involved. Mentors can be part of, or external to, the organisations where the people they mentor work.

5.2.2 *Who has a mentor?*

Almost one in five (18%) New Zealand public servants reported that they had a mentor (mostly of an informal nature – see below). Contrary to the literature suggesting that women have more difficulty establishing mentoring relationships, New Zealand women public servants (20%) were more likely than their male counterparts (16%) to have a mentor. This gender difference was even greater at the management level: 28% of women managers, compared with 16% of their male counterparts, reported having a mentor. Research has suggested that mentoring is especially important for women managers in their attempts to move up the hierarchy. For example, research on women CEOs in the USA found that almost all of them (91%) had been mentored at some time and almost as many (81%) said that their mentors were critical or fairly important to their careers[56]. The greater propensity

[51] For a discussion of some of this literature see Loughlin, op. cit., p 13.
[52] Some of these benefits have been questioned as "supposition" pending convincing research. For a discussion see Hale, Mary M., "Mentoring women in organisations: practice in search of theory", in *American Review of Public Administration*, 25(4), December 1995, pp 327-339.
[53] Thomas, David A. "The truth about mentoring minorities: race matters", in *Harvard Business Review*, April 2001, p 104.
[54] For a discussion of these issues see Hale, Mary M., op. cit.
[55] Anderson, E. *Definitions of Mentoring*, unpublished manuscript, 1987, cited in Alred, G. and Garvey, B., "Learning to produce knowledge – the contribution of mentoring", in *Organisations and People*, 8(2), May 2001, p 19.
[56] Raggins, Bell Rose, Townsend, Bickley and Mattis, Mary. "Gender gap in the executive suite: CEOs and female executives report on breaking the glass ceiling", in *Academy of Management Executive*, 12(1), 1998, pp 28-42, cited in Loughlin, op. cit., p 11.

for women to have a mentor might reflect their greater need for one and/or deliberate attempts by women to seek extra support for their career advancement, particularly at the management level.

"What has helped me is having access to mentors both within and outside the organisation."

While it might be expected that managers in general would be more likely to engage a mentor to help them advance to a more senior position, the survey showed that managers overall were no more likely than non-managers to have a mentor. The literature suggests that mentoring is useful at different career stages. Early on in a person's career, a mentor might act as a coach and help to set a career trajectory, while at more senior stages a mentor would act more as an advisor and sponsor to help the individual establish their credentials at senior level and to advance up the management ladder. The Career Progression and Development Survey results suggest that the probability of being mentored in the Public Service actually *decreased* with age. Proportionately more public servants aged under 30 years had a mentor (22%) than staff aged between 30 and 45 years (18%). Staff aged over 45 years were the least likely to have a mentor (12%). Mentoring in the New Zealand Public Service, therefore, seems to be used more as assistance to younger people establishing their career goals and paths.

Who has a mentor?

- 18% of public servants reported that they had a mentor.
- Women (21%) were more likely than men (16%) to have a mentor.
- 28% of women managers, compared with 16% of male managers, had a mentor.
- One-quarter of Māori staff had mentors, compared with 16% of non-Māori staff.

Also contrary to the literature citing the difficulties different ethnic groups have in establishing mentoring relationships, Māori staff were more likely than non-Māori staff to have a mentor. A quarter of Māori staff had mentors, compared with 16% of non-Māori staff. This might be partly related to the younger age profile of this group, but it might also reflect a concerted attempt to support and encourage Māori public servants' career progression.

5.2.3 *Formal or informal mentors*

Only 14% of mentored staff (3% of public servants overall) had made contact with their mentor through a formal mentoring programme. This was true regardless of gender, managerial status, or ethnicity. Of note was that although chief executive aspirants were more likely to have a mentor than other staff (26% compared with 17% of other staff), they were less than half as likely as non-aspirants to have made contact with their mentor through a formal mentoring programme (7% compared with 16%).

These findings suggest that there are few operational formal mentoring programmes in the Public Service and/or they are not well subscribed to. Most mentoring relationships appear to be the result of individuals actively searching out informal mentoring relationships for themselves. Staff with high ambitions – chief executive aspirants – appear to be even more proactive than most.

The survey questionnaire did not ask public servants to identify the sex or ethnicity of their mentor, so no light can be shed on who was mentoring them.

5.2.4 *Is mentoring making a difference?*

There was a range of differences between mentored and non-mentored staff in terms of their work expectations and experiences. For example, mentored staff attached higher importance than other staff to opportunities for advancement, having challenging work and the reputation of the organisations they worked in (perhaps seeing the potential spin-offs for their personal reputation). They were more satisfied with their feelings of accomplishment, their opportunities for advancement and with the extent to which their work was challenging.

Mentored staff also attached more value than non-mentored public servants to all of the development and training opportunities surveyed[57], and were more satisfied with their access to all of them. Just over half of mentored staff considered access to work on high-profile projects to be "Highly important", compared with a third of non-mentored staff. Of those who gave a rating on their access

[57] Respondents were asked how important the following opportunities were to their jobs and careers in general and were then asked to rate their organisation in providing them with access to those opportunities in the 12 months prior to the survey: demonstrating my skills and abilities, on-the-job training, gaining experience in a range of tasks, training courses and seminars, study leave to further my qualifications, working on high-profile projects, acting in higher positions, secondment to other work areas or organisations.

to high-profile projects, 45% of mentored staff said "Good" compared with one-third of non-mentored staff. They also appeared more satisfied with the performance of their immediate managers or supervisors. As noted earlier, this suggests that mentored staff are able to get the best out of their managers in terms of support and encouragement in their work and career development. It is impossible to tell whether the differences between mentored and non-mentored staff are coincidental or are consequential – a result of mentoring experiences which have armed them with the skills to seek out development opportunities and to derive the most benefit from their relationships with their managers. The impacts of mentoring on relationships and career advancement are worthy of further inquiry.

"Having a mentor from within my area (although she is not my manager), whose work and professionalism I respect and whose feedback I value, has helped me in my career progression."

While mentoring was not a major theme in qualitative responses, the assistance of mentors in staff career development was mentioned.

5.2.5 *Demand for access to formal mentoring*

Staff who either did not have a mentor, or who had an informal one (that is, 97% of public servants overall), were asked if they would like access to a formal mentoring scheme. Of those staff who did not have a mentor, 42% said they would like access to a formal mentoring scheme, while 28% said they would not. 37% of staff who had an informal mentor (that is, were not part of a formal mentoring scheme) indicated they would like access to a formal mentoring scheme, while 34% of them said they would not.

Formal mentoring appeared to be perceived as important for progression to the higher ranks of the Public Service. Chief executive aspirants (55%) were more likely than other staff (34%) to want a formal mentor. Proportionately more managers (43%) than non-managers (37%) reported a desire for access to a formal mentoring scheme. Male and female managers concurred on this.

Overall, men (32%) were more likely than women (26%) to say they did *not* want access to formal mentoring. Māori and Pacific staff and staff with disabilities did not differ from other public servants in their desire for formal mentoring. Staff aged over 45 years (29%) were less likely to want formal mentoring than other staff (40%). As noted above, the probability of having a mentor decreased with age. This might indicate that older staff already had support structures in place, had their careers mapped out, or had less need for support to move ahead (staff over 45 years of age were also less likely to aspire to a chief executive position).

Negative responses to the desire for formal mentoring should not be perceived as a rejection of mentoring per se. In qualitative responses, some staff suggested that informality was the key to successful mentoring relationships, and that any 'forced' or contrived relationship simply would not work. A smaller number of comments indicated staff desire for mentors from outside their organisation, perhaps suggesting a desire to decouple mentoring from management and to allow greater freedom in the relationship.

5.3 Conclusions

When assessing their immediate managers, public servants painted a largely positive picture, revealing perceptions of good overall support, and of managers allowing their staff to use initiative in carrying out their work, communicating effectively with their staff, and allowing staff input into the decisions that directly affected them. These assessments were consistent for all the population groups that make up the Public Service.

Across the board, managers were rated less well in relation to aspects of management associated with staff career advancement, especially in providing performance feedback and actively encouraging and supporting career development. These findings are especially pertinent to any inquiry into career progression, and signal areas where greater emphasis by managers is warranted. Improved competencies in staff development, better systems for ensuring regular and constructive performance feedback, and having more time available for coaching are all part of this equation.

In terms of mentoring, the Career Progression and Development Survey contrasted with previous research. Contrary to the literature suggesting women and members of ethnic minorities have more difficulty in establishing mentoring relationships, this survey showed that in the New Zealand Public Service women (particularly women managers) were more likely than men to be mentored, and that Māori were more likely than non-Māori to be mentored.

Most mentoring relationships appear to have been established on an informal basis. The survey results suggest that there is some unmet demand for access to formal mentoring schemes. Further work would be required to determine how best to meet this demand and under what conditions formal and informal mentoring arrangements could be most successful both for individuals and for the organisations they work in.

CHAPTER SIX

WORK ENVIRONMENT: EXPECTATIONS AND EXPERIENCES

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WORK ENVIRONMENT: EXPECTATIONS AND EXPERIENCES

Job satisfaction is heavily influenced by a range of factors – such as adequate pay, good working conditions, fair treatment – that contribute to an employee's sense of fulfilment in an organisation, and as a package can lead to an organisation being labelled a "good place to work". This in turn is a powerful attractor for potential talent. The Public Service has traditionally been seen as an environment where fairness, equity and co-operation are emphasised, while 'outside', in the private sector, a more competitive and individualistic environment is seen to prevail[58].

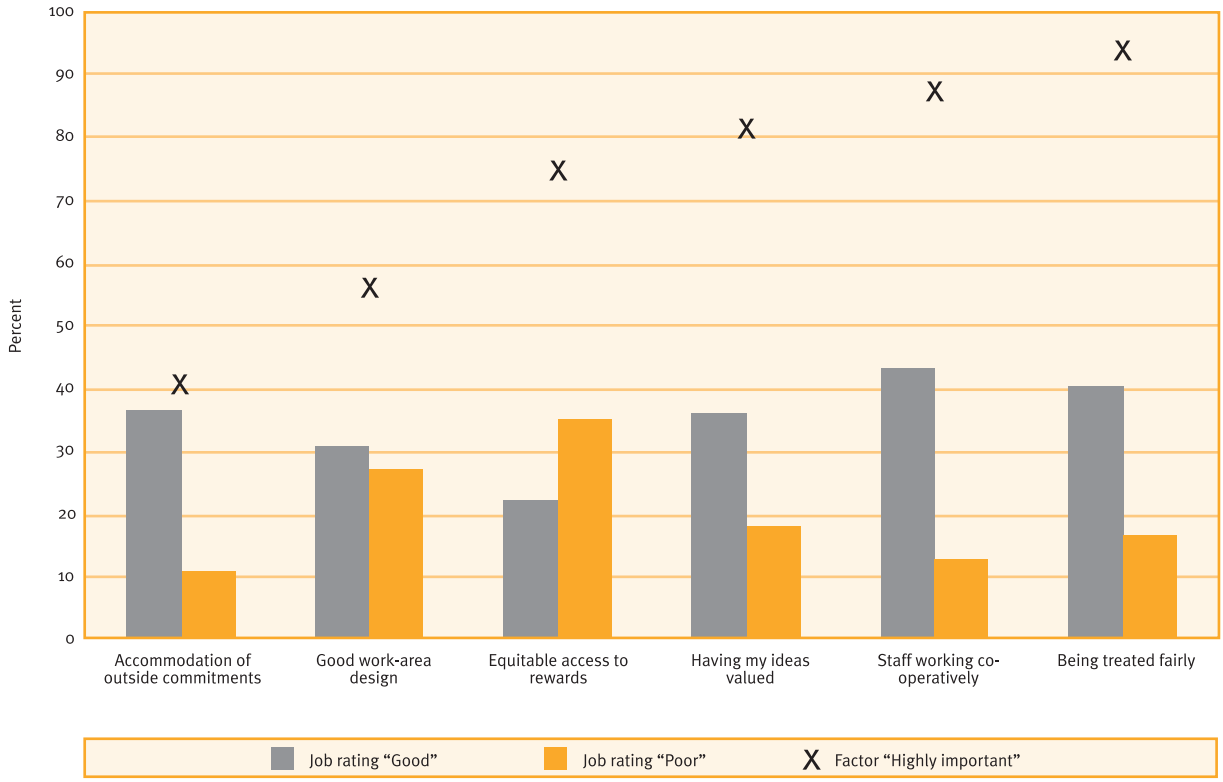
While no direct comparisons with the private sector can be made, the survey results give an indication of the sort of work environment public servants sought and what they perceived they were getting. The survey invited public servants to indicate how important a range of work environment factors were to them, and to rate their department on the provision of those conditions.

6.1 Which work environment factors are most important to public servants?

Being treated fairly was crucial to public servants: 94% of them considered this "Highly important" to their jobs and careers (see Figure 6.1). Working in an environment where staff worked co-operatively (88%), where their ideas were valued (81%) and where they had equitable access to rewards (75%) were also considered "Highly important" by three-quarters or more of public servants. These rankings were consistent across the Public Service, regardless of gender, ethnicity or managerial status.

Good work-area design (56%) and accommodation of outside commitments (41%) were less important overall, but were relatively more or less important to the different groups that make up the Public Service. For example, good work-area design was more important to Māori and Pacific staff, perhaps reflecting the occupational profile of those groups and the extent to which they are more likely

Figure 6.1. Importance of work environment factors, and how the organisation rated



[58] UMR Research, op. cit.

to be in clerical or frontline jobs. Having their outside interests accommodated at work was more important to women, to caregivers and to Māori public servants than to their comparator groups.

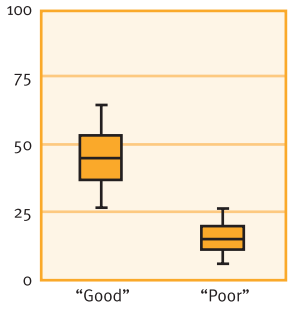
6.2 Are their expectations being met?

Public servants did not appear to be particularly satisfied with their work environment. They were most satisfied in the areas they considered most important – being treated fairly and staff working co-operatively – but even on these, their satisfaction was only moderate (see Figure 6.1).

6.2.1 Being treated fairly

Despite attaching high importance to being treated fairly, public servants did not rate their departments highly on this front. 40% rated their departments as "Good" on this factor, while 17% rated theirs as "Poor".

Figure 6.2
Inter-departmental ranges: being treated fairly



There was considerable diversity across the Public Service. The proportion of staff rating their department as "Good" ranged from 26% to 65%, while the proportion giving a "Poor" response ranged from 6% to 27% (see Figure 6.2).

"One of the frustrating things in this organisation is the 'old boys' network'. It's very much 'if your face fits' then you get the opportunities for development etc."

Qualitative responses included several themes related to fairness. These included concerns about fairness in selection processes – mirrored in the extent to which public servants cited a lack of fairness in selection processes as a deterrent to their seeking a higher-level job – fairness in the allocation of development opportunities and in access to leave, and fairness related to gender and ethnicity. Issues of fairness were also raised in relation to several of the work environment factors – particularly about perceived inequities in the distribution of rewards – and again in responses to questions about perceived discrimination on the basis of personal characteristics (see Chapter 8).

Many of these fairness issues seemed to be associated with areas where managerial discretion was a factor. This suggests there might be some systemic issues around lack of clarity about departmental policies, the unequal application of those policies by managers, and poor communication of decisions to staff. This lack of transparency and understanding may have left staff to draw their own conclusions about the basis for decisions. Perceptions of unfairness appeared to be the result.

6.2.2 Staff working co-operatively

43% of public servants rated their departments as "Good" in terms of staff working co-operatively. 13% overall gave a "Poor" rating.

These results varied among departments, with 13% to almost three-quarters of staff (74%) giving a "Good" rating. The "Poor" rating ranged among departments from 0% to 44%.

This finding contrasts somewhat with the consistently high levels of support public servants reported receiving from their co-workers. 81% of public servants (ranging among departments from 70% to 100%) reported that the support they got from their co-workers was "Good". Only 4% (ranging from 1% to 7%) rated the support from their co-workers as "Poor". These results held regardless of managerial status, gender or ethnicity. Comparing these ratings with public servants' perceptions of whether staff were working co-operatively overall in their organisation suggests there may be a systemic issue related to the infrastructure – systems, expectations and incentives – for encouraging a co-operative working environment. It is also likely that there is some 'familiarity effect' in operation, which causes staff to consider that the colleagues they deal with on a day-to-day basis are supportive and co-operative but that staff in other parts of the organisation are not. This phenomenon is similar to that where staff rated their immediate managers highly but viewed overall management in a less positive light.

6.2.3 Having their ideas valued

36% of public servants gave a "Good" rating in terms of having their ideas valued. Almost one in five staff (18%) overall gave a "Poor" rating on this factor.

Ratings ranged among departments, with from 19% to 68% giving a "Good" rating, and from 4% to 26% giving a "Poor" rating.

While proportionally more men than women gave "Poor" ratings in this area (20% of men compared with 16% of women), qualitative responses featured numerous comments from women who perceived that they and their ideas were undervalued – in particular, that they were not listened to in meetings and that queries were addressed to male colleagues rather than to them.

"I often feel in meetings that I and the other women are less listened to because of our gender."

6.2.4 *Equitable access to rewards*

Public servants appeared especially dissatisfied with the extent to which they perceived they had equitable access to rewards. More staff gave "Poor" (35%) than "Good"(22%) ratings on this front.

"Good" ratings varied among departments from 10% to 56% of staff, while "Poor" ratings ranged from 7% to 61%.

"The anecdotal evidence in my workplace is that women and men are paid quite different rates in the same position. This begins with quite different salaries for new appointees in equivalent positions and is perpetuated as people gain experience. Obviously it is men who earn more and women less."

While there was no gender difference in quantitative results, qualitative responses again included concerns from women about gender-based pay inequities. Other concerns were related to perceived inequities in the allocation of performance payments or bonuses. It is important to note in this context that staff appeared to compare themselves, and their access to rewards, to colleagues in the same organisation and not to staff in other organisations, either within the Public Service or in other sectors. That staff generally felt they did not have equitable access to rewards might be an indication that there is a need for more transparency in remuneration systems. When staff do not understand the grounds on which rewards are allocated they are liable to suspect that they have not been treated equitably.

6.2.5 *Work-area design*

31% of public servants rated their departments as "Good" at providing good work-area design. However, almost as many (27%) gave a "Poor" rating.

There was considerable diversity among organisations, with the "Good" rating ranging between 12% and 54% and the "Poor" rating ranging between 6% and 48%.

"There has been a deliberate move not to upgrade work environments (which are the worst I have worked in) giving the perception that the Public Service does not deserve comfortable environments..."

Issues about work environment were a minor theme in qualitative responses, but were more prevalent in some departments than others. However, there seemed to be a perception that overall frugality in the Public Service had impacted negatively on physical working conditions, resulting in a perception that public servants had to "make do".

6.2.6 *Accommodation of outside commitments*

36% of public servants rated their organisations as "Good" at accommodating their outside commitments. 11% rated their departments as "Poor" on this front.

Satisfaction varied across the Public Service. The proportion of staff rating their department as "Good" ranged from 23% to 63%, and as "Poor" from 0% to 22%.

Qualitative responses suggested that the extent to which an employee could balance their work and outside commitments – family responsibilities or other activities – depended on the goodwill of their particular manager. Therefore, variations in satisfaction appeared to exist both between departments and within departments. The extent to which public servants felt able to balance their work and other commitments is discussed further in Chapter 7.

6.3 Satisfied? Depends on who you are

Satisfaction on all of the work environment factors also varied between different groups in the Public Service. These included differences between women and men, between managers and non-managers, between Māori and non-Māori and in particular between Pacific and non-Pacific staff. Pacific staff appeared less satisfied with their work environment than their non-Pacific colleagues

on all but one work environment factor, which was staff working co-operatively.

6.3.1 *Managers*

In terms of the importance attached to aspects of their work environment, work-area design was less important to managers than to non-managers, as was the ability to accommodate their outside commitments at work.

Managers were generally happier than non-managers with their work environment. Their responses mirrored those of non-managers on the extent to which they felt staff were working co-operatively. On all of the other work environment factors they were more likely than non-managers to rate their organisation as "Good" and less likely to rate it as "Poor". In particular:

- half of managers, but only just over a third (34%) of non-managers, rated their organisation as "Good" in relation to having their ideas valued;
- on equitable access to rewards, just over one in three managers, compared with one in five non-managers, gave "Good" ratings; one in five managers gave "Poor" ratings, compared to 37% of non-managers.

There was remarkable concurrence between male and female managers in how they rated their organisations on the work environment factors.

Overall, the differences between managers and non-managers are likely to reflect the extent to which managers have greater control over their work environment, or at least are able to see the trade-offs in the allocation of, for example, rewards and workspace. Their relative satisfaction with their work-area design probably reflects the extent to which managers are likely to have better accommodation than other staff. That managers are more likely to have access to the 'big picture' – the reasons behind 'who gets what'– is likely to have influenced their satisfaction as to whether they felt they were treated fairly. Despite their being relatively more satisfied than non-managers, it would be hard to describe managers as satisfied per se, when one in five of them rated their physical workspace and the extent to which they had equitable access to rewards as "Poor".

6.3.2 *Women and men*

Women and men differed in the importance attached to various aspects of their work environment. Women attached greater value than men to:

- being treated fairly;
- equitable access to rewards;
- staff working co-operatively;
- good work-area design; and
- accommodation of outside commitments.

There were virtually no differences between women and men in their ratings of their organisation on work environment factors. On the two factors where there were differences:

- women were slightly less likely to rate their organisation as "Poor" at having their ideas valued; and
- women were slightly more likely to rate their organisation as "Good" at allowing them to accommodate their outside commitments at work.

As noted above, qualitative responses contrasted with some of these quantitative results. For example, there were numerous comments from women in a range of departments saying that their views were not as valued as those of their male colleagues.

6.3.3 *Māori*

Māori attached the same importance as non-Māori public servants to all factors bar two:

- good work-area design, which 64% of Māori compared with 55% of non-Māori considered "Highly important"; and
- accommodation of outside commitments, which 52% of Māori compared with 39% of non-Māori considered "Highly important".

There were no differences between Māori and non-Māori staff in how they rated their organisations on the work environment factors.

6.3.4 *Pacific peoples*

Pacific staff largely concurred with non-Pacific staff in terms of the importance attached to the various work environment factors, but they were more likely than non-Pacific staff to consider good work-area design as "Highly

important" (71% compared with 56%). However, Pacific staff appeared less satisfied than non-Pacific public servants on all but one factor, staff working co-operatively, on which they concurred with their non-Pacific colleagues:

- 32% of Pacific staff, compared with 42% of non-Pacific staff, rated their organisations as "Good" on being treated fairly;
- 22% of Pacific staff, compared with 37% of non-Pacific staff, gave a "Good" rating on having their ideas valued;
- 10% of Pacific staff, compared with 23% of non-Pacific staff, rated their department as "Good" at allowing equitable access to rewards; and
- 24% of Pacific staff, compared with 37% of their non-Pacific colleagues, gave a "Good" rating on accommodation of outside commitments.

6.3.5 People with disabilities

People reporting that they had a disability appeared to concur with other staff in terms of how they valued aspects of their work environment. However, they were less satisfied than people without disabilities on whether staff worked co-operatively. There were no differences between staff with disabilities and their colleagues in how they rated their physical workspace ("work-area design").

6.3.6 Caregivers

Not surprisingly, public servants reporting that they had caregiving responsibilities were more likely than other staff to consider accommodation of outside commitments to be "Highly important". Half of caregivers (55% of female caregivers and 44% of male caregivers) considered this "Highly important", compared with just over a third (35%) of non-caregivers. This was the only difference between caregivers and their colleagues in terms of the relative importance attached to work environment factors. Caregivers also appeared more satisfied on this factor, with 41% giving their department a "Good" rating, compared with 34% of non-caregivers. This might suggest that commitments related to the care of dependants are considered more 'valid' and are accommodated in the workplace more than other activities. There was no difference between male and female caregivers in the ratings they gave their organisations on this factor.

6.4 Conclusions

Public servants wanted to be treated fairly and wanted to work in an environment where staff worked co-operatively, where their ideas were valued and where they had equitable access to rewards. While they rated their organisations most highly in the areas they considered most important, overall their satisfaction with their work environments did not appear to be high. On equitable access to rewards, more staff rated their departments as "Poor" than as "Good".

Managers appeared more satisfied than non-managers on most factors, and there were no gender differences among managers. Among women and men overall, there were two differences in ratings, with men appearing less satisfied that they could accommodate their outside commitments at work and that their ideas were valued. However, qualitative responses from women included numerous references to feeling that their ideas were less valued than those of their male counterparts. Māori public servants appeared to experience their work environment in much the same way as other staff. In contrast, Pacific public servants appeared less satisfied than their non-Pacific colleagues on all but one factor. Staff with disabilities were less satisfied with the extent to which staff were working co-operatively.

Some staff concerns – especially related to fairness and equity – related to areas where managerial discretion was a factor. Ensuring that human resources policies and provisions are transparent, that managers apply them evenly and communicate the resulting decisions effectively to staff might help to improve overall staff satisfaction with how they experience their work environment in the Public Service.

CHAPTER SEVEN

WORKING TO LIVE OR LIVING TO WORK: BALANCING WORK AND PERSONAL LIVES

CHAPTER SEVEN

WORKING TO LIVE OR LIVING TO WORK: BALANCING WORK AND PERSONAL LIVES

The Public Service has historically been seen as less pressured than the private sector. Provisions such as flexible hours and permanent part-time work have supported an image of the Public Service as 'family-friendly', and an employment setting where staff can balance their work with their home and community responsibilities. Under this scenario, the Public Service has been seen as especially welcoming to women.

While formal provisions are important, life/work balance is more than just allowing flexible work practices and more than just being 'family-friendly'. It is about creating a work culture where the tensions between work and non-work lives are minimised. This means having appropriate employment provisions in place, and organisational systems and supportive management underpinning them. In short, it is about creating an environment where individuals can fulfil their work obligations and "have a life" as well. Life/work balance is becoming an increasingly important personal and organisational issue.

In their responses to the 2001 Equal Employment Opportunities Assessment survey conducted by the State Services Commission, government departments described their current practice in relation to life/work balance, focusing on 'family-friendly' policies or 'flexible work practices'. All but two departments reported having such policies and practices in place. However, approximately half of departments also indicated that they were currently reviewing or planning to review the effectiveness of their policies, to assess use and equity of access to them and/or to seek ideas for new initiatives.

Public servants' responses to the Career Progression and Development Survey give some indication of how well they perceived their departments were doing on the life/work balance front. The results suggest that while staff were reasonably satisfied with the provisions related to leave for family or other reasons and flexibility in working hours, there was a range of related concerns, in particular related to workloads, that meant that the life/work balance juggle was a difficult one for many public servants. There are some indications that life/work balance difficulties might also be impacting negatively on their career progression.

7.1 Benefits accrue to organisations as well as to individuals

Recent management literature is sprinkled with research on the importance of life/work balance, not just for workers and their well-being but also for business[59]. Barnett and Hall note that *"balance is not just a personal issue – it is a business issue"*[60]. In material extolling the virtues of life/work balance strategies, organisational psychologists Winsborough[61] suggest that organisations are likely to see:

- improved workforce recruitment, thereby attracting a wider range of candidates;
- retention of valued employees;
- decreased absenteeism;
- increased employee loyalty and commitment;
- improved productivity; and
- a cemented reputation as an employer of choice.

Research evidence seems to support this. For example, in a study on a group of managerial and professional men in the United States, Burke concluded that those in organisations which were supportive of work-life balance also reported *"working fewer hours, less job stress, greater joy in work, lower intentions to quit, greater job career and life satisfaction, fewer psychosomatic symptoms and more positive emotional and physical well-being"*[62].

7.2 A composite picture of life/work balance

This section develops a composite picture of life/work balance in the Public Service by looking at public servants' perceptions related to:

[59] For example, see Kerslake, Phil, "Is the grass greener on the other side?", in *Management*, May 2001, pp 30-32.
[60] Barnett, Rosalind Chait and Hall, Douglas T. "How to use reduced hours to win the war for talent", in *Organizational Dynamics*, 29(3), 2001, p 192.
[61] Winsborough Limited. *The Benefits of Life/Work Balance*. Email communication, 2001.
[62] Burke, Ronald. "Do managerial men benefit from organisational values supporting work-personal life balance?", in *Women in Management Review*, 15, 2000, cited in Winsborough Limited, op. cit.

- hours of work, including provisions to work part-time;
- flexible work arrangements including working flexible hours and working from home;
- family-friendly arrangements, including parental and caregiver leave, and managers' support in resolving work and family conflicts; and
- ability to accommodate outside commitments, including leave for cultural reasons.

It is difficult to assess how important life/work balance issues are compared with the other issues covered by the Career Progression and Development Survey. Some factors – such as parental leave and part-time work – are likely to be important only at certain stages of an employee's working life, if at all. On some of these factors, sizeable proportions of staff gave a "Not applicable" response. Even larger proportions gave a "Not applicable" response when asked to rate their departments on the provision of some of those factors. In this section, many of the results are therefore reported as proportions of those who actually gave a rating, that is, a proportion of those who felt the provision was applicable to them.

7.2.1 Hours of work

7.2.1.1 Working additional hours

The survey results explode the *Gliding On* myth. Three-quarters (76%) of public servants reported that they usually worked more hours a week than they were employed for:

- 27% worked between 5 and 9 hours extra;
- 17% worked more than 10 hours extra; and
- 2% worked more than 20 hours extra per week.

Managers (96%) were much more likely than non-managers (71%) to report that they usually worked additional hours. There was no difference between male and female managers on this front.

Proportionately more men than women overall reported that they worked extra hours, although the difference was not great. Māori, Pacific peoples and public servants with disabilities were as likely as other staff to report that they worked more hours than they were employed for.

There was no difference between caregivers and non-caregivers in terms of working additional hours, and the gender difference amongst caregivers mirrored the overall gender difference. 79% of men reporting they had responsibilities for the care of dependants worked additional hours, compared with 70% of female caregivers.

7.2.1.2 Why do people work extra hours?

Workloads

Qualitative responses indicated a variety of reasons why public servants felt compelled to work long hours. These included working extra hours to meet performance expectations. Some perceived these expectations were driven by their organisation's inability to manage the size

> *"Many hours of unpaid work are being required to meet deadlines."*

of the overall workload or to prioritise, or because departments took on too much work. Indeed, as noted in Chapter 3, just over one in five (21%) public servants, and proportionately more managers, rated their jobs as "Poor" at providing a reasonable workload.

Staff shortages and culture

Other qualitative responses suggested that working overtime was required to cover for staff shortages and what some saw as "deliberate decisions" to delay filling vacancies. Others felt pressure to work long hours to fit into and progress within what they perceived as a "culture of long hours". Further research would be required to determine the extent to which public servants feel they have to work long hours in order to get ahead. A survey of senior civil servants in the United Kingdom concluded that *"being prepared to work long and additional hours was the highest ranked enabler to career progression by two-thirds of respondents"*[63].

[63] "Middle class white men still rule Civil Service", in *Equal Opportunities Review*, 87, September/October 1999, pp 4-5.

While most employees expect that there will be peaks and troughs in workloads and most are prepared to put in extra hours to manage those peaks, the number and strength of qualitative comments indicated that 'goodwill' amongst public servants was waning.

"Excessive and continuing heavy workloads have failed to be addressed by resourcing or management techniques. Staff leave and are not replaced and the workloads are then shifted to those remaining."

The prospect of having to work longer hours might also be acting as a barrier to career progression. Just short of one in five (19%) public servants said they were put off applying for a more senior job because they had no desire to work the long hours associated with higher-level positions.

7.2.1.3 Working part-time

91% of public servants reported that they worked 'full-time', that is, 37.5 hours or more. The State Services Commission's Human Resource Capability (HRC) data confirmed that this was the case. That data, sourced from departments, shows that as at June 2000, 91% of public servants were working 37.5 hours a week or more. Despite the introduction of permanent part-time work in 1987, very few public servants are actually employed on a reduced hours basis. The survey results (also mirrored in HRC data) indicated that:

- 5% worked 30 hours a week but less than 37.5 hours; and
- only 4% worked less than 30 hours a week.

Who works 'part-time'?

Women (13%) were more likely than men (4%) to be employed on a less than full-time basis. Public servants who reported having primary caregiving responsibilities were also more likely to be employed on a less than full-time basis than their colleagues without such responsibilities (14% of caregivers compared with 6% of non-caregivers). However, having caregiving responsibilities and being female was an even greater predictor of less than full-time employment. Female caregivers were less likely than male caregivers to be employed full-time: 4% of male caregivers reported being employed less than full-time, compared with 22% of female caregivers. Having caregiving responsibilities seemed to have little impact on whether men worked full-time, but did have an influence on whether women did. The differential impacts on women and men of having caregiving responsibilities are discussed further below.

There appeared to be no differences based on ethnicity or age in the propensity to work part-time. However, managers were less likely than non-managers to be employed on a part-time basis. Only 1% of managers reported working less than full-time, compared to 11% of non-managers.

Part-time work – some facts from the survey

- 13% of women public servants worked part-time, compared with 4% of men.
- 14% of caregivers, compared with 6% of non-caregivers, worked part-time.
- 22% of female caregivers worked part-time, compared with 4% of male caregivers.
- Only 1% of managers worked less than full-time.
- 49% of staff rated their organisation as "Good" at allowing them to work part-time, but 19% of staff rated their departments as "Poor" on this.
- Of those to whom it applied, 53% of women, compared with 42% of men, rated their organisations as "Good" at allowing them to work part-time.
- 54% of part-timers reported that they usually worked more hours than they were employed for.

Part-time – an accessible option?

Almost half (49%) of staff to whom it applied rated their organisation as "Good" at allowing them to work part-time. Almost one in five (19%) rated their departments as "Poor" on this front. Two-thirds of public servants said that part-time work was "Not applicable" to them.

Women were more satisfied with their opportunities to work part-time. Of those to whom it applied, 53% of women compared with 42% of men rated their organisations as "Good". Of women caregivers to whom it applied, 56% gave "Good" ratings compared with 42% of male caregivers. Any further inquiry into the accessibility of part-time work in the Public Service could also investigate whether there is less acceptance of men than of women working part-time. Any bias against men working part-time could have impacts on the division of labour in households.

Qualitative responses suggested that being able to work part-time – like a number of the other life/work balance provisions – sometimes depended on the goodwill of supervisors or managers. In the case of being able to work part-time, this relative goodwill appeared to be particularly relevant when the employee was requesting a change from full-time to part-time hours (for example, following a period of parental leave). Qualitative responses also included complaints from part-timers about pressure to move to full-time hours. It should be noted in this context that more than half (54%) of part-timers reported that they usually worked more hours than they were employed for.

The survey results mirror findings in the literature[64] highlighting the costs and benefits of part-time work, in particular when an employee is attempting to move from full-time to reduced hours. The literature suggests that:

- part-timers often have to redesign their work so that, in effect, they end up doing the same amount of work in less time;
- typically the accessibility of part-time work is not uniform, even in the same organisation, and so a "champion" – in this case a supportive manager – is often needed to help get support for it; and
- there is often considerable diversity in terms of hours, pay and benefits amongst part-timers, even amongst those working in the same organisation.

Part-time work has also been associated with 'career penalties' that may include fewer development opportunities, and stalled career advancement. A Queensland survey of women in the public sector concluded that *"part-time employment is perceived to reduce opportunities for training and development and for career advancement"*[65]. Similarly, qualitative responses to the Career Progression and Development Survey indicated that part-timers perceived they were "last in line" for development opportunities, promotions and even new equipment.

Other literature stresses that part-timers, while predominantly women, are not a homogeneous group. Research has identified a dichotomy that is, in effect, "good" and "bad" part-time work. As Higgins, Duxbury and Johnson suggest: *"Part-time arrangements often had been negotiated individually by career women. In contrast, earners tended to be among a pool of part-timers whose schedules were accepted in the corporate culture"*[66]. In this latter case 'flexibility' is likely to be for the advantage of employers and is related to the ebbs and flows of work. Some reports suggest that most part-time work falls into this latter camp[67]. In contrast, Higgins, Duxbury and Johnson state that*"… for career part-timers, part-time work represents a special arrangement offered to attract or retain valued employees"*. They conclude: *"Our data strongly suggest that job type differentially affects women's ability to balance work and family"*[68].

Human Resource Capability data for June 2000 show that the largest proportion of part-time workers in the New Zealand Public Service work in clerical and frontline jobs, where there would be arguably less flexibility. Individuals in the professionals occupation group (of whom 4% worked part-time) are more likely to fall into the "good job" part-time category.

Further inquiry into part-time work in the New Zealand Public Service would be useful to examine whether there are in fact two distinct groups of part-time employees, and in particular whether there is more acceptance of part-time work in some jobs than in others. For example, do managers choose to work full-time, or does the fact that only 1% of them do so reflect a lack of acceptance of part-time work at the management level? Any inquiry could also test the impacts of part-time hours on conditions and development opportunities, and identify the conditions under which part-time work is most successful, for both employees and organisations.

[64] See, for example, Corwin, Vivien, Lawrence, Thomas B. and Frost, Peter J, "Five strategies of successful part-time work", in *Harvard Business Review*, July-August 2001, pp 121 127; Tailby, Stephanie, Johnston, Sarah, Nicholls, Peter and Upchurch, Martin, *Part-time Work and Issues of Equality*, Bristol Business School, University of the West of England, 1998.
[65] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector, Focusing on Career Development. Queensland*, Office of the Public Service, 1998, p 9.
[66] Higgins, Christopher, Duxbury, Linda, and Johnson, Karen Lea. "Part-time work for women: does it really help balance work and family?", in *Human Resource Management*, 39(1), Spring 2000, p 27.
[67] See, for example, Marginson, Simon, *The changing nature and organisation of work, and the implications for vocational education and training in Australia*, Leabrook, S.A.,National Centre for Vocational Education Research, Issues Paper, 2000.
[68] Higgins, Duxbury and Johnson, op. cit., p 30.

7.2.2 *Flexible work arrangements*

7.2.2.1 *Flexible working hours*

The survey results indicate that public servants were quite satisfied with their ability to work flexible hours: 61% rated their organisations as "Good" at allowing them flexibility in their work schedules, while only 10% gave a "Poor" rating.

46% of public servants considered the ability to work flexible hours to be "Highly important" to their job and career. It was more important to women than to men, although women and men were equally satisfied with their access to this provision. Māori, Pacific peoples and staff with disabilities were equally satisfied with their ability to work flexible hours.

Non-managers attached more value than managers to the ability to work flexible hours. Just under half (49%) of non-managers considered this "Highly important", compared with just under a third of managers (32%). Yet managers were slightly more satisfied on this front. They were less likely to rate their organisations as "Poor" at allowing them to work flexible hours, perhaps reflecting the greater autonomy managers typically have over their work schedules.

7.2.2.2 *Working from home*

Only 10% of public servants considered working from home to be "Highly important", perhaps indicating the limited types of public service work that can be performed "off-line". Women considered it more important than did men.

In rating their departments on the potential to work from home, 56% gave a "Not applicable" response. Of those for whom it was applicable, more staff gave "Poor" ratings (39%) than "Good" ratings (31%). Managers were more satisfied on this front than non-managers. Working from home also appeared less applicable to non-managers, with 60% giving a "Not applicable" rating, compared with 34% of managers, again probably indicating managers' greater autonomy over where and when they work and the types of work that can be done outside the workplace.

Māori and Pacific staff gave similar ratings as other staff on their ability to work from home. However, staff with disabilities were less satisfied than staff without disabilities on this front.

Some qualitative responses to the survey confirmed anecdotal evidence that there are a number of other informal 'flexible' arrangements occurring in the Public Service, quite apart from all the formal provisions for flexible working hours. These include what Rousseau[69] has described as *"idiosyncratic deals"*, where staff are able to negotiate their own 'flexibility' in terms of when, where and how they carry out their work. Rousseau concluded that while this was beneficial to the individuals concerned and to the organisations in which they work (which want to attract or retain crucial talent), such arrangements can also pose challenges *"to trust and fairness in employment"*, and need to be managed well.

7.2.3 *Is the Public Service 'family-friendly'?*

There is anecdotal evidence to suggest that women are attracted to the Public Service because it is more 'family-friendly' than the private sector. There is no research on the private sector that would enable robust comparisons with the Public Service. However, while there may be some examples of particularly 'family-friendly' workplaces in the private sector, it would be fair to say that parental and caregiver leave provisions are more uniformly available in the Public Service. The Career Progression and Development Survey results give some indication of the extent to which public servants felt able to balance their work and family commitments.

7.2.3.1 *Public servants as caregivers – a profile*

42% of public servants overall reported that they had or shared primary caring responsibilities for children or adults:

- 12% for pre-school children;
- 29% for school children;
- 5% for other children; and
- 8% for adults.

Women and men were equally likely to report having caregiving responsibilities. Māori (54%) and Pacific (55%) public servants were more likely to have caregiving responsibilities than other staff. Not surprisingly, there were also differences according to age. The reporting of

[69] Rousseau, Denise M. "The idiosyncratic deal; flexibility versus fairness?", in *Organizational Dynamics*, 29(4), 2001, pp 260-273.

caregiving responsibilities was highest for the 30-45 year age cohort. 58% of that group had caregiving responsibilities, compared with 32% of staff under the age of 30 and 22% of staff over the age of 45. There were no differences between managers and non-managers, or between male and female managers, in terms of having responsibilities for the care of dependants.

"I don't feel my present organisation has sufficient opportunities such as working at home, extended parental leave or part-time work which would enable [having a family] without detriment to my career and/or ability to spend time with my children. If these opportunities were more readily available and there was less an issue of women in our organisation potentially suffering in advancement terms from taking time off to raise children, then I might reconsider staying...There is a 'work comes first ethos' in this organisation which I don't agree with."

7.2.3.2 *Caregiving – impacts on employment*

In a survey on women and work, *The Economist* concluded that *"if you are a woman, children can severely damage your wealth"*[70]. The Career Progression and Development Survey does not lend itself to analysis of differential gender-based outcomes associated with caregiving responsibilities. However, despite the fact that women and men were equally likely to say they had caregiving responsibilities, the survey results suggest that caregiving has more of an impact on women's employment than on men's.

As shown in Table 7.1, female caregivers were more likely than male caregivers to consider as "Highly important" all of the factors associated with life/work balance, that is, having a reasonable workload (62% of female caregivers compared with 53% of male caregivers), working standard hours (37% compared with 26%), flexible hours (63% compared with 45%), parental leave (45% compared with 26%), caregiver leave (49% compared with 27%), long-term leave (34% compared with 22%), part-time work (29% compared with 6%) and working from home (19% compared with 10%). It should be noted in this context that all of these factors were also more important to women overall than to men overall (not just women and men who were caregivers), particularly in the areas of flexible hours, parental leave, caregiver leave and part-time work.

Having caregiving responsibilities also seems to act more as a dampener on women's career aspirations than on men's. Female caregivers (15%) were less likely than male caregivers (25%) to aspire to a chief executive position, more likely to say they had no desire to take on management responsibilities (17% of female caregivers compared with 12% of male caregivers), more likely to say they had no desire to work the longer hours associated with higher-level jobs (24% of female caregivers compared with 18% of male caregivers), and more likely to say that concerns about balancing work and family had deterred them from seeking a higher-level job (45% of female caregivers compared with 38% of male caregivers).

These results suggest that even when women and men both say they have or share primary responsibility for the care of dependants, it is women who change their lives to accommodate caregiving. This conclusion is mirrored in the findings of two recent New Zealand studies[71] which also showed that women still take more responsibility than men for the care of dependants, and that this impacts more on their paid working lives.

7.2.3.3 *Provisions related to the care of dependants*

Public servants appeared relatively satisfied with their access to provisions directly related to the care of dependants. Of those for whom it was applicable, 59% rated their access to parental leave as "Good", while only 10% rated it as "Poor"[72]. In terms of caregiver leave, 53% gave a "Good" rating, compared with 13% giving a "Poor" rating[73].

Both parental leave and caregiver leave were also more important to women than to men, including at the management level. Despite concurring with their male counterparts on most areas of the survey, women managers' responses in these areas *contrasted* with those of male managers. Women managers (22%) were almost three times more likely than male managers (8%) to consider caregiver leave to be "Highly important". Similarly they were three times more likely to consider parental leave as "Highly important" (24% compared

[70] "Women and work: for better, for worse", in *The Economist*, 18 July, 1998.
[71] *Childcare, Families and Work. The New Zealand Childcare Survey 1998: A Survey of Early Childhood Education and Care Arrangements for Children*. Wellington, Department of Labour/NACEW, 1999, p 58; *Around the Clock: Findings from the New Zealand Time Use Survey 1998-99*. Wellington, Statistics New Zealand/Ministry of Women's Affairs, 2001, p31.
[72] Two-thirds of public servants gave a "Not applicable" response on parental leave.
[73] 59% of public servants gave a "Not applicable" response.

Table 7.1 Proportions indicating life/work balance factors as "Highly important": caregivers, by gender

Factor	*Female caregivers % "Highly important"*	*Male caregivers % "Highly important"*
Flexible hours (such as glide-time)	63	45
Reasonable workload	62	53
Caregiver leave	49	27
Parental leave	45	26
Standard hours	37	26
Long-term leave (paid or unpaid)	34	22
Part-time work	29	6
Leave for cultural reasons	22	14
Working from home	19	10

with 8% of male managers). However, there were no differences between men and women or between male and female managers in the ratings of their department on these provisions.

While both parental leave and caregiver leave were overall less important to managers than to non-managers, managers appeared more satisfied with their access to both provisions. Of those for whom it was applicable, three-quarters of managers, compared with 56% of non-managers, rated their organisation as "Good" at providing parental leave, while 62% of managers, compared with 52% of non-managers, rated their department as "Good" at providing caregiver leave. As noted above, parental leave and caregiver leave were more important to women caregivers than to male caregivers. Female caregivers appeared more satisfied than male caregivers with their access to parental leave (65% of female caregivers compared with 55% of male caregivers rated their department as "Good"), but there was no difference in satisfaction in relation to caregiver leave.

Qualitative responses suggested that flexibility related to leave to care for dependants was often dependent on the goodwill of the employee's manager or supervisor. Some comments were from parents who felt it difficult to take time off when their children were sick or on school holidays, or when childcare arrangements broke down. For their part, some colleagues complained that they had to carry an extra load during those times when staff with children were absent.

7.2.3.4 Managerial support for resolving work and family conflicts

Public servants were largely in agreement on the extent to which their managers took a flexible and supportive approach to resolving work and family conflicts. 59% rated their managers as "Good" on this front, while only 11% rated them as "Poor". Caregivers (65%) were more likely than non-caregivers (56%) to give "Good" ratings, perhaps reflecting the extent to which people with responsibilities for dependants are seen by managers to have more 'legitimate' family conflicts to resolve.

A recent United Kingdom survey[74] suggested that managers were largely responsible for any dissonance between the existence of family-friendly policies and actual practice and culture. The authors reported that some staff were actually reluctant to take advantage of family-friendly provisions because of their potential to represent significant career risk. Similarly, a Victorian study to identify barriers to women's advancement into senior management positions found that 55% of employees (and 66% of former female employees) believed that *"taking advantage of flexible and family-friendly working arrangements, where they are in place, will affect the way in which job performance and commitment are judged as well as ultimate promotional opportunities"*[75]. Further research would be required to test whether any such "reluctance" is a factor in the 'take-up' of family-friendly provisions in the New Zealand Public Service. However, it seems that staff overall perceived their managers as largely supportive when they faced conflicts between work and family commitments.

It is useful to repeat here that a quarter of public servants reported being deterred from applying for a higher-level

"Because of my childcare responsibilities I stay late at work only about twice a week. When reviewing my performance, my supervisor marked me down on 'commitment and energy', saying that perhaps because of my children, I appeared less willing than others to put in extra hours." [Note: this woman worked full-time plus 5-9 additional hours a week.]

job out of fears they would not be able to balance their work and family commitments. Regardless of family-friendly policies, therefore, the perceived clash between work and family responsibilities seems to be acting as a deterrent to the career progression of some public servants.

7.2.4 *Accommodation of outside commitments*

Public servants, like other employees, have commitments and interests other than those related to family – for example, cultural, sporting or community involvements – that sometimes clash with their work responsibilities.

Of those for whom it was applicable, 42% of public servants rated their organisations as "Good" at accommodating their outside commitments, while only 13% rated their departments as "Poor".

As discussed in Chapter 6 on work environment, the survey results show that having their outside commitments accommodated at work was more important to women than to men and that women were also more satisfied than men on this front. It was also more important to Māori than to non-Māori, but Māori were as satisfied as other staff. In contrast, Pacific staff attached the same value to the area as other staff, but their ratings suggest they were less satisfied than non-Pacific staff that their outside commitments were

There is "a risk of [the] work and family balancing exercise being distorted if it only applies to those workers with children. The reality is that we all have 'family' lives. It is no answer to generating a work and family balancing exercise that in effect shifts work from those with children to those without".

accommodated at work. Of those for whom it was applicable, 28% of Pacific staff gave a "Good" rating compared with 43% of other staff.

Caregivers, especially female caregivers, also attached more importance to this area than staff without responsibilities for the care of dependants. Caregivers were also more satisfied than non-caregivers that their outside commitments were accommodated at work. This might suggest that commitments related to the care of dependants are considered more 'valid' and are accommodated in the workplace more than other activities or commitments. While this was not a major theme, qualitative responses indicated that this seemed to rankle with some staff.

Qualitative responses again indicated that the extent to which an employee could balance work and outside commitments – regardless of what they were – depended on the goodwill of their particular manager. Therefore, variations in satisfaction existed both between departments and within departments.

[74] "The MT work life survey", in *Management Today*, June 2001, p 79.
[75] *Equality in the Workplace: Women in Management*. Australia, Victorian Auditor-General's Office, n.d., para 5.16.
[76] When asked how important leave for cultural reasons was to them, almost a third (31%) of public servants said it was "Not applicable" to them. Almost two-thirds (63%) gave a "Not applicable" response when asked to rate their organisation on the provision of leave for cultural reasons.

7.2.4.1 Leave for cultural reasons

15% of public servants considered leave for cultural reasons to be "Highly important" to their jobs and careers[76]. There seemed to be relative satisfaction with access to cultural leave amongst those for whom it was applicable. 58% of those for whom it was applicable gave a "Good" rating, while 11% gave a "Poor" rating. The ratings of Māori and Pacific staff matched those of other staff.

Leave for cultural reasons was twice as important to non-managers as to managers (16% and 8% respectively considering it "Highly important"). Managers (77% "Good") were much more satisfied than non-managers (55% "Good") on this front, perhaps indicating their greater autonomy over their time use.

Qualitative responses indicated that, again, the sensitivities of an employee's manager influenced the ease with which they were able to take leave for cultural reasons, such as tangi leave, or leave for hui or fono. There was some indication of mutual resentment around access to this leave. Some Māori and Pacific staff said that they had difficulty gaining access to leave for cultural purposes or were granted it grudgingly. Some felt that their colleagues resented the time they took off. Pakeha staff who offered comments on the subject seemed to feel that they had to cover for the absences of staff taking this sort of leave. The comments mirrored similar perceptions related to staff taking leave to care for sick children. Such comments indicate that the reasons for cultural leave may not have been well explained to staff and/or that managers have not been able to rearrange workloads to ensure that the burden of absences did not fall unequally on some staff.

7.3 Conclusions

Public servants' ratings of their access to specific provisions related to life/work balance, including being able to work flexible hours, leave related to the care of dependants and access to part-time work, do not indicate any specific problems with the existence of formal provisions in these areas. But, as noted earlier, life/work balance is more than just provisions related to leave and flexible working hours.

The Career Progression and Development Survey did not include any questions that would have given an overall assessment of whether organisations were family-friendly or enabled an appropriate life/work balance. It also did not question public servants on issues such as the impacts of career breaks on their career progression, access to and departmental support for childcare (providing facilities or subsidising fees) and school holiday programmes, or their experiences with flexible work arrangements such as job sharing. Respondents to a similar survey in Queensland also rated their organisations reasonably well on offering access to specific provisions, but in an overall assessment of their agencies as being family-friendly or not they were less positive[77].

While flexible hours may allow more freedom over the *timing* of work, they have no impact on the *quantity* of work and the time it takes to complete it. A recent United Kingdom survey of managers found that *"well over half report that flexible working doesn't solve the problem of workload"*[78]. Most New Zealand public servants reported working more hours than they were employed for. They also appeared less than satisfied that their jobs involved a "reasonable" workload. In addition, qualitative responses included numerous complaints about heavy workloads. They indicated some general 'fatigue' and the risk that the 'goodwill' underpinning working longer hours to meet performance expectations might be running out. Apart from the impacts of these issues on the health and well-being of public servants, the perceived difficulties with juggling work and other commitments might be acting as a barrier to their career progression as well.

In terms of differences between various groups of public servants, women appeared to place more value on life/work balance issues than men. In general, they also appeared more satisfied than men. Caregivers – in particular, female caregivers – also appeared to value these factors more than non-caregivers and male caregivers respectively. Again satisfaction was generally greater amongst those for whom the issue was more important (that is, caregivers, especially female caregivers).

In contrast to these results, managers appeared to place less value on life/work balance factors than other staff did. Yet managers were generally *more* satisfied than other staff with most life/work balance factors, with the notable exception of their less positive ratings on the extent to which their workloads were "reasonable". Their relative

[77] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector*, op. cit., p 50.
[78] "The MT work life survey", ibid.

satisfaction probably reflects managers' greater control over when, where and how they carry out their work. There may also be an element of their expecting work to consume a larger proportion of their lives. Managers would need to be wary of letting their relative satisfaction with their own access to provisions related to life/work balance impact on their impressions of the relative access to those provisions enjoyed by their staff.

The ease of access to provisions related to life/work balance appeared to depend to some extent on the goodwill of managers and supervisors. Managers' sensitivities to their staff's family and other commitments seemed to have a considerable impact on the ability of staff to meet those outside obligations and to progress in their careers. In spite of organisational policies and provisions that might be in place to enable staff to balance their work and other responsibilities, the way staff experienced these policies appeared to be mediated by their individual managers (how active they were in offering flexibility, and the workloads they imposed), the relative support and understanding of colleagues (also influenced by how well managers juggled workloads and absences) and the underpinning organisational work culture (whether or not it actively promoted 'balance'). Managers overall were rated quite well in terms of their support when staff had work and family conflicts. However, the number and strength of qualitative responses suggest that there is some unevenness both within departments and among departments in the Public Service in terms of how well staff are able to balance their work and other aspects of their lives.

CHAPTER EIGHT

PERCEPTIONS OF UNFAIR TREATMENT AND UNWELCOME BEHAVIOUR

CHAPTER EIGHT

PERCEPTIONS OF UNFAIR TREATMENT AND UNWELCOME BEHAVIOUR

Individuals are unlikely to perform to their potential or advance in their careers if they do not feel valued and safe in their workplaces. For employees, unfair treatment on the basis of a personal characteristic (discrimination) and unwelcome behaviour (harassment) can undermine their job satisfaction and impair the development of their careers. For organisations, discrimination and harassment can increase absenteesim and turnover, and reduce productivity and morale by compromising good working relationships. Discrimination and harassment on the grounds covered by the Human Rights Act 1993 can also expose organisations to legal liability.

The Public Service has taken steps to eliminate unfair discrimination in employment. Chief executives of Public Service departments have mandatory responsibilities under section 56 of the State Sector Act 1988 to provide an equal employment opportunities programme. They have jointly accepted responsibility for implementing within their departments the *EEO Policy to 2010: Future Directions of EEO in the New Zealand Public Service*[79], which was approved by Cabinet and is monitored by the State Services Commission. Section 56 of the State Sector Act also requires chief executives to provide good and safe working conditions for employees. Implicit in that is the need to provide a workplace that is free from harassment. General legislation related to harassment also applies to government departments. The Human Rights Act 1993 defines sexual and racial harassment as being against the law, while the Employment Relations Act 2000 obliges employers to ensure sexual harassment does not occur in their organisations. The recently revised *Public Service Code of Conduct* reminds public servants that they are expected "not to discriminate against any person" on the basis of any of the Human Rights Act grounds, and "not to harass, bully or otherwise intimidate clients or colleagues"[80].

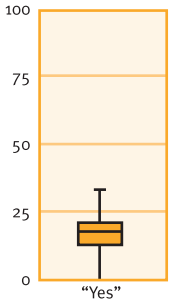
With these legislative provisions in place, and after more than a decade of equal employment opportunities programmes, to what extent do discrimination and harassment still exist in the New Zealand Public Service and what forms do they take? The Career Progression and Development Survey asked public servants about any experiences of unfair treatment and/or unwelcome behaviour in their workplaces within the 12 months prior to the survey.

8.1 Unfair treatment

Discrimination in employment occurs when personal characteristics that are not relevant to the job are used in favour of, or against, a person or group of people. Information on discrimination was collected in this survey using the human rights legislation as a guide. Public servants were asked to indicate if they had experienced (in the previous 12 months) any situation or event where they felt they had *"been treated less favourably than others in the same or similar situation*[81]" because of a personal attribute such as gender, ethnicity or disability. Secondly, they were asked to indicate which of those personal attributes they felt had been the cause[82]. Thirdly, they were asked to describe in their own words the event or events and what happened as a result.

8.1.1 Who reported unfair treatment?

Figure 8.1
Inter-departmental ranges: reported unfair treatment



One in five public servants (21%) reported that they had experienced unfair treatment in the 12 months prior to the survey. However, this varied among departments, with from 0% to 33% of staff reporting having been treated unfairly on the basis of a personal characteristic (see Figure 8.1). No overall difference between the proportion of women and men reporting less favourable treatment was found. However the picture was different at the management level. Managers (15%) were less likely than other staff (22%) to have reported discrimination.

[79] See State Services Commission, *EEO Policy to 2010: Future Directions of EEO in the New Zealand Public Service,* Wellington, State Services Commission, 1997.
[80] State Services Commission. *New Zealand Public Service Code of Conduct.* Wellington, SSC, 2001, pp 20-21.
[81] The definition of unfair discrimination in employment used in the Human Rights Act 1993 s 22.
[82] The extended list of grounds in the Career Progression and Development Survey is the same as the grounds in the Human Rights Act 1993 s 21.

Women managers, however, were almost twice as likely as their male counterparts to report discrimination (21% compared with 11%). Indeed, women managers were as likely to have experienced discrimination as other women in the Public Service. Yet male managers were only about half as likely to have experienced discrimination as other male public servants. Managerial status, therefore, appears to afford men but not women some 'protection' from discrimination.

Overall, one in three public servants with disabilities reported experiencing discrimination, as did over one in four Māori (27%) and Pacific staff (29%).

By way of comparison, a Queensland survey[83] of women in the public sector found that a third of the women surveyed reported having experienced discrimination – mostly gender related – in the one to two years prior to the survey, while a survey of Canadian public servants[84] found that 18% of public servants overall – with no gender differences – reported experiencing discrimination in their work area.

8.1.2 Gender-based discrimination

As Table 8.1 shows, the most commonly cited ground for unfair treatment was gender (8% of public servants overall). One in ten women reported being treated less favourably because of their gender and 6% of men did so.

As noted in other parts of this report, in qualitative responses some women described feeling that they had to "prove" themselves more than their male colleagues. It was suggested that women were promoted on the basis of demonstrated performance while men advanced on the basis of their "potential". Gender was also said to be

Table 8.1 Reported grounds for unfair treatment

In your opinion, was this (less favourable) treatment because of your:	*Proportion of all staff indicating this ground* %
Gender	8
Another factor	8
Ethnicity	6
Age	5
Employment status	3
Religious or ethical beliefs	1
Political opinion	1
Marital status	1
Disability	1
Sexual orientation	<0.5
Pregnancy	<0.5

[83] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector*, op. cit., p 10.
[84] *Public Service Employee Survey 1999*, Public Service of Canada, Privy Council Office/Statistics Canada.

a factor in the allocation of work, development opportunities, and pay. The "old boys' club" was seen – by both men and women – to be still part of the culture of some Public Service organisations, favouring some staff over others. Qualitative responses from a few men suggested that they felt disadvantaged by equal opportunities policies, which they saw as favouring women.

8.1.3 Discrimination on the grounds of ethnicity

Ethnicity was the second most cited ground for discrimination, reported by 6% of public servants overall. Māori and/or Pacific staff most frequently reported discrimination due to ethnicity (12% and 13% respectively). In qualitative responses, some Māori and Pacific staff reported feeling torn between their obligations as Māori or Pacific peoples and their roles as public servants. Other comments related to feelings of "cultural discomfort", including perceptions that other staff (and some managers) did not understand the need to take leave for tangi, hui or fono, and resented absences for these purposes. These perceptions of a lack of understanding were partly confirmed by comments from Pākehā men – again, only a few – saying that they were disadvantaged by leave for cultural reasons and equal opportunities policies related to ethnicity.

8.1.4 Other grounds

Age discrimination was reported by 5% of public servants. Proportionately more staff with disabilities (9%) cited age as a factor, perhaps related to the fact that the propensity to have a disability increased with age. Qualitative responses included perceptions of unfair treatment both from people who felt they were seen as too old (particularly in terms of development opportunities and promotions) and from others who felt their youth counted against them (particularly in relation to having their views valued).

Employment status was reported by 3% of public servants as having counted against them. This was reported by proportionately more Māori (6%) than other staff. Qualitative responses shed no further light on this. Other qualitative comments on employment status related to part-time employees who felt they were last in line for development opportunities, promotions and even equipment and workspace. However, there was no difference in the quantitative results between the proportions of full-time and part-time staff reporting unfair treatment on the grounds of employment status.

1% or fewer reported experiencing discrimination on any of the other grounds listed, which included disability, sexual orientation, marital status, pregnancy, religious/ethical beliefs and political opinion.

Qualitative responses revealed that when individuals experience discrimination, they often do not feel the grounds to be related to just one personal characteristic. For example, comments from some women suggested that being young and a woman counted against them, especially in terms of being listened to and having their ideas valued. People with disabilities were more likely to cite age rather than their disability as being behind unfair treatment. It is also difficult to decouple gender and ethnicity in the experiences of Māori or Pacific women.

8.1.5 Effects of discrimination

The experience of recent discrimination may have influenced whether public servants wanted to remain in their existing jobs. Almost twice as many staff who indicated that they were thinking about changing jobs or were actively applying for other jobs ('leavers') reported having experienced discrimination (30%), compared with staff reporting that they intended to stay in their current position (16%). In qualitative responses, affected staff reported diminished morale and generally negative feelings towards their work and the organisation they worked in.

8.2 Unwelcome behaviour

Harassment can take many forms, including repeated offensive remarks, being excluded or picked on, workplace bullying[85], and sexual harassment[86]. It covers a range of unwelcome behaviour, from that causing discomfort and embarrassment through to criminal acts of assault. Sexual harassment is also against the law.

The questions for this part of the Career Progression and Development Survey were developed in the light of previous research which suggested that asking a direct question ("Have you been harassed?") results in under-

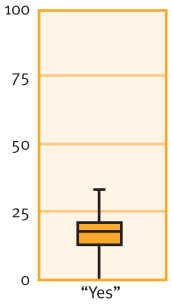
[85] There is a developing body of literature on workplace bullying. See, for example: "Workplace bullying", in *Employment Law Bulletin*, January 2000; Spurgeon, Anne, "Commentary I", in *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 7, 1997, pp 241-244; Rayner, C., "The incidence of workplace bullying", in *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 7, 1997, pp 199-208; Thomas-Peter, B.A., "Personal standards in professional relationships: limiting interpersonal harassment", in *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 7, 1997, pp 233-239.

[86] See State Services Commission, *Guidelines for Preventing and Countering Sexual Harassment*, Wellington, SSC, 1997; Human Rights Commission, *Unwelcome and Offensive: A Study of Sexual Harassment Complaints to the Human Rights Commission 1995-2000*, Auckland, HRC, 2000.

reporting of unwelcome behaviour, whereas simply offering a list of behaviours to tick can result in over-reporting. A combined approach was therefore adopted to gauge both the range and incidence of behaviours. Individuals who answered "No" to the question asking if they had experienced within the previous 12 months behaviour that had humiliated, intimidated or offended them, were routed away from answering any further questions on the subject. Those who answered "Yes" were asked to indicate which of a broad range of behaviours they had experienced. They were able to tick as many behaviours as applied.

The survey therefore collected information on a broad range of behaviours. While some may appear less serious than others, if repeated over time they can contribute to an overall environment that is detrimental to staff as a whole and to certain segments of staff in particular.

Figure 8.2
Inter-departmental ranges: reported unwelcome behaviour



8.2.1 *Who experienced unwelcome behaviour?*

A third (34%) of public servants reported that within the 12 months prior to the survey they had experienced some form of unwelcome behaviour that had served to humiliate, intimidate or offend them. This varied among departments, with from 20% to 43% of staff reporting having experienced such behaviour (see Figure 8.2). For the Public Service overall:

- proportionately more women (38%) than men (30%) reported unwelcome behaviour;
- women managers were as likely to have experienced unwelcome behaviour as other women, and were more likely than their male counterparts to have experienced it (38% compared with 24% of male managers); and
- staff with disabilities (45%), Māori (43%) and Pacific staff (45%) were also more likely to have experienced unwelcome behaviour than other staff.

[87] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector*, op. cit., p.10.
[88] *Public Service Employee Survey 1999*, op. cit.
[89] See footnote 85.

By way of comparison, the Queensland study[87] (which included only women) found that 30% reported having experienced harassment in the two years prior to the survey, while a survey of Canadian public servants[88] found that 20% (with no gender difference) said they had experienced harassment in their work unit. However, both surveys asked staff directly whether they had experienced "harassment", which, as noted above, is a form of questioning likely to result in under-reporting of such behaviours.

8.2.2 *What types of unwelcome behaviour were reported most?*

8.2.2.1 *Offensive remarks, jokes, comments*

The most commonly reported types of unwelcome behaviour were:

- offensive remarks (21% of staff overall reported this);
- offensive jokes (12%);
- unwanted offensive communications (9%); and
- inappropriate comments on appearance (8%).

A quarter of women reported offensive remarks, compared with 17% of men. Proportionately more women staff also reported offensive jokes, unwanted offensive communications and inappropriate comments about their appearance. Māori were more likely than other staff to report having experienced offensive remarks and/or offensive jokes.

8.2.2.2 *Workplace bullying*

Another group of behaviours has been identified by the literature[89] as associated with workplace bullying. It includes behaviour such as yelling, intimidation, belittling remarks, humiliating people in front of co-workers, and setting people up to fail, for example by imposing excessive workloads.

A section on bullying has been included in this report because it is increasingly recognised as a health and safety issue. Moreover, behaviours associated with bullying but which were not included as categories in the questionnaire – such as being shouted at or humiliated repeatedly in front of others – were reported in qualitative responses sufficiently often to suggest that it was an issue requiring some attention. Bullying is not covered by

human rights legislation, which therefore puts the onus on employers to monitor and manage it.

Of the bullying types of behaviour included in the questionnaire:

- 16% of public servants reported being set unrealistic goals;
- 10% reported being denied access to particular areas of work;
- 11% said they had experienced the circulation of negative rumours about them;
- 8% felt they had been excluded from conversations and staff social occasions;
- 6% of staff said they had experienced verbal threats at work; and
- 3% said they had experienced physical threats.

There were no gender differences in the proportions of staff reporting these behaviours.

While reporting being set unrealistic goals may appear as a reflection of feeling overloaded by work or being disappointed by work allocation, it should be remembered that respondents were first asked to complete a filter question asking whether they had experienced behaviour that had "humiliated, intimidated or offended" them. In terms of any behaviour associated with bullying, the survey did not distinguish on the basis of intent, only on incidence and effects from the perspective of the staff member concerned.

Proportionately more staff with disabilities reported having been set unrealistic goals: 26%, compared with 15% of staff without disabilities.

8.2.2.3 Sexual harassment

Only three of the types of behaviour included in the questionnaire could clearly be classified as sexual harassment. In order to be as accurate as possible about the incidence of sexual harassment, only these three behaviours are reported under this heading. Other behaviour, such as offensive remarks, may in some circumstances be sexual in nature, but since this was not tested in the questionnaire it cannot be included here.

2% of public servants reported unwelcome touching. 2% also reported unwanted repeated requests for dates. 1% reported pressure to engage in unwelcome sexual activity. Consistent with all previous research in this area, women were more than twice as likely as men to report having experienced one or more of the three behaviours categorised as sexual harassment. Overall, 6% of women reported having experienced one or more of these behaviours in the 12 months prior to the survey.

The reported incidence of sexual harassment was therefore relatively low. Research conducted in 2000 for the Human Rights Commission[90] found that 31% of New Zealand women and 13% of men had experienced sexual harassment at some time, usually in their workplace. However, from a zero-tolerance benchmark – as would be the expectation in the Public Service – the levels reported in the Career Progression and Development Survey are still of concern.

8.2.3 Who is responsible for unwelcome behaviour?

Those who reported unwelcome behaviour were asked to indicate who was most often responsible[91]. Multiple categories could be selected. In the research literature on harassment, males senior to the person concerned are most commonly reported as responsible. The results from the Public Service are consistent with this (see Table 8.2), in that males senior to the person concerned were reported by the highest proportion of affected staff (38%), followed by male co-workers (31%), females senior to the person concerned (27%), female co-workers (26%), and/or male and female subordinates (about 6%). Other perpetrators were reported by 15%. Qualitative responses indicated that these included clients and members of the public.

Where women senior to the person concerned were cited as responsible, it was by proportionately more men than women.

8.2.4 What are the impacts of unwelcome behaviour?

Those who reported having experienced unwelcome behaviour were asked to indicate its effects on them. Again, multiple categories could be selected. Of affected staff:

- 30% reported that their relationship with their manager deteriorated;

[90] NFO CM Research. *Investigation into Sexual Harassment: Market Research Report*, prepared for the Human Rights Commission, August 2000.
[91] The survey design did not enable analysis of the frequency or nature of types of behaviour by who was most often responsible.

Table 8.2 Who is responsible for unwelcome behaviour?

Who was most often responsible for the unwelcome behaviour?	*Proportions of those reporting unwelcome behaviour* %
Male(s) senior to me	38
Male co-worker(s) at my level	31
Females(s) senior to me	27
Female co-worker(s) at my level	26
Other	15
Female subordinate(s)	7
Male subordinate(s)	6

- 29% said they became less productive at work;
- 25% said their relationship with their co-workers deteriorated;
- 23% reported that they began to look for another job;
- 19% reported becoming disengaged from the organisation; and
- 12% said they took more time off work.

There were no differences between women and men in terms of the reported impacts of unwelcome behaviour, nor between Māori or Pacific peoples and other staff, except that Pacific staff were less likely to report that their relationships with their co-workers deteriorated as a result of their experiencing unwelcome behaviour.

In qualitative responses, staff mentioned experiencing stress and stress-related illnesses, losing self-confidence, and feeling angry and disillusioned. Those staff who had experienced abusive, threatening and intimidating behaviour from members of the public or clients reported fears for their own safety and that of their families.

8.2.5 Do staff know about complaints reporting systems?

The vast majority (82%) of staff who reported having experienced unwelcome behaviour knew there was a formal process within their organisation to deal with harassment complaints (see Figure 8.3). 16% of affected staff did not know whether their organisation had a formal process, while 2% reported that their organisation did not have a formal process. There were no gender differences in terms of awareness of complaints procedures.

Of affected staff who knew there was a formal process in their organisation to deal with harassment complaints, 80% knew whom to approach to report such behaviour and 15% did not know. 5% were unsure.

Only 16% of affected staff who knew there was a formal process in their organisation to deal with harassment complaints had used the process in the previous 12 months. Equal proportions of male and female staff reported using the process. This low level of use of complaints procedures suggests that informal processes may have been used to deal with incidents of unwelcome behaviour, which would be expected for the less serious

forms. However, it might also be a reflection of relatively low confidence in those procedures. Of affected staff who knew there was a formal process in their organisation to deal with harassment complaints, only 19% were confident that complaints were dealt with fairly, and 32% were not confident. The remainder said they were unsure of their confidence levels.

While there were no overall gender differences in terms of confidence in complaints procedures, female managers were less than half as likely as male managers to report that they were confident in complaints procedures. Of those managers who had experienced unwelcome behaviour and who knew about complaints procedures, 20% of women, compared with 44% of men, were confident that complaints were dealt with fairly.

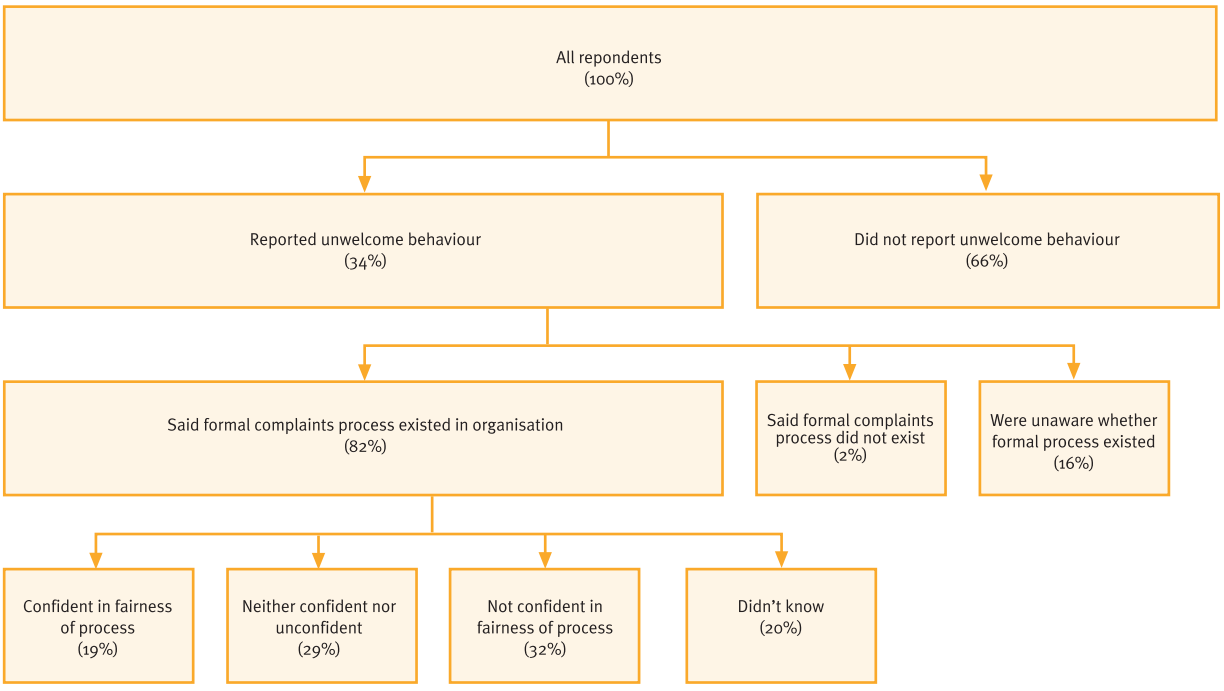
8.3 Conclusions

The results from this part of the Career Progression and Development Survey show that the Public Service is not free from discrimination and harassment, despite the long history of measures to eliminate both. About one in five public servants perceived they had experienced unfair treatment on the basis of some personal characteristic, while about a third reported experiencing some form of unwelcome behaviour. While the proportions reporting any one of the three types of behaviour which can be categorised as sexual harassment were low, overall 6% of women staff reported having experienced one or more of those behaviours in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Women were more likely than men to report gender-based discrimination (the most commonly cited grounds for unfair treatment) and were more likely to report having experienced unwelcome behaviour. In contrast to most other areas of the survey, where women managers responded along the same lines as their male counterparts, women managers were more likely than male managers to report discrimination and harassment. Indeed they were as likely as their non-managerial female colleagues to have experienced both. Managerial status seemed to have afforded some 'protection' from these situations for men, but not for women. Māori, Pacific peoples and staff with disabilities were also more likely than other staff to have reported experiencing unwelcome behaviour.

Findings on the extent and nature of possible workplace bullying in the New Zealand Public Service have been reported here for the first time. Both quantitative and qualitative responses suggest that this is an area requiring some vigilance, especially since policies and procedures to

Figure 8.3 Knowledge and use of formal complaints process, and confidence in process



recognise and address it are generally not well developed in either the Public Service or the wider labour market. It is likely to be seen increasingly as an important workplace health and safety issue.

Awareness of formal complaints procedures was high amongst those who had experienced unwelcome behaviour. However, confidence levels in complaints procedures were not. Because staff who had not experienced unwelcome behaviour were routed out of answering questions related to complaints procedures, the survey results shed no light on overall awareness amongst public servants of complaints procedures or on staff confidence in them. Ensuring complaints procedures are well known and accessible would seem to be an important component of ensuring that public servants know what is appropriate behaviour, and know what to do and whom to approach when things go wrong.

The reported impacts of unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour – including stress-related illnesses, absenteeism, damaged relationships, diminished productivity and loss of morale – confirmed their negative effects and high costs both for the individuals concerned and for the organisations they work in.

CHAPTER NINE

WOMEN IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

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WOMEN IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

In a report on women's employment in the public and private sector in Australia, Clare Burton argues that in general the public sector provides a more welcoming environment for women, with fewer barriers to career progression. That is because there are more formal human resources processes in place than in the private sector, where *"informality and subjectivity govern HRM processes"*[92]. In New Zealand, too, the Public Service has been seen as offering better opportunities for women seeking to advance their careers.

One of the primary motivations for undertaking the Career Progression and Development Survey was to uncover any specific barriers to women's career advancement in the Public Service. Why are women not represented in the senior ranks in the same proportions as they are represented in the Public Service overall? Do these differential outcomes reflect differences in aspirations and motivations between women and men? Are they related to women's and men's non-work responsibilities? Or are they the results of unequal opportunities for advancement, the product of both direct and indirect discrimination in the workplace?

This section opens with a profile of women in the Public Service. It then analyses gender differences in responses to the Career Progression and Development Survey in relation to:

- career aspirations and deterrents to seeking a higher-level job;
- workplace motivators;
- development and training experiences;
- work environment;
- support and encouragement; and
- discrimination and harassment.

9.1 A profile of women in the Public Service

All figures reported in this section are from the State Services Commission's Human Resource Capability data for June 2000 unless otherwise stated. (The Career Progression and Development Survey was conducted in December 2000, between the 2000 and 2001 HRC data collection.)

9.1.1 Numerical representation

A recent OECD report[93] indicated that across most member countries there has been an increase in the numbers of women in the civil service over the last decade. Women tend to be better represented in the public sector than in the economy as a whole. Consistent with this, there were proportionately more women in the New Zealand Public Service than in the wider employed labour force. At June 2000, women made up 56% of the Public Service workforce, compared with 45% in the employed labour force. Women's representation in the Public Service also appears to be increasing: women represented just over 60% of permanent employees recruited into departments over the 12 months to 30 June 2000.

Profile of women in the Public Service at 30 June 2000

- Women made up 56% of the Public Service work force.
- 29% of women were employed in clerical occupations, compared with 12% of men.
- 7% of women were managers, compared with 13% of men.
- One-third of senior managers were women.
- Women staff tended to be younger than male staff.
- The average salary of women was 17% less than that of men.
- 69% of women earned less than $40,000, compared with 44% of men.
- 2% of women earned over $80,000, compared with 7% of men.

[92] Burton, Clare. "Staffing the changing Public Service: merit, equity and development", in *Canberra Bulletin of Public Administration*, 89, August 1998, p 63.
[93] Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. *Recent Developments on Human Resources Management in OECD Member Countries*. PUMA/HRM, 2001.

9.1.2 *Occupational segregation*

Women's representation varies considerably across Public Service departments – from 32% to 75% at the time of the survey (excluding the Ministry of Women's Affairs, where 97% of staff were women). It also varies in the various occupation groups that make up the Public Service. At June 2000, almost one-third (29%) of women were employed in clerical occupations, compared with only 12% of all men. Women are under-represented in some of the non-traditional employment areas, such as the science and technical occupations, and are also under-represented in management. Only 7% of all women public servants were in the managers occupation group in 2000, compared with double that proportion (13%) of all men.

At the time of the survey, women held eight and were acting in two of the 38 Public Service chief executive positions[94], and women were one-third of senior managers in the Public Service[95]. This compares with the OECD[96] average of 30% of women in senior management positions in the public sector[97], although there are quite large differences between OECD countries. In 2000, women made up one-quarter of the United States Senior Executive Service, 22% of the United Kingdom senior civil service and 26% of the Australian Senior Executive Service[98].

9.1.3 *Age*

Women staff (median age 39 years) tended to be younger than male staff (median age 43 years). 38% of women compared with 26% of men were aged below 35 years, while 62% of women compared with 74% of men were aged over 35 years.

9.1.4 *Qualifications*

There were no differences in the level of qualifications reported in the Career Progression and Development Survey for men and women in the Public Service. Women and men appeared to be equally well educated.

9.1.5 *Remuneration – the gender pay gap*

For the Public Service as a whole, the average salary of women was 17% less than that of men. Overall, more than two-thirds of women (69%) earned less than $40,000 (compared with 44% of men) and only 2% earned over $80,000 (compared with 7% of men).

Recent State Services Commission research[99] has shown that the proportion of the pay gap that is "unexplained" and may be related to discrimination after hire amounts to around 5%. For the Public Service as a whole, age and occupation effects (among others) have been shown to account for 95% of the gender pay gap. Women tend to be younger, have shorter tenure and are concentrated in lower-paid occupations. Occupational segregation – the results of discrimination in society at large, prior to hire, which channels women into a narrower range of typically lower-paid occupations – accounts for a large portion of the gender pay gap.

Where women and men work in the same occupation, women on average earn less than men, and the greatest discrepancy is in the managers occupation group.

9.1.6 *Women managers and women non-managers*

In general, the differences in characteristics between women managers and non-managerial women mirrored the overall differences between managers and non-managers. For example, women managers tended to be somewhat older and more academically qualified than non-managerial women.

Women managers were as likely as other women to report having primary caring responsibilities, either for children or adults.

9.2 Career aspirations

Traditional stereotypes would have it that women do not advance to higher-level positions because they simply do not want to. The survey results in part negated this, especially at the management level. Overall, women (57%) were less likely than men (65%) to say they wanted a higher-level job in the Public Service in future and were less likely than men to want to become a chief executive (12%, compared with 21% of men). However, this gender difference disappeared at the management level. Women managers were just as likely as their male counterparts to want a higher-level position and to become a chief executive.

[94] At the end of February 2002, women held seven of the 37 chief executive positions, and one more was in an acting position.
[95] The same proportion prevailed at February 2002.
[96] Shim, Deok-Seob. "Recent human resources developments in OECD member countries", in *Public Personnel Management*, 3 (30), Fall 2001, pp 323-347.
[97] There are no comparable statistics for women's representation in the wider public sector in New Zealand.
[98] Bhatta, Gambhir. *A Cross-jurisdictional Scan of Practices in Senior Public Services: Implications for New Zealand*. Wellington, State Services Commission, Working Paper no.13, 2001.
[99] Gosse, Michelle A. *The Gender Pay Gap in the New Zealand Public Service*. Wellington, State Services Commission, 2002 (in press).

Women were as prepared as men to move into another work area in order to progress their careers, and as likely as men to see the private sector as a viable employment option. Men (31%) were more willing to move geographically than were women (26%), but female managers were as willing to move as their male counterparts.

Among staff overall, having caregiving responsibilities did not appear to quash the desire to reach the top echelons of the Public Service. Within the caregiver group, however, women (15%) were less likely than men (25%) to aspire to a chief executive position. So while having caregiving responsibilities did not impact adversely on men's career aspirations, it did have a dampening effect on women's. Caregiving responsibilities also appeared to inhibit women's willingness to move geographically more than men's: 21% of female caregivers compared with 27% of male caregivers said they were prepared to move in the interests of their careers. These results seem to confirm other studies[100] that found that New Zealand women still assume the bulk of responsibility for the care of dependants, and that this impacts more on their working lives than on those of men.

9.3 Deterrents to seeking a higher-level job

The survey illuminated some of the differences in terms of what women and men perceived as deterrents to applying for a more senior job. Proportionately more women than men were put off by a perceived lack of experience, the prospects of long hours and extensive travel, a lack of self-confidence, and not wanting to take on management responsibilities. However, women were less likely than men to be put off by perceived unfairness in selection processes. Women and men were equally likely to cite concerns about balancing work and family as a deterrent, but having caregiving responsibilities seemed to complicate the decision to apply for a higher-level job more for women than it did for men.

At the management level, there was only one gender difference – women managers were more likely than their male counterparts to be deterred by a perceived lack of experience.

Gender differences in the deterrents to applying for a higher-level job are discussed below under the following categories:

- perceived lack of readiness for a more senior job;
- work and family clashes; and
- job or selection processes acting as 'turn-offs'.

9.3.1 Lack of readiness for a senior job

The literature[101] suggests that women under-estimate their readiness for jobs and only apply when they meet the majority, if not all, of the job requirements, while men are more likely to "give it a go" even when they meet only some of the criteria.

The results of this survey show that women were more likely than men to say that a lack of necessary experience had deterred them from applying for a higher-level job (29% of women compared with 23% of men), but there was no difference in relation to their perceptions of their qualifications. This is indeed the reality. The survey indicated that women overall are as academically qualified as men.

There was a greater difference at the management level in relation to perceptions of a lack of necessary experience. Women managers (23%) were more likely than their male counterparts (13%) to see lack of experience as a deterrent to seeking a more senior job. This might reflect differences in age and tenure – male managers tended to be older and to have spent more time in the Public Service than women managers. However, there might also be an element of women under-estimating their experience and their readiness for more senior jobs.

Women overall were almost twice as likely as men to report that lack of self-confidence (19% women, 10% men) had deterred them from seeking a higher-level job. However, there was no gender-based confidence barrier at the management level.

9.3.2 Work and family clashes

There were no overall gender differences amongst the 25% of public servants who reported concerns that taking on a higher-level job would create difficulties balancing work and family responsibilities. Similarly, women were no more likely than men to express an aversion to relocating to take up a more senior job. However, women (21%) were more likely than men (17%) to be put off by the long hours associated with higher-level jobs. On a related factor, 13% of women and 10% of men reported

[100] Childcare, Families and Work. *The New Zealand Childcare Survey 1998: A Survey of Early Childhood Education and Care Arrangements for Children*. Wellington, Department of Labour/NACEW, 1999, p 58; *Around the Clock: Findings from the New Zealand Time Use Survey 1998-99*. Wellington, Statistics New Zealand/Ministry of Women's Affairs, 2001, p 31.

[101] For example, see Burton, 1991, op.cit.

that they were deterred by not wanting to undertake extensive travel. There were no gender differences at the management level on any of these factors.

While there were few gender differences per se on the deterrents related to work and family clashes, it is not surprising that having caregiving responsibilities complicated the equation – especially for women with caregiving responsibilities. Female caregivers were more likely than male caregivers to be deterred by concerns about balancing work and family, working long hours, and extensive travel (although not relocation).

9.3.3 *Turned off by management role and/or selection processes*

Management roles appeared to be slightly less attractive to women than to men. Proportionately more women (19%) than men (13%) cited "No desire to take on management responsibilities" as having deterred them from seeking a higher-level job. Female caregivers were also more likely than their male counterparts to say they had no desire to take on management responsibilities (17% compared with 12%). However, it may be the association of management roles with long hours and the potential clashes with life outside the workplace that was the underpinning issue, rather than differences in aspirations or ambition.

The literature[102] suggests that recruitment and selection processes tend to favour men over women. Whether or not this is the case in the New Zealand Public Service, women (16%) were *less* likely than men (20%) to cite concerns about the fairness of selection processes as a deterrent to applying for a more senior job.

9.4 Motivations and values – do men and women differ?

It has often been claimed that women and men are looking for different things in the workplace. The survey results, in contrast, suggest that women and men actually value the same things in the workplace. In terms of the nine general workplace factors surveyed, women's and men's top five priorities were identical:

- a feeling of accomplishment;
- quality of management;
- challenging work;
- pay and benefits; and
- job security.

However, the relative importance attached to the nine factors differed. As Figure 9.1 shows, proportionately more women than men considered as "Highly important": a feeling of accomplishment (93% of women, compared with 88% of men), quality of management (90% of women, 82% of men), job security (67% of women, 62% of men), having a reasonable workload (60% of women, 51% of men) and being able to work standard hours (32% of women, 25% of men).

Women also appeared more satisfied than men in relation to seven of the nine factors (see Figure 9.2). Women were more likely than men to rate their jobs as "Good" and/or less likely to rate them as "Poor" on:

- a feeling of accomplishment;
- quality of management;
- pay and benefits (despite the gender pay gap, 31% of women rated their job as "Good" on this factor compared with 27% of men);
- job security;
- reputation of the organisation they worked in;
- opportunities for advancement; and
- provisions for working standard hours. (See Figure 9.2.)

At the management level, women and men gave remarkably similar responses. They differed on only two of these general workplace factors and in both cases women appeared less dissatisfied than men. Women managers were less likely than their male counterparts to rate their jobs as "Poor" on a feeling of accomplishment (4% compared with 10%), and while almost a third of women managers (32%) saw their opportunities for advancement as "Poor", this compared favourably to the 43% of male managers who responded this way.

9.5 Development and training opportunities

In a review of the literature on barriers to women's career progression, Sue Loughlin concluded that previous

[102] For a discussion of the literature in this area, see Loughlin, Sue, *Barriers to Womens' Career Progression: a Review of the Literature*, Wellington, State Services Commission, Working Paper No. 6, 1999, pp 8-10.

Figure 9.1 General workplace factors considered "Highly important": differences between women and men

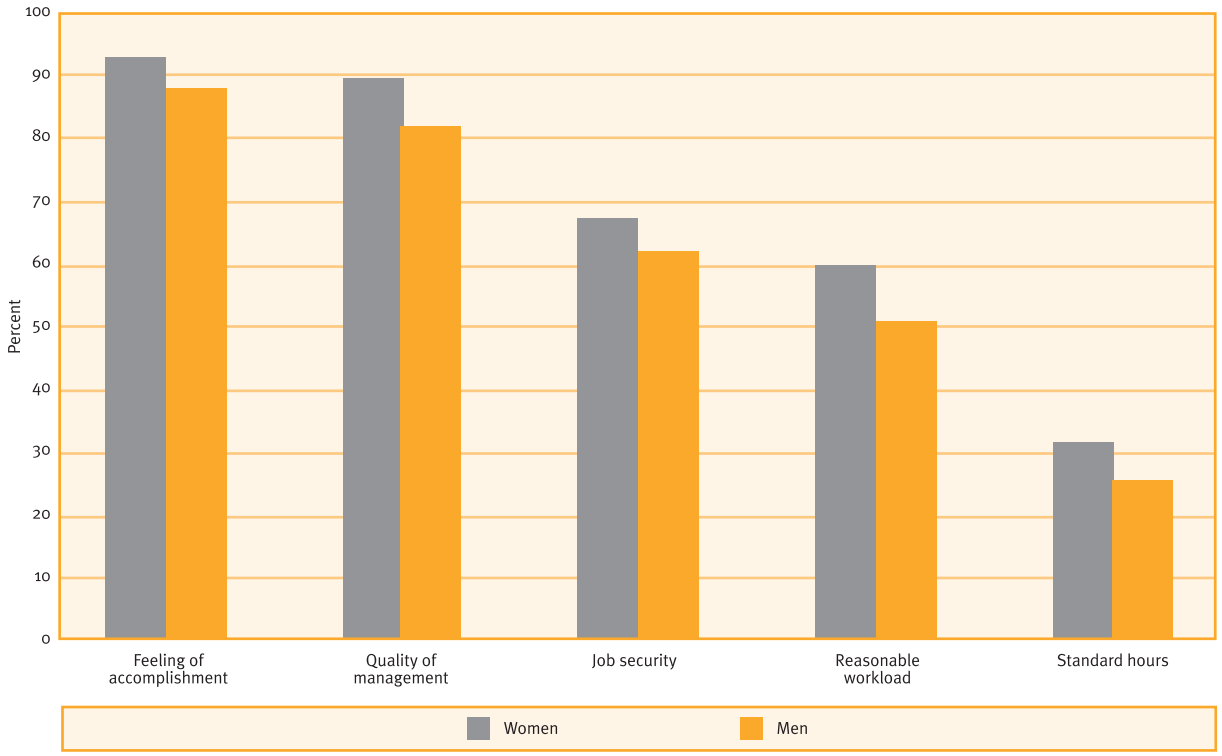
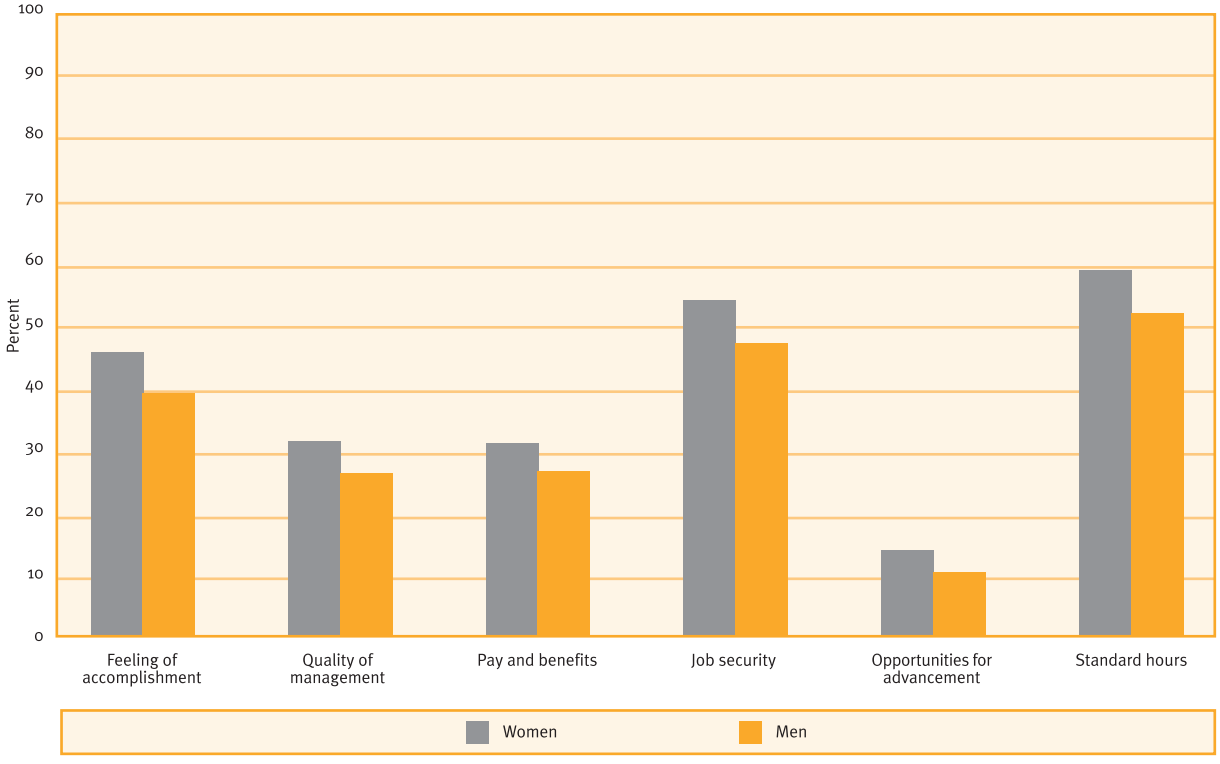


Figure 9.2 Jobs rated "Good" on general workplace factors: differences between women and men



research in New Zealand and elsewhere *"indicates that women are offered fewer development experiences than men"*[103]. In contrast to this, an OECD report[104] found that on average across all OECD countries there were few gender differences in participation in training, but that women were less likely to receive employer support for that training. The New Zealand Education and Training Survey[105] confirmed this for New Zealand, showing that while men and women were equally likely to participate in education and training, male employees were more likely than female employees to receive employer support for study and external training.

Measurement of training and development in the Public Service has been notoriously difficult[106]. Similarly, there is no existing information on how training resources are allocated. The Career Progression and Development Survey gives some indication of how women and men value development and training and how they perceive their access to it.

9.5.1 *Do women and men want the same development opportunities?*

The survey results show that women and men tend to value the same development opportunities, both agreeing that informal, on-the-job development opportunities are more important for career advancement than formal training. Their top four priorities were identical:

- being able to demonstrate their skills and abilities;
- on-the-job training;
- gaining experience in a range of tasks; and
- training courses and seminars.

However, women tended to attach higher importance to all but two[107] of the development and training opportunities surveyed. In particular, women seemed to place higher value than men on gaining experience in a range of tasks: more than three-quarters of women (77%) compared with just under two-thirds of men (65%) considered this "Highly important". This seems to confirm women's greater perceived need to gain experience, the lack of which deters more women from seeking a more senior job.

9.5.2 *Do women and men perceive differential access to development opportunities?*

Where there were gender differences, women appeared more satisfied than men with their development and training opportunities. Of staff who gave a rating, proportionately more women than men rated their organisation as "Good" at providing on-the-job training (39% compared with 35% of men), gaining experience in a range of tasks (43% compared with 37%), secondments (26% compared with 21%), and 'acting up' (27% compared with 22%).

Women were also more likely to say that secondments (46% of women and 39% of men), 'acting up' (38% of women and 31% of men), study leave (54% of women and 49% of men) and work on high-profile projects (29% of women and 18% of men) were "Not applicable" to them. Some of these perceptions of applicability might be related to occupational segregation, in that proportionately more women work in occupations where opportunities to work on high-profile projects, for example, would be less available to them. However, it might also signal that women perceive certain opportunities as less available to them, and hence are discouraged from even trying to access them. Further research would be required to shed light on why women responded in the way they did.

As for women managers, in a report for the US Glass Ceiling Commission, Wernick[108] suggested that women managers have limited access to the development experiences that build the credibility and visibility needed to advance to senior management positions. Whether or not this is true in the New Zealand Public Service, women managers did not perceive it to be the case. There were virtually no gender differences at the management level in staff ratings of their access to development opportunities. Instead, in the only difference that did emerge, women managers were more positive in their ratings than their male counterparts. Women managers were more likely than their male counterparts to report "Good" access to opportunities to 'act up': of those for whom it was applicable, 46% of women managers compared with 31% of male managers. Given that

[103] Loughlin, op. cit., p 11.
[104] Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. "Training of adult workers in OECD countries: measurement and analysis", in *OECD Employment Outook*, 1999, p 136.
[105] Gobbi, M. "Participation in post-compulsory education and training", in *Labour Market Bulletin* 1/2, 1998, pp 108-126.
[106] Rendall, Robyn. *A Framework for Measuring Training and Development in the State Sector*. Wellington, State Services Commission, Working Paper No. 12, 2001.
[107] 'Acting up' and working on high-profile projects.
[108] Wernick, Ellen D. *Preparedness, Career Advancement and the Glass Ceiling*. Draft report to the Glass Ceiling Commission, US Department of Labor, 1994.

women managers cited lack of experience as a deterrent to applying for a higher-level job, and that they appeared to value development factors likely to enhance their work experience, this would seem to be a good sign for the future.

A survey of women in the Queensland public sector indicated that the *"majority of respondents felt that their agencies showed moderate (rather than high) levels of support for training and development opportunities. Most agreed that sufficient access was given to training and development opportunities for women"*[109]. The New Zealand results would seem to mirror this conclusion.

9.6 Managers and mentors – encouragement and support for career development

9.6.1 Managers and supervisors

Research has suggested that women tend to be disadvantaged in their relationships with managers and supervisors, including receiving less favourable performance assessments and therefore inferior access to rewards and promotions[110]. White[111], for example, found that the gender gap for assessing promotions is 10%, that is, women have to perform 10% better in order to be promoted. Often this gender gap has been put down to male bias and to the fact that managers tend to be male.

"In my experience women seem to need to prove themselves more than men and this results in some inequity...It is more subtle than in the old days and therefore more difficult to deal with."

The Career Progression and Development Survey did not question public servants on the sex of their supervisors, so no light can be shed on whether New Zealand women public servants are more or less satisfied with a male or female manager. However, given that most managers in the New Zealand Public Service are male, it is striking that the survey results show a dearth of gender differences in assessments of immediate managers or supervisors. There were no differences between women and men generally on any of the factors, and none between male and female managers. Women and men seemed to experience how they were managed in very similar ways.

It should be noted, however, that qualitative responses indicated some concerns from women about fairness in their treatment by managers. These tended to reflect overall perceptions of bias rather than being specific to any one aspect of management. They indicated that women felt they had to work harder to "prove" themselves, while men were judged on their potential.

"Some male managers have 'sexist attitudes' which means that men are judged on potential while women are judged on performance."

One of the limitations of the survey was that the questionnaire did not include specific questions on performance appraisals, so any comments in these areas were spontaneous rather than prompted. In any case, given the inherent subjectivity involved in performance management and measurement, it is increasingly acknowledged that *"organizations must ensure that all supervisors are trained in the "art of performance appraisal"*[112]. It would seem sensible that this training would include developing sensitivity to potential bias.

9.6.2 Mentors

The mentoring literature demonstrates that individuals who are mentored are more frequently promoted, have more career mobility, and advance faster[113]. It also suggests that mentoring is most successful where *"both parties see parts of themselves in the other person: the protégé sees someone whom he wants to be like in the future. The mentor sees someone who reminds him of himself years ago"*[114]. The problem with this, as the gender-specific language suggests, is that because men continue to dominate senior positions, it is harder for women to find another woman as mentor. For women, it has been shown that same-sex mentors work best, both because there tends to be greater empathy related to issues of juggling work and family responsibilities and because having a male mentor can sometimes be problematic[115].

[109] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector , Focusing on Career Development.* Queensland, Office of the Public Service, 1998, p 51.
[110] See, for example, literature on LMX theory: Varma, Arup and Stroh, Linda K, "The impact of same-sex LMX diads on performance evaluations", in *Human Resource Management,* 40(4), Winter 2001, pp 309-320. For a discussion of gender bias in performance assessments, see Loughlin, op. cit.
[111] White, Michael."Performance, equality and staff development", in *Human Resource Management Journal*, 9(1), 1999, pp 47-54.
[112] Arup and Stroh, op.cit., p 317.
[113] For a discussion of some of this literature, see Loughlin, op. cit.
[114] Thomas, David A. "Race matters – the truth about mentoring minorities", in *Harvard Business Review*, April 2001.
[115] For a discussion of these issues, see Hale, Mary M. "Mentoring women in organisations: practice in search of theory", in *American Review of Public Administration*, 25(4) December 1995.

The Queensland survey of women in the public sector found that 59% of respondents had a mentor[116]. In contrast, in the New Zealand Public Service only 20% of women reported having a mentor. However, this 20% compares favourably with the 16% of male public servants that reported having one. This gender difference was even greater at the management level. 28% of women managers, compared with 16% of their male counterparts, reported having a mentor.

The greater propensity for women to have a mentor might reflect both their greater need for one and/or deliberate attempts by women to seek extra support for their career advancement, particularly at the management level. Research has suggested that mentoring is especially important for women striving to work their way up the hierarchy. For example, research on women CEOs in the USA found that almost all of them (91%) had been mentored at some time and almost as many (81%) said that their mentors were critical or fairly important to their careers[117].

Only 14% of mentored staff (representing 3% of public servants overall) had made contact with their mentor through a formal mentoring programme. This was true regardless of gender or managerial status. This mirrors the Queensland public sector results, where although 59% reported having a mentor, only 3% overall reported being involved in a formal mentoring programme.

Overall there were no differences between women and men in terms of wanting access to a formal mentoring scheme but men (32%) were more likely than women (26%) to say they did not want access to formal mentoring. As mentioned in Chapter 5, this was sometimes related to a belief that informality was the key to successful mentoring relationships. Male and female managers were equally likely to signal a desire to have access to a formal mentoring scheme.

The survey questionnaire did not ask public servants to identify the sex of their mentor or whether they were from inside or outside the organisation where the protégé worked, so no light can be shed on who was mentoring public servants.

Further investigation into the demand for formal mentoring and under what conditions it could best be met would be useful. The Queensland survey suggested that *"women want formal, planned mentoring that is aimed at developing business competencies rather than what they describe as the old style 'mates system' that is often linked to men's career progression"*[118]. Qualitative responses to the Career Progression and Development Survey suggested that both women and men had an aversion to what was described (by both sexes) as the "old boys' club".

"The fact that this organisation has very few women in management positions, and is showing no signs of improving this situation – and every sign of filling a senior/middle management position with a male wherever possible – makes it difficult for me to envisage or feel optimistic about further career development with the department."

In the context of support and encouragement to move ahead, it is useful to note that in qualitative responses some women also appeared to be discouraged by the lack of female role models in their organisations.

9.7 Work environment

9.7.1 *Do women and men seek different work environments?*

It has traditionally been thought that differences in men's and women's socialisation led them to prefer different work environments, typically competitive for men and co-operative for women. In contrast, more recent research has suggested a growing convergence in what work environments are seen to be attractive to both women and men. A study of male and female managers in the Canadian Public Service[119] found that in terms of job aspirations women and men were remarkably similar or "androgynous". However, research found that women and men experience organisational climates differently, and that organisational climate had a greater impact on job satisfaction for women than for men. The authors point out that a particularly critical aspect of that organisational climate was fairness – that all employees

[116] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector*, op. cit., p 52.
[117] Raggins, Bell Rose, Townsend, Bickley and Mattis, Mary. "Gender gap in the executive suite: CEOs and female executives report on breaking the glass ceiling", in Academy of Management Executive, 12(1), 1998.
[118] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector*, op. cit, p 32.
[119] Phillips, Susan D., Little, Brian R. and Goodine, Laura A. *Organizational Climate and Personal Projects: Gender Differences in the Public Service*. Canadian Centre for Management Development, 1996.

be treated in a fair and just manner.

The results for the New Zealand Public Service echo some of these findings, and contrast with others.

9.7.2 *What women and men value in their work environments*

Women and men had the same priorities when it came to their work environment. As Table 9.1 shows, fairness was at the top of their list of priorities, followed by staff working co-operatively, having their ideas valued and equitable access to rewards. Male and female managers mirrored this pattern.

While women and men ranked the environmental factors identically, women attached higher importance to five of the six factors. They attached greater value than men to being treated fairly (96% compared with 91% of men), equitable access to rewards (77% compared with 73%), and to staff working co-operatively (90% compared with 84%). In particular, they valued good work-area design (61% compared with 51% of men) and accommodation of outside commitments (45% of women and 36% of men) more than men did.

There were no differences between male and female managers in terms of the importance attached to the various aspects of their work environment.

9.7.3 *Are women and men equally satisfied with their work environments?*

In contrast to the Canadian findings, the New Zealand survey seems to suggest that women and men experience their work environments in similar ways. There were virtually no differences in women's and men's ratings of their organisations on work environment factors. And instead of women feeling less positive about their work environments, on the two factors where there were gender differences, women appeared either more satisfied, or at least less dissatisfied, than men. 20% of men, compared with 16% of women, rated their organisations as "Poor" at having their ideas valued, while 39% of women compared with 35% of men gave a "Good" rating on the extent to which their outside commitments could be accommodated at work.

At the management level, there were no differences between male and female managers in terms of how they rated their work environments.

However, it should be noted that qualitative responses contrasted with some of these quantitative results. For example, there were numerous qualitative comments from women in a range of departments saying that their views were not as valued as those of their male colleagues.

Table 9.1 What women and men value in their work environments: differences between women and men

How important to your job and career in general do you consider the following in your work environment?	*Women % "Highly important"*	*Men % "Highly important"*
Being treated fairly	96	91
Staff working co-operatively	90	84
Equitable access to rewards	77	73
Good work-area design	61	51
Accommodation of outside commitments	45	36

9.8 Balancing work and other commitments – the life/work juggle

Life/work balance has tended to be seen as a women's issue, partly because it has been narrowly associated with being able to effectively juggle work and family commitments. There is anecdotal evidence to suggest that women are attracted to the Public Service because it is more 'family-friendly' than the private sector. Such issues have emerged in most studies on women's employment as being crucial to women's workplace satisfaction and career advancement.

As argued in Chapter 7, the survey results can be pulled together to give a composite picture of life/work balance and the differences between women and men both in the importance attached to it, and the ability to achieve it.

9.8.1 Hours of work and flexibility

9.8.1.1 Working extra hours

Proportionately more men (79%) than women (72%) reported that they worked extra hours than they were employed for. However, women managers were as likely as their male counterparts to put in extra hours. Having a reasonable workload was more important to women than to men, but there were no differences in their ratings of their jobs on this front. Similarly, there were no differences between male and female managers.

9.8.1.2 Working flexible hours

Being able to work flexible hours was more important to women than to men, although women and men were equally satisfied with their access to this provision. Women were also more likely than men to value working from home, but again there were no gender differences in ratings either overall or at the management level.

9.8.1.3 Working part-time

Women were more likely than men to be employed on a less than full-time basis. 96% of men were employed full-time, compared with 87% of women. Having caregiving responsibilities and being female was a greater predictor than gender alone of less than full-time employment. 92% of women without caregiving responsibilities reported working full-time, compared with 78% of women with responsibilities for the care of dependants. Notably, having caregiving responsibilities seemed to have no impact on whether men worked full-time, but it increased the likelihood of women working part-time.

Women were more satisfied with their opportunities to work part-time, with 53% of those for whom it was applicable rating their organisations as "Good" on this factor, compared with 42% of men. Women caregivers (56%) were also more likely than male caregivers (42%) to give "Good" ratings on the ability to work part-time.

Part-time work has been associated in the past with 'career penalties', which might include fewer development opportunities and stalled career advancement, sometimes based on the assumption that those who use flexible work options are somehow not as committed to their work. The Queensland survey of women in the public sector concluded that *"while opportunities for part-time work are increasingly available and supported by agencies, part-time work reduces opportunities for career advancement"*[120]. Similarly, qualitative responses to the Career Progression and Development Survey suggested that part-timers – notably women – perceived they were "last in line" for new equipment, development opportunities and promotions. However, it is important to remember that while part-time work might slow career progression, it may be better than actual career breaks, as it enables employees at least to remain attached to the workforce[121].

9.8.2 Impacts of family responsibilities

Women and men were equally likely to report having caregiving responsibilities. It should be noted in this context that this amounted to less than half of women and men (42% of each). There were also no gender differences at the management level in terms of the propensity to have responsibility for the care of dependants.

However, having responsibility for dependants seems to have a greater impact on women's employment in the Public Service than on men's. The survey results are in line with the findings of two recent New Zealand studies[122], which concluded that women still take more responsibility than men for the care of dependants, and that this impacts more on women's working lives. As noted above, having caregiving responsibilities seemed to act as a dampener on women's career aspirations, but not on men's. In addition, women caregivers were more likely

[120] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector*, op. cit., p 9.
[121] Schwartz, Debra B. *An Examination of the Impact of Family-friendly Policies on the Glass Ceiling*. New York, Families and Work Institute, 1994.
[122] *Childcare, Families and Work. The New Zealand Childcare Survey 1998: A Survey of Early Childhood Education and Care Arrangements for Children*. Wellington, Department of Labour/NACEW, 1999, p 58; *Around the Clock: Findings from the New Zealand Time Use Survey 1998-99*. Wellington, Statistics New Zealand/Ministry of Women's Affairs, 2001, p 31.

to work part-time, which might take an additional toll on their career advancement.

That women were more likely than men to adjust their working lives to accommodate caregiving responsibilities is evidenced in the survey results. Female caregivers seemed more concerned about life/work balance than men reporting caregiving responsibilities. Female caregivers were more likely than male caregivers to consider as "Highly important" all of the factors in the survey associated with life/work balance, that is:

- having a reasonable workload (62% of women, 53% of men);
- working standard hours (37% of women, 26% of men);
- the ability to work flexible hours (63% of women, 45% of men);
- parental leave (45% of women, 26% of men);
- caregiver leave (49% of women, 27% of men);
- part-time work (29% of women, 6% of men); and
- working from home (19% of women compared with 10% of men).

Female caregivers appeared more satisfied than male caregivers with their access to parental leave (of those for whom it was applicable, 65% of female caregivers compared with 55% of male caregivers rated their department as "Good"), but there was no difference in satisfaction in relation to caregiver leave.

Regardless of caregiver status, both parental leave and caregiver leave were more important to women than to men – perhaps in principle, or because they had used them in the past or intended to use them in the future. Overall:

- 28% of women, compared with 17% of men, considered caregiver leave "Highly important", while
- 31% of women, compared with 19% of men, considered parental leave "Highly important".

Despite concurring with their male counterparts on most areas of the survey, women managers' responses in these areas contrasted markedly with those of male managers:

- women managers (22%) were nearly three times more likely than male managers (8%) to consider caregiver leave to be "Highly important"; and
- women managers were three times more likely to consider parental leave as "Highly important" (24% compared with 8% of male managers).

However, there were no differences between men and women or between male and female managers in ratings of their organisations on these provisions.

Having their outside commitments – family-related or otherwise – accommodated at work was also more important to women than to men, and to female caregivers more than male caregivers. Again, women appeared slightly more satisfied than men, with 39% of women giving a "Good" rating compared with 35% of men. There were no differences between women and male managers on this front.

9.8.3 Life/work balance – gender scorecard

In general, women appeared to place more value on life/work balance issues than men. They also appeared more satisfied than men with the leave and flexibility provisions on offer. Caregivers, in particular female caregivers, also appeared to value these factors more than non-caregivers and male caregivers respectively. Where there were differences, satisfaction was generally greater amongst those for whom the issue was more important, which is a positive sign.

As argued in Chapter 7, the ease of access to life/work balance-related provisions often appeared to be dependent on the goodwill of managers and supervisors. This 'goodwill factor' seemed to apply generally, regardless of the issue. Managers' sensitivities to their staff's family and other commitments seemed to have a considerable impact on the ability of staff to meet those outside obligations and progress in their careers. So in spite of organisational policies and provisions that might be in place to enable staff to balance their work and other responsibilities, the way staff experienced these policies appeared to be mediated by their individual managers, and by the underpinning organisational work culture. Managers overall were rated quite well in terms of how supportive they were when staff had work and family conflicts. But the number and strength of qualitative responses suggest there is some unevenness both within departments and between departments in the Public Service. Women in particular reported difficulties juggling their work and other commitments, especially family responsibilities.

It is interesting to note that the respondents to the Queensland survey also rated their organisations reasonably well on offering access to specific provisions, but in an overall assessment of their agencies as being family-friendly or not, they were less positive[123]. The Career Progression and Development Survey did not include any questions that would have given an overall assessment of whether organisations were family-friendly or enabled an appropriate life/work balance. It also did not question public servants on issues such as the impacts of career breaks on their career progression, access to and departmental support for childcare (providing facilities or subsidising fees) and school holiday programmes, or their experiences with flexible work arrangements such as job sharing.

Also of interest is that a Victorian study to identify barriers to women's advancement into senior management positions found that 55% of employees (and 66% of former female employees) believed that *"taking advantage of flexible and family-friendly working arrangements, where they are in place, will affect the way in which job performance and commitment are judged as well as ultimate promotional opportunities. This view is particularly pronounced in women in management"*[124]. Both the Victorian and Queensland surveys found an overall belief that *"to get ahead women must work long hours"*[125]. Further research would be required to seek more information on the life/work balance juggle in the New Zealand Public Service, to examine the perceived benefits or penalties of accessing flexibility and family-friendly provisions, especially for women and at various levels of seniority.

As was discussed in Chapter 7, enabling employees to achieve a life/work balance requires more than the provision of family-friendly policies and/or flexibility in working hours. It requires a culture where workloads are manageable, where leave and flexibility provisions are available and promoted, where managers support, encourage and model balance and where there are no 'career penalties' for "working to live rather than living to work". Overall, while public servants appeared relatively satisfied with the various provisions related to flexibility and leave, they did not appear satisfied with workloads or with feeling compelled to work extra hours. While it is difficult to measure relativities between women and men working in the Public Service in terms of life/work balance, it is probably fair to say that women tend to have more of a 'balancing act' to contend with, given the greater responsibilities they assume for the care of dependants.

9.9 Perceptions of unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour

No study of women's career advancement is complete without some discussion of the impacts of discrimination and harassment. Experiencing discrimination and harassment can explicitly or implicitly affect an individual's employment by undermining their job satisfaction and impairing the development and advancement of their careers. Previous studies have shown that women tend to experience both discrimination and harassment more than men do.

9.9.1 Unfair treatment

As discussed in Chapter 8, just over one in five (21%) public servants reported being treated less favourably in the previous 12 months because of a personal attribute. In contrast with most previous research, proportionally as many men as women reported having been treated less favourably due to some personal characteristic. Yet amongst managers, female managers (21%) were almost twice as likely as male managers (11%) to report having experienced discrimination.

However, mirroring previous research, proportionately more women (10%) than men (6%) reported that the less favourable treatment was related to their gender. This was also an area where women managers differed from their male counterparts and reported similar experiences to non-managerial women. Female managers were as likely as other women to report gender discrimination. In contrast, male managers had the lowest reported proportions of gender discrimination (3%). Women managers, therefore, were three times more likely than their male counterparts to have experienced unfair treatment on the basis of gender.

By way of comparison, the Queensland survey[126] found that a third of the women surveyed reported having experienced discrimination – mostly gender related – in the one to two years prior to the survey, while a survey of Canadian public servants[127] found that 18% of public

[123] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector*, op. cit., p 50.
[124] *Equality in the Workplace: Women in Management*. Australia, Victorian Auditor-General's Office, n.d., para 5.16.
[125] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector*, op. cit., p 9.

servants overall – with no gender difference – had reported discrimination in their work area.

Qualitative responses from women indicated that this gender discrimination was responsible for inferior access to interesting work, their inability to establish a 'profile', exclusion from networks seen to be important for career advancement (the "boys' club") and resulting material rewards and promotions. As noted at various stages in this report, there were numerous comments from women feeling that they were somehow "missing out", on the basis of their gender. These mirror the sentiments of women responding to the two Australian surveys, and indeed most other studies of women's career advancement.

The levels of male staff reporting gender discrimination might be surprising. Qualitative responses from men revealed some 'backlash' sentiments. Some appeared to feel that equal employment opportunities policies disadvantaged their career prospects. This suggests that these policies and the reasons behind them were not universally understood.

9.9.2 Unwelcome behaviour

Just over a third (34%) of public servants reported that they had experienced unwelcome behaviour that served to humiliate, intimidate or offend them. Proportionately more women (38%) than men (30%) reported experiencing unwelcome behaviour. This difference was also found within the managers group: 38% of female managers reported experiencing unwelcome behaviour, compared with 24% of male managers.

Again, by way of comparison, the Queensland survey[128] (which covered only women) found that 30% of the women surveyed reported having experienced harassment in the two years prior to their survey, while 20% of Canadian public servants[129] (with no gender difference) said they had experienced harassment in their work unit.

In New Zealand the most commonly reported unwelcome behaviours were offensive comments, offensive jokes, and offensive communications. The reported incidence of behaviours that could clearly be classified as sexual harassment was low: 2% of public servants reported unwelcome touching, 2% of staff reported unwanted repeated requests for dates, and 1% reported pressure to engage in unwelcome sexual activity. Research conducted in 2000 for the Human Rights Commission[130] found that 31% of New Zealand women had experienced sexual harassment at some time, usually in their workplace. Consistent with all previous research in this area, the survey results showed that women were more than twice as likely as men to report having experienced one or more of the three behaviours categorised as sexual harassment. Overall, 6% of women staff reported having experienced one or more of these behaviours in the 12 months preceding the survey.

What these results and their international comparisons suggest is that the New Zealand Public Service is not unique in still having some way to go in eliminating both gender discrimination and unwelcome behaviour. There are no comparable statistics for the private sector or the wider state sector. However, it is unlikely that the situation there would be any better than in the Public Service, given the legislative provisions in place and with over a decade of equal employment opportunity imperatives in the Public Service. The findings suggest that the implementation of policies and provisions in areas related to fairness and good conduct needs to be periodically reviewed for their effectiveness. Complaints procedures, too, need regular review. Moreover, what constitutes good and unacceptable behaviour needs to be well communicated to staff and managers, and be adequately monitored.

9.10 Women are not a homogeneous group

Strategies for improving the status of women, including in the workplace, have tended to assume that women are one homogeneous group. This is not the case. The survey on women in the Queensland public sector found significant differences between women at different levels of seniority. Similarly, the Career Progression and Development Survey results suggest that in New Zealand

[126] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector*, op. cit., p10.
[127] *Public Service Employee Survey 1999*, op. cit.
[128] *Survey of Women in the Queensland Public Sector* op. cit., p10.
[129] *Public Service Employee Survey 1999*, op. cit.
[130] NFO CM Research. *Investigation into Sexual Harassment: Market Research Report*, prepared for the Human Rights Commission, August 2000.

there are greater differences between groups of women – female managers and non-managers – than between women and men on most factors. These differences suggest that on most factors related to career advancement, women's responses are linked to their work group rather than to their gender. However, there are some important exceptions.

Women managers and women non-managers gave similar responses in relation to the importance attached to some of the life/work balance issues, in particular those related to the care of dependants, their reported experiences with discrimination and harassment, and being deterred from applying for higher-level jobs by a perceived lack of experience. These could potentially be described as "women's issues". However, on most other areas of the survey, the differences between women managers and other women suggest that a 'one-size-fits-all' approach to enhancing women's career progression – particularly if based on outmoded notions about women's career aspirations and what women are prepared to do to move ahead – is unlikely to hit the mark. An approach that develops varying strategies for different work areas and takes into account differences between groups is required.

As a recent study in Hong Kong warned: *"Past studies that lump women into one homogeneous group without noting that women at different organisational levels have different work identities are therefore somewhat defective. Suggestions of women-friendly policies based on results of these studies similarly arouse suspicion"* [131].

9.11 Conclusions

Burton cites Australian research to conclude that *"the main barriers to women's advancement in the Australian public service now are cultural. In an extremely stable workforce, the existing informal power structures, values and expectations take a long time to change"*[132].

Similar conclusions could be drawn for the New Zealand Public Service. On most of the factors covered by the survey, where there were gender differences, women appeared to be more positive in their rating than men. Women tended to attach more value to most of the factors than did men, and to rate more highly their jobs and the organisations in which they worked. This was true even when corroborating evidence, for example on the gender pay gap, would suggest that they should be less satisfied than men. However, the wealth of qualitative responses indicated some dissatisfaction, including in areas not directly covered by the survey questionnaire. Women's under-representation in senior management and over-representation in lower-paid occupations confirm that there is some way to go before they have parity with their male colleagues.

Some of the survey results paint a familiar picture. A few of the many traditional barriers to women's career progression remain. That women seem to continue to assume the bulk of responsibility for the care of dependants means that the juggle between home and work commitments will continue to impact more on women's career progression than on men's. In an environment that is perceived to be pressured and requiring the investment of long hours to get ahead, the juggle will be an increasingly difficult one. However, there is evidence – even in the extent to which women and men equally cited concerns about being able to balance work and family responsibilities as a deterrent to applying for a higher-level job – that the issue is no longer just a women's issue. Life/work balance issues are increasingly important for most employees, and are becoming a *"source of competitive advantage and employee satisfaction and retention"*[133]. Creating an environment that is conducive to life/work balance requires appropriate policies and provisions, supportive managers and an enabling organisational culture. Such an environment is likely to be appreciated by both women and men.

Women still appear to experience discrimination and unwelcome behaviour in the workplace more than men do. This is true even for women managers, who on most factors in the survey appeared to experience their workplaces in a similar way to their male counterparts. Individuals – men or women – are unlikely to perform to their potential or advance in their careers if they do not feel valued and safe in their workplaces.

Overall, the survey revealed that women had high aspirations to advance in their careers and were relatively flexible about what they would do to move ahead. They

[131] Ng, Catherine W. and Chiu, Warren C.K. "Managing equal opportunities for women: sorting the friends from the foes", in *Human Resource Management Journal*, 11(1), 2001, p 75.
[132] Burton, Clare. "Staffing the changing Public Service: merit, equity and development", in *Canberra Bulletin of Public Administration*, 89, August 1998, p 62.
[133] Whelan-Berry, Karen S. and Gordon, Judith R. "Strengthening human resource strategies: insights from the experiences of midcareer professional women", in *Human Resource Planning*, 23 (1), 2000, p 36.

placed high value on development and training opportunities, and fairness and equity in the workplace. The factors deterring them from seeking higher-level jobs, apart from clashes with non-work responsibilities, seemed to centre around a perceived lack of experience and, for women in non-management positions, a related lack of confidence. This suggests that ensuring women have access to work roles that enhance their experience and readiness for more senior positions, and that they receive more active encouragement to put themselves forward for higher-level jobs, might help to ease those deterrents. The role of managers and mentors offering coaching and advice could be explored more fully in this context.

None of these themes are new. However, for arguably the first time they are based on robust information about women's expectations and experiences in their employment in the Public Service. As such, they serve as a benchmark for the future.

CHAPTER TEN

MĀORI IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

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MĀORI IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

Section 58 of the State Sector Act 1988 states that each Public Service department must recognise *"the aims and aspirations of Māori people and the need for greater involvement of the Māori people in the Public Service"*. Under the *Equal Employment Opportunities Policy to 2010*[134], the Public Service is also expected to reflect the public it serves. As a growing proportion of the New Zealand population, Māori will make up an increasingly important part of the Public Service. Both EEO provisions and attempts to improve responsiveness to Māori have influenced the extent to which government departments have seen it as important to attract and retain Māori staff. Māori public servants who bring skills in te reo and tikanga Māori, as well as access to networks with iwi and Māori communities, are especially in demand.

Partly in response to these imperatives, some government departments have established specific units to provide Māori perspectives on their particular area of government activity. Others have special programmes to improve the future representation of Māori in senior management positions. While these initiatives result in some employment for Māori, they also serve to enhance the reputation of those departments as responsive to Māori and therefore as potentially more welcoming to Māori employees. Departments are likely to be most effective in attracting and retaining Māori staff when they are clear about how the Treaty influences their department, are explicit about wanting to attract and retain Māori staff, and have an understanding of the value that Māori bring to their department[135].

Māori have traditionally seen the Public Service as an attractive employer. An examination of EEO implementation issues as they relate to Māori was undertaken as part of the "Future Directions of EEO in the Public Service" project[136]. It found, among other things, that the Public Service was a desirable career option because of the opportunity to shape government policy and to provide knowledge to whānau, hapū and iwi of government mechanisms, and because it could provide career opportunities.

By analysing the responses of Māori staff to the Career Progression and Development Survey and comparing them with their non-Māori counterparts, it is possible to paint a picture of Māori as public servants, their career aspirations, and their expectations and experiences of employment in the Public Service.

10.1 A profile of Māori staff in the Public Service

At the time of the survey, Māori made up approximately 17% of the Public Service. Māori were employed in the Public Service in far greater proportions than they were in the labour force generally[137] and this was true for each of the major occupational categories in the Public Service. However, Māori tended to be more highly represented in the broader frontline occupations such as social workers, probation workers and prison officers. They were less well represented in some of the professional, science and technical occupations, and in management. Only about 8% of senior managers[138] in the Public Service were Māori.

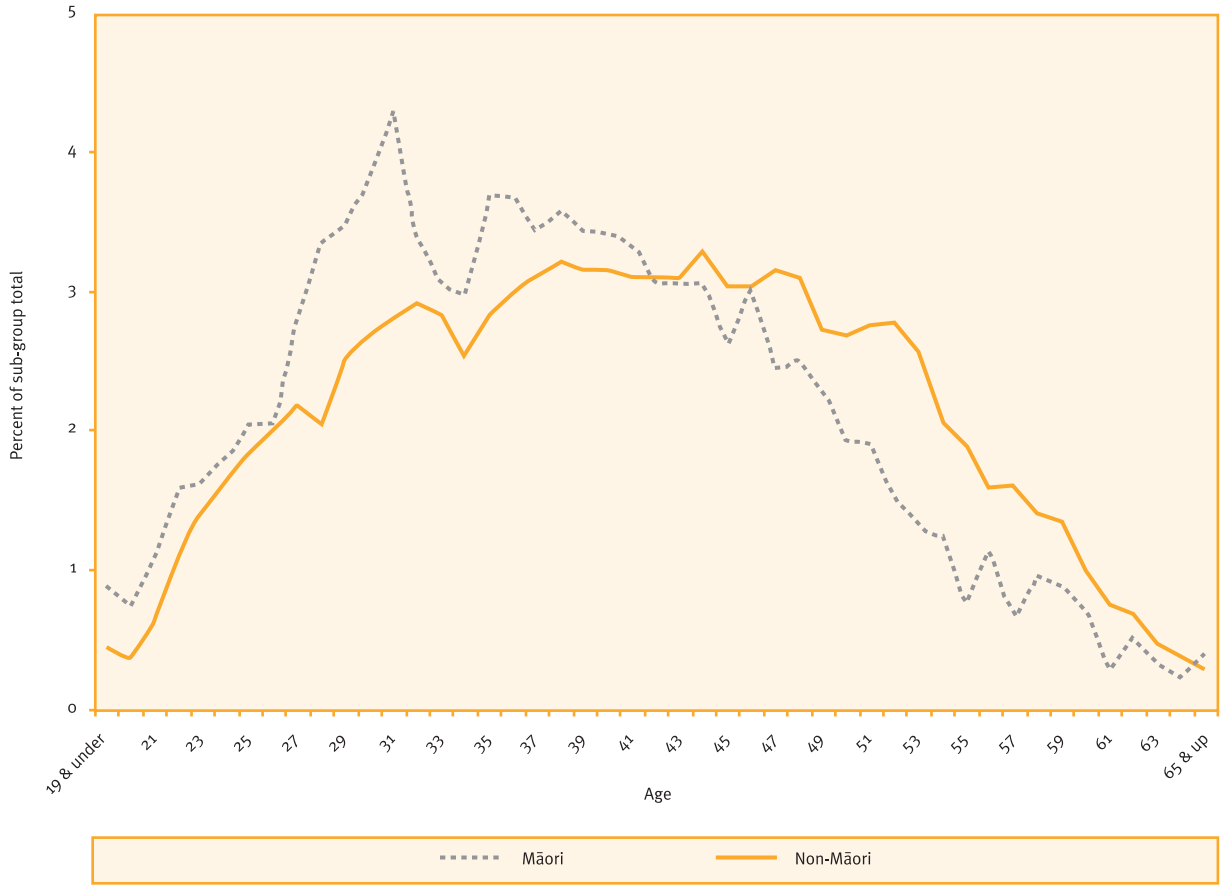
In the Public Service as a whole, women outnumber men. This is also true for Māori: at the time of the survey, Māori women accounted for 63% of Māori in the Public Service.

Sample size considerations in the survey meant it was not possible to explore the differences in responses for small sub-groups of the Public Service, so differences in perceptions and experiences between Māori women and Māori men have not been reported in the results. This would be an important area for future research.

Māori staff had a younger age profile than the Public Service as a whole (see Figure 10.1). This age structure partially explains a number of the differences between Māori and non-Māori staff in areas of the survey.

[134] State Services Commission, *EEO Policy to 2010: Future Directions of EEO in the New Zealand Public Service*. Wellington, SSC, 1997.
[135] Gardiner and Parata Ltd. *Māori Recruitment and Retention Project: A Report to the Chief Executive Forum*, May 1998.
[136] Sub-project 8, *EEO Implementation: Māori*, prepared by Te Puni Kōkiri [1997].
[137] State Services Commission. *Equal Employment Opportunities: Progress in the Public Service as at 30 June 2001*. Wellington, SSC, 2002.
[138] The Senior Management Profile refers to the top three tiers of the management structure of Public Service organisations. It includes people responsible for decision-making at these levels but excludes professional or supervisory staff unless they have a primary management function. A description of the management tier structure is available from State Services Commission, *Human Resource Guidance – EEO Data in the Public Service*, Wellington, SSC, 2001.

Figure 10.1 Age structure of Māori and non-Māori staff in the Public Service, 2000



10.2 Career aspirations

Māori staff showed high levels of ambition:

- two-thirds of Māori staff aspired to a higher-level job, compared with 58% of non-Māori;
- proportionately more Māori staff also had their sights set on a chief executive position in the Public Service (22% compared with 15% for non-Māori staff).

There may be some age effect operating here, given the relatively younger age profile of Māori staff. The survey results suggest that desire to work at a higher level was greater in the younger age groups. However, this age effect does not account for the level of difference between Māori staff and other public servants.

Only 13% of public servants overall reported that they had achieved all they wanted in their careers. Not surprisingly, this proportion increased with age. Yet, despite the younger age structure of Māori staff, there were no differences between Māori and non-Māori in their responses to this question.

Māori appeared flexible in what they would do to move ahead in their careers:

- they were more likely than non-Māori (62% compared with 55% non-Māori) to report a willingness to move to another work area to further their careers;
- 35% of Māori staff compared with 26% of non-Māori staff were prepared to move geographically to advance their careers.

These differences between Māori and non-Māori are likely to be linked to the younger age profile of Māori staff. Younger people generally tend to be more mobile. The survey showed that a willingness to change work area and to move geographically was lower in the older age groups overall. The same was true for a willingness to move to the private sector, but there was no difference

between Māori and non-Māori on this factor, perhaps indicating the extent to which the Public Service was seen as a more desirable employment option than the private sector.

10.3 Deterrents to seeking a higher-level job

When asked what had deterred them from applying for a higher-level job in the 12 months prior to the survey, Māori responses mirrored the responses of staff generally in most areas but contrasted with others.

Consistent with their younger age profile, Māori (33%) were more likely than other staff (19%) to be deterred by a perceived lack of qualifications. In terms of relative qualifications, Māori staff did tend to be less highly academically qualified. Proportionally fewer Māori than non-Māori indicated that they had undergraduate and post-graduate qualifications. Also probably linked to their age profile, Māori (32%) were more likely than their non-Māori counterparts (25%) to cite lack of experience as a deterrent to seeking a higher-level job.

Māori (19%) were less likely than non-Māori (25%) to see possible relocation as a deterrent to seeking a more senior job, which is also connected with their relative youth and consistent with their reported willingness to relocate to further their careers.

Despite their proportionally greater reporting of primary responsibility for the care of dependants (54% of Māori compared with 39% of non-Māori), Māori staff were no more likely than their non-Māori colleagues to report being put off applying for a higher-level job because it might clash with their commitments outside the workplace. A quarter of staff overall cited concerns about not being able to balance work and family responsibilities as a deterrent to seeking a more senior job, while about one in five staff were deterred by the long hours associated with higher-level jobs.

Māori and non-Māori were equally likely (18% overall) to report that concerns about the fairness of selection processes had deterred them from seeking a more senior job.

10.4 What motivates staff?

Previous research has suggested that public servants are motivated more by job interest than by material rewards or job security. Overall, the survey results tend to support this. Public servants want challenging work that gives them a sense of accomplishment. They want to be managed well. Material rewards are not unimportant to them, but are relatively less important than work interest. While, overall, Māori seemed to value the same things in the workplace as other staff, they attached different relative importance to half of the general workplace factors surveyed (see Figure 10.2).

Māori staff were more likely than other staff to consider pay and benefits as "Highly important" to their jobs (79% compared to 69%). They also attached higher importance to job security (72% compared to 64%). There may be some occupational effect operating here. Previous research has concluded that individuals in jobs that might be considered less skilled tend to value material rewards and practical concerns, such as job security, more than people in higher-skilled jobs, who appear more motivated by concerns such as job interest.

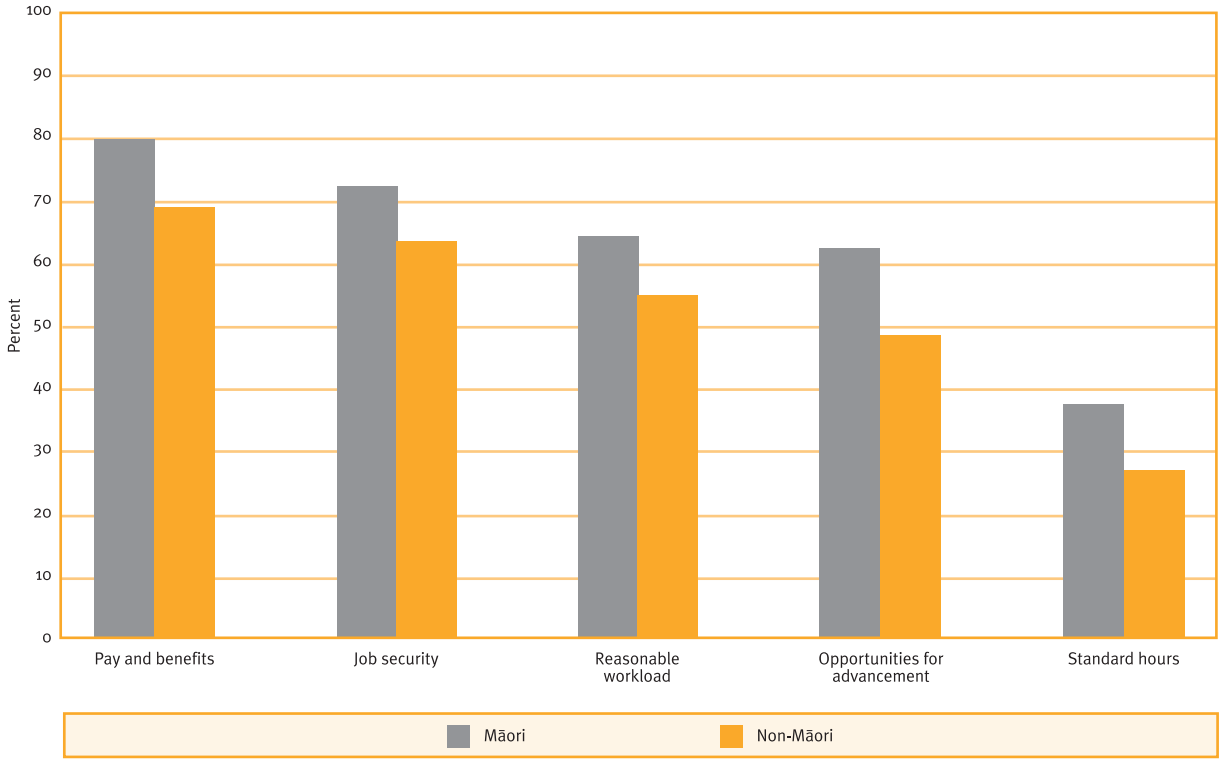
Perhaps reflecting both their occupational profile and their greater propensity to have caregiving responsibilities, Māori were more likely than non-Māori to consider having a reasonable workload (64% compared to 55%) and being able to work standard hours (37% compared to 27%) as "Highly important" to their jobs and careers.

Underscoring their reported desire to move ahead in their careers, 62% of Māori staff compared with 48% of non-Māori staff considered opportunities for advancement to be "Highly important". This result was mirrored in recent research conducted on students and recent graduates as part of the State Services Commission's "Public Service as Employer of Choice" project. That study found that opportunities for career advancement and ongoing training were important job-related 'attraction' factors. Māori students indicated they were definitely seeking an employer who offered them development opportunities and a chance to move ahead.

10.4.1 Are their expectations being met?

While there were differences in the relative importance of the various "motivation" factors, Māori staff did not differ from non-Māori staff in how they rated their jobs on these factors, with the notable exception of appearing less satisfied with their pay and benefits. Māori staff were less likely to rate their pay and benefits as "Good" (24% compared with 30% of non-Māori) and more likely to rate them as "Poor" (30% compared with 22% of non-Māori). Indeed, Māori do earn less. As at 30 June 2000, 68% of Māori earned less than $40,000 per annum, and just over 1% earned over $80,000. The average salary for Māori

Figure 10.2 Relative importance attached to general workplace factors: differences between Māori and non-Māori indicating a factor as "Highly important"



staff was 13% less than the average salary for non-Māori staff. However, the pay gaps for Māori staff are heavily affected by their younger age distribution and the fact that they are clustered in generally lower-paid occupations. When the effect of both occupation group and age are taken into account[139], the pay gap falls to 4% for most occupation groups except science and technical staff (where it remains at 13%) and managers (where it is 11%)[140].

In rating all of the other general workplace factors, Māori concurred with their non-Māori counterparts. Staff overall appeared relatively satisfied that their Public Service jobs offered them challenging work. They were only moderately satisfied with their sense of accomplishment, and were even less satisfied with the overall quality of management. Opportunities for advancement were perceived to be poor. Māori were no more dissatisfied than other staff in this domain, but, as noted above, this was more important to them than to other staff. Similarly, they were no more or less dissatisfied that their workloads were "reasonable", but again, this was relatively more important to them than to other staff.

10.5 Development and training opportunities

10.5.1 Relative importance of development and training opportunities

Māori public servants concurred with their non-Māori counterparts that informal development opportunities were generally more important than formal training for their career development. The development opportunities most important to public servants overall were being able to demonstrate their skills and abilities, on-the-job training, and opportunities to gain experience in a range of tasks. While the *rankings* of the development opportunities were remarkably consistent across the

[139] These figures were derived by taking the pay gaps for each age group within each occupation group and weighting the pay gap by the total number of staff in each cell.
[140] For further information about pay gaps by occupation, see State Services Commission, *Equal Employment Opportunities: Progress in the Public Service as at 30 June 2000*, Wellington, SSC, 2001.

various groups that make up the Public Service population, there were some notable differences in the relative *importance* attached to various factors (see Figure 10.3).

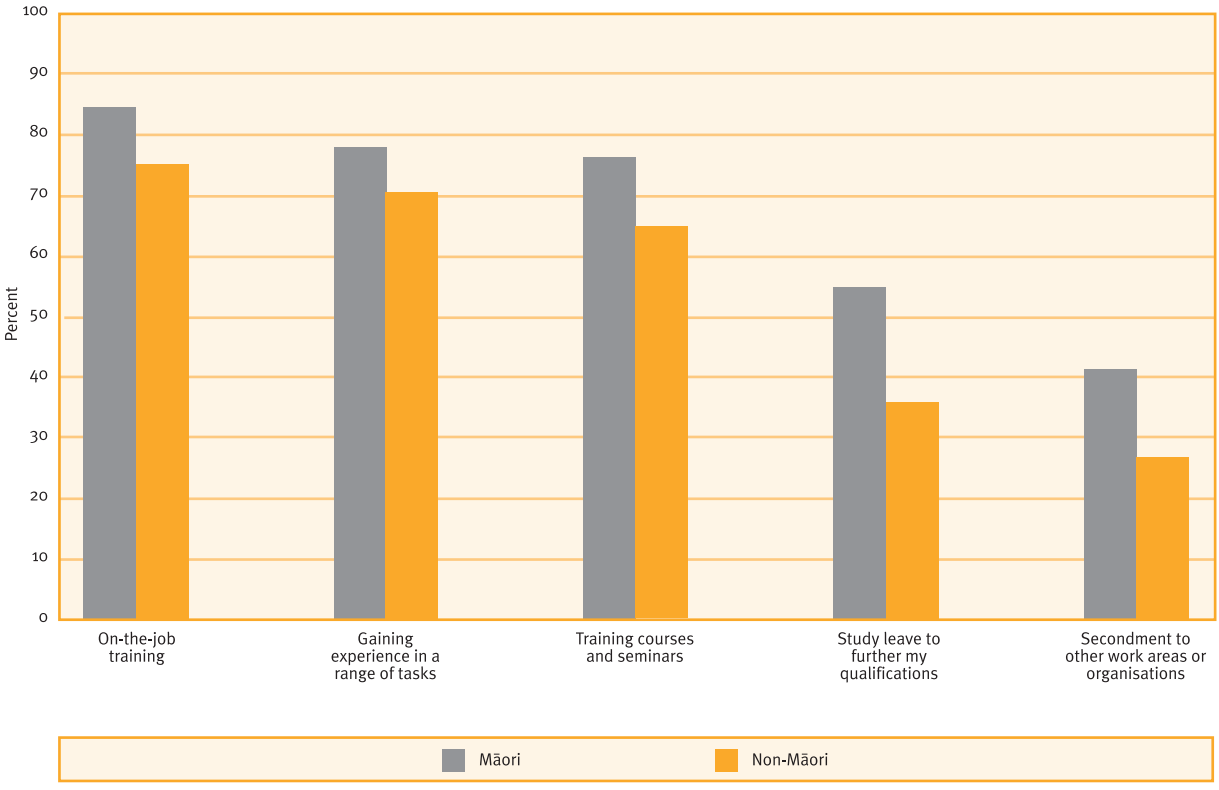
Māori staff attached higher importance than non-Māori staff to all but three development and training factors. They placed higher value on opportunities to gain experience in a range of tasks (78% compared with 70%) and on-the-job training (84% compared with 75%). As noted above, a perceived lack of experience had deterred Māori more than other staff from applying for higher-level jobs. Perhaps because of their younger age profile, they were also more likely to value training courses and seminars (76% compared with 65% of non-Māori), study leave (55% compared to 36%), and secondments (41% compared with 26%). People at the outset of their careers are more likely to want training that leads to formal qualifications or can be listed on their curriculum vitae. As noted above, Māori were more likely to cite the lack of qualifications as a deterrent to seeking a higher-level job. Taken together, the results suggest an overall desire amongst Māori to increase their skills through formal and informal training and development.

10.5.2 Satisfaction with access

Māori public servants concurred with their non-Māori counterparts in rating their organisations on the provision of training and development opportunities. Like their non-Māori colleagues, they were most satisfied with the development opportunities they considered most important for their career development. However, also like other staff, their overall satisfaction with their access to development and training was not high.

Māori staff were less likely than non-Māori staff to give a "Not applicable" response when asked to rate their department on access to study leave (Māori 44% "Not applicable", other staff 54%) and on gaining experience in a range of tasks (3% Māori "Not applicable" compared with non-Māori 6%), perhaps indicating their expectations that they should have access to both areas of development. However, their ratings indicated that they were no more or less satisfied than others with their access to both provisions. In the context of their perceived lack of qualifications as a deterrent to seeking a higher-level job, and the relative importance they attached to development and training opportunities, this might signal an area for further inquiry.

Figure 10.3 Relative importance attached to development and training opportunities: differences between Māori and non-Māori indicating a factor as "Highly important"



10.6 Encouragement and support from managers and mentors

10.6.1 Support from managers

Managers influence the conditions under which staff work, the expectations and demands placed upon them, and consequently their sense of job satisfaction and loyalty to the organisation. Through performance management they also play an important role in providing feedback on performance and brokering access to development opportunities and career-enhancing work experience.

Māori public servants appeared to experience the way they were managed similarly to other staff. Overall, both Māori and non-Māori staff painted a largely positive picture of their immediate managers, revealing perceptions of good overall support, managers allowing their staff to use initiative in carrying out their work, communicating effectively with their staff, and allowing staff input into the decisions that directly affected them. Like other staff, Māori rated their managers less well in relation to aspects of management associated with staff career advancement, especially in providing performance feedback and actively encouraging and supporting career development.

10.6.2 Support from mentors

The literature shows that ethnic minorities are less likely to be mentored than staff from the dominant ethnic group. This is partly because of the relative dearth of members of ethnic minorities in senior positions to act as mentors. Mentoring has been shown to be most successful where "*both parties see parts of themselves in the other person…*"[141]. It has been argued that people from ethnic minority groups get the most benefit from mentors also from those groups, who understand and have probably experienced the particular issues staff face in their career progression.

Contrary to the literature, Māori staff were more likely to report having a mentor than non-Māori staff. A quarter of Māori staff had mentors, compared with 16% of non-Māori staff. This might be partly related to the younger age profile of this group, since the propensity to be mentored was higher overall among the younger age groups. It might also reflect a concerted attempt to support and encourage Māori public servants' career progression. The questionnaire did not include a question on who was mentoring Māori staff. Therefore it is not possible to tell whether other public servants or people outside the Public Service, either Māori or non-Māori, were acting as mentors. This, and the impacts of these relationships on Māori staff, would be an area for further inquiry.

As with other staff, there was some unmet demand for formal mentoring amongst those who were not already part of a formal mentoring scheme.

10.7 Work environment

Work environment affects motivation and job satisfaction and contributes to an organisation's reputation as a "good place to work". The survey asked public servants to indicate how important certain work environment factors were to them, and also to rate their department on the provision of those conditions.

10.7.1 Relative importance attached to work environment factors

Māori public servants concurred with their non-Māori colleagues that being treated fairly, working in an environment where staff worked co-operatively, where their ideas were valued, and where they had equitable access to rewards, were the most important work environment factors. These rankings were consistent across the Public Service, regardless of gender, ethnicity or managerial status.

However, Māori differed from other staff in relation to two work environment factors. Good work-area design was more important to Māori staff, with 64% rating it "Highly important", compared with 55% of non-Māori staff. This perhaps reflects the occupational profile of Māori staff and the extent to which they are more likely to be in clerical or frontline jobs. Having their outside interests accommodated at work was also more important to Māori public servants (52%) than to non-Māori (39%), perhaps reflecting their higher reporting of caregiving responsibilities and possibly their need to have flexibility to meet responsibilities to whānau, hapū and iwi.

10.7.2 Relative satisfaction with work environment

There were no differences between Māori and non-Māori staff in how they rated their organisations on the work environment factors. Overall, public servants did not appear to be particularly satisfied with their work

[141] Thomas, David A. "Race matters – the truth about mentoring minorities", in *Harvard Business Review*, April 2001, p 104.

environment. They were most satisfied in the areas they considered most important – being treated fairly and staff working co-operatively – but even on these their satisfaction was only moderate.

The State Services Commission's "Future Directions of EEO in the Public Service" project[142] found that there had been confusion in the workplace between Māori as employees and the organisation's policies on Māori responsiveness. It suggested that Māori public servants are sometimes expected to carry out their own jobs as well as assume responsibility for their organisation's bicultural and Treaty activities. It also suggested that workplace cultures have low knowledge bases of Treaty issues and that Māori staff might be "carrying the departmental responsibility" for raising awareness amongst their colleagues and managers as well as carrying out their own responsibilities. Qualitative responses to the Career Progression and Development Survey from Māori staff included comments that confirmed these findings. Although this was not a major theme, some Māori staff clearly felt that having to "educate" their colleagues and managers was an additional burden on them, and was undertaken over and above their own substantive work. In some cases there appeared to be a feeling that this extra "input" was not recognised or rewarded as an additional skill Māori staff brought to the organisation.

10.8 Balancing work and other commitments – the life/work juggle

The Public Service has historically been seen as less pressured and more 'family-friendly' than the private sector, and therefore as more attractive to staff with family and other non-work commitments. Public servants' responses to the Career Progression and Development Survey give some indication of how well they perceived their departments were doing on the life/work balance front.

10.8.1 Relative importance of life/work balance factors

The relatively higher importance attached by Māori staff to many of the life/work balance factors in the survey perhaps reflects their greater propensity to have primary responsibilities for the care of dependants. As noted above, more than half (54%) of Māori staff reported having caregiving responsibilities, compared with 39% of non-Māori staff. Māori staff attached higher importance than their non-Māori colleagues to being able to work from home (16% compared with 9%), caregiver leave (34% compared with 22%), and parental leave (39% compared with 24%). Related to this, and as noted above, Māori were also more likely to consider having a reasonable workload and being able to work standard hours as "Highly important". Reflecting the extent to which they might also have responsibilities for whānau, hapū and iwi, they were also more likely to consider access to leave for cultural reasons as "Highly important" (47% compared with 9% of non-Māori), and, as noted above, having their outside commitments accommodated at work (52% compared with 39%).

10.8.2 Satisfaction with life/work balance provisions

Māori and non-Māori staff were equally likely (76%) to report that they worked more hours than they were employed for. Despite attaching higher importance to having a reasonable workload than other staff, Māori were no more or less satisfied than others on this front, with a third rating their jobs as "Good" and just over one in five (21%) rating their jobs as "Poor" in this regard. As noted in other sections of this report, concerns about heavy workloads were a recurring theme in qualitative responses from the full range of public servants, including Māori. Māori and other staff were equally satisfied with provisions to work flexible hours.

Despite their greater reporting of caregiving responsibilities, there were no differences between Māori and non-Māori in terms of how they rated their organisations on provisions directly related to the care of dependants. Of those for whom it was applicable, 59% rated their access to parental leave as "Good", while only 10% rated it as "Poor"[143]. In terms of caregiver leave, 53% gave a "Good" rating compared with 13% giving a "Poor" rating[144]. Māori were as likely as other staff to rate their managers as "Good" at taking a flexible approach to resolving work and family conflicts.

In terms of other outside commitments, Māori were as satisfied as other staff with the extent to which such commitments were accommodated at work. Māori staff appeared no more or less satisfied than other staff with their access to leave for cultural purposes, with 58% of those for whom it was applicable rating their organisations as "Good", and only 11% rating them as "Poor". However, qualitative responses suggested that the sensitivities of an employee's manager influenced the

[142] State Services Commission. *EEO Policy to 2010: Future Directions of EEO in the New Zealand Public Service*. Wellington, SSC, 1997.
[143] Two-thirds of public servants gave a "Not applicable" response on parental leave.
[144] 59% of public servants gave a "Not applicable" response.

Table 10.1 Life/work balance factors considered "Highly important": differences between Māori and non-Māori

Life/work balance factors	*Māori % "Highly important"*	*Non-Māori % "Highly important"*
Reasonable workload	64	55
Accommodation of outside commitments	52	39
Leave for cultural reasons	47	9
Parental leave	39	24
Standard hours	37	27
Long-term leave (paid or unpaid)	37	26
Caregiver leave	34	22
Working from home	16	9

ease with which they were able to take leave for cultural reasons, such as tangihanga leave or to attend hui. There were indications of resentment around access to this leave. Some Māori staff commented that they had difficulty gaining access to leave for cultural purposes, or were granted it grudgingly. It was also felt that some colleagues resented the time they took off.

Māori seemed no more or less satisfied than other staff in the life/work balance domain. Overall, both Māori and non-Māori seemed to be satisfied with specific provisions related to life/work balance, but their concerns about heavy workloads and the extent to which they felt deterred from applying for higher-level jobs by concerns that they would not be able to balance work and family responsibilities (a quarter of public servant cited this) suggest that the life/work balancing act is difficult for many public servants. Given their greater responsibilities for the care of dependants as well as other outside commitments, it is likely that Māori have an arguably greater life/work balance juggle to contend with than most.

The survey design did not allow multiple disaggregations of smaller groups, so it was not possible to test the differences between Māori women and Māori men on these factors. It is likely that gender and caregiving status would have interacted to impact differentially on the career progression of Māori women, as it appeared to for female caregivers generally.

10.9 Perceptions of unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour

Experiencing discrimination and harassment can explicitly or implicitly affect an individual's employment. It can interfere with their work performance on a day-to-day basis and, over time, can compromise their career development and advancement.

10.9.1 Unfair treatment

Māori were more likely than other staff to report being treated unfairly on the basis of a personal characteristic. More than one in four Māori (27%) compared to less than one in five non-Māori staff (19%) reported that there was a situation or event in their organisation within the previous 12 months where they felt they had been treated less favourably than others because of a personal attribute.

Māori staff were most likely to report ethnicity as the basis for unfair treatment (12% compared with 5% of non-Māori staff), followed by gender and age. However,

less than half of the Māori staff who reported having experienced less favourable treatment cited ethnicity as the cause. Māori were as likely as other staff to report being treated unfairly on the basis of their gender or age.

10.9.2 Unwelcome behaviour

Harassment can take many forms, including repeated offensive remarks, being excluded or picked on, workplace bullying and sexual harassment. It covers a range of unwelcome behaviour, from that causing discomfort and embarrassment through to criminal acts of assault.

Staff were asked in the survey whether they had experienced any unwelcome behaviour in their current organisation within the previous 12 months that had served to humiliate, intimidate or offend them. They were then asked which of a broad list of behaviours they had experienced.

Proportionately more Māori staff (43%) than non-Māori (33%) indicated they had experienced some form of unwelcome behaviour within their organisation in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Of those who had experienced unwelcome behaviour, proportionately more Māori than non-Māori staff reported offensive remarks (30% compared with 20% of non-Māori) and offensive jokes (Māori 18%, non-Māori 11%). On the other behaviours surveyed, they appeared no more or less likely to have experienced them than other staff.

Māori staff mirrored their non-Māori colleagues when it came to indicating those responsible for the behaviours, the negative effects of that behaviour on their work relationships and performance, and their knowledge of and confidence in complaints procedures.

10.10 Conclusions

Overall, there was only one difference between Māori and non-Māori in terms of how they rated their jobs and organisations: Māori appeared less satisfied than other staff with their pay and benefits. This is likely to be partly related to their younger age profile and occupational segregation. Māori are more heavily concentrated in lower-paid occupations.

Māori staff displayed high aspirations to reach higher-level Public Service positions, and were flexible in what they would do to move ahead in their careers. However, they were more likely than other staff to report that their relative lack of qualifications and experience had deterred them from seeking a more senior job. The importance they attached to development and training opportunities, in particular to formal training, suggests that they wanted to improve their qualifications and experience in readiness for more senior jobs. They were as satisfied as other staff with their access to development opportunities, but overall satisfaction was only moderate on this front. In terms of direct support for their career development, they were as satisfied as non-Māori staff with support from their managers and, notably, were more likely than their non-Māori counterparts to have a mentor.

In terms of provisions related to life/work balance in the Public Service, Māori appeared as satisfied as other staff. However, given the greater likelihood of Māori being caregivers, and taking into account their commitments to whānau, hapū and iwi, it is likely that the life/work juggle is a more multi-faceted one for Māori. Indeed, Māori attached higher importance than non-Māori to most of the survey factors related to life/work balance. Like other staff, a quarter of Māori were deterred from applying for a higher-level position because they were concerned they would not be able to balance their work and family commitments.

Māori were more likely than non-Māori to report having experienced unfair treatment, and were also more likely than non-Māori to report that they had experienced unwelcome behaviour that had intimidated, offended or humiliated them.

It was not possible to examine the differences between Māori men and Māori women to determine the dual impacts of gender and ethnicity on career progression. Further research would be warranted in this area.

Overall, the levels of ambition displayed by Māori staff suggest that strategies for enhancing diversity in the Public Service, in particular by improving the representation of Māori at all levels, have a willing group to target. The importance Māori attached to opportunities for development and advancement suggest some avenues to pursue in this regard. These results serve as a benchmark for future improvements.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

PACIFIC PEOPLES IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

CHAPTER ELEVEN

PACIFIC PEOPLES IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

Pacific peoples make up an increasing proportion of the New Zealand population. That the Public Service is expected to reflect the public it serves underpins the EEO Policy to 2010[145], which aims to improve the diversity of the Public Service. Pacific peoples will therefore be an increasingly important part of the future Public Service.

By analysing the responses of Pacific staff to the Career Progression and Development Survey and comparing them with their non-Pacific counterparts, it is possible to paint a picture of Pacific peoples' career aspirations, and their expectations and experiences of employment in the Public Service.

11.1 A profile of Pacific peoples in the Public Service

At the time of the Career Progression and Development Survey, Pacific peoples made up 7% of the Public Service. They were more highly represented in the Public Service than in the wider employed labour force, where they accounted for 4%.

Most Pacific staff in the Public Service were employed in frontline and clerical occupations. They tended to be under-represented in the professional occupations, the science and technical occupation categories, and in management. As at June 2000, just over 1% of senior managers in the Public Service were Pacific peoples.

Figure 11.1 Age structure of Pacific and non-Pacific staff in the Public Service, 2000

[145] State Services Commission. *EEO Policy to 2010: Future Directions of EEO in the New Zealand Public Service*. Wellington, SSC, 1997.

Pacific staff in the Public Service had a much younger age structure than their non-Pacific counterparts. Of particular note, as shown in Figure 11.1, was the high proportion of Pacific peoples aged 34 years and younger, compared with non-Pacific staff.

The age structure of Pacific staff is important. As indicated below, it may partially explain a number of the differences between Pacific and non-Pacific staff in areas of the survey.

11.2 Career aspirations

Pacific staff showed high levels of ambition:

- almost three-quarters (74%) aspired to a higher-level job, compared with 59% of non-Pacific staff; and
- 23% indicated they would want to become a chief executive, compared with 15% of their non-Pacific colleagues.

Pacific staff did not differ from non-Pacific staff in terms of their willingness to move into another work area or into the private sector to further their careers. There was no difference in terms of their willingness to move geographically.

11.3 Deterrents to seeking a higher-level position

The factors most often cited by Pacific staff as deterrents to applying for a higher-level job were a lack of qualifications and/or experience. 41% of Pacific staff, compared with 20% of non-Pacific staff, cited lack of qualifications as having deterred them from a more senior job. The survey results indicate that Pacific staff did have generally lower levels of academic qualifications than non-Pacific staff. The majority reported having a school level qualification (76% compared with 59% of non-Pacific staff), and while proportionately more reported having a polytechnic degree or diploma (21% compared with 13%), proportionately fewer held a university qualification: 19%, compared with 29%, had an undergraduate degree, while 9%, compared with 20%, had a post-graduate degree. 39% of Pacific staff compared with 25% of non-Pacific staff cited lack of experience as a deterrent to seeking a more senior job. There is likely to be some age effect in these results, given the younger age profile of Pacific staff.

Concerns about the fairness of selection processes had deterred proportionately more Pacific than non-Pacific staff from applying for a higher-level job. More than a quarter (28%) of Pacific staff gave this response, compared with 17% of non-Pacific staff. The survey also indicated that proportionately twice as many Pacific staff (14%) than non-Pacific staff (7%) cited a lack of other people's confidence in them as having put them off applying for a higher-level job in the Public Service.

Like other public servants, a quarter of Pacific staff cited concerns about being able to balance family and work responsibilities as a deterrent to seeking a more senior job.

Pacific staff (17%) appeared less deterred than other staff (25%) by the prospect of relocating to take up a higher-level position. Proportionately fewer Pacific staff (13%) than non-Pacific staff (20%) indicated they were deterred by the prospect of working the longer hours associated with higher-level positions. Again, there may be some age effect in these results, as staff aged under 30 were the group least deterred by potential relocation and long hours.

11.4 Motivations and values

Previous research has suggested that public servants are motivated more by job interest than by material rewards or job security. Overall, the Career Progression and Development Survey results tend to support this. Staff wanted challenging work that gave them a sense of accomplishment. They wanted to be managed well. Material rewards were not unimportant to them, but were relatively less important than work interest.

While these intrinsic motivations appeared to have similar importance for both Pacific and non-Pacific public servants, the results also suggest that the practical aspects of work, such as job security and standard hours, were more important to Pacific staff than to their non-Pacific colleagues. There might be some occupational effect in these findings. Previous research has shown that individuals in jobs that might be considered less skilled valued these kinds of factors (as well as material rewards) more than people in more highly skilled jobs. That Pacific peoples tend to be concentrated in the less highly skilled occupation groups could partly explain the relative importance they attached to these practical aspects of their jobs. However, the value Pacific staff attached to their pay and benefits was similar to other staff.

A striking 71% of Pacific staff considered opportunities for advancement to be "Highly important" to their jobs and career, compared with just under half (49%) of non-Pacific staff. The younger age profile might explain some

of this difference. The value younger people attached to opportunities for advancement was mirrored in recent research on students and recent graduates conducted as part of the State Services Commission's "Public Service as Employer of Choice" project. That study found that opportunities for career advancement and ongoing training were important job-related 'attraction' factors for those groups. Pacific students indicated they were definitely seeking an employer who offered them development opportunities and a chance to move ahead. Also important to graduates was the opportunity to work in a challenging but supportive environment, and for Pacific students this appeared to mean organisations that value and recognise cultural skills and knowledge. The importance that Pacific public servants attached to the reputation of the organisations in which they worked might be a reflection of this motivation. Three-quarters of Pacific staff, compared with 57% of non-Pacific staff, considered the reputation of the organisation they worked in to be "Highly important" to their jobs and careers.

11.4.1 Are their expectations being met?

The general level of satisfaction across each of the factors tended to be similar for Pacific and non-Pacific staff. Generally, most staff appeared satisfied that their jobs offered them challenging work, but they were only moderately satisfied with their sense of accomplishment, and less satisfied with the overall quality of management. There were some concerns about the extent to which workloads were reasonable. Opportunities for advancement were generally considered to be poor.

The major area of difference between Pacific and non-Pacific staff was that Pacific public servants appeared less satisfied with their pay and benefits. More than a third (35%), compared with 23% of non-Pacific staff, rated their pay and benefits as "Poor". 21% of Pacific staff rated their jobs as "Good" on this factor, compared with 30% of non-Pacific staff. This probably reflects the reality that, on average, Pacific public servants earn less than non-Pacific. The average salaries for Pacific staff were 19% less than the average salaries of non-Pacific peoples. However, that pay gap was heavily affected by the younger age distribution of Pacific peoples and by the fact that they were clustered in lower-paid occupations. When the effect of both occupation group and age are taken into account[146], the pay gap falls to 5% for Pacific peoples, although it remains at 13% in the professionals occupation group. However, it lessens to 4% for managers, that is, managers who are Pacific peoples earn 4% less on average than their non-Pacific counterparts.

11.5 Development and training opportunities

11.5.1 Relative importance of development and training opportunities

Like other public servants, Pacific staff considered on-the-job training, opportunities to demonstrate their skills and abilities and opportunities to gain experience in a range of tasks as most important for their career advancement. Perhaps consistent with their younger age structure and perceived lack of qualifications (which, as noted above, had deterred proportionately more Pacific than non-Pacific public servants from seeking a more senior job),

- access to study leave was considered "Highly important" by proportionately more Pacific public servants (63%) than non-Pacific staff (38%); and
- secondments were also considered "Highly important" by proportionately more Pacific staff (46% compared with 28%). This may reflect the desire of Pacific staff to enhance their work experience, a perceived lack of which appeared also to have deterred them from applying for more senior jobs.

11.5.2 Satisfaction with access

Pacific public servants, like their non-Pacific colleagues, tended to be most satisfied with the development opportunities they considered most important for their career development. However, like other staff, their overall satisfaction with their access to development and training opportunities was not high. The major areas of difference between Pacific and non-Pacific staff were in the ratings for study leave and opportunities to gain experience in a range of tasks. A quarter of Pacific staff, compared with 17% of non-Pacific staff, rated their opportunities to gain experience in a range of tasks as "Poor". Proportionately fewer Pacific staff (22% compared with 34%) than their non-Pacific counterparts rated their access to study leave as "Good". These factors were as important or more important (in the case of study leave) to Pacific staff, yet their ratings indicate they were less satisfied.

[146] These figures were derived by taking the pay gaps for each age group within each occupation group and weighting the pay gap by the total number of staff in each cell.

11.6 Encouragement and support from managers and mentors

11.6.1 Support and encouragement from managers

Managers influence the conditions under which staff work, the expectations and demands placed upon them, and consequently their sense of job satisfaction and loyalty to the organisation. Through performance management they also play an important role in providing feedback on performance and brokering access to development opportunities and career-enhancing work experience.

Pacific staff appeared to experience their managers similarly to other staff. Overall, public servants painted a positive picture of their immediate managers. The majority (65%) rated their immediate manager highly in terms of the general level of support they provided. Pacific and non-Pacific staff also rated their managers highly in a number of specific areas, including allowing their staff to use initiative in carrying out their work, communicating effectively with their staff, and allowing staff input into the decisions that directly affected them. Managers were assessed less highly, although still mainly positively, in terms of their role in actively encouraging and supporting career development and offering regular and constructive performance feedback.

11.6.2 Support and encouragement from mentors

The literature shows that certain groups, particularly women and ethnic minorities, are less likely to be mentored than others. This is partly because there are relatively few women and members of ethnic minorities in senior positions to act as mentors. Mentoring has been shown to be most successful where *"both parties see parts of themselves in the other person…"*[147]. It has been argued that people from ethnic minority groups get the most benefit from mentors also from those groups, who understand and have probably experienced the particular issues they face in their career progression.

The survey results contrasted with this literature, in that Pacific staff were as likely as other staff to report having a mentor. Almost one in five (18%) public servants overall reported that they had a mentor at the time of the survey. However, the survey also indicated that staff in the younger age cohorts were more likely to be mentored than older public servants. Given the younger age distribution of Pacific staff, this may have had a positive impact on the potential for Pacific staff to be mentored, and could have counterbalanced the lower propensity for people from ethnic minorities to have a mentor, as described in the literature. The survey results indicated some unmet demand for formal mentoring, including amongst Pacific staff.

11.7 Work environment

Work environment affects motivation and job satisfaction and contributes to an organisation's reputation as a "good place to work". The survey asked public servants to indicate how important certain work environment factors were to them, and also to rate their department on the provision of those conditions.

11.7.1 Relative importance attached to work environment factors

Like other public servants, Pacific staff attached high importance to being treated fairly, staff working co-operatively, having their ideas valued, and having equitable access to rewards. While relatively less important overall, good work-area design was important to proportionately more Pacific staff (71%) than other staff (56%), perhaps reflecting the over-representation of Pacific staff in clerical and frontline positions.

Figure 11.2 suggests that public servants did not appear to be particularly satisfied with their work environment, and that Pacific staff were even less satisfied on all but one work environment factor – staff working co-operatively.

32% of Pacific staff, compared with 42% of non-Pacific staff, rated their organisations as "Good" on being treated fairly. 22% of Pacific staff, compared with 37% of non-Pacific staff, gave a "Good" rating on having their ideas valued. 10% of Pacific staff, compared with 23% of non-Pacific staff, rated their department as "Good" at allowing equitable access to rewards, and 24% of Pacific staff, compared with 37% of their non-Pacific colleagues, gave a "Good" rating on accommodation of outside commitments.

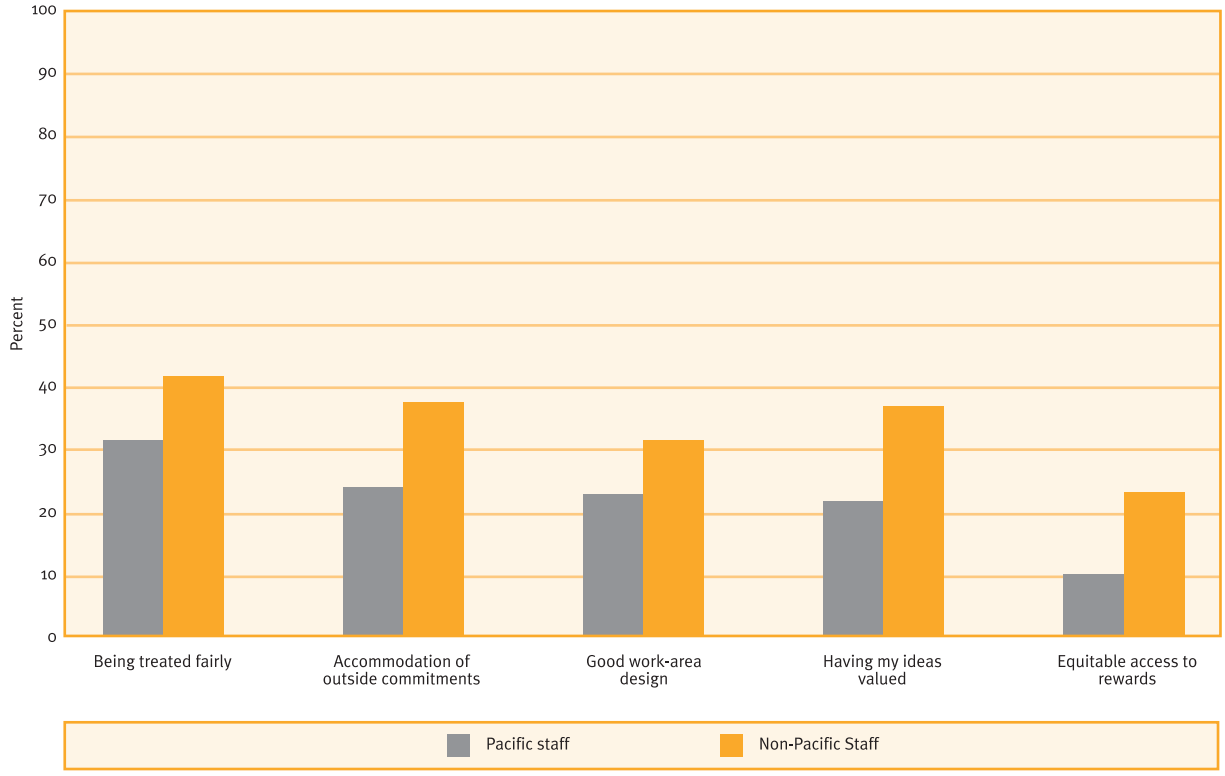
There was, however, no difference in the "Poor" ratings on these factors between Pacific and non-Pacific staff.

11.8 Balancing work and other commitments – the life/work juggle

The Public Service has historically been seen as less pressured and more 'family-friendly' than the private

[147] Thomas, David A. "Race matters – the truth about mentoring minorities", in *Harvard Business Review*, April 2001, p 104.

Figure 11.2 Differences in relative satisfaction on work environment factors for Pacific and non-Pacific staff: proportions rating their organisation as "Good"



sector, and therefore as more attractive to staff with family and other non-work commitments. Public servants' responses to the Career Progression and Development Survey give some indication of how well they perceived their departments were doing on the life/work balance front.

11.8.1 Relative importance of life/work balance factors

The relatively higher importance attached by Pacific staff than other staff to many of the factors in the survey related to life/work balance perhaps reflects their greater propensity to have primary responsibilities for the care of dependants. More than half (55%) of Pacific staff reported having caregiving responsibilities, compared with 41% of non-Pacific staff.

Pacific staff attached higher importance to:

- being able to work flexible hours (65% compared with 45%);
- having access to parental leave (51% compared with 25%); and
- having access to caregiver leave (38% compared with 23%).

Pacific staff also attached greater importance to having access to leave for cultural reasons (50%, compared with 13%).

11.8.2 Satisfaction with life/work balance provisions

Pacific staff were as likely as other staff to report that they worked more hours than they were employed for. They were no more or less likely than other staff to feel that their jobs involved a "reasonable workload". As noted earlier in this report, a third (34%) of public servants rated their jobs as "Good" at providing a reasonable workload, while just over one in five (21%) rated their jobs as "Poor".

Pacific staff were as satisfied as non-Pacific staff with their ability to work flexible hours. 61% of staff overall rated their organisations as "Good" on this front.

Departments got equal ratings from Pacific and non-Pacific staff on access to parental leave, but Pacific public servants were less satisfied than other staff with their

access to caregiver leave and with their ability to have their outside commitments accommodated at work:

- of those for whom it was applicable, 59% of staff overall, Pacific and non-Pacific, rated their organisations as "Good" on parental leave;
- on caregiver leave, of those for whom it was applicable, only 37% of Pacific staff gave a "Good" rating, compared with 54% of non-Pacific staff; and
- on having outside commitments accommodated at work, of those for whom it was applicable, only 28% of Pacific staff gave a "Good" rating, compared with 43% of other staff.

In contrast, Pacific staff were as satisfied as other staff with the extent to which their immediate managers took a flexible and supportive approach to resolving work and family conflicts: 59% rated their manager as "Good" on this factor.

Pacific staff appeared no more or less satisfied than other staff with their access to leave for cultural purposes, with almost 58% of those for whom it was applicable rating their organisation as "Good", and only 11% rating it as "Poor". However, qualitative responses suggested that the sensitivities of an employee's manager influenced the ease with which they were able to take leave for cultural reasons, such as leave for fono. There was some indication of mutual resentment around access to this leave. Some Pacific staff said that they had difficulty gaining access to leave for cultural purposes, or were granted it grudgingly. Some felt their colleagues resented the time they took off.

Overall, the survey results paint a mixed picture of the relative ability of Pacific peoples to achieve an appropriate life/work balance while employed in the Public Service. Given the greater likelihood of Pacific staff to have responsibilities for the care of dependants, the life/work juggle is likely to be more difficult for them. Their lower satisfaction with access to caregiver leave and being able to accommodate their outside commitments at work might be a cause for concern, although, like other staff, Pacific public servants appeared relatively satisfied with the extent to which their managers took a supportive approach to their resolving work and family conflicts. The survey design did not allow multiple disaggregations of smaller groups, so it was not possible to test the differences between Pacific women and Pacific men on these factors. It is likely that gender and caregiving status would have interacted to differentially impact on the career progression of Pacific women, as it appeared to for female caregivers generally.

11.9 Perceptions of unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour

Experiencing discrimination and harassment can explicitly or implicitly affect an individual's employment by undermining their job satisfaction and impairing the development and advancement of their careers.

11.9.1 Unfair treatment

Proportionately more Pacific staff (29%) than non-Pacific staff (20%) reported that they had experienced a situation or event in their organisation within the previous 12 months in which they felt they had been treated less favourably than others because of a personal attribute.

Pacific staff (13%) were more likely than non-Pacific staff (5%) to indicate they thought the less favourable treatment was due to their ethnicity, although less than half of the Pacific staff reporting less favourable treatment said ethnicity was the cause. In general, Pacific staff who felt they had experienced less favourable treatment did not differ from non-Pacific staff in terms of the personal attributes that they believed were the basis for the treatment.

11.9.2 Unwelcome behaviour

Staff were also asked in the survey if they had experienced within the previous 12 months any unwelcome behaviour in their current organisation that had served to humiliate, intimidate or offend them. Proportionately more Pacific (45%) than non-Pacific public servants (34%) indicated they had experienced unwelcome behaviour at work in the 12 months prior to the survey. Pacific staff did not differ from other staff in terms of the types of unwelcome behaviour they reported experiencing.

Pacific staff also mirrored their non-Pacific colleagues when it came to indicating those responsible for the behaviours, and the effects of that behaviour, except that Pacific staff were less likely to report that their relationship with their co-workers deteriorated as a result of unwelcome behaviour (14% of affected Pacific staff reported this, compared with 26% of affected non-Pacific staff).

11.10 Conclusions

Pacific staff showed high levels of ambition. Almost three-quarters aspired to a higher-level job. Almost one-quarter had their sights set on a chief executive position. Pacific staff appeared flexible about what they would do in order to advance their careers. They were less deterred than other staff by the prospects of geographical relocation or working long hours. That their jobs provided them with opportunities for advancement was more important to them than to other staff.

Lack of qualifications and/or lack of experience appeared to deter Pacific staff more than their non-Pacific counterparts from seeking a higher-level job. This probably relates to their younger age profile (and therefore typically less work experience) and reported levels of academic qualifications (generally lower than for other staff). Their responses in terms of the training and development opportunities they were seeking indicated that they were keen to enhance their experience and qualifications. While, like other staff, they valued informal development opportunities more than formal ones, Pacific staff attached higher importance to study leave and secondments. However, they were less satisfied than others with their access to study leave and their opportunities to gain experience in a range of tasks.

Pacific staff appeared to experience support and encouragement from their immediate managers in similar ways to other staff. They were as likely to have a mentor. However, they were also more likely to report that other people's lack of confidence in them had deterred them from applying for a more senior job.

The generally lower average earnings of Pacific staff mean that their lower satisfaction with pay and benefits is unsurprising. Partly their lower earnings were related to occupational segregation (they generally worked in lower-level and lower-paid jobs). However, they were also less satisfied that they had equitable access to rewards, which might suggest more of a fairness issue. On that 'fairness' theme, they appeared less satisfied that they were treated fairly, and that their ideas were valued. They were more deterred than other staff from applying for a higher-level job by concerns about the fairness of selection processes. They were more likely to feel that they had been treated unfairly on the basis of a personal characteristic, and more likely to report having experienced unwelcome behaviour.

Consistent with their greater reported responsibilities for the care of dependants, Pacific staff generally attached higher importance than other staff to the life/work balance factors surveyed. Despite their caregiving responsibilities, they were as likely as other staff to put in extra hours at work. While generally responding in similar ways to other staff in terms of their satisfaction with the factors related to life/work balance, they appeared less satisfied with their access to caregiver leave and less satisfied that their outside commitments were accommodated at work. Like other staff, a quarter of Pacific peoples cited concerns about being able to balance work and family responsibilities as a deterrent to their seeking a more senior job.

Pacific peoples will be an increasingly important part of the future Public Service. In terms of the desire to improve the diversity of the senior ranks of the Public Service, Pacific peoples' responses to the survey suggest that there is an ambitious and willing group of staff to target. Their age profile and stated desire to enhance their formal qualifications and their experience suggest some particular avenues to follow. Active support and encouragement from managers would be an important part of this equation. The outside commitments of Pacific staff – family-related in particular – will need to be accommodated in this process. Renewed vigilance in terms of fairness and equity would improve Pacific peoples' perceptions of their work environment and opportunities for advancement.

The survey did not allow multiple disaggregations, so it was not possible to test the differences between Pacific women and Pacific men on all of the factors included in the survey. This would be an important area for future research, to identify particular needs for Pacific women as they attempt to advance in their Public Service careers.

CHAPTER TWELVE

PUBLIC SERVANTS WITH DISABILITIES

CHAPTER TWELVE

PUBLIC SERVANTS WITH DISABILITIES

The long history of equal employment opportunity initiatives in the Public Service has contributed to its reputation as an inclusive employer, including for people with disabilities. Apart from those equal employment opportunity initiatives that apply to all EEO groups, there are specific programmes targeted towards people with disabilities. For example, the State Services Commission Mainstream Programme, which works with a variety of disability sector agencies, facilitates the employment of people with significant disabilities through provision of a range of salary and training subsidies to selected State sector organisations. Programmes such as these add to the reputation of the Public Service as welcoming to people with disabilities.

A recent study carried out by the State Services Commission asked a small number of tertiary students and graduates with disabilities for their views on Public Service employment options[148]. This study found that because of the perceived emphasis on EEO, it was felt that disability-related needs would be better accommodated in the Public Service than in the private sector. There was also a perception that the Public Service would provide a "safer" work environment, with greater job stability and security. However, the students and graduates also felt that this would be dependent on the manager and the immediate work team and the level of awareness of disability-related issues. An employer of choice for these students and graduates was one that employed on merit and provided flexibility in terms of the work environment and working conditions.

The Career Progression and Development Survey results have been analysed to compare the responses of people with disabilities with those of other staff, and to investigate whether there were any differences in their expectations and experiences related to career progression in the Public Service.

It is important to note that staff with disabilities are not a homogeneous group. They may differ in terms of the type and level of impairment and consequently in terms of the type and level of support and assistance they may require, if any, in the workplace.

12.1 Definition of 'disability'

The definition of disability recommended by the World Health Organisation, adopted by Statistics New Zealand, and used for the purposes of the Career Progression and Development Survey, is any activity that is limited by a long-term condition or health problem that has lasted six months or more (or is expected to last six months or more).

12.2 Profile of people with disabilities in the Public Service

The State Services Commission's Human Resource Capability (HRC) data indicated that at 20 June 2000, 10% of staff in the Public Service had some disability, based on this definition. Of those reporting a disability in their responses to the Career Progression and Development Survey, the majority indicated a physical condition or health problem, followed by those reporting sensory conditions related to loss of hearing and/or vision.

HRC data indicated that public servants with disabilities did not differ from other public servants insofar as they were likely to work in similar jobs, in the same regions, earn similar amounts of money, and have similar ethnic profiles as their counterparts without disabilities. However, staff with disabilities were more likely to be women: 59% were women and 41% were men. Consistent with the propensity for disability to increase with age, staff with disabilities had an older age profile than other public servants (see Figure 12.1).

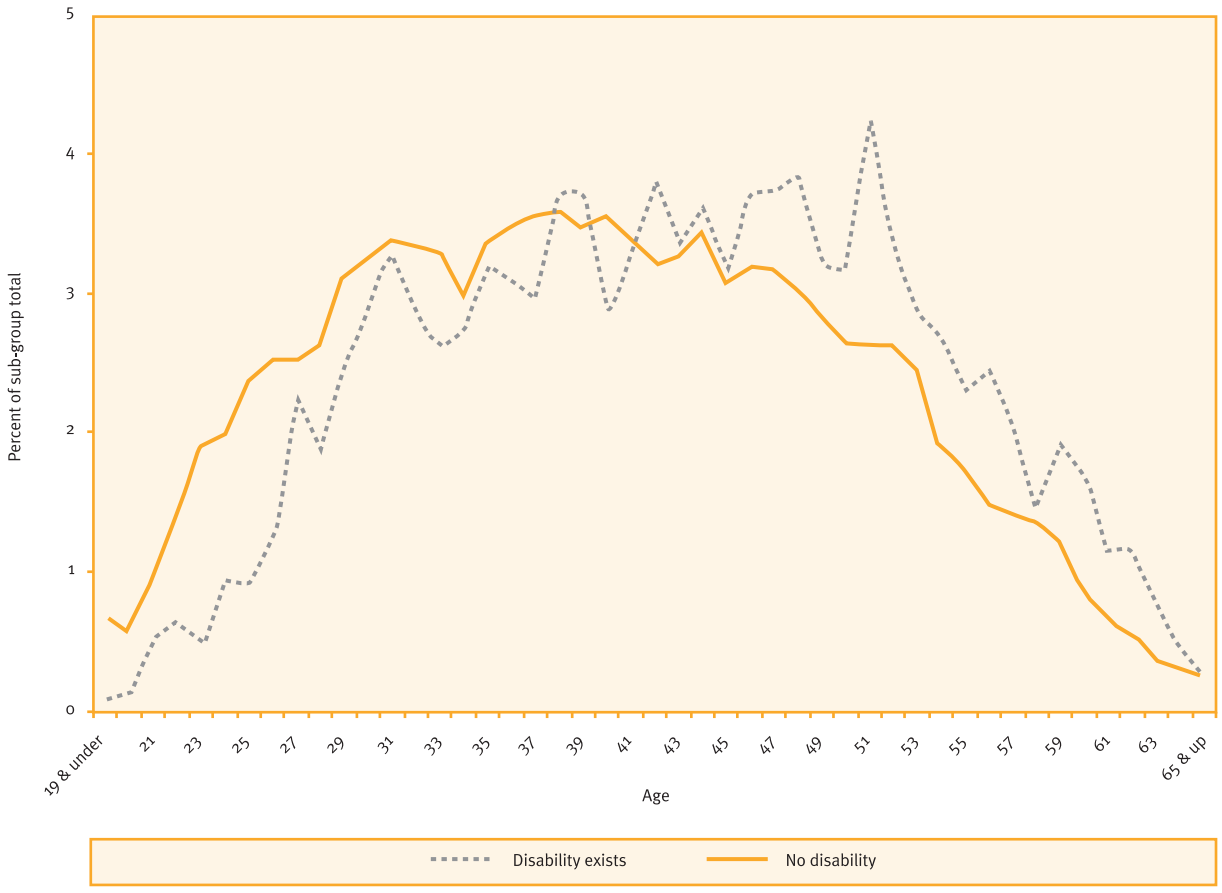
12.3 Career aspirations

Staff with disabilities did not differ from other public servants in their desire to hold a position at a higher level in the Public Service some time in the future.

When asked what had deterred them from applying for a higher-level job in the 12 months prior to the survey, the responses of staff with disabilities mirrored those of other staff on some factors and contrasted on others. Staff with disabilities were equally likely (25%) to cite concerns that a higher-level job would compromise their ability to balance their work and family responsibilities. They were also equally likely to be put off applying for a more senior

[148] Cleland, G. *Improving the Effectiveness of Recruitment and Retention for Policy Graduates with Disabilities in the Public Service*. 2001.

Figure 12.1 Age and disability in the Public Service workforce, 2000



job because they perceived they lacked the requisite experience (26%).

Some other areas were of particular concern to staff with disabilities:

- they were more likely to report that concerns about their health had deterred them from seeking a higher-level job (30% compared with 4% for other staff);
- they were more likely to report that concerns that the selection process would not be fair had deterred them: a quarter reported this, compared with 17% of staff without disabilities; and
- they were also more likely to say that a lack of support from their manager had deterred them from seeking a more senior job (18% compared with 11%).

12.4 Motivations and values

Regardless of whether they had disabilities, public servants appeared to be motivated by similar things. They wanted challenging work that gave them a sense of accomplishment and they wanted to be managed well. The majority of staff – with or without disabilities – appeared satisfied that their Public Service jobs offered them challenging work, but they were relatively less satisfied with their sense of accomplishment and the overall quality of management.

There were three areas where staff with disabilities appeared less satisfied than other staff:

- proportionately fewer staff with disabilities indicated their jobs were "Good" in terms of pay and benefits (23% compared with 30% of staff without disabilities);

- proportionately fewer staff with disabilities indicated their jobs were "Good" at providing them with a reasonable workload (22% compared with 35%); and
- 9% of staff with disabilities felt their opportunities for advancement were "Good", compared with 13% of staff without disabilities.

12.5 Development and training opportunities

Staff with disabilities did not differ from other public servants in terms of the value they attached to development and training opportunities. Typically, public servants considered informal development opportunities as more important than formal training for their career development. In general, satisfaction with development and training opportunities was not high.

The only area where staff with disabilities differed from other staff was in terms of access to work on high-profile projects. Staff with disabilities were more likely to rate their organisations as "Poor" at providing these opportunities. Of those to whom it applied, 38% of staff with disabilities indicated their organisation was "Poor" in this regard, compared with 26% of staff without disabilities.

12.6 Encouragement and support from managers and mentors

Managers influence the conditions under which staff work, the expectations and demands placed upon them, and consequently their sense of job satisfaction and loyalty to the organisation. Through performance management they also play an important role in providing feedback on performance and brokering access to development opportunities and career-enhancing work experience.

Staff painted a positive picture of their immediate managers. On most areas, staff with disabilities appeared to experience their managers in a similar way to other staff. However, there were some notable differences:

- proportionately fewer staff with disabilities rated their immediate manager as "Good" at encouraging and supporting their career development (44% compared with 55% of staff without disabilities). As noted earlier, staff with disabilities were also more likely than other staff to cite a lack of support from their manager as having deterred them from applying for a more senior job; and
- staff with disabilities were also more likely to rate their managers as "Poor" at allowing them the freedom to use initiative in carrying out their work (12% compared with 7%), and at taking a flexible and supportive approach to resolving work and family conflicts (18% compared with 10%).

With regard to mentoring, staff with disabilities indicated in similar proportions to other staff (18%) that they had mentors. Those who did not already have access to a formal mentoring scheme did not differ from public servants overall in their desire for formal mentoring.

12.7 Work environment

Being treated fairly and working in an environment where staff worked co-operatively, where their ideas are valued and where they had equitable access to rewards were important to the majority of public servants, regardless of whether they had disabilities. However, the majority of public servants did not appear to be particularly satisfied with their work environment.

Staff with disabilities gave similar responses to other staff in rating their work environments. They were less satisfied than people without disabilities on the extent to which they felt that staff worked co-operatively – 18% gave a "Poor" rating on this, compared with 12% of other staff. However, they were as satisfied as other staff with their physical workspace ("work-area design"). This might suggest that one area where government departments have succeeded in improving conditions for people with disabilities is in terms of improving physical access and conditions in the workplace.

12.8 Balancing work and other commitments – the life/work juggle

Balancing the demands of work and life is more than just allowing flexible work practices and more than just being 'family-friendly'. It is about creating a work culture where the tensions between work and non-work lives are minimised. This means having appropriate employment provisions in place, and organisational systems and supportive management underpinning them. In short, it is about creating an environment where individuals can fulfil their work obligations and 'have a life' as well.

Staff with disabilities did not differ from other staff in terms of the work/life and flexibility issues that were important to them. They were as likely as other staff to work more hours than they were employed for. However,

as noted above, staff with disabilities were less satisfied that their jobs provided a reasonable workload. Only 22% of staff with disabilities rated their jobs as "Good" on this front, compared with 35% of other staff. For people with disabilities, having a manageable workload would seem to be particularly important.

Staff with disabilities were as likely as other staff to have or to share primary responsibility for the care of dependants. They were as satisfied as other staff with their access to parental and caregiver leave. However, also as noted above, they appeared less satisfied that their manager took a flexible and supportive approach to resolving work and family conflicts: 18% rated their manager as "Poor" on this, compared with 10% of staff without disabilities.

12.9 Perceptions of unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour

12.9.1 Unfair treatment

People with disabilities were more likely to report that they had been treated less favourably than others because of a personal attribute. One-third (34%) of staff with disabilities indicated this, compared with 19% of staff without disabilities. However, when they were asked to indicate which attribute they felt was the basis for the less favourable treatment, proportionately more indicated that age was the cause than said their disability was. Proportionately more staff with disabilities (9%) than staff without disabilities (4%) indicated age to be the attribute responsible for the less favourable treatment. As noted above, the propensity to have disabilities increases with age. Clearly, individuals embody a range of characteristics and it is difficult to determine the relative effects of one over another. Sometimes these effects are cumulative and can lead individuals to experience double discrimination.

12.9.2 Unwelcome behaviour

Staff with disabilities also indicated in greater proportions than staff without disabilities that within the previous 12 months they had experienced unwelcome behaviour that had served to humiliate, intimidate or offend them (45%, compared with 33% of staff without disabilities).

Generally, the types of behaviours that staff with disabilities reported experiencing were similar to the behaviours reported by other staff. However, people with disabilities were more likely than other staff to report being set unrealistic goals (26% compared with 15%). When coupled with the fact that staff with disabilities had a greater propensity to report that their workloads were not reasonable, this might suggest that managers may not be as sensitive to the needs of staff with disabilities as they might be.

12.10 Conclusions

The results from the Career Progression and Development Survey suggest that some people with disabilities may not have been getting as much support and understanding from their managers as they would wish, especially in relation to their desire to advance their careers. While in general, like other staff, they rated their managers highly, they appeared less satisfied that managers actively encouraged their career development, and cited lack of support from managers as a deterrent to applying for higher-level jobs. They also rated managers less well than did other staff on being allowed to use their initiative in carrying out their work. They were less satisfied that they had access to high-profile work. While perceptions of opportunities for advancement were generally low for all staff, they were even lower for people with disabilities.

Some fairness issues also emerged in the results. People with disabilities were more likely than other staff to report that concerns about the fairness of selection processes had put them off applying for a more senior job. They were more likely to report having experienced unfair treatment, although notably on the grounds of age more than disability.

Staff with disabilities were as likely as other staff to work more hours than they were employed for. However, they appeared less satisfied that their jobs involved a reasonable workload, and were more likely to report being set unrealistic goals. And while they were as likely to report having caregiving responsibilities, they were less satisfied that their managers took a flexible and supportive approach to work and family conflicts. They were as satisfied as other staff with their access to parental and caregiver leave.

While the barriers of the physical environment did not feature in their responses to the survey, the potential barriers created by the social environment did emerge as an issue. Staff with disabilities were slightly less satisfied with the extent to which staff overall worked co-operatively. Their greater propensity to report having experienced unwelcome behaviour suggests that other

staff may not be as aware and inclusive of staff with disabilities as they might be.

It is important to reiterate that people with disabilities are a diverse group. Some have significant needs for support in employment, others have few. Overall, people with disabilities appeared to have the same aspirations to advance their careers and had similar expectations to other staff as to how that should occur.

The New Zealand Disability Strategy, launched in April 2001 (after this survey was carried out), aims to ensure that government departments and other government agencies consider people with disabilities before making decisions. It requires, among other things, that government departments develop annual plans to implement the strategy.

The report on the Career Progression and Development Survey provides information that may be used by government departments to ensure that, as employers, they are responsive to the needs of staff with disabilities, including their need and expressed desire to advance in their careers. The results suggest some need for increasing the level of disability awareness across the Public Service.

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

MANAGERS IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

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MANAGERS IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

The State Services Commissioner has been concerned for some time about enhancing the size and diversity of the pool from which senior managers and eventually chief executives are drawn. Introducing the Senior Executive Service, now practically defunct, was one attempt to improve management development and succession planning in the Public Service. The current Senior Leadership and Management Development Programme is taking a new and comprehensive approach to this strategic human resource area.

Managers are key players in the Public Service, providing leadership and direction and ensuring that Public Service organisations are run efficiently and effectively, and are responsive to the public they serve. The Career Progression and Development Survey findings highlight the importance of managers in facilitating the employment experiences and career development of staff. Managers mediate the way staff experience their organisation, and influence staff's day-to-day work, development opportunities, career development, and even the extent to which they are able to balance their work and other aspects of their lives.

Managers are also employees. They in turn have career aspirations and are seeking development opportunities, a good working environment and work that allows them to balance their work and other commitments. By comparing the survey responses of managers with those of non-managers, a picture can be painted of managers' relative satisfaction with their Public Service jobs and their career progression opportunities. The perceptions of current Public Service managers can provide pointers for future management development and succession planning in the Public Service.

13.1 Profile of managers in the Public Service

As at June 2000, the managers[149] occupation group accounted for 9% of the Public Service workforce. The single largest group of managers was in the administration manager occupation group (41%), followed by office manager (27%), and general manager (10%). These managerial groups are relatively generic categories, based on the tasks and skills required of the managerial job. The remaining manager classifications cover more specific functions, such as finance, human resources, information technology, and communications.

31.1.1 Regional breakdown

Given the Head Office locations of most Public Service departments it is not surprising that over half of all managers worked in the Wellington region (53%). Auckland accounted for 12% of managers, and Waikato and Canterbury each employed approximately 7%. The remaining managers worked in the other regions.

13.1.2 Gender, ethnicity and age

Women made up 40% of the managers group in the Public Service, basically equivalent to their representation in management in the employed labour force (39%). One-third of senior managers (tiers 1 to 3) were women.

10% of Public Service managers were Māori, whereas Māori made up 6% of managers in the employed labour force[150].

Managers are typically older on average than non-managers and this was true of the Public Service as well. The median age for managers was 45 years, compared to 40 years for non-managers.

13.1.3 Length of service

Not surprisingly given their age and seniority, managers have generally worked in the Public Service longer than their non-manager counterparts. Approximately 23% of managers reported having worked in their current organisation for more than 20 years, while 45% had worked in the Public Service for more than 20 years. While some managers seem to have developed a career within the same organisation, it seems more common that their careers include jobs in several Public Service organisations.

As at 30 June 2000, the core unplanned turnover[151] rate for managers was 11%, the same as the Public Service average.

[149] Occupations have been classified using the NZ Standard Classification of Occupations (NZSCO). Detailed occupation codes have been grouped together in a structure that more closely reflects the occupations in the Public Service.
[150] Statistics New Zealand. *Household Labour Force Survey (June 2000 Quarter)*, Wellington, SNZ, 2000.
[151] Core unplanned turnover shows the number of unplanned cessations (primarily resignations) of open-term staff as a proportion of total open-term employment.

13.2 Aspirations and intentions

Managers showed high aspirations to reach senior positions in the Public Service:

- more than two-thirds (69%) reported wanting a more senior job, compared with 58% of non-managers;
- just over a quarter (26%) of managers wanted to become a chief executive, almost twice the proportion of non-managers (14%) who did; and
- female and male managers were equally likely to want a more senior job, and to reach the level of chief executive.

One in five managers overall was thinking about changing jobs. However, only 15% of female managers were thinking about changing jobs, compared with 23% of male managers. Some of this difference may reflect the extent to which women managers, in general, have shorter tenure in their current organisations than male managers, and hence might not yet have accomplished all they wanted in those jobs.

Managers (women and men equally) appeared to have broader horizons than non-managers:

- 63% of managers, compared with 55% of non-managers, said they were prepared to move into another work area in order to progress their careers;
- managers (58% of both men and women) were also more likely than non-managers (48%) to see the private sector as a viable employment option;
- female and male managers were equally willing to move geographically to advance their careers. Managers overall (33%) were more prepared to relocate than were non-managers (27%); and
- managers based outside Wellington were as prepared to relocate as Wellington-based managers in order to further their careers. They appeared *more* prepared to move work areas and/or to move to the private sector, perhaps reflecting the extent to which alternative job options in the regions are less likely to be in the Public Service.

13.2.1 Deterrents to applying for a more senior job

When asked what had deterred them from applying for a more senior job in the Public Service in the 12 months prior to the survey, a quarter of managers cited concerns that they would not be able to balance their work and family responsibilities. Women and men were equally likely to report this. Almost a quarter of managers also said they did not want to relocate to take up a more senior job. There was no difference between female and male managers on this factor either. However, almost a third (31%) of managers based outside Wellington cited "No desire to relocate" as a deterrent to seeking a higher-level job, compared with only 15% of Wellington managers. Managers (14%) were less likely than non-managers (20%) to be put off applying for a more senior job because of the long hours associated with those jobs.

Managers (16%) were far less likely than non-managers (28%) to cite a lack of experience as having deterred them from seeking a more senior job. However, within the managers group, women managers (23%) were far more likely than their male counterparts (13%) to report this. Indeed, this was the only gender difference amongst managers in terms of deterrents to applying for a higher-level job. It may reflect the extent to which male managers tended to be older and to have had more Public Service experience (longer tenure) than women managers. Proportionately more women managers reported having 11-15 years' experience in the Public Service, but male managers (55%) were twice as likely as women managers (26%) to report having more than 20 years' experience. However, there may also be an element of women underestimating their experience and their readiness for more senior positions, which has been shown in the literature[152] to dissuade women from applying for higher-level jobs.

Although managers are arguably closer to the political frontline, they were no more likely than non-managers to say they were deterred by the political nature of higher-level jobs. 18% of public servants overall said that the political nature of higher-level jobs had deterred them from applying for one.

Managers (11%) were less likely than non-managers (19%) to report that concerns about the fairness of selection processes had put them off applying for a more

[152] For example, see Burton, Clare, *The Promise and the Price*, Sydney, Allen and Unwin, 1991.

senior job. Managers were perhaps more familiar with selection processes generally (not just those where they were a candidate) and were more likely to understand how and why decisions are made, and that these decisions might often involve 'trade-offs'.

13.3 What motivates managers?

A PricewaterhouseCoopers study of government executives in the United States found that *"…the rewards for a career in government service are primarily non-financial. The most frequent reason given by career executives was that their government work was interesting, exciting, and challenging. One interpretation of these results is that, for a sustained career in government, the work itself has to be appealing"*[153]. The Career Progression and Development Survey results suggest that this is also true for managers in the New Zealand Public Service.

Like other public servants, managers considered having feelings of accomplishment, quality of management and challenging work as the most important general workplace factors. Having challenging work was even more important to managers than to non-managers (88% compared to 75% considered it "Highly important"). While pay and benefits were ranked consistently as the fourth highest priority overall, they were less important to managers than to non-managers (58% of managers compared with 72% of non-managers considered them "Highly important" to their jobs and careers). Managers also attached less importance than non-managers to job security (45% compared with 69%), having a reasonable workload (35% compared to 60%) and working standard hours (9% compared with 33%). Managers were no more likely than non-managers (59% overall) to consider the reputations of the organisations they worked as "Highly important", despite the potential for the organisational reputation to reflect on their personal reputations more than it would for non-managers.

Male and female managers were remarkably consistent in their views on what factors were most important to their jobs and careers.

13.3.1 Are their expectations being met?

Managers appeared generally more satisfied than non-managers that their jobs provided them with the work and motivation factors they considered most important.

13.3.1.1 Feelings of accomplishment and challenging work

Managers (55% rating "Good") appeared more satisfied than non-managers (42%) with their sense of accomplishment. As managers they are likely to have more control over what they do and are more able to "make things happen". Indeed satisfaction with feelings of accomplishment appeared to increase with age, perhaps reflecting increasing seniority. While there was no difference between male and female managers in terms of their "Good" ratings on this factor, 10% of male managers compared with 4% of female managers rated

Table 13.1 Motivation factors: differences between managers and non-managers

Thinking about work and workplaces in general, how important are the following factors to you personally?	*Managers % "Highly important"*	*Non-managers % "Highly important"*
Challenging work	88	75
Pay and benefits	58	72
Job security	45	69
Reasonable workload	35	60
Standard hours	9	33

[153] PricewaterhouseCoopers Endowment for the Business of Government. *Government Leadership Survey*, 1999.

their jobs as "Poor" at providing them with a sense of accomplishment.

Managers appeared considerably more satisfied than other staff that their jobs were challenging: 82% gave a "Good" rating, compared with 57% of non-managerial staff.

13.3.1.2 Quality of management and organisational reputation

Managers (36%) were more likely than non-managers (29%) to rate the overall quality of management as "Good" and less likely to rate it as "Poor" (17% compared to 25%). However, satisfaction amongst managers on this factor was not high, despite the extent to which they were more likely than non-managers to have some influence over the overall management of the organisations in which they worked. Similarly, managers concurred with non-managers in rating the reputations of the organisations they worked in (30% overall rated them as "Good" while 26% rated them as "Poor").

13.3.1.3 Pay and benefits

Managers (43%) were more likely than non-managers (27%) to rate their pay and benefits as "Good", and less likely to rate them as "Poor" (14% compared with 25%) – probably reflecting their higher earning potential – but, as mentioned above, pay and benefits were relatively less important to managers than to their non-managerial colleagues.

13.3.1.4 Workloads and standard hours

Managers appeared less satisfied than other staff that their jobs involved a reasonable workload. Similar proportions of managers rated their jobs as "Poor" (30%) and as "Good" (26%) on that front. Perhaps as a result of their relatively heavy workloads, 96% of managers also reported working more hours than they were employed for (compared with 71% of non-managers). Concerns about heavy workloads and working long hours to meet performance expectations were major themes in qualitative responses to the survey, and were expressed by staff at both management and non-management levels. Reflecting the extent to which managerial jobs typically involve some non-standard hours, managers (38%) were less likely than non-managers (59%) to rate their jobs as "Good" on this factor. Indeed almost one in five (19%) managers rated their jobs as "Poor" in terms of being able to work standard hours, compared with 8% of non-managerial staff.

13.3.1.5 Job security

Managers were less likely than non-managers to feel they had "Good" job security (44% compared with 52%) but, as noted above, job security was considerably less important to them than to non-managers.

13.3.1.6 Opportunities for advancement

Managers appeared less dissatisfied than non-managers that their jobs offered them opportunities for advancement, perhaps reflecting the extent to which management skills were perceived to be 'transferable'. Managers were less likely than non-managers to rate their opportunities for advancement as "Poor" (39% compared with 52%), and more likely to rate them as "Good" (17% compared with 12%). Moreover, female managers (32%) were less likely than their male counterparts (43%) to rate their advancement opportunities as "Poor". This might reflect the extent to which women managers are generally in lower level management positions than male managers and hence may see more room for advancement.

13.4 Development and training

The literature on training and development suggests that different types of development opportunities are important at different stages of an individual's career. Training to develop the right technical skills and qualifications is more important for advancement at the lower levels of organisational hierarchies, but to reach the top echelons of management 'being seen' and belonging to the right networks is more important. Having the opportunity to 'act up' and to work on high-profile projects is likely to put individuals in a position where they are visible to senior management and able to establish relationships with them. Previous studies have also shown that employees in 'advantaged' positions – for example, managers more than other staff and men more than women – tend to get superior access to training and development opportunities[154].

The Career Progression and Development Survey results corroborate most of the previous findings in the area of training and development for managers.

13.4.1 What development and training opportunities are important to managers?

Like other staff, managers considered informal development opportunities as more important than formal training for their career development. When asked

[154] Long, Michael, Ryan, Rose, Burke, Gerald and Hopkins, Sonnie. *Enterprise-based Education and Training: A Literature Review*, [Wellington] Ministry of Education, 2000.

how important a range of factors was to their jobs and careers, managers considered demonstrating their skills and abilities and gaining experience in a range of tasks as their top two priorities followed by on-the-job training and training courses and seminars, which were ranked as equally important to them. However, in line with the literature, managers differed from their non-managerial colleagues in terms of the relative importance they attached to some of the development opportunities surveyed:

- 58% of managers compared with 80% of non-managers considered on-the-job training "Highly important";
- 58% of managers considered training courses and seminars to be "Highly important", compared with 68% of other staff; and
- managers attached less importance to study leave (31% "Highly important" compared with 40%).

In contrast, they attached greater importance to the development factors associated with 'being seen' and involving some 'stretch':

- 43% of managers considered working on high-profile projects to be "Highly important", compared with 35% of non-managers; and
- 44% of managers, compared with 33% of non-managers, considered opportunities to 'act up' to be "Highly important".

There were no differences in the responses of women managers and male managers in terms of the importance attached to the various training and development factors surveyed. Women and men appeared to value the same sorts of development opportunities.

13.4.2 Are development and training expectations being met?

As is consistent with previous studies, managers were more satisfied than non-managers with their access to all of the development opportunities included in the survey, bar one (on-the-job training) where their satisfaction mirrored that of other staff.

As Table 13.2 shows, a notable 61% of managers, compared with 42% of non-managers, rated their departments as "Good" at providing them with opportunities to demonstrate their skills and abilities. Proportionately more managers than non-managers also rated their organisations as "Good" at allowing them to gain experience in a range of tasks (48% of managers compared with 37% of non-managers) and at giving them access to training courses and seminars (46% compared with 36%). There was no difference in the

Table 13.2 Ratings of their organisation's provision of development and training opportunities: differences between managers and non-managers

Thinking about your own situation in your current organisation within the past 12 months, how would you rate your organisation on providing the following opportunities?	*Managers % "Good"*	*Non-managers % "Good"*
Demonstrating my skills and abilities	61	42
Working on high-profile projects*	52	32
Gaining experience in a range of tasks	48	37
Training courses and seminars	46	36
Study leave to further my qualifications*	44	31
Acting in higher positions*	36	22
Secondment to other work areas or organisations*	30	23

* Percentage of those responding that the provision was applicable to them.

ratings for on-the-job training (35% overall). Of those who responded that the provision was applicable to them, managers were more likely than non-managers to rate as "Good" their access to study leave (44% compared with 31%), work on high-profile projects (52% compared with 32%), opportunities to 'act up' (36% compared with 22%), and secondments (30% compared with 23%).

"[What has helped me is] strong organisational commitment to management development [and] real encouragement to identify and attend courses of interest and overseas executive development programmes."

It might be expected that managers would have greater access to work on high-profile projects (where experience and judgement are required to manage potential risk) and greater opportunities to act in higher positions (which are typically management roles anyway). It is less expected that managers would have superior access to study leave and secondments. Interestingly, managers were also less likely to report any of these opportunities as "Not applicable" to them, perhaps indicating their expectations that they should have access to them.

There were some regional differences, with managers based in Wellington being less satisfied with their opportunities to 'act up' and with their access to work on high-profile projects. Of those for whom it was applicable, 26% of managers based outside Wellington, compared with 40% of Wellington managers, gave "Good" ratings on opportunities to 'act up', while 35% compared with 61% gave "Good" ratings on access to work on high-profile projects. This probably reflects the extent to which most management jobs are based in Wellington. It is not surprising that there would also be more management vacancies to fill (including in an acting capacity) in Wellington. It is also not surprising that work of a political or high-profile nature is more likely to occur in Wellington, where the top decision-makers are based. Wellington managers are therefore better placed to be involved in this work. Wellington-based and non-Wellington-based managers attached equal importance to the various development and training factors surveyed.

In a report for the US Glass Ceiling Commission, Wernick[155] suggested that women managers have limited access to the development experiences that build the credibility and visibility needed to advance to senior management positions. Whether or not this is true in the New Zealand Public Service, women managers did not perceive it to be the case. Indeed, there were virtually no gender differences at the management level in staff ratings of their access to development opportunities. Instead, in the only difference that did emerge, women managers were more positive in their ratings than their male counterparts. Women managers were more likely than their male counterparts to report "Good" access to opportunities to 'act up' (46% of women managers compared with 31% of male managers for whom it was applicable). Given that women managers cited lack of experience as a deterrent to applying for a higher-level job, and that they appeared to value development factors likely to enhance their work experience, this would seem to be a good sign for the future. However, it may also reflect the extent to which women are generally in lower-level management jobs, and hence there are more senior jobs above them for opportunities to 'act up'.

In qualitative responses, managers cited opportunities to move outside their work area, senior management commitment to training, and specific management development training as having enhanced their careers.

13.5 Managers and mentors

13.5.1 Managing managers

As discussed in Chapter 5, managers influence the day-to-day experiences of their staff and the quality and pace of their career development. Managers, too, have managers, and in the Career Progression and Development Survey they, like other staff, were given the opportunity to rate their immediate managers or supervisors against a range of factors. How managers rated their own managers on these factors gives an indication of how good senior Public Service managers are at 'people management'. The survey results also make it possible to compare the relative satisfaction of managers and non-managers in terms of the support and encouragement they received from their immediate supervisors.

13.5.1.1 Good overall support

Managers' ratings of their own immediate supervisors gives some assessment of the management skills of senior

[155] Wernick, Ellen D. *Preparedness, Career Advancement and the Glass Ceiling*. Draft report to the Glass Ceiling Commission, US Department of Labor, 1994.

managers in the Public Service. In rating their managers on the overall support received, managers painted a positive picture of senior managers in the Public Service. Like other staff, 65% of managers rated the overall support they received from their immediate manager or supervisor as "Good".

13.5.1.2 Specific aspects of management

The responses of managers in rating their own managers largely mirror the patterns of other staff. Managers perceived their managers as good at allowing them to use their initiative and encouraging their input into decisions that affected them. Indeed managers were more satisfied than other staff with their own managers on these two factors. 87% of managers, compared to 77% of other staff, said their manager was "Good" at allowing them to use initiative in carrying out their work. Managers (7%) were less likely than non-managers (13%) to rate their own managers as "Poor" on encouraging input into decisions. Both results probably reflect managers' greater control and autonomy over their work content.

Managers were as satisfied as other staff that their managers took a flexible and supportive approach to resolving work and family conflicts. 59% of public servants, regardless of managerial status, rated their managers as "Good" on this front.

Managers were no more likely than other staff to rate their own managers well on aspects of management most related to career development: giving regular performance feedback, acknowledging good performance and encouraging and supporting their career development. While at least half of staff, managers or otherwise, rated their managers as "Good" on these factors, they were the aspects of management where managers (as well as other staff) rated their managers least well. Given that there were no differences in ratings, regardless of managerial status, gender or ethnicity, this suggests that these are areas of management where some improvement would be warranted across the Public Service. The way managers rated their immediate supervisors suggests that senior managers are no better in these areas than are those in lower managerial tiers.

In qualitative comments, managers mentioned the support of their managers – in particular allowing them freedom and autonomy – as having enhanced their career development.

13.5.2 Mentoring managers

The literature on mentoring is consistent in demonstrating that individuals who are mentored are more frequently promoted, have more career mobility, and advance faster[156].

The Career Progression and Development Survey asked public servants to indicate whether they had a mentor, if they had made contact with that mentor through a formal mentoring scheme and, if not, whether they would like access to a formal scheme.

It might be expected that managers in general would be more likely to engage a mentor to advise them on strategies for moving up the management ladder, and to act as a sponsor or champion to help them establish their credentials at the most senior levels of management. In contrast, the survey showed that managers overall were no more likely than non-managers to have a mentor. 18% of public servants overall had one.

Notably, women managers were considerably more likely to have a mentor than their male counterparts (28% of women managers compared with 16% of male managers). This finding contrasts with the literature, which generally argues that women have more difficulty establishing mentoring relationships, partly due to the relative dearth of women in senior management positions to act as mentors and/or because mentoring relationships between women and men can be misconstrued. Yet research has also suggested that mentoring is especially important for women managers in their attempts to move

> ***"The support of a very good team, a good direct manager, and being provided the freedom to develop and run the operation with performance based on results, feedback and outcomes delivered [have helped me]."***

[156] For a discussion of some of this literature see Loughlin, Sue, *Barriers to Women's Career Progression: A Review of the Literature*, Wellington, State Services Commission, Working Paper No. 6, 1999.

up the hierarchy. For example, research on women CEOs in the USA found that almost all of them (91%) had been mentored at some time and almost as many (81%) said that their mentors were critical or fairly important to their careers[157]. The greater propensity for women managers in the Public Service to have a mentor might reflect both their greater need for one and/or deliberate attempts by women to seek extra support for their career advancement.

13.5.2.1 Formal or informal mentors

Managers were no more likely than other staff to have made contact with their mentor through a formal mentoring programme. Only 14% of mentored staff overall had made contact with their mentor through a formal programme. These findings suggest that there are few operational formal mentoring programmes in the Public Service for managers or staff and/or they are not well subscribed. Most mentoring relationships appear to be the result of individuals' actively searching out informal mentoring relationships for themselves.

The survey questionnaire did not ask public servants to identify the sex or ethnicity of their mentor, or whether their mentor worked within or outside the organisation where the protégé worked, so no light can be shed on who was acting as mentors.

13.5.2.2 Is mentoring making a difference?

There was a range of differences between mentored and non-mentored staff in terms of their work expectations and experiences (see section 5.2.4) and those differences also applied within the managers group. For example, mentored staff attached more importance to all of the development and training opportunities surveyed and appeared more satisfied with their access to them.

13.5.2.3 Demand for access to formal mentoring

Staff who either did not have a mentor, or who had an informal one were asked if they would like access to a formal mentoring scheme. Proportionately more managers (43%) than non-managers (37%) reported a desire for access to a formal mentoring scheme. Male and female managers concurred on this. Formal mentoring therefore appeared to be perceived as important for progression to the higher ranks of the Public Service.

13.6 Work environment

Like other public servants, managers considered being treated fairly (94%), working in an environment where staff worked co-operatively (88%), where their ideas were valued (81%), and where they had equitable access to rewards (75%) as the most important aspect of their work environment. However, managers attached less importance than non-managers to work-area design (41% compared with 59% of non-managers) and the ability to accommodate their outside commitments at work (31% compared with 44%).

Managers were generally happier than non-managers with their work environment. Their responses mirrored those of non-managers on the extent to which they felt staff worked co-operatively. However, they were more likely than non-managers to rate their organisation as "Good" and less likely to rate it as "Poor" on having their ideas valued, equitable access to rewards, work-area design, accommodation of outside commitments, and being treated fairly. Half of managers but only a third of non-managers rated their organisation as "Good" in relation to having their ideas valued. On equitable access to rewards, just over one in three managers (35%) compared with one in five non-managers gave "Good" ratings, while one in five managers gave "Poor" ratings compared to 37% of non-managers.

There was remarkable concurrence between male and female managers, and between Wellington managers and those based outside Wellington, in how they rated their organisations on the work environment factors. There were no differences based on gender or region.

Overall, the differences between managers and non-managers are likely to reflect the extent to which managers have greater control over their work environment, or at least are able to see the trade-offs in the allocation of, for example, rewards and workspace. Their relative satisfaction with their work-area design probably reflects the extent to which managers are likely to have better accommodation than other staff. However, even though managers are more likely to have access to the 'big picture' – the reasons behind 'who gets what'– they were no more likely than non-managers to feel they were treated fairly. And despite their being relatively more satisfied on some factors than non-managers, it

[157] Raggins, Bell Rose, Townsend, Bickley and Mattis, Mary. "Gender gap in the executive suite: CEOs and female executives report on breaking the glass ceiling", in *Academy of Management Executive*, 12(1), 1998.

would be hard to describe managers as satisfied per se. For example, one in five of them rated their physical workspace and the extent to which they had equitable access to rewards as "Poor".

13.7 Balancing work and other commitments – the life/work juggle

The survey results can be pulled together to give a composite picture of life/work balance. This section outlines the differences between managers and non-managers, and between male and female managers, on both the importance attached to life/work balance and the relative ability to achieve it while working in a management position in the Public Service.

13.7.1 Hours of work, workload and flexible working arrangements

Managers were more likely than non-managers to work extra hours. As stated earlier, 96% of managers (compared to 71% of non-managers) reported that they usually worked additional hours. 17% of managers (compared with only 2% of non-managers) reported working an additional 15-20 hours a week. 5% of managers reported working 20 or more additional hours a week. There was no difference between male and female managers on the propensity to work additional hours. It is impossible to tell whether working additional hours is driven by an expectation that managers *should* work long hours, by perceptions that putting in long hours is seen as a way to get ahead, or simply by the volume of work. As noted earlier, managers appeared less than satisfied that their jobs involved a "reasonable workload", with 30% rating their jobs as "Poor" on this front (compared to 19% of non-managers).

According to the Commission's Human Resource Capability data for June 2000, only 1% of managers work part-time. Further research would be required to determine whether managers do not seek reduced hours work options (and choose to work full-time) or whether there is little acceptance of part-time work at the management level. Any inquiry might also include a look at the costs and benefits of part-time work and at examples of arrangements such as job sharing at the management level.

Managers attached less importance than non-managers to the ability to work flexible hours (32% of managers compared with 49% of non-managers considered this "Highly important"). Managers were marginally more satisfied on this front than non-managers. They were equally likely to rate their organisation as "Good" (61%) but less likely to rate their organisation as "Poor" (6% compared with 10%) at allowing them to work flexible hours. This perhaps reflects the greater autonomy managers typically have over their work schedules.

Managers were more satisfied than non-managers with their ability to work from home. 44% of managers compared with 27% of non-managers (for whom it was applicable) rated their organisation as "Good" on this front. Working from home also appeared more applicable to managers than to non-managers, with 34% of managers, compared with 60% of other staff, giving a "Not applicable" rating. Again, this probably points to managers' greater autonomy over where and when they work and the types of work that can be done outside the workplace.

13.7.2 Family responsibilities

Managers were as likely as non-managers (42%) to report having responsibilities for the care of dependants. Female and male managers were also equally likely to have caregiving responsibilities.

While both parental leave and caregiver leave were overall less important to managers than to non-managers, managers appeared more satisfied with their access to both provisions. Of those for whom it was applicable, three-quarters of managers, compared to 56% of non-managers, rated their organisations as "Good" at providing parental leave, while 62% of managers, compared to 52% of non-managers, rated their departments as "Good" at providing caregiver leave.

Recent research[158] has confirmed that women still assume the bulk of caregiving responsibility, and that this impacts more on women's than men's working lives. Both parental leave and caregiver leave were more important to women managers than to their male counterparts. Despite concurring with their male counterparts on most areas of the survey, women managers' responses in these areas *contrasted* with those of male managers:

[158] *Childcare, Families and Work. The New Zealand Childcare Survey 1998: A Survey of Early Childhood Education and Care Arrangements for Children*. Wellington, Department of Labour/NACEW, 1999, p 58; *Around the Clock: Findings from the New Zealand Time Use Survey 1998-99*. Wellington, Statistics New Zealand/Ministry of Women's Affairs, 2001, p 31.

- women managers (22%) were almost three times as likely as male managers (8%) to consider caregiver leave to be "Highly important"; and
- they were three times more likely to consider parental leave as "Highly important" (24% compared to 8% of male managers).

However, there were no differences between male and female managers in their ratings of their organisations on these provisions.

As noted earlier, managers (male and female equally) were as likely as non-managers to report that concerns about being able to balance work and family responsibilities had deterred them from seeking a more senior job. This was the deterrent that managers cited most often. That a quarter of managers reported not putting themselves forward for more senior posts because they perceived those jobs to be less than conducive to fulfilling family responsibilities is relevant to succession planning in the Public Service. This work/family clash would be an issue to explore further in researching factors impinging on the development of the pool from which future senior managers can be drawn.

13.7.3 Other non-work responsibilities

Leave for cultural reasons was less important to managers than to non-managers. 8% of managers compared to 16% of non-managers considered it "Highly important". However, of those for whom it was applicable, managers (77% rating "Good") were much more satisfied than non-managers (55%) with their access to this provision. Again this probably indicates managers' greater relative autonomy over their time use.

Managers were more satisfied than other staff that they were able to accommodate their outside commitments at work, with 43% compared with 36% of non-managers rating their organisation as "Good" on this front.

13.7.4 Life/work balance scorecard for managers

In general, managers attached less importance than non-managers to most of the life/work balance issues (although this applied less to women managers than to men). It is unclear whether this is because in assuming a management role they have already resigned themselves to working long hours, assuming a heavy workload, and giving priority to their work over other aspects of their lives. However, managers appeared more satisfied on most of the life/work balance factors, with the exception of the extent to which their jobs involved a reasonable workload. As managers, they would also be more likely to be better paid than other staff which might allow them to employ help with some of their domestic responsibilities, easing the life/work juggle. Managers' sensitivities to the non-work responsibilities of their staff were seen in other parts of this report to have a significant impact on the ability of staff to balance their work and non-work commitments. Managers, therefore, would need to be careful that their relative satisfaction with their life/work balance did not bias their sensitivities to the difficulties of their staff in this domain.

13.8 Unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour

Managers (15%) were less likely than other staff (22%) to have experienced discrimination. However,

- women managers were almost twice as likely as their male counterparts to report having experienced unfair treatment on the basis of a personal characteristic (21% compared with 11%).

Indeed, women managers were as likely to have experienced discrimination as other women in the Public Service. Yet male managers were only about half as likely to have experienced discrimination as other male public servants. Managerial status, therefore, appears to afford men, but not women, some 'protection' from discrimination.

Similarly, women managers were as likely as other women to have experienced unwelcome behaviour, and were more likely than their male counterparts to have experienced it (38% compared with 24% of male managers).

Of those who had experienced some form of unwelcome behaviour and who knew about complaints procedures, managers were more likely than non-managers to express confidence in those procedures. A third of managers, compared with 18% of non-managers,

reported that they were confident they would be treated fairly in formal complaints procedures while 12% of managers and a third of non-managers said they would not be confident.

However, while there were no overall gender differences in terms of confidence in complaints procedures, female managers were less than half as likely as male managers to report that they were confident in complaints procedures. Of those managers who had experienced unwelcome behaviour and who knew about complaints procedures, only 20% of women compared with 44% of men were confident that complaints were dealt with fairly.

13.9 Conclusions

Managers (women and men equally) showed high aspirations to reach senior positions in the Public Service. More than two-thirds (69%) reported wanting a more senior job, while just over a quarter (26%) wanted to become a chief executive. They appeared flexible in terms of what they would do – change work area, move to the private sector – to get ahead. Yet they generally saw their opportunities for advancement to be poor (albeit less so than other staff).

Public Service managers appeared motivated by a desire for feelings of accomplishment, quality of management and challenging work. Pay and benefits, job security and having a reasonable workload were less important to them than to other staff. However, they were more satisfied than other staff that their jobs provided them with the things they saw as important, with the exception of reasonable workload. Indeed, equal proportions of managers rated their jobs as "Poor" and as "Good" on this factor.

Managers, like other staff, saw unstructured learning and continuous development as more important to their jobs and careers than more formal development activities. In contrast, opportunities to work on high-profile projects and to act in higher positions – that is, the opportunity to 'be seen' by senior people who could make a difference to their careers – was more important to them than to other staff. Managers appeared generally more satisfied than their non-managerial colleagues with the development and training opportunities available to them, although their satisfaction could only be described as moderate.

In terms of how they rated their own managers, managers appeared more satisfied than other staff that they were able to use initiative in carrying out their work and that they had input into the decisions that directly affected them. It would be expected that managers would have more control over their work than other staff. However, they were no more satisfied than other staff that their immediate managers gave them regular performance feedback or supported and encouraged their career development. This suggests that this was an area of management where all managers, regardless of level, were relatively less skilled. There appeared to be some unmet demand from managers for access to a formal mentoring scheme. Further work would be required to determine how best to meet this demand and under what conditions formal and informal mentoring arrangements could be most successful for managers, their current organisations, and for the wider Public Service.

Managers basically valued the same work environment factors as other staff: being treated fairly, working in a co-operative environment, having their ideas valued and having equitable access to rewards. They were more satisfied than other staff on all of the work environment factors included in the survey.

In general, managers attached less importance to life/work balance factors than did other staff, but they also appeared more satisfied than other staff in relation to most of them. It should be noted that managers' sensitivities to the non-work responsibilities of their staff were seen in other parts of this report to have a significant impact on the ability of staff to balance their work and non-work commitments. Managers therefore would need to watch that their own relative satisfaction with provisions related to flexible work arrangements and family leave did not affect their sensitivities to the difficulties of their staff in this domain. Moreover, although managers might have appeared more satisfied than other staff, life/work balance issues still impinged on them. As noted above, managers appeared dissatisfied with the extent to which their workloads were "reasonable". Indeed, 96% of managers reported working more hours than they were employed for, with 45% reporting that they worked more than 10 hours extra a week. Moreover, the main deterrents to their applying for more senior jobs were concerns that they would not be able to balance work and family responsibilities, and not

wanting to relocate. Therefore addressing some of the apparent clashes between work and non-work responsibilities could be an important component of enhancing the pool from which future senior managers in the Public Service are drawn.

Managers were less likely than other staff to report having experienced unfair treatment or unwelcome behaviour. Managerial status appeared to offer some protection in both areas, but only for men. Notably, women managers were as likely to have experienced discrimination and unwelcome behaviour as other women staff in the 12 months preceding the survey. They were much more likely than their male counterparts to report having been treated unfairly on the basis of a personal characteristic and/or to have been subject to unwelcome behaviour.

The findings of the Career Progression and Development Survey for managers suggest there is a willing and ambitious group to target in the quest to develop future Public Service leaders. Managers' responses suggest there is room to improve their development and training opportunities, which might in turn improve perceptions of their advancement potential. The barriers to their applying for higher-level jobs – barriers mainly related to potential clashes with life outside the workplace – suggest other areas for attention. For women managers, some specific needs emerged, including providing more opportunities for them to enhance their experience (lack of which was perceived as a barrier to their advancement) as well as addressing their exposure to potential discrimination and unwelcome behaviour. However, in general, female and male managers valued the same things in the workplace and displayed similar levels of satisfaction. Notably, women managers were equally likely to want a more senior job in the Public Service and to aspire to the level of chief executive. This is a positive sign for the future diversity of Public Service leadership.

CHAPTER FOURTEEN

CONCLUSIONS AND CHALLENGES

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From the wealth of quantitative and qualitative information in the Career Progression and Development Survey results, some key findings stand out, which suggest areas for attention. The findings also revealed some areas where further research would be warranted.

14.1 Ambition and advancement opportunities

There is no lack of ambition in the Public Service. The survey findings indicate that most public servants – about 60% – wanted a higher-level job in the Public Service some time in the future. 16% had their sights set on a chief executive position. However, public servants generally perceived their opportunities for advancement to be poor. This means that there was a large pool of individuals wanting to move up the Public Service ranks, but feeling that there were a limited number of more senior jobs to advance into. Flat management structures, a lack of visible career paths, inadequate information about job vacancies, and a perceived preference for departments to source talent externally rather than to 'grow' their own, were seen by staff as factors impacting on their advancement opportunities. Staff also appeared to perceive their advancement opportunities narrowly, in relation to their current department and not the wider Public Service. The challenge will be to find ways to maintain public servants' job interest, to develop their skills and experience, and to improve their perceptions that they are moving forward – whether vertically or horizontally – into new and challenging work areas that provide opportunities for 'stretch' and growth.

14.2 Development and training opportunities

In terms of development and training, public servants appeared to consider unstructured learning and continuous development as of greater value to their jobs and careers than more formal development and training activities. Overall, they were most satisfied with the development opportunities they considered most important for their career development. In general, however, their satisfaction with development and training could only be described as moderate. In qualitative responses, public servants indicated that they felt there was inadequate attention to training and staff development. The survey findings appear to corroborate previous research that suggested that in many Public Service departments there is no overall training and development strategy and/or no separate training function, and that the allocation of training and development opportunities is often ad hoc, "bottom up" (driven by individual staff) and inadequately linked to organisational capability.

14.3 The role of managers in career development

Managers emerged as key players in facilitating the career development of their staff. Public servants indicated clearly that they valued good management. They painted a positive picture of their immediate supervisors and managers, feeling generally well supported by their managers, and considering them particularly good at allowing staff to use their initiative. However, managers were perceived as less skilled at actively encouraging and supporting their staff's career development and at giving regular and constructive performance feedback. In this context, there appeared to be unmet demand for more active coaching – by managers and/or more experienced colleagues – and for more access to formal mentoring arrangements. There was remarkable uniformity in how managers were assessed by their staff, regardless of the level, gender or ethnicity of those staff. These assessments point to the general areas that Public Service managers – regardless of level – are good at in terms of 'people management', and where they might need to improve.

The positive picture of immediate managers and supervisors contrasted somewhat with staff's less positive perceptions of overall management of the organisations in which they worked. Some of this dissatisfaction appeared to be linked to staff not knowing the overall direction of their organisation and their place in it. This appeared to be particularly acute in times of organisational change. It suggests a need for better information and communication between management and staff – a challenge not unique to the Public Service and arguably applicable to any organisation, public or private.

14.4 Fairness and equity

Fairness was crucial to public servants and was a major theme running through the results. 94% of public servants considered being treated fairly as "Highly important" to their work and careers. Yet less than half

(40%) of them rated their organisations as "Good" at treating them fairly, and more staff rated their organisations as "Poor" than as "Good" at providing equitable access to rewards. In terms of pay and benefits, how rewards were distributed seemed to be more of an issue than overall levels of remuneration. Concerns about fairness and its impacts on career progression were a recurring theme in qualitative comments, especially related to selection processes and differential access to development opportunities. Fairness is essential for ensuring every public servant has an equal chance to advance their career and it is an important condition for ensuring the Public Service remains an attractive employer. Managers play a key role in facilitating a good and fair work environment for their staff. Ensuring that human resources policies and provisions are transparent and applied evenly by managers, and that managers communicate decisions and the reasons behind them clearly to staff, is likely to improve perceptions of fairness.

14.5 Life/work balance

Public servants were working hard. Three-quarters reported working more hours than they were employed for. Almost one in five (19%) said they worked 10 or more additional hours a week. But goodwill appeared to be wearing thin. Heavy workloads were a recurring complaint, and appeared to affect public servants' abilities to balance work and other commitments, including family responsibilities. While there was relative satisfaction with the formal provisions around flexible hours and family leave, the overall picture suggested that maintaining a life/work balance involved a constant juggle, especially for women with family responsibilities. This juggle might also be operating as a barrier to career progression, for both men and women. A quarter of public servants – regardless of managerial status, gender or ethnicity – said they were put off applying for a higher-level job because they felt they would not be able to balance their work and family responsibilities. One in five said the long hours associated with higher-level jobs had deterred them from seeking one. Qualitative responses suggested that workload and time constraints also limited public servants' abilities to take advantage of available development opportunities. These issues are not unique to the Public Service. Strategies for addressing life/work balance issues are a prevalent theme in the management literature. Being able to provide a work environment that allows staff to balance their work and outside commitments is increasingly seen as a competitive advantage, a factor in attracting and retaining staff as well as enhancing their productivity on the job. Some attention and innovation will be needed if the Public Service is to consolidate its position as a front-runner in this area.

14.6 Unfair and unwelcome treatment

Experiencing discrimination and unwelcome behaviour can compromise an individual's day-to-day work and undermine their career development. Despite a long history of equal employment opportunities initiatives in the Public Service, more than one in five (21%) public servants felt that within the 12 months prior to the survey they had been treated less favourably because of a personal characteristic, notably gender. Also despite longstanding policies and provisions to ensure good conduct, just over a third of public servants (34%) said they had experienced unwelcome behaviour in the 12 months prior to the survey. This was mostly remarks, jokes and communications that were considered to be offensive or intimidating. Very low proportions (2% or less) reported having experienced any one of the behaviours categorised as sexual harassment. When compared with the reported incidence of sexual harassment in the workforce generally in New Zealand, this would appear to be low. Behaviour that could be described as 'bullying' was an emerging concern and warrants some vigilance, especially given the increasing extent to which bullying is being recognised in the courts as a workplace hazard and the responsibility of employers to monitor and manage. Public servants are unlikely to perform to their potential or advance in their careers if they do not feel safe in their workplaces. This is also potentially an area of competitive advantage for the Public Service, so promoting and maintaining standards of good conduct is essential.

14.7 Motivating public servants

Overall, public servants seemed to be motivated by the desire for work that was challenging and gave them a sense of accomplishment. They appeared relatively satisfied on both fronts. The survey results corroborated previous research that suggested public servants were more motivated by job interest than by material rewards. The interesting and challenging nature of their work will need to be maintained to ensure that they remain motivated and want to stay working in the Public Service.

14.8 Diversity and career progression

The Public Service is not homogeneous. In comparing the responses to the survey of the various population groups that make up the Public Service, different stories emerged about the aspirations, expectations and experiences of those groups.

14.8.1 Women in the Public Service

Contrasting with traditional views that women and men seek different things in the workplace, the survey showed that women and men generally valued the same things at work. Where there were gender differences in women's and men's ratings of their jobs and the organisations in which they worked, women tended to be more positive than men. This was the case even when corroborating evidence, for example on the gender pay gap, would suggest that they should be less satisfied than their male counterparts.

However, in qualitative responses women gave many examples of feeling undervalued and of feeling that they were "missing out" on opportunities because of their gender, which had subsequently disadvantaged them in their work and careers. Proportionately more women than men reported having experienced discrimination on the basis of gender, and of having experienced unwelcome behaviour in the workplace. Moreover, the traditional juggle between home and work commitments still seems to impact more on women's career progression than on men's. The survey results appear to confirm the findings of other recent studies that even when women and men equally report having responsibilities for the care of dependants, women are much more likely to adjust their career aspirations and working lives to accommodate these responsibilities.

Apart from clashes with non-work responsibilities, the barriers to women seeking higher-level jobs seemed to centre on a perceived lack of experience. Women were also less likely to see some key development and training opportunities as being applicable to them. Ensuring women have access to development opportunities and work roles that enhance their experience and readiness for more senior positions, and that they receive more active encouragement to put themselves forward for higher-level jobs, might help to ease those deterrents.

The survey revealed women to be equally qualified with men academically. Women appeared keen to advance their careers, displaying high aspirations to achieve higher-level jobs and placing high value on development and training opportunities.

14.8.2 Māori in the Public Service

In general, Māori appeared to experience employment in the Public Service in similar ways to other staff. On all but one factor in the survey, Māori appeared as satisfied as other staff. Where they differed was in relation to pay and benefits, where they were less satisfied.

Life/work balance provisions seemed to be more important to Māori than to other staff. While they appeared as satisfied as other staff with their access to those formal provisions, the juggle between work and their commitments outside the workplace was perhaps more acute for Māori because proportionately more of them reported having responsibilities for the care of dependants.

Māori were more likely than non-Māori to report having experienced unfair treatment on the basis of a personal characteristic and to have experienced unwelcome behaviour in the workplace.

Māori displayed high ambitions to move ahead in their Public Service careers – two-thirds said they wanted a higher-level job in the future. More than one in five wanted to become a chief executive. However, they appeared deterred from applying for more senior jobs by their perceived lack of qualifications and experience. The importance they attached to development and training opportunities confirmed their desire and willingness to improve their readiness for more senior jobs. They were more likely than other staff to have a mentor, suggesting that some strategies are already in place to support Māori in their Public Service careers. Taken together, these findings suggest that further strategies to improve the representation of Māori at the higher levels of the Public Service, and in a broader range of occupations, have a willing group to target. Ensuring Māori have the development opportunities and management support they need to advance in their careers will be an essential part of nurturing their ambitions and maintaining their attachment to the Public Service.

14.8.3 Pacific peoples in the Public Service

Pacific staff showed high levels of ambition. Almost three-quarters aspired to a higher-level job and almost one-quarter had their sights set on a chief executive position. Opportunities for advancement were more

important to them than to other staff. Yet a lack of qualifications and/or experience seemed to have put them off applying for higher-level jobs. The high value placed on training and development opportunities indicated that they were keen to enhance their experience and qualifications. Yet Pacific public servants were less satisfied than other staff with their access to some of the development and training opportunities surveyed. While they appeared as satisfied as other staff with support and encouragement from their immediate managers, they were more likely to view other people's lack of confidence in them as a deterrent to applying for a more senior job.

Fairness was a major theme for Pacific staff. They were less satisfied than other staff with their pay and benefits, and were less satisfied that they had equitable access to rewards. They appeared less satisfied that they were treated fairly, and that their ideas were valued. They were more deterred than other staff from applying for a higher-level job by concerns about the fairness of selection processes. Moreover, they were more likely to feel that they had been treated unfairly on the basis of a personal characteristic, and more likely to report having experienced unwelcome behaviour.

Pacific staff were more likely than other staff to report having responsibilities for the care of dependants, and as such they generally attached higher importance than other staff to the life/work balance factors surveyed. They appeared less satisfied with their access to caregiver leave and less satisfied that their outside commitments were accommodated at work.

Pacific peoples' responses to the survey suggest that there is an ambitious and willing group of staff to target in improving the diversity of the Public Service. Their stated desire to enhance their formal qualifications and their experience suggest some particular avenues to follow. Active support and encouragement from managers would be an important part of this equation. The outside commitments of Pacific staff – family-related in particular – will need to be accommodated in this process.

14.8.4 People with disabilities

People with disabilities appeared to have the same aspirations as other staff to advance their careers, and they had similar expectations as to how that should occur. However, the survey results suggest that some people with disabilities may not be getting as much career support from their managers as they would wish. They appeared less satisfied that managers actively encouraged their career development, and cited lack of support from managers as a deterrent to applying for higher-level jobs. They also rated managers less well than did other staff on being allowed to use initiative in carrying out their work. They were less satisfied that they had access to high-profile work. While perceptions of opportunities for advancement were generally low for all staff, they were even lower for people with disabilities.

Some fairness issues also emerged in the results. People with disabilities were more likely than other staff to report that concerns about the fairness of selection processes had put them off applying for a more senior job. They were more likely to report having experienced unfair treatment, although notably on the grounds of age more than disability.

Staff with disabilities appeared less satisfied that their jobs involved a reasonable workload, and were more likely to report being set unrealistic goals. And while they were as likely to report having caregiving responsibilities, they were less satisfied that their managers took a flexible and supportive approach to work and family conflicts.

While the barriers of the physical environment did not feature in their responses to the survey, the potential barriers created by the social environment did emerge as an issue. Staff with disabilities were slightly less satisfied than others that staff overall worked co-operatively. Their proportionately higher reporting of having experienced unwelcome behaviour suggests that other staff may not be as aware and inclusive of staff with disabilities as they might be. The results suggest some need for increasing the level of disability awareness across the Public Service.

14.8.5 Managers in the Public Service

Managers (women and men equally) showed high aspirations to reach senior positions in the Public Service. More than two-thirds (69%) reported wanting a more senior job, while just over a quarter (26%) wanted to become a chief executive. However, they generally perceived their opportunities for advancement to be poor.

Managers appeared more satisfied than other staff with the development and training opportunities available to them, attaching higher value than other staff to opportunities to work on high-profile projects and to act in higher positions. They were also more satisfied than other staff that their own managers allowed them to use their initiative and allowed them to have input into the decisions that directly affected them. However, notably,

they were no more satisfied than other staff that their immediate managers gave them regular performance feedback or supported and encouraged their career development. This suggests that these were areas of management where all managers, regardless of level, were relatively less skilled.

In general, managers attached less importance to life/work balance factors than did other staff, but they also appeared more satisfied than other staff in relation to most of them. The notable exception was their relative dissatisfaction with their workloads. Indeed, 45% reported working 10 or more hours a week than they were employed for, with 5% working 20 or more extra hours a week. A quarter (men and women equally) said they were deterred from seeking a more senior job by concerns they would not be able to balance their work and family responsibilities.

Female and male managers tended to value the same things in the workplace and displayed similar levels of satisfaction, but there were some notable exceptions. Women managers attached higher value to family-related life/work balance factors, reflecting the extent to which women – regardless of their employment status – still seem to assume the bulk of responsibility for the care of dependants. Women managers were also more likely than their male peers to cite lack of experience as a deterrent to their seeking a higher-level job.

Managerial status appeared to act as 'protection' from unfair treatment and unwelcome behaviour – but only for men. Women managers were as likely as other women, and much more likely than male managers, to report both being treated unfairly on the basis of a personal characteristic and experiencing unwelcome behaviour.

Managers' responses suggest there is room to improve their development and training opportunities, and to improve the career support and encouragement they receive from their own managers. This might in turn improve perceptions of their advancement potential. The barriers to their applying for higher-level jobs – mainly related to potential clashes with life outside the workplace – suggest other areas for attention. For women managers, some specific needs emerged, including providing more opportunities for them to enhance their experience in readiness for more senior management roles. All of these factors are part of developing the pool from which future Public Service leaders can be drawn.

14.9 A benchmark for the future – areas for attention

The findings of the Career Progression and Development Survey signal areas to target to improve public servants' satisfaction with their work environments and to ensure that their desire to progress their careers is facilitated, supported and encouraged. These include:

- Public Service organisations taking a more integrated approach to training and development that marries individual development needs with the skills and capability requirements of departments and of the wider Public Service. There appears to be a role for a central agency, notably the State Services Commission, in identifying good practice and acting as a 'broker' to disseminate good practice information throughout the Public Service.

- Emphasising the importance of staff development in management training, to consolidate what the survey suggests Public Service managers are good at and, most importantly, to improve their skills in areas such as performance management and promoting and facilitating fairness and equity.

- Responding to public servants' apparent desire for a better balance between work and other commitments. Promoting the Public Service as an employer that enables life/work balance is likely to give it an increasingly important competitive advantage.

- Ensuring Public Service organisations are more inclusive of people with disabilities, including by training managers in how best to support the career development of people with disabilities. This could be part of departmental responses to the New Zealand Disability Strategy.

- Strengthening the infrastructure to fortify good working relationships in the Public Service, including regular promotion of what is good conduct, and ensuring that policies and processes (including formal complaints procedures) are robust and well understood.

- Integrating equal employment opportunities principles into strategic human resources policies and planning. There is a particular challenge to sustain the ambitions of women, and the particularly high aspirations of Māori and Pacific peoples. This will be essential for the future capability of the Public Service. While employers can do little about the

discrimination in society that channels these groups into a narrow range of typically lower-paid occupations, they can provide opportunities for individuals to move into new work areas, and to gain the formal qualifications to 'step up' into new occupations.

The survey results provide a benchmark against which to evaluate human resources strategies and to measure progress in developing the Public Service as an employer of choice.

14.10 Areas for further research

The survey findings raised issues that would be valuable to explore in further research, either by the State Services Commission or by other research bodies.

14.10.1 Organisational infrastructure for enabling life/work balance

Further research would be required to determine the most effective infrastructure for ensuring that employment in the Public Service is conducive to life/work balance. This could include inquiry into:

- part-time work – the relative acceptance of part-time work at various levels of the Public Service, and the conditions under which part-time work can best be managed to the advantage of both employees and organisations;
- family-friendly provisions – the extent to which these are accessible, and whether or not there are 'career penalties' associated with accessing them; and
- the impacts of life/work clashes on the attractiveness of senior Public Service jobs and, by implication, on succession planning.

14.10.2 Mentoring

The survey revealed some unmet demand for formal mentoring. Further inquiry would be required to determine how best to meet this demand and under what conditions formal and informal mentoring arrangements could be most successful for staff (taking into account gender, ethnicity and managerial status), for their current organisations and for the wider Public Service.

14.10.3 Development opportunities for women

Women were more likely to consider some development opportunities (secondments, 'acting up', study leave and work on high-profile projects) as "Not applicable" to them. These are some of the opportunities that would provide a major 'step up' in terms of career development, as opposed to continuous development gained in the course of day-to-day work. It would be useful to explore more fully why women felt these opportunities were less applicable to them, and in particular how they might be made more accessible as part of strategies to break down gender-based occupational segregation in the Public Service.

14.10.4 Attracting Māori and Pacific staff

The survey revealed some workplace factors and development and training opportunities that were of higher value to Māori and Pacific staff than to others. Further research into how Public Service departments can attract, develop and retain Māori and Pacific staff would be warranted as part of breaking down occupational segregation and developing forward-looking capability strategies.

14.10.5 Gender differences amongst Māori and Pacific staff

The survey did not allow multiple disaggregations of smaller groups. It is likely that gender and ethnicity would have combined to influence the employment expectations and experiences of Māori and Pacific women in the Public Service. In order to develop appropriate strategies to attract, develop and retain Māori and Pacific women, some targeted inquiry into their career progression would be warranted.

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APPENDIX 1. TABLES FOR THE PUBLIC SERVICE

Interpretation Notes

The results are weighted and have been rounded to the nearest one percent. This means that proportions in a question may not add up to exactly 100% where data is missing. The numbers in brackets below the proportions refer to confidence intervals. Confidence intervals may not be symmetrical around a proportion due to rounding.

The confidence intervals shown are used to compare results across a row. They should not be used to compare results down a column, as the formula would then require a (non-zero) covariance term. The covariance term would increase the width of the confidence intervals.

For information on the calculation of the confidence intervals, please see Appendix 2.

Key: - indicates that the sample error in that cell is too large.
* indicates that the sample error was between 30 and 50 percent.

Part A – Career Aspirations

Q1 and Q2. Thinking about work and workplaces in general, how important are the following factors to you personally and how would you rate your own job against the following factors?

	How important are the factors to you?			How would you rate your own job against the factors?		
	Highly important	Somewhat important	Of little or no importance	Good	Fair	Poor
Pay and benefits	71 (69 – 72)	29 (27 – 30)	1 (0 – 1)	29 (28 – 31)	47 (46 – 49)	23 (22 – 25)
Challenging work	77 (76 – 79)	22 (21 – 24)	1 (0 – 1)	60 (58 – 62)	34 (32 – 36)	6 (5 – 7)
Feeling of accomplishment	90 (89 – 92)	9 (8 – 10)	0 (0 – 1)	43 (41 – 45)	44 (42 – 46)	13 (12 – 14)
Opportunities for advancement	51 (49 – 52)	44 (42 – 45)	6 (5 – 7)	13 (11 – 14)	38 (36 – 39)	50 (48 – 51)
Job security	66 (64 – 67)	32 (30 – 33)	3 (2 – 3)	51 (49 – 52)	40 (39 – 42)	9 (8 – 10)
Standard hours	29 (27 – 30)	49 (47 – 50)	22 (21 – 24)	55 (53 – 57)	35 (33 – 37)	10 (9 – 11)
Reasonable workload	56 (54 – 58)	41 (39 – 42)	3 (2 – 4)	34 (32 – 36)	45 (43 – 47)	21 (20 – 22)
Quality of management	86 (85 – 88)	13 (12 – 14)	1 (0 – 1)	29 (28 – 31)	46 (44 – 48)	25 (23 – 26)
Reputation of organisation	59 (57 – 60)	36 (35 – 38)	5 (4 – 6)	30 (28 – 31)	44 (43 – 46)	26 (24 – 28)

Q3. Thinking about your current job and career, which of these, if any, apply to you?

	Yes	No
I feel I have already achieved all I want to achieve in my career	13 (12 – 15)	87 (85 – 88)
I see my current position as a training ground for my next career move within my current organisation	32 (31 – 34)	68 (66 – 69)
I see my current organisation as a training ground for a career move to another organisation	34 (32 – 35)	66 (65 – 68)
I want to work in a higher-level position	47 (45 – 49)	53 (51 – 55)
I want to become an expert in my field	45 (43 – 47)	55 (53 – 57)
I am prepared to move into another work area to develop my career	55 (54 – 57)	45 (43 – 46)
I am prepared to move to the private sector to further develop my career	50 (48 – 51)	50 (49 – 52)
I am prepared to move to another geographical area to further develop my career	28 (26 – 29)	72 (71 – 74)
I have other plans for my career	16 (15 – 17)	84 (83 – 85)
None of these	4 (4 – 5)	96 (95 – 96)

Q4. Which of these best describes your current situation?

	I am planning to stay for the long term	I am planning to stay for the short term	I am thinking about changing jobs	I am actively applying for other jobs	None of these/ uncertain
Which of these best describes your current situation?	33 (31 – 34)	27 (25 – 28)	20 (19 – 22)	10 (9 – 11)	10 (9 – 11)

Q5. Would you like to hold a position at a higher level in the Public Service at some time in the future?

	Definitely	Probably	Uncertain	Probably not	Definitely not
Would you like to hold a position at a higher level in the Public Service at some time in the future?	31 (30 – 33)	29 (27 – 30)	17 (16 – 18)	16 (15 – 17)	7 (6 – 8)

Q6. For those who indicated they might like to hold a position at a higher level, would you like to become a chief executive in the Public Service?

	Yes	No	Don't know	N/A
Would you like to become a chief executive in the Public Service?	20 (19 – 22)	58 (56 – 60)	19 (17 – 21)	3 (2 – 4)

Q7. In your current organisation, within the past 12 months, have any of these things stopped you from applying for a position at a higher level in the Public Service?

	Yes	No
Preference to stay in my current job	32 (30 – 33)	68 (67 – 70)
No desire to work in a higher-level position	14 (13 – 15)	86 (85 – 87)
No desire to take on management responsibilities	17 (15 – 18)	83 (82 – 85)
No desire to work long hours associated with higher-level positions	19 (18 – 21)	81 (79 – 82)
No desire to undertake extensive travel	12 (11 – 13)	88 (87 – 89)
No desire to relocate to another area to take up a higher-level position	24 (23 – 26)	76 (74 – 77)
No desire because of the political nature of higher-level positions	18 (17 – 20)	82 (80 – 83)
Concern that I would not be able to balance work and family responsibilities	25 (24 – 27)	75 (73 – 76)
Concern that the selection process would not be fair	18 (17 – 19)	82 (81 – 83)

	Yes	No
Lack of confidence in myself	15 (14 – 16)	85 (84 – 86)
Lack of other people's confidence in me	8 (7 – 9)	92 (91 – 93)
Lack of support from my manager	12 (11 – 13)	88 (87 – 89)
Don't yet have the necessary qualifications	21 (20 – 22)	79 (78 – 80)
Don't yet have the necessary experience	26 (25 – 28)	74 (72 – 75)
Concerns about my health	6 (5 – 6)	94 (94 – 95)
Other factor(s)	18 (17 – 19)	82 (81 – 83)
None of these	11 (10 – 12)	89 (88 – 90)

Q8 and Q13. How important to your job and career in general is access to the following opportunities and how would you rate your organisation on providing the following opportunities?

	How important are the factors to you?				How would you rate your organisation against the factors?			
	Highly important	Somewhat important	Of little or no importance	N/A	Good	Fair	Poor	N/A
Flexible hours	46 (45 – 48)	36 (35 – 38)	15 (13 – 16)	3 (2 – 3)	61 (59 – 62)	21 (20 – 22)	10 (9 – 11)	9 (8 – 10)
Working from home	10 (9 – 11)	29 (28 – 31)	44 (43 – 46)	16 (15 – 17)	14 (13 – 15)	14 (13 – 15)	17 (15 – 18)	56 (54 – 57)
Caregiver leave	23 (22 – 25)	22 (21 – 23)	25 (23 – 26)	30 (28 – 32)	22 (21 – 24)	14 (13 – 15)	5 (5 – 6)	59 (57 – 60)
Parental leave	26 (24 – 27)	16 (15 – 17)	22 (21 – 23)	36 (34 – 38)	20 (19 – 21)	11 (10 – 12)	3 (3 – 4)	66 (64 – 68)
Leave for cultural reasons	15 (13 – 16)	16 (15 – 18)	38 (36 – 39)	31 (30 – 33)	21 (20 – 23)	11 (10 – 13)	4 (3 – 5)	63 (62 – 65)
Part-time work	14 (12 – 15)	22 (20 – 23)	35 (33 – 37)	30 (28 – 31)	17 (15 – 18)	10 (9 – 11)	6 (5 – 7)	67 (65 – 69)
Long-term leave	28 (26 – 29)	39 (37 – 41)	24 (22 – 25)	9 (8 – 11)	20 (19 – 21)	15 (14 – 17)	9 (8 – 10)	56 (54 – 58)

Q9 and Q14. How important to your job and career in general is access to the following opportunities and how would you rate your organisation on providing the following opportunities?

	How important are the factors to you?				How would you rate your organisation against the factors?			
	Highly important	Somewhat important	Of little or no importance	N/A	Good	Fair	Poor	N/A
On-the-job training	77 (75 – 78)	20 (18 – 21)	3 (3 – 4)	1 (0 – 1)	35 (34 – 37)	39 (37 – 40)	23 (22 – 25)	3 (2 – 3)
Training courses and seminars	67 (65 – 68)	29 (28 – 31)	4 (3 – 4)	0 (0 – 1)	37 (36 – 39)	37 (35 – 39)	24 (22 – 25)	2 (2 – 3)
Study leave to further my qualifications	39 (38 – 41)	34 (33 – 36)	18 (17 – 19)	8 (7 – 9)	16 (15 – 17)	15 (14 – 16)	17 (15 – 18)	52 (50 – 54)
Secondment to other work areas or organisations	29 (27 – 30)	41 (39 – 43)	24 (23 – 26)	6 (5 – 7)	14 (12 – 15)	19 (18 – 21)	24 (23 – 26)	43 (41 – 44)
Acting in higher positions	35 (33 – 37)	39 (38 – 41)	20 (19 – 21)	6 (5 – 6)	16 (15 – 17)	24 (23 – 26)	25 (24 – 27)	34 (33 – 36)
Gaining experience in a range of tasks	72 (70 – 73)	24 (23 – 26)	3 (2 – 4)	1 (1 – 1)	38 (37 – 40)	39 (37 – 40)	18 (17 – 19)	5 (4 – 6)
Working on high-profile projects	37 (35 – 38)	42 (40 – 44)	17 (16 – 19)	4 (3 – 4)	27 (26 – 29)	28 (27 – 30)	20 (19 – 22)	24 (23 – 26)
Demonstrating my skills and abilities	77 (76 – 79)	20 (19 – 22)	2 (1 – 2)	1 (0 – 1)	44 (42 – 46)	41 (39 – 42)	14 (12 – 15)	2 (1 – 2)

Q10 and Q15. How important to your job and career in general do you consider the following in your work environment and how would you rate your organisation against the following factors?

	How important are the factors to you?				How would you rate your organisation against the factors?			
	Highly important	Somewhat important	Of little or no importance	N/A	Good	Fair	Poor	N/A
Having my ideas valued	81 (80 – 83)	18 (16 – 19)	1 (1 – 1)	0* (0 – <0.5)	36 (34 – 37)	45 (43 – 47)	18 (17 – 19)	1 (1 – 2)
Equitable access to rewards	75 (74 – 77)	22 (21 – 24)	2 (2 – 3)	0 (0 – 1)	22 (21 – 24)	39 (37 – 40)	35 (33 – 37)	4 (3 – 5)
Staff working co-operatively	88 (86 – 89)	12 (11 – 13)	1 (0 – 1)	0* (0 – <0.5)	43 (42 – 45)	44 (42 – 45)	13 (11 – 14)	0 (0 – 1)
Accommodation of outside commitments	41 (40 – 43)	48 (46 – 50)	9 (8 – 10)	2 (1 – 2)	36 (35 – 38)	39 (37 – 40)	11 (10 – 12)	14 (13 – 15)
Being treated fairly	94 (93 – 95)	6 (5 – 7)	0 (0 – <0.5)	-	40 (39 – 42)	43 (41 – 44)	17 (15 – 18)	1 (0 – 1)
Good work-area design	56 (55 – 58)	38 (36 – 40)	5 (5 – 6)	0 (0 – <0.5)	31 (29 – 32)	40 (39 – 42)	27 (25 – 29)	2 (1 – 2)

Q11. Thinking about your own situation in your current organisation within the past 12 months, how would you rate the level of support you received from these people?

	Good	Fair	Poor	N/A
My immediate manager	65 (64 – 67)	20 (19 – 22)	14 (13 – 15)	0 (0 – 1)
My co-workers	81 (80 – 83)	15 (14 – 16)	3 (3 – 4)	0 (0 – <0.5)
My own staff	36 (34 – 37)	5 (4 – 5)	1 (1 – 1)	58 (57 – 60)
My partner or friends	88 (87 – 89)	6 (5 – 7)	1 (1 – 2)	5 (4 – 6)
My family or whānau	80 (79 – 82)	7 (6 – 8)	1 (1 – 2)	11 (10 – 12)

Q12. Thinking about your own situation in your current organisation within the past 12 months, how would you rate your immediate manager or supervisor against the following factors?

	Good	Fair	Poor	N/A
Communicates effectively	62 (60 – 64)	23 (21 – 24)	15 (14 – 16)	0 (0 – <0.5)
Provides regular and constructive feedback about my performance	50 (48 – 51)	26 (24 – 27)	24 (22 – 25)	1 (1 – 1)
Acknowledges when I have performed well	58 (57 – 60)	23 (22 – 25)	18 (16 – 19)	1 (0 – 1)
Allows me freedom to use my initiative in performing my job	77 (76 – 79)	14 (13 – 15)	8 (7 – 9)	1 (0 – 1)
Provides me with the information I need to do my job	61 (59 – 63)	25 (23 – 26)	13 (12 – 14)	1 (1 – 2)
Encourages my input into decisions which directly affect me	67 (65 – 69)	19 (18 – 21)	13 (12 – 14)	1 (1 – 1)
Encourages and supports my career development	54 (52 – 56)	23 (21 – 24)	18 (17 – 20)	5 (4 – 6)
Takes a flexible and supportive approach to resolving work and family conflicts	59 (58 – 61)	17 (16 – 18)	11 (10 – 12)	13 (12 – 14)

Q16. In your current organisation within the past 12 months, has there been anything else that you feel has helped you to develop in your job and career?

	Yes	No
Has there been anything else that you feel has helped you to develop in your job and career?	72 (71 – 74)	28 (26 – 29)

Q17. In your current organisation within the past 12 months, has there been anything else that you feel has made it difficult for you to develop in your job and career?

	Yes	No
Has there been anything else that you feel has made it difficult for you to develop in your career?	48 (47 – 50)	52 (50 – 53)

Q18. Do you have a mentor?

	Yes	No
Do you have a mentor?	18 (17 – 19)	82 (81 – 83)

Q19. For those that had a mentor, did you make contact with your mentor through a formal mentoring programme?

	Yes	No
Did you make contact with your mentor through a formal mentoring programme?	14 (11 – 17)	86 (83 – 89)

Q20. For those that did not have a mentor or had an informal one, would you like to have access to a formal mentoring scheme?

	Yes	No	Don't know
Would you like to have access to a formal mentoring scheme?	37 (36 – 39)	29 (27 – 31)	34 (32 – 35)

Part B – Experiences

Q22. In your current organisation within the past 12 months was there any situation or event in which you felt you were treated less favourably than others in the same or similar circumstances because of a personal attribute such as ethnicity, gender or disability?

	Yes	No
Felt you were treated less favourably than others because of a personal attribute such as ethnicity, gender or disability?	21 (20 – 22)	79 (78 – 80)

Q23. In your opinion was this treatment because of your:

	Yes**	No**
Gender	8 (7 – 9)	92 (91 – 93)
Ethnicity	6 (5 – 7)	94 (93 – 95)
Disability	1 (0 – 1)	99 (99 – 100)
Sexual orientation	0 (0 – 1)	100 (99 – 100)
Age	5 (4 – 6)	95 (94 – 96)
Marital status	1 (0 – 1)	99 (99 – 100)
Pregnancy	0 (0 – 1)	100 (99 – 100)
Employment status	3 (3 – 4)	97 (96 – 97)
Religious or ethical beliefs	1 (0 – 1)	99 (99 – 100)
Political opinion	1 (1 – 1)	99 (99 – 99)
Another factor	8 (7 – 9)	92 (91 – 93)

** of all staff

Q25. In your current organisation within the past 12 months, have you experienced any unwelcome behaviour, which served to humiliate, intimidate or offend you?

	Yes	No
Have you experienced any unwelcome behaviour, which served to humiliate, intimidate or offend you?	34 (33 – 36)	66 (64 – 67)

Q26. Of the behaviours listed below that you experienced in your current organisation within the past 12 months, please indicate how often they occurred.

	Once or twice**	On a few occasions**	On many occasions**	
Offensive remarks	9 (8 – 10)	9 (8 – 10)	4 (3 – 4)	
Offensive jokes	6 (5 – 7)	4 (3 – 5)	2 (2 – 3)	
Unwanted offensive communications	5 (4 – 6)	3 (3 – 4)	1 (1 – 1)	
Inappropriate comments concerning my appearance	4 (4 – 5)	2 (2 – 3)	1 (1 – 1)	
Circulation of negative rumours about me	6 (5 – 7)	4 (3 – 5)	2 (1 – 2)	
Being set unrealistic goals	6 (5 – 7)	5 (5 – 6)	4 (3 – 5)	
Being excluded from conversations and staff social occasions	4 (3 – 5)	3 (2 – 3)	2 (1 – 2)	
Being denied access to particular areas of work or projects	5 (4 – 6)	3 (3 – 4)	2 (1 – 2)	
Verbal threats against me	4 (3 – 5)	1 (1 – 2)	1 (0 – 1)	
Physical threats against me	2 (1 – 2)	1 (0 – 1)	0* (0 – <0.5)	
Pressure to engage in unwelcome sexual activity	0 (0 – 1)	0* (0 – <0.5)	-	
Unwelcome touching, pinching, cornering or brushing of my body	2 (1 – 2)	1 (0 – 1)	0* (0 – <0.5)	
Unwanted repeated requests for dates or other social activity	1 (1 – 1)	0 (0 – 1)	0* (0 – <0.5)	Frequency not specified
Another behaviour	2 (2 – 3)	2 (2 – 3)	2 (2 – 3)	1 (1 – 2)

** of all staff

Q27. For those who had experienced unwelcome behaviour, who was most often responsible?

	Yes	No
Male(s) senior to me	38	62
	(35 – 41)	(59 – 65)
Female(s) senior to me	27	73
	(24 – 30)	(70 – 76)
Male co-worker(s) at my level	31	69
	(28 – 34)	(66 – 72)
Female co-worker(s) at my level	26	74
	(23 – 29)	(71 – 77)
Male subordinate(s)	6	94
	(5 – 8)	(92 – 95)
Female subordinate(s)	7	93
	(5 – 8)	(92 – 95)
Other	15	85
	(12 – 17)	(83 – 88)

Q29. For those who had experienced unwelcome behaviour, did any of the following happen because of those experiences you have identified?

	Yes	No
I began to actively seek another job	23	77
	(20 – 26)	(74 – 80)
I became disengaged from the organisation	19	81
	(16 – 22)	(78 – 84)
My relationship with my manager deteriorated	30	70
	(27 – 33)	(67 – 73)
My relationship with my co-workers deteriorated	25	75
	(22 – 28)	(72 – 78)
I took more time off work	12	88
	(10 – 14)	(86 – 90)
I became less productive at work	29	71
	(26 – 32)	(68 – 74)
Other	29	71
	(26 – 32)	(68 – 74)
None of these	24	76
	(21 – 27)	(73 – 79)

Q30. For those who had experienced unwelcome behaviour, is there a formal process within your organisation to deal with harassment complaints?

	Yes	No	Don't know
Is there a formal process within your organisation to deal with harassment complaints?	82 (79 – 84)	2 (1 – 3)	16 (13 – 18)

Q31. For those who knew there was a formal reporting process, within that formal reporting process do you know who to approach to report an incident at work?

	Yes	No	Don't know
Within that formal reporting process, do you know who to approach to report an incident at work?	80 (77 – 83)	15 (12 – 18)	5 (4 – 7)

Q32. For those who knew there was a formal reporting process, have you used that formal process in your organisation within the past 12 months to report any incident at work?

	Yes	No
Have you used that formal process in your organisation within the past 12 months to report any incident at work?	16 (13 – 19)	84 (81 – 87)

Q33. For those who knew there was a formal reporting process, how confident are you that complaints are dealt with fairly within that process?

	Confident	Neither confident nor unconfident	Not confident	Don't know
How confident are you that complaints are dealt with fairly within that process?	19 (16 – 22)	29 (25 – 32)	32 (28 – 35)	20 (17 – 23)

Part C – Background Information

Q35, Q36 and Q37. Is your position at any of these levels/Do you supervise staff/Do you manage resources?

Questions 35, 36 and 37 were included in the survey as the 'manager' identifiers. However, the pattern of responses meant that it was not possible to use them for this purpose.

Q39. In total, how many years have you worked in your current organisation?

	Less than 6 months	6 months to 1 year	1 to 2 years	3 to 5 years	6 to 10 years	11 to 15 years	16 to 20 years	More than 20 years
In total, how many years have you worked in your current organisation?	2 (2 – 2)	8 (7 – 9)	17 (16 – 18)	20 (18 – 21)	16 (15 – 17)	19 (18 – 21)	7 (6 – 8)	11 (10 – 12)

Q40. In total, how many years have you worked in the Public Service?

	Less than 12 months	1 to 2 years	3 to 5 years	6 to 10 years	11 to 15 years	16 to 20 years	More than 20 years
In total, how many years have you worked in the Public Service?	5	10	15	14	20	13	24
	(4 – 5)	(9 – 11)	(14 – 17)	(13 – 16)	(18 – 21)	(11 – 14)	(22 – 25)

Q41. In what region do you work?

	Northland	Auckland	Waikato	Bay of Plenty	Gisborne
In what region do you work?	3	17	7	4	1
	(2 – 3)	(16 – 19)	(6 – 8)	(3 – 4)	(1 – 1)

Hawkes Bay	Taranaki	Manawatu – Wanganui	Wellington	West Coast
3	2	5	41	1
(3 – 4)	(1 – 2)	(4 – 6)	(39 – 42)	(0 – 1)

Canterbury	Otago	Southland	Nelson	Marlborough
11	3	1	1	0
(9 – 12)	(2 – 3)	(1 – 2)	(1 – 2)	(0 – 1)

Area outside New Zealand
1
(1 – 1)

Q42. Which of these best describes the location of that office?

	City	Town	Rural area
Which of these best describes the location of that office?	80	11	8
	(79 – 82)	(10 – 12)	(7 – 9)

Q43. How many hours are you employed to work each week?

	Less than 30 hours	30 hours but less than 37.5 hours	37.5 hours or more
How many hours are you employed to work each week?	4	5	91
	(3 – 4)	(5 – 6)	(90 – 92)

Q44. Do you usually work additional hours?

	Yes	No
Do you usually work additional hours?	76	24
	(74 – 77)	(23 – 26)

Q45. On average, how many additional hours do you work each week?

	None	Less than 5	5 to 9	10 to 14	15 to 20	More than 20
On average, how many additional hours do you work each week?	25 (23 – 26)	31 (30 – 33)	27 (25 – 28)	10 (9 – 11)	4 (4 – 5)	2 (1 – 2)

Q46. What is your salary range?

	Less than $30,000	$30,000 – $39,999	$40,000 – $49,999	$50,000 – $59,999	$60,000 – $69,999	$70,000 – $79,000
What is your salary range?	11 (10 – 12)	38 (36 – 39)	22 (20 – 23)	11 (10 – 12)	7 (6 – 8)	4 (3 – 5)

$80,000 – $89,999	$90,000 – $99,999	$100,000 – $149,999	$150,000 – $199,999	$200,000 or more
2 (2 – 3)	2 (1 – 2)	3 (3 – 4)	0 (0 – 1)	0 (0 – <0.5)

Q47. Are you:

	Male	Female
Are you:	44 (43 – 46)	56 (54 – 57)

Q48. To which age group do you belong?

	Under 25	25 to 29	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 44
To which age group do you belong?	5 (5 – 6)	11 (10 – 12)	14 (13 – 15)	16 (15 – 17)	16 (15 – 17)

45 to 49	50 to 54	55 to 59	60 to 64	65+
16 (14 – 17)	12 (11 – 13)	7 (7 – 8)	3 (2 – 3)	0 (0 – <0.5)

Q49. To which ethnic group(s) do you belong?

	NZ European	Other European	NZ Māori	Pacific Peoples	Asian	Other
To which ethnic group do you belong?	77 (75 – 78)	7 (6 – 8)	16 (14 – 17)	5 (4 – 6)	4 (3 – 4)	0 (0 – <0.5)

Q51. For those who identified as NZ Māori, do you know the name of your iwi or hapu?

	Yes	No
Do you know the name of your iwi or hapu?	93 (90 – 96)	6 (4 – 9)

Q52. Is your daily activity limited by a long-term condition or health problem that has lasted six months or more?

	Yes	No
Is your daily activity limited by a long-term condition or health problem that has lasted six months or more?	8 (7 – 9)	92 (91 – 93)

Q53. For those who identified having a disability, which of these best describes your condition or health problem?

	Sensory	Physical	Intellectual	Psychiatric/ Psychological	Other
Which of these best describes your condition or health problem?	10 (6 – 14)	77 (66 – 87)	-	9 (5 – 13)	13 (8 – 18)

Q54. For those who identified having a disability, how long have you had this condition or health problem?

	Less than 12 months	1 to 2 years	3 to 5 years	6 to 10 years	More than 10 years
How long have you had this condition or health problem?	11 (7 – 15)	17 (11 – 22)	26 (20 – 32)	17 (12 – 23)	28 (22 – 35)

Q55. Which of these qualifications, if any, do you have?

	No formal qualification	School qualification	Vocational or trade qualification	Polytechnic degree or diploma	Undergraduate university degree or diploma	Postgraduate university degree or diploma	Other
Which of these qualifications do you have?	7 (6 – 8)	60 (58 – 61)	20 (18 – 21)	14 (12 – 15)	29 (27 – 30)	19 (18 – 20)	12 (11 – 14)

Q56. Do you have (or share) primary caring responsibility for children or adults?

	Yes	No
Do you have (or share) primary caring responsibility for children or adults?	42 (40 – 44)	58 (56 – 60)

Q57. For those who identified having primary caring responsibility, do you provide care for:

	Pre-school child(ren)	School child(ren)	Other child(ren)	Adult(s)
Who do you provide care for?	12 (11 – 13)	29 (28 – 31)	5 (4 – 6)	8 (7 – 9)

Q58. Which of the following best describes your personal situation?

	Family with one income	Family with two or more incomes	Other
Which of the following best describes your personal situation?	24 (22 – 25)	49 (48 – 51)	27 (25 – 28)

Q59. Do you live with a spouse or partner?

	Yes	No
Do you live with a spouse or partner?	72 (70 – 73)	28 (27 – 30)

APPENDIX 2. TECHNICAL APPENDIX

Population

Survey scope

The target population for the Career Progression and Development Survey was defined as "current employees in the Public Service as at 30 June 2000, who have an employment contract of service with the chief executive of the department, and to whom the usual conditions relating to being an employee apply, and Public Service chief executives".

The following people were excluded:

- casual employees;
- contractors and consultants where payment was made to a company rather than to the worker; and
- employees of Archives New Zealand (because this department was created after 30 June 2000).

Coverage of the survey

All senior managers were selected for the survey. These were defined as the chief executive (CE) and all managers who either report to the CE or report to those managers who report to the CE. This group does not include professional or specialist staff unless they have a primary management function.

The size of the department at survey date influenced the selection of other employees. Where the department had under 400 employees, all staff were selected ("census department"). Where the department had 400 or more staff, a sample of employees was selected ("sample department").

Achieved sample and response rate

The responses from 6,522 public servants contribute to this report.

The overall response rate to the Career Progression and Development Survey was 52%. The response rate differed across departments, ranging from 29% to 78%.

Research Method

Frame

The sampling frame used for the survey was department-based. The frame was constructed from the Commission's Human Resource Capability (HRC) dataset, which contains anonymised unit record information for every person employed in the Public Service, including chief executives, as at 30 June 2000. This unit record information was collected from the HR units of each Public Service department, and was used for the October 2000 Cabinet report on Public Service human resource capability[1].

Sample design

The Career Progression and Development Survey sample design differed for census departments and sample departments. A simple random sample design was the research method used. The representativeness of each department was tested using the HRC departmental data.

Census department design

All employees were sampled.

[1] State Services Commission. *Human Resource Capability Survey of Public Service Departments and Selected State Sector Organisations as at 30 June 2000*. Wellington, SSC, 2000.

Sample department design

The sampling method for these departments was a two-way stratified design. The two stratification variables were:

1. department; and

2. management level, with a split between senior managers and "other employees".

A random sample of "other employees" employed in the department as at 30 June 2000 was taken, using the HRC data. Because of the five-month delay between the HRC data and the survey field phase (December 2000), some selected staff were no longer employed by the departments and were "sample deaths". To maintain the departmental sample size, sample deaths were replaced by a second random sample.

Note on Questions 35, 36, 37

Questions 35, 36 and 37 were included in the survey (Part C) as manager identifiers. The responses to these three questions were not used as many respondents did not answer the questions in the expected manner[2]. However, the stratification was included in the sample selection phase of the survey for the sample departments. Therefore the sample design has been assumed to be a simple random sample (SRS) within departments.

Survey procedures

The survey consisted of a single questionnaire, administered in electronic (web-based, intranet-based or email-based) or paper-based form. Most questionnaires were completed electronically, and the web method was used by approximately half of all respondents to the survey.

Feedback from the field phase of the survey indicates that most respondents found the questionnaire easy to complete. The problems identified in the field stage centred around the electronic methods: difficulties associated with usernames and passwords in accessing the web and intranet questionnaires, and a minor incompatibility between the email survey and one department's computer system.

Weighting

At the departmental level (in the individual departmental reports) the results have not been weighted because of the SRS assumption. The proportions reported are assumed to be reflective of the department as a whole.

For the Public Service report, the point estimates (proportions) for each question were summarised for each department and the department itself was assigned a weight. The weighting method for the Public Service report is given below.

Weighting method for the Public Service report

As stated earlier, a SRS design within departments has been assumed. A department-based weight was constructed, where the weight was the proportion of Public Service employees working in the department

$$W_d = \frac{N_d}{N_{PS}}$$

where

W_d = the department weight
N_d = the number of employees in the department as at 30 June 2000 for sample departments, and the number of employees as at survey date for census departments
N_{PS} = the total number of employees in the Public Service as at 30 June 2000 $\left(\sum_{d=1}^{38} N_d\right)$

[2] For example, there was particular confusion around the meaning of "tiers" in question 35.

Bias uncorrected by weighting

The departmental and item weights do not correct for the difference in sampling between senior management and other employees. The reason for this is that the weights do not completely take account of the sample design. The size of this bias differs by department. Census departments have zero bias because all staff were selected into the survey.

The size of the bias for each sample department; depends on two factors:

1. the proportion of the sample represented by Tier 1, 2, and 3 managers; and

2. the difference in size of weights for the Tier 1, 2, and 3 managers and for other employees.

Point Estimate Calculations

Sampling errors for point estimates

As only a sample of the target population responded to the survey, the survey estimates contain sampling error due to non-response. We have used the results from this sample to draw conclusions about the population. The sample errors have been used to estimate the accuracy of the point estimates as applied to the target population.

A survey estimate with a large sampling error is unreliable. The sampling error – a statistical measure that can be calculated for each estimate – should be used to examine the reliability of an estimate. The formula for the Public Service sampling error of a point estimate (proportion) is:

$$s.e.(\hat{p}) = \sqrt{\sum_{d=1}^{38} w_d^2 \left(1 - \frac{n_d}{N_d}\right) \frac{\hat{p}_d (1 - \hat{p}_d)}{n_d - 1}}$$

where

n_d = the number of respondents who answered the question (including respondents who skipped over the question)[3]
N_d = the number of employees in the department as at 30 June 2000 for sample departments, and the number of employees as at survey date for census departments
$\hat{p}_d$ = the point estimate (proportion) for the department
w_d = the departmental weight.

The sampling error formula has been used as an accuracy indicator rather than a strict sampling error estimator. There are two reasons for this approach. First, only a sample of census department staff responded to the survey. The sampling error has therefore been applied to census department proportions in order to adjust their findings taking into account non-response bias. Second, sample departments were associated with both non-response bias and bias arising from sampling. The sampling error has therefore been applied to sample department proportions in order to adjust their findings taking into account these two sources of bias.

Confidence intervals for point estimates

The sampling error is used to construct a confidence interval around the point estimate (proportion). This report uses a 99% confidence interval for estimates, which means that the confidence interval has a 99% chance of containing the true population value. From the sampling error formula above, the confidence interval for a Public Service estimate is:

$$99\%\ CI = \hat{p} \pm 2.576 \sqrt{\sum_{d=1}^{38} w_d^2 \left(1 - \frac{n_d}{N_d}\right) \frac{\hat{p}_d (1 - \hat{p}_d)}{n_d - 1}}$$

[3] There were 17 quantitative questions that could be skipped by a respondent. For questions 26, 45, 53, 54, and 57 the skipped responses were coded into a "No" category. For questions 6, 19, 20, 23, 27, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 36, and 37 the skipped responses were also counted in n but not entered into an answer category (so the valid responses to these questions do not sum to n). For both cases, missing responses are omitted from n.

Confidence intervals are provided in the tables in Appendix 1, in brackets beneath the relevant proportion.

Confidence intervals for the difference between two point estimates

The formula for the difference between two point estimates (proportions) is:

$$diff = \hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$$

A 99% confidence interval for the difference between two point estimates can also be calculated. The formula is:

$$99\%CI = diff \pm 2.576\sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{p}_1) + \text{var}(\hat{p}_2)}$$

The finite population correction was also incorporated into the above formula, which was operationalised as[4]:

$$99\%\ CI = diff \pm 2.576\sqrt{(1-\frac{n_d}{N_d})x\left(\sum_{d=1}^{38} w_d^2\left(\frac{\hat{p}_1(1-\hat{p}_1)}{n_1-1}\right)\right)+\left(\sum_{d=1}^{38} w_d^2\left(\frac{\hat{p}_2(1-\hat{p}_2)}{n_2-1}\right)\right)}$$

where

n_d = the number of respondents who answered the question (including respondents who skipped over the question)
N_d = the number of employees in the department as at 30 June 2000 for sample departments, and the number of employees as at survey date for census departments
n_1 = the number of respondents in the first group who answered the question
n_2 = the number of respondents in the second group who answered the question
$\hat{p}_1$ = the point estimate (proportion) for the first group
$\hat{p}_2$ = the point estimate (proportion) for the second group
w_d = the departmental weight.

A confidence interval that includes 0 means that no statistically significant difference has been found between the two proportions. This method has been used to compare the results of groups, for example to compare the results from females in the Public Service with those from males.

[4] Since within the strata (defined by department and manager) simple random samples have been taken, the covariance term that normally arises in the estimator of the difference between the point estimates for two different subgroups has been reduced to zero. This is the reason the covariance term appears missing from the formula.

STATE SERVICES COMMISSION
Te Komihana O Ngā Tari Kāwanatanga

CONFIDENTIAL

Dear Participant

CAREER PROGRESSION AND DEVELOPMENT IN THE NZ PUBLIC SERVICE

Welcome to the survey on career progression and development in the New Zealand Public Service. The survey aims to identify policies and practices that help or hinder staff to develop the skills and experience they need to maintain their current role or for a more senior role. The findings will be used to develop strategies for change at the departmental and Public Service–wide level. Although the strategies are intended to address issues for all staff, there is a particular focus on gender issues. The success of the survey depends on collecting a wide range of views to ensure the findings are representative of your department and the whole Public Service. Your views are important — please take your time and answer carefully.

Selecting respondents

You are one of about 12,000 public servants selected to complete this survey. This includes all staff in departments with fewer than 350 people, and a random sample from the others.

Confidentiality

The survey is anonymous — no names are collected — and only project staff involved in analysing the results have access to the data. No individuals will be identifiable in any results that are reported.

Time required

It should only take about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire, depending on how much you have to say. We urge you to take the time to complete it. There is space at the end of each section to add comments about anything in the survey or about any topic or area that we failed to cover.

Period covered in the survey

The survey covers the past year in your current organisation, or however long you have been there if it is less than one year.

Reporting

Each department will have a summary of its results early in 2001. A report of the findings from across the Public Service will be published by mid 2001.

Thank you for your support. If you have any questions please contact one of the project staff:

Sue Loughlin	04 495 6747	email: sue.loughlin@ssc.govt.nz
Michelle Gosse	04 495 6630	email: michelle.gosse@ssc.govt.nz

Please return the completed questionnaire to – Career Progression & Development Survey, SSC, PO Box 329, Wellington **by 13 December 2000**. A self–addressed pre–paid envelope is enclosed.

The questionnaire will be destroyed once the analysis is complete.

Part A: Your job and career

This first set of questions asks about what you value in the workplace in general and how you see your current job and career.

1 Thinking about work and workplaces **in general**, how important are the following factors to you personally?
(mark one column for each factor)

	Highly important	Somewhat important	Of little or no importance
Pay and benefits	○	○	○
Challenging work	○	○	○
Feeling of accomplishment	○	○	○
Opportunities for advancement	○	○	○
Job security	○	○	○
Standard hours	○	○	○
Reasonable workload	○	○	○
Quality of management	○	○	○
Reputation of organisation	○	○	○

2 Thinking about the job you have now, how would you **rate your own job** against the following factors?
(mark one column for each factor)

	Good	Fair	Poor
Pay and benefits	○	○	○
Challenging work	○	○	○
Feeling of accomplishment	○	○	○
Opportunities for advancement	○	○	○
Job security	○	○	○
Standard hours	○	○	○
Reasonable workload	○	○	○
Quality of management	○	○	○
Reputation of organisation	○	○	○

3 Thinking about your current job and career, which of these, if any, apply to you? (mark all that apply)

- ☐ I feel I have already achieved all I want to achieve in my career
- ☐ I see my current position as a training ground for my next career move within my current organisation
- ☐ I see my current organisation as a training ground for a career move to another organisation
- ☐ I want to work in a higher–level position
- ☐ I want to become an expert in my field
- ☐ I am prepared to move into another work area to develop my career
- ☐ I am prepared to move to the private sector to further develop my career
- ☐ I am prepared to move to another geographical area to further develop my career
- ☐ I have other plans for my career (please specify below):

_____

_____

_____

OR

- ☐ None of these

4 Which of these **best** describes your current situation? (mark one only)

- ○ I am planning to stay in my current position for the long term
- ○ I am planning to stay in my current position for the short term
- ○ I am thinking about changing jobs
- ○ I am actively applying for other jobs
- ○ None of these/uncertain

5 Would you like to hold a position at a higher level in the Public Service at some time in the future?

- ○ Definitely
- ○ Probably
- ○ Uncertain
- ○ Probably not ▶ Go to Q7
- ○ Definitely not ▶ Go to Q7

6 Would you like to become a chief executive in the Public Service?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ Don't know
- ○ N/A

7 In your current organisation within the past 12 months, have any of these things **stopped** you from applying for a position at a higher level in the Public Service? (mark all that apply)

- ☐ Preference to stay in my current job
- ☐ No desire to work in a higher–level position
- ☐ No desire to take on management responsibilities
- ☐ No desire to work long hours associated with higher–level positions
- ☐ No desire to undertake extensive travel
- ☐ No desire to relocate to another area to take up a higher–level position
- ☐ No desire because of the political nature of higher–level positions
- ☐ Concern that I would not be able to balance work and family responsibilities
- ☐ Concern that the selection process would not be fair
- ☐ Lack of confidence in myself
- ☐ Lack of other people's confidence in me
- ☐ Lack of support from my manager
- ☐ Don't yet have the necessary qualifications
- ☐ Don't yet have the necessary experience
- ☐ Concerns about my health
- ☐ Other factor(s) (please specify below):

_____

_____

_____

OR

- ☐ None of these

PART A: Career development

This next set of questions asks about some of the factors known to assist career development in general.

8 How important to your job and career **in general** is access to the following opportunities?
(mark one column for each factor)

	Highly important	Somewhat important	Of little or no importance	N/A
Flexible hours (such as glide–time)	○	○	○	○
Working from home	○	○	○	○
Caregiver leave	○	○	○	○
Parental leave	○	○	○	○
Leave for cultural reasons	○	○	○	○
Part–time work	○	○	○	○
Long–term leave (paid or unpaid)	○	○	○	○

9 How important to your job and career **in general** is access to the following opportunities?
(mark one column for each factor)

	Highly important	Somewhat important	Of little or no importance	N/A
On–the–job training	○	○	○	○
Training courses and seminars	○	○	○	○
Study leave to further my qualifications	○	○	○	○
Secondment to other work areas or organisations	○	○	○	○
Acting in higher positions	○	○	○	○
Gaining experience in a range of tasks	○	○	○	○
Working on high–profile projects	○	○	○	○
Demonstrating my skills and abilities	○	○	○	○

10 How important to your job and career **in general** do you consider the following in your work environment?
(mark one column for each factor)

	Highly important	Somewhat important	Of little or no importance	N/A
Having my ideas valued	○	○	○	○
Equitable access to rewards	○	○	○	○
Staff working co–operatively	○	○	○	○
Accommodation of outside commitments	○	○	○	○
Being treated fairly	○	○	○	○
Good work–area design	○	○	○	○

The next set of questions asks about your experience in your current organisation within the past 12 months. Remember that if you have been in your current organisation for less than 12 months, please answer in relation to the time you have been there.

11 Thinking about **your own situation in your current organisation within the past 12 months,** how would you rate the level of support you received from these people?
(mark one column for each factor)

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very Poor	N/A
My immediate manager	○	○	○	○	○	○
My co–workers	○	○	○	○	○	○
My own staff	○	○	○	○	○	○
My partner or friends	○	○	○	○	○	○
My family or whanau	○	○	○	○	○	○

12 Thinking about **your own situation in your current organisation within the past 12 months,** how would you rate your immediate manager or supervisor against the following factors?
(mark one column for each factor)

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very Poor	N/A
Communicates effectively	○	○	○	○	○	○
Provides regular and constructive feedback about my performance	○	○	○	○	○	○
Acknowledges when I have performed well	○	○	○	○	○	○
Allows me freedom to use my initiative in performing my job	○	○	○	○	○	○
Provides me with the information I need to do my job	○	○	○	○	○	○
Encourages my input into decisions which directly affect me	○	○	○	○	○	○
Encourages and supports my career development	○	○	○	○	○	○
Takes a flexible and supportive approach to resolving work and family conflicts	○	○	○	○	○	○

13 Thinking about **your own situation in your current organisation within the past 12 months,** how would you rate your organisation on providing the following opportunities?
(mark one column for each factor)

	Good	Fair	Poor	N/A
Flexible hours (such as glide–time)	○	○	○	○
Working from home	○	○	○	○
Caregiver leave	○	○	○	○
Parental leave	○	○	○	○
Leave for cultural reasons	○	○	○	○
Part–time work	○	○	○	○
Long–term leave (paid or unpaid)	○	○	○	○

14 Thinking about **your own situation in your current organisation within the past 12 months,** how would you rate your organisation on providing the following opportunities?
(mark one column for each factor)

	Good	Fair	Poor	N/A
On–the–job training	○	○	○	○
Training courses and seminars	○	○	○	○
Study leave to further my qualifications	○	○	○	○
Secondment to other work areas or organisations	○	○	○	○
Acting in higher positions	○	○	○	○
Gaining experience in a range of tasks	○	○	○	○
Working on high–profile projects	○	○	○	○
Demonstrating my skills and abilities	○	○	○	○

15 Thinking about **your own experience in your current organisation in the past 12 months,** how would you rate your organisation against the following factors? (mark one column for each factor)

	Good	Fair	Poor	N/A
Having my ideas valued	○	○	○	○
Equitable access to rewards	○	○	○	○
Staff working co–operatively	○	○	○	○
Accommodation of outside commitments	○	○	○	○
Being treated fairly	○	○	○	○
Good work–area design	○	○	○	○

16 In your current organisation within the past 12 months, has there been anything else that you feel has **helped** you to develop in your job and your career?

○ No

○ Yes

If yes, please specify:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

17 In your current organisation within the past 12 months, has there been anything else that you feel has made it **difficult** for you to develop in your career?

○ No

○ Yes

If yes, please specify:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

18 Do you have a mentor?

○ Yes

○ No ▶ Go to Q20

19 Did you make contact with your mentor through a formal mentoring programme?

○ Yes ▶ Go to Q21

○ No

20 Would you like to have access to a formal mentoring scheme?

○ Yes

○ No

○ Don't know

21 Thank you for completing the first part of this questionnaire. If you would like to comment on anything covered so far or about something that is important to you but that has not been included, please do so in the space provided below.

Part B: Personal Experiences

This next set of questions asks whether you have experienced any unfair or unwelcome behaviour in your current organisation. Remember, your answers will be kept strictly confidential and our results will not identify you.

22 In your current organisation within the past 12 months was there any situation or event in which you felt you were **treated less favourably** than others in the same or similar circumstances because of a personal attribute such as ethnicity, gender or disability?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No ▶ Go to Q25

23 In your opinion, was this treatment because of your:
(mark all that apply)

- ☐ Gender
- ☐ Ethnicity
- ☐ Disability
- ☐ Sexual orientation
- ☐ Age
- ☐ Marital status
- ☐ Pregnancy
- ☐ Employment status
- ☐ Religious or ethical beliefs
- ☐ Political opinion
- ☐ Another factor (please specify below)

_____

_____

_____

24 Please briefly describe the event or events and what happened as a result.

25 In your current organisation within the past 12 months, have you experienced any unwelcome behaviour, which served to humiliate, intimidate or offend you.

○ Yes

○ No ▶ Go to Q28

26 Of the behaviours listed below that you experienced in your current organisation within the past 12 months, please indicate how often they occurred. (mark one column for each behaviour)

	Once or twice	On a few occasions	On many occasions	N/A
Offensive remarks	○	○	○	○
Offensive jokes	○	○	○	○
Unwanted offensive communications (such as offensive internal e–mail)	○	○	○	○
Inappropriate comments concerning my appearance	○	○	○	○
Circulation of negative rumours about me (either written or verbal)	○	○	○	○
Being set unrealistic goals	○	○	○	○
Being excluded from conversations and staff social occasions	○	○	○	○
Being denied access to particular areas of work or projects	○	○	○	○
Verbal threats against me	○	○	○	○
Physical threats against me	○	○	○	○
Pressure to engage in unwelcome sexual activity	○	○	○	○
Unwelcome touching, pinching, cornering or brushing of my body	○	○	○	○
Unwanted repeated requests for dates or other social activity	○	○	○	○
Another behaviour (please specify below)	○	○	○	○

_____

_____

27 Who was most often responsible?
(mark all that apply)

- ☐ Male(s) senior to me
- ☐ Female(s) senior to me
- ☐ Male co–worker(s) at my level
- ☐ Female co–worker(s) at my level
- ☐ Male subordinate(s)
- ☐ Female subordinate(s)
- ☐ Other (please specify below)

_____

_____

28 If you answered "no" to Q22 **and** "no" to Q25, go to Q34
If you answered "yes" to **either** of those questions, go to Q29

29 Did any of the following happen because of those experiences you have identified in Q22 or Q25?
(mark all that apply)

- ☐ I began to actively seek another job
- ☐ I became disengaged from the organisation
- ☐ My relationship with my manager deteriorated
- ☐ My relationship with my co–workers deteriorated
- ☐ I took more time off work
- ☐ I became less productive at work
- ☐ Other (please specify below)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

OR

- ☐ None of these

30 Is there a formal process within your organisation to deal with harassment complaints?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No ▶ Go to Q34
- ○ Don't know ▶ Go to Q34

31 Within that formal reporting process, do you know who to approach to report an incident at work?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ Don't know

32 Have you used that formal process in your organisation within the past 12 months to report any incident at work?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

33 How confident are you that complaints are dealt with fairly within that process?

- ○ Confident
- ○ Neither confident nor unconfident
- ○ Not confident
- ○ Don't know

34 Thank you for completing the second part of this questionnaire. If you would like to comment on anything covered so far or about something that is important to you but that has not been included, please do so in the space provided below.

Part C: Background Information

This final set of questions asks for some background information about you. This information is important for us to be able to analyse our results.

35 Is your position at any of these levels?

- ○ Chief Executive Officer
- ○ Tier 2 (reporting directly to CEO)
- ○ Tier 3 (reporting to Tier 2)
- ○ No, I am not at any of those levels ▶ Go to Q38

36 Do you supervise or manage staff in your current position?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

37 Do you manage other resources (e.g. budgets) in your current position?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

38 What is your job title?

_____

39 In total, how many years have you worked in your current organisation?

- ○ Less than 6 months
- ○ 6 months – 1 year
- ○ 1 – 2 years
- ○ 3 – 5 years
- ○ 6 – 10 years
- ○ 11 – 15 years
- ○ 16 – 20 years
- ○ more than 20 years

40 In total, how many years have you worked in the Public Service (including broken service and part–time work)?

- ○ Less than 12 months
- ○ 1 – 2 years
- ○ 3 – 5 years
- ○ 6 – 10 years
- ○ 11 – 15 years
- ○ 16 – 20 years
- ○ more than 20 years

41 In what region do you work?

- ○ Northland
- ○ Auckland
- ○ Waikato
- ○ Bay of Plenty
- ○ Gisborne
- ○ Hawkes Bay
- ○ Taranaki
- ○ Manawatu – Wanganui
- ○ Wellington
- ○ West Coast
- ○ Canterbury
- ○ Otago
- ○ Southland
- ○ Nelson
- ○ Marlborough
- ○ Area outside New Zealand

42 Which of these best describes the location of that office?

- ○ City
- ○ Town
- ○ Rural area

43 How many hours are you employed to work each week?

- ○ Less than 30 hours
- ○ 30 hours but less than 37.5 hours
- ○ 37.5 hours or more

44 Do you usually work additional hours (over and above those you are employed for)?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No ▶ Go to Q46

45 On average, how many additional hours do you work each week?

- ○ less than 5
- ○ 5 – 9
- ○ 10 – 14
- ○ 15 – 20
- ○ more than 20

46 What is your salary range?

- ○ Less than $30,000
- ○ $30,000 – $39,999
- ○ $40,000 – $49,999
- ○ $50,000 – $59,999
- ○ $60,000 – $69,999
- ○ $70,000 – $79,999
- ○ $80,000 – $89,999
- ○ $90,000 – $99,999
- ○ $100,000 – $149,999
- ○ $150,000 – $199,999
- ○ $200,000 or more

47 Are you:

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

48 To which age group do you belong?

- ○ Under 25
- ○ 25 – 29
- ○ 30 – 34
- ○ 35 – 39
- ○ 40 – 44
- ○ 45 – 49
- ○ 50 – 54
- ○ 55 – 59
- ○ 60 – 64
- ○ 65 +

49 To which ethnic group(s) do you belong?
(mark all that apply)

- ☐ NZ European/Pakeha
- ☐ Non–NZ European
- ☐ Māori
- ☐ Samoan
- ☐ Cook Island Māori
- ☐ Tongan
- ☐ Niuean
- ☐ Chinese
- ☐ Indian
- ☐ Other (please specify below)

_____

50 If you selected **Māori** as one of your answers in Q49 ▶ Go to Q51
Otherwise ▶ Go to Q52

51 Do you know the name of your iwi or hapu?

- ○ No
- ○ Yes (please specify below)

_____

_____

52 Is your daily activity limited by a long–term condition or health problem that has lasted six months or more (or is expected to last six months or more)?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No ▶ Go to Q55

53 Which of these best describes your condition or health problem? (mark all that apply)

- ☐ Sensory
- ☐ Physical
- ☐ Intellectual
- ☐ Psychiatric/Psychological
- ☐ Other

54 How long have you had this condition or health problem?

- ○ Less than 12 months
- ○ 1 – 2 years
- ○ 3 – 5 years
- ○ 6 – 10 years
- ○ More than 10 years

55 Which of these qualifications, if any, do you have? (mark all that apply)

- ☐ No formal qualification
- ☐ School qualification
- ☐ Vocational or trade qualification
- ☐ Polytechnic degree or diploma
- ☐ Undergraduate university degree or diploma
- ☐ Postgraduate university degree or diploma
- ☐ Other (please specify below)

_____

_____

_____

56 Do you have (or share) primary caring responsibility for children or adults?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No ▶ Go to Q58

57 Who do you provide care for?
(mark all that apply)

- ☐ Pre–school child(ren)
- ☐ School child(ren)
- ☐ Other child(ren)
- ☐ Adult(s)

58 Which of the following best describes your personal situation?

- ○ Family with one income
- ○ Family with two or more incomes
- ○ Other

59 Do you live with a spouse or partner?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

Thank you for your time and effort.

Please return the completed questionnaire by **13 December, 2000** to:

Career Progression & Development Survey
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State Services Commission

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New Zealand

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