

**PROMOTION OF FEMALE EDUCATORS INTO MANAGEMENT POSITIONS AT
SCHOOLS IN LULEKANI CIRCUIT IN THE MOPANI DISTRICT, LIMPOPO
PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA**

BY

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A mini-dissertation submitted in partial-fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MASTERS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (MPA)

in the

Faculty of Management and Law

(Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership)

at the

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

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2014

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study is to explore the views of educators with regard to the promotion of female educators to management positions at primary schools in Lulekani Circuit in the Mopani District, Limpopo Province. Specifically, this research sought to identify the factors perceived by both men and women in management positions and those who are not in management positions to be the cause of the ongoing under-representation of women at school management level. At present there are many more female educators at primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit than there are male educators. However, to date in the circuit there are many more male educators occupying management positions at these primary schools than there are females. A qualitative research method in the form of semi-structured face-to face interviews was used in this study to investigate the perceived and actual barriers and challenges which impede the promotion of female educators to management positions at primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit in the Mopani District, Limpopo Province. Twenty participants, who included both male and female educators, from five primary schools participated in one-on-one, face-to-face interviews for the purpose of this study. The sample included educators who occupy management positions (principals, deputy principals and heads of departments) and those who do not occupy management positions.

The study revealed that the under-representation of female educators in management position is a highly complex issue which is influenced by factors ranging from women's lack of confidence, lack of support from colleagues and family, gender stereotyping, family commitments and pressure from conflicting roles. The exclusion of female educators from management positions is matter of concern because, not only does it exclude a significant section of the South African community from participating in decisions that directly affect them, but it also violates the principles of equality and of the creation of a non-sexist society which are enshrined in the South African Constitution. It is recommended that urgent steps be taken by all stakeholders to ensure equal representation of both male and female educators in management positions at schools.

Keywords: Promotion, management position, barriers, leadership, underrepresentation, Gender, stereotypes, glass ceiling

DECLARATION

I declare that the “PROMOTION OF FEMALE EDUCATORS INTO MANAGEMENT POSITIONS AT SCHOOLS IN LULEKANI CIRCUIT IN THE MOPANI DISTRICT, LIMPOPO PROVINCE” mini-dissertation hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree of Masters in Public Administration has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university, that it is my work in design and execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

.....
N. S. MATHEVULA

.....
DATE

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother, Mathevula C. H for her encouragement, my wife Mathevula G. T for her support, my children Kurhula, Nkateko and Muhli, as well as Mbhombi T. S.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to extend my gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. D. E. Uwizeyimana, for his critical comments, guidance, and patience and for being a supportive mentor in the accomplishment of this mini-dissertation.

I also want to thank the following:

- The principals of participant schools in the Lulekani Circuit for allowing me to conduct research in their schools.
- The female and male principals, deputy principals, head of departments and educators who participated in the study.
- God Almighty for His Mercy without which I would not have completed this task.

Thank you.

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CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1. 1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of this research is to investigate and analyse the factors that women educators (teachers) perceive to be barriers to their advancement to management positions in primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit in the Mopani District, Limpopo Province. This chapter begins with a summary of the background to the study and a statement of the research problem. It proceeds to outline the aim, objectives, and the research questions that guide the study. The chapter includes the definition of some of the concepts used in the study, an outline of data collection methods, the ethical considerations, and the structure of the research according to the chapters of this thesis.

1. 2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

For centuries the lives of women have been shaped by their reproductive, domestic and nurturing roles, while men have been concerned with business, science, managerial positions, and politics (Korabik, 1999). A combination of societal changes and technological developments in the modern and post-modern era has facilitated the entry of women into the labour market and necessitated a broader definition of the social and professional roles of women (*ibid*). Besides being mothers and wives, many women now play key roles in research, managerial structures and in the field of politics (Schmidt & Møller, n. d.:3). The development of more reliable and effective birth control has given women the choice of whether or when to have children, thereby making it possible for them to plan and pursue professional careers (*ibid*). Economic and societal trends, such as the shift in the distribution of jobs now favouring an increasing number of jobs in the service sector (which includes all industries such as transportation, communication, public utilities, wholesale and retail trade, finance, insurance, real estate, other personal and business services, and government, with the exception of those in the goods-producing sector, which includes agriculture, mining, construction, and manufacturing (see Kutscher & Mark, 1983:21), have also resulted in the redesigning of work in terms of it being less dependent on the superior physical strength of men (Korabik, 1999; Sczesny & Stahlberg, 2002). The result of this has been a significant change in the composition of the workforce, influenced also by a significant increase in the participation rate for women in most of the Western countries over the last 50 years of the

20th century (Korabik, 1999; Schmidt & Møller, n. d.:3; Toossi, 2002). Even though women have succeeded in making inroads into many of the previously male-dominated areas, jobs remain largely segregated along 'gender lines' (Fernandes & Cabral-Cardoso, 2003:77; Bettio, & Verashchagina, 2009:6). These gender lines work not only horizontally, dividing traditionally male-dominated occupations from the female ones, but also vertically, in the sense of relatively few women occupying positions at senior management level (Fernandes & Cabral-Cardoso, 2003:77; Amble, 2005:1). Research shows that the proportionate increase in the overall labour force participation rate for women is not reflected in the proportionate increase in the participation of women in managerial positions (Fernandes, & Cabral-Cardoso, 2003:77; Amble, 2005:1). Despite the increase of women in the work place, they (women) remain severely under-represented in higher levels of organisations in both developed and developing countries (The Economist, 2009:1). The fact that "the proportion of women decreases at progressively higher levels of managerial hierarchies" in both developed and developing countries, suggests that the discussion regarding social roles and professional gender equality remains far from settled (Ginige, Amaratunga, & Haigh, 2007).

The teaching profession has not been spared this anomaly. For example, a 2012 study conducted in the UK found that "teaching has become a female-dominated profession in both secondary and primary schools". The same study found that "Fewer than one in four recruits are men. Only 25% of teachers are men and it is set to get worse as the profession sheds older members" (Michael Gove, in Gyngell, 2012:1). The same sentiments are expressed by Malheiro de Oliveira and Abreu (2012:226), who argue that "Today in France, as in the vast majority of developed or developing countries, the rate of female school teachers is around 80%." However, despite the fact that women dominate the primary and secondary teaching profession internationally (in both developed and developing countries), they remain under-represented in leadership and management positions in both public and private education institutions, at both secondary and primary levels, in both developed and developing countries (Cubillo & Brown, 2003:279; Amble, 2005:1). A set of historical, social, economic and organizational factors in both developed and developing countries has-been cited by researchers as being the main contributing factors to the working status of women in the 21st century, which in turn has led to their under-representation in management positions (Powell & Graves, 2003:239). For example, Kellerman and Rhode (2007:6) see the common obstacles to the promotion of women in leadership positions to have included the choices they make, such as opting out of full-time professional work to keep home fires burning, as

well as the existence of gender bias in leadership opportunities. Others such as Kiamba (2008:13) and Chabaya, Rembe and Wadesango (2009:245) contend that women themselves are often unwilling to compete for top management positions in public and private organisations (including schools). In this context, Kyriakoussis and Sait (2006), in their study on the lack of ambition amongst Greek female teachers to attain managerial positions, found that 94, 1% of female teachers did not apply for promotional positions. Another study conducted by Omukaga, Panyako and Wanjiku (2007) on the readiness and willingness of female educators in rural areas of the West Province of Kenya to assume leadership positions in schools revealed that female teachers in primary schools were unwilling to assume leadership responsibilities. It is against this background that this study will, *inter alia*, look at the effect of existing barriers, such as the perceived leadership style of women, their willingness and readiness to occupy management positions, and the effects of these challenges on female educators' rise to school management positions in the primary schools of the Mopani District in Limpopo Province.

1. 3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Women have been found to form the bulk of the work force in public education in both developed and developing countries (Richardson, 2003:245). However, many studies have revealed that in school administration men serve as bosses and that men are more likely to be found in positions with the greatest power, pay, and prestige in comparison to women (Maskell, 1997; Blackman, 2000; Smith-Doerr, 2004). For example, according to the Department of Basic Education Report (2012) in South Africa, there were 418 109 educators in both the public and independent schools in 2012. As defined in section 1 (1. 6. 10) of this chapter, "public school" and "independent school" derive from the South African Schools Act (SASA) of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996b:3). The South African Schools Act (SASA) of 1996 established a national schooling system and recognised two categories of schools: public and independent. Public schools are state controlled and generally funded from taxpayers' money (ISASA, n. d.:1; Du Toit, 2004:2). Independent schools are privately owned, governed and funded (DBE, 2012:11). In terms of SASA (1996), all private schools were included in the independent school category (ISASA, n. d.:1; Du Toit, 2004:2). State subsidies to independent institutions are permitted, but not guaranteed (ISASA, n. d.:1; DBE, 2012:11). For the purpose of this research, the term "school" is broadly defined as a public school (i. e. school that is funded by taxpayers' money), or an independent school (i. e. a

school privately owned, managed and funded, with minimal or no state/government funding) which enrolls learners in one or more grades between Grade R and Grade 12 (see Section (xix) of the SASA Act (84 of 1996). The total number of female educators in public and independent schools combined is 285 252 (68%), while the number of male educators is only 132852 (32%) (Department of Basic Education, 2012). This figure clearly shows that there are more female educators than male educators employed by the Department of Basic Education (DBE) in South Africa. More recent figures show that women constitute only 30% of school managers, yet they constitute nearly 70% of the teaching population (DoE, 2005 cited in Paulsen, 2009:1). The trend of employment of women, and their under-representation at national level, is similar to that shown by the Limpopo Province. For example, according to the Limpopo Provincial Department of Education (2012), there is a total of 58 194 educators in Limpopo Province. The number of female educators totals 34 074, while 24 120 are male educators. Once again this is a clear indication that the teaching workforce in Limpopo province is also dominated by female educators. In Mopani District (where this research was conducted), there are 12 131 educators. The female educators outnumber the male educators by 7 107. According to the Limpopo Provincial Department of Education persal system ("Persal" means the personnel and salaries management system used by the National and Provincial governments (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury, 2006:1) for the year 2012 (Persal, 2012), there are 11 360 educators in promotional positions in Limpopo Province, and of this figure male educators number 6 881, while the number of females is 4 479 (Limpopo Provincial Department of Education, 2012). The report further indicates that in Mopani District there are 2 350 educators in promotional positions, the number of male educators in these positions being 1 410, while women number 940. In the Lulekani Circuit there are 21 public primary schools (Limpopo Provincial Department of Education, 2012). The total number of educators at primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit is 435, of which 343 are female and 92 are male educators (*ibid*). In the district, the number of female teachers in management positions is 45, while the number of male educators in management positions is 33 (Limpopo Provincial Department of Education 2012). These figures clearly indicate that, although women are not well represented in management positions in Limpopo Province as a whole, they constitute the majority in the teaching fraternity of the province and Lulekani District.

These figures show clearly that the under-representation of women in management positions, and in school management positions in particular, continues in post-apartheid South Africa,

despite the fact that government has attempted to address the issue of the under-representation of women in management positions by introducing legal frameworks such as the South African Constitution (1996), the Labour Relations Act (No. 66 of 1995), and the Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998, as well as the concept of Affirmative Action, which informs the Employment Equity Act, among many other measures (to be discussed in detail in Chapter two of this thesis). Despite these efforts on the part of the South African government, and the advancements in women's education levels, gender discrimination is still evident, and glass ceilings still exist for women who aspire to top management positions in South Africa (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2006; De Braine, 2011:57). The fact that the under-representation of women in general, and women educators in management and leadership positions in particular, has continued in South African, despite the existence of the legislative framework which has promoted gender equality since 1994, justifies the need in this research to establish why such under-representation has continued unabated. The researcher seeks to determine the factors (challenges/barriers) hindering female educators in the primary schools of the Mopani District in Limpopo Province from applying for and being promoted to school management positions. In order to address these concerns, the main research problem to be investigated in this study, or the central research question to be answered, is: What are the various factors influencing the continuing under-representation of women in management positions in the primary schools of the Mopani District in Limpopo Province?

1. 4 THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to identify and critically analyse the challenges affecting the promotion of female educators to management positions in primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit in the Mopani District, Limpopo Province.

1. 5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In view of the aim of the study, the objectives of this study are:

- To explore the extent to which female educators are promoted to management positions at primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit of Mopani District.
- To identify the factors which contribute to the under-representation of female educators in management positions at these schools.

- To analyse female educators' readiness and/or willingness to occupy management positions.
- To make recommendations to address the challenges that hinder female educators from occupying management positions.

1. 6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following questions form the basis of this investigation:

- To what extent are female educators promoted to management positions at primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit of Mopani District?
- What are the specific factors which contribute to the under-representation of female educators in management positions in the schools in the Lulekani Circuit of the Mopani District, Limpopo Province?
- To what extent are female educators ready and/or willing to occupy management positions?
- Which strategies can be used to address the challenges that hinder female educators from occupying management positions?

1. 7 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

The following concepts, which are used in, and form the basis of, this study are explained in this section.

Management position

The term "management position" is generally applied to positions of leadership in any public or private organisation (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:7). However, in this research, it refers specifically to educators, both male and female, who occupy positions such as principals, deputy principals, heads of schools or heads of departments in schools, but more specifically in primary schools, which are the main focus and comprise the setting of this study.

Sex

When using the term 'sex' we are referring to the biological sex of the individual, which is determined by physical features, chromosomes, and genitalia. Thus, 'sex' describes human females and males (World Health Organisation, 2011).

Gender

The concept of 'gender' is defined in terms of the social identity of individuals. Social factors, such as behaviour, social role, and position determine whether a person is what we know as a man or a woman (World Health Organisation, 2011). I am aware that there is a difference between the definitions of 'female' and 'women', 'male' and 'man'. However, I will use these terms interchangeably, as several of the research papers and theoretical articles reviewed also use these terms interchangeably.

Stereotypes

The definition of Six and Eckes (1991:16) of stereotypes is widely acknowledged and has been used by several other researchers within the field of social science. I will therefore use their definition in this study. They define stereotype as "a set of beliefs about the personal attributes of a group of people" (Six &Eckes, 1991:16). Gender stereotypes are defined as "the structured sets of beliefs about the personal attributes of men and women" (Six &Eckes, 1991: 22; Klewin, 2007:7).

Promotion/Advancement

Soanes (2002:714) defines promotion as an activity that supports or encourages, or an act of moving ahead. A career is a job or occupation regarded as a long-term or lifelong activity (Marriott, n. d. :1). It can also be referred to as somebody's progress in a chosen profession or during that person's working life (Bing Dictionary, 2009:1). Career advancement refers to a way of capturing things that one needs to do or achieve in order to grow and learn, either in a current role or a new one (Bing Dictionary, 2009).

Barrier

A barrier is an obstacle that prevents movement or access, or limits or restricts somebody or something, especially in terms of preventing the free expression of something (Soanes, 2002:65).

Glass ceiling

According to Sinha and Sinha (2011), the term 'glass ceiling' was originally coined by Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt (1986) in the eighties in the 'Wall Street Journal' and can be defined as "an imaginary barrier to progress in a profession, especially affecting women and members of minorities". Sinha and Sinha (2011:837) argue that "different types of glass ceiling barriers can exist, ranging from different pay for comparable work, sexual, ethnic, racial, and religious discrimination, or harassment in the workplace, lack of family-friendly workplace policies, to exclusion from informal networks, stereotyping and preconceptions of women's roles and abilities, failure of senior leadership to assume accountability for women's advancement, lack of role models, and lack of mentoring" (see also Vinnicombe & Colwill, 1998:07). Generally artificial and/or socially constructed barriers prevent qualified individuals or those who are members of a minority or are marginalised, for example women, from advancing within their organisations and reaching their full potential (Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999:64).

Primary school:

In South Africa the Department of Basic Education (DBE) defines primary school as "an institution that offers formal schooling from Grade R to Grade 7. An institution that offers only a selection of grades from Grade R to Grade 7 is also referred to as a primary school" (DBE, 2012:32).

Secondary/High school:

The DBE defines secondary school as “an institution that offers formal schooling from Grade 8 to Grade 12. An institution that offers only a selection of grades from Grade 8 to Grade 12 is also referred to as a secondary school” (The DBE, 2012:32).

Independent school:

Independent schools are privately owned, governed and funded (DBE, 2012:11). In terms of SASA (1996), all private schools were included into the independent school category (ISASA, n. d. :1; Du Toit, 2004:2). State subsidies to independent institutions are permitted, but not guaranteed (ISASA, n. d. :1; DBE, 2012:11).

Public school:

According to Section 3, Chapter 3 of the South African Schools Act, No. 84 of 1996, “A public school may be an ordinary public school or a public school for learners with special education needs.”

Ordinary school:

An ordinary school is a school that is not a special school. A special school caters for learners who have special education needs due to severe learning difficulties, physical disabilities or behavioural problems (DBE, 2012:2, 32).

School grade:

Section (vi.) of the SASA Act (84 of 1996) defines the term "grade" as “that part of an educational programme, [ranging from grade zero to grade twelve], which a learner may complete in one school year” (Republic of South Africa, 1996b:3).

Black/ African educators:

In this context, the term “Black/African educators” refers to the educators from a section of the South African population also referred to as Africans. This section of the South African community was classified as “black” or “bantú” under apartheid legislation (Postel, 2001:53, cited in Uwizeyimana, 2011:80).

1. 8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It is the researcher’s expectation that the study will contribute to the full integration of women into all spheres of life, both in South Africa and on a global scale. It is hoped that it will increase the awareness of both male and female educators of the value of the professional and management skills of female educators and that they are needed in the management of schools. Findings of the research could assist female educators to recognize the barriers and challenges which prevent them from ascending to promotional or management positions, including their own false perceptions of their value and competency. In order to combat inequality, we need to understand what women themselves perceive as the barriers making it more difficult, or impossible, for them to succeed. Thus it is hoped that this study, through its analysis of these barriers, informed by feminist theories, will help, not only women, but a wider group of society to understand these barriers and lead to a new and expanded way of thinking about the role of women in education. In addition, this study will expand and heighten our knowledge about women’s changing roles, in the past decade in particular. The results of this study may therefore be of value in the creation of new legislation and government and institutional policies which favour the hiring of women in school management positions. The results of this study could also be of value in creating new strategies that could be implemented in order to deal with the problem of under-representation of female educators in school management positions in South Africa. There exists also the potential that what we learn from such studies in the area of education could be of value in other areas of employment.

1. 9 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

In **chapter one** the background to the research problem was explored. The problem was formulated and the purpose of the study was outlined. The concepts and terminology used in the study were defined.

In **chapter two** a literature review is presented in order to further explore the background to the problem of the promotion of female educators in schools, to critically evaluate past and recent research in the area in terms of their relevance to the present study and to identify possible gaps in this research which could be filled by this study. The review is also intended to provide a theoretical and conceptual underpinning for the study.

Chapter three is devoted to outlining the approach used in the research design, and the research methodology. In this chapter the research methodology, its specific procedures, the research population and sample, the instrumentation, data collection and treatment, and the reliability and validity of the data, are described and explained. In addition, the limitations and ethical considerations of the study are covered.

Chapter four focuses on the empirical research and the findings from the data. In this chapter, the responses of the respondents are presented and elucidated by means of charts and tables, accompanied by a detailed analysis and interpretation of these.

The findings of the investigation, and the discussion of those findings, are presented in chapter five, in addition to certain recommendations and conclusions arising out of these findings.

1. 10 CONCLUSION

This chapter dealt with the background and the contextualization of the research problem of the study. In the following chapter, various literature sources will be reviewed in order to provide a conceptual and theoretical framework for the study, to critically review and discuss recent research on the promotion of women to management positions, and to further explore the background to the promotion of female educators in the Lulekani Circuit schools, Mopani District of Limpopo Province.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2. 1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a literature review, which is a review of the existing scholarship or available body of knowledge on the research problem. In this chapter, the researcher will critically discuss the research and views of other scholars in terms of how they have debated, theorized, and conceptualised issues related to the promotion of female educators into education management structures and in order to identify possible gaps in the literature which can be filled by this study. The analysis of the literature in this chapter, besides focussing on past and recent studies in the field, looks at the theoretical and legislative perspectives on those factors that constrain women's career advancement in general, the important role played by women in the workplace, and ways for women to develop their careers and, in the process, overcome gender discrimination. The following section presents a theoretical perspective of the relative lack of women in leadership positions.

2. 2 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

Over the past two decades, several interrelated gender-based conceptual models have been adapted from the social sciences and used to explain the under-representation of women in educational leadership positions world-wide (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:10). In this context the study of Pirouznia and Sims (2006:10) about the obstacles in women's pathway to principalship in Franklin County, Ohio, and the research of other scholars, such as Growe and Montgomery (2000:2), on the problem of the under-representation of qualified women in leadership positions in the USA, identify three models: the individual perspective model, the systemic gender bias model, and the cultural model. Table 1 summarises the gender-based models and a detailed description of each of these three models is provided below.

Table 1: Gender-Based Models

MODELS	EMPHASIS	CAUSE
Individual or Meritocracy	Psychological Orientations	Women are looked to as the cause.
Organizational or Systemic Discrimination	Educational System	The organizational structures and practices of education which discriminate against women.
Woman's Place or Socialisation	Cultural and Social Norms	Different socialization patterns for women and men.

Source: Schmuck, 1980, as cited in Growe and Montgomery (2000:3)

2. 2. 1 The individual perspective model

According to Growe and Montgomery (2000:2), the “meritocracy model, or the individual perspective model”, was the first model used by researchers since the eighties to explain the under-representation of women in educational leadership positions. This model has been variously referred to in the literature as the "individual perspective", a set of concepts related to "internal barriers", and "person-centred explanations" (Shakeshaft, 1989 cited in Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:10). Despite these multiple labels for this model, according to Pirouznia and Sims (2006:10), and Tallerico and Burstyn (1996 cited in Growe & Montgomery, 2000:2), “all seek to explain the persistent and continuing gender segregation in the profession from a psychological orientation”. Since this model looks to women as individuals for the cause of their relative failure to attain top management positions in terms of personal traits, characteristics, abilities, or qualities (Growe & Montgomery, 2000:2), individual attitudes, such as self-image and confidence, motivation, and aspirations also fall into this domain (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:10). The belief associated with this model is that women are not assertive enough to aspire to leadership positions (*ibid*, 2006). In addition, according to Shakeshaft (1989), this model assumes that the most competent people are promoted solely on their ability. Lack of promotion of women, according to the model, is therefore assumed to be due to the fact that women are not the most competent and able people to be promoted. When the focus is on person-centred causation, according to Van der Westhuizen (1997:545), individuals (in this case, women) are held responsible for their own problems or lack of success. Unfortunately, when individuals are held responsible for their own problems, the solutions to those problems are then framed in terms of changing the defect or improving the individual rather than looking for systemic causes (Tallerico & Burstyn 1996; Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:10). This arguably distorted belief about women is manifested in statements about women, such as: “they lack self-confidence, they don't want the power, they're just not assertive enough, and they don't aspire to line positions” (Growe, 1999:3, Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:10). In terms of this perspective, women's relative lack of promotion to administrative positions is due to their own lack of knowledge, skill and willingness to work hard (Welbourne, 2005:1). Equality can thus only come about when women themselves change, when they become better educated, more motivated, and more skilled (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:10). Therefore, in order to aspire to management positions, women have first to address their own self-perceptions and the limits they have learned, or internalized, as members of a powerless and oppressed group (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11). The individual perspective, it

could be argued, is a very limited one and contrasting with the systemic gender bias model. More recent research and feminist theorists see this perspective as part of a range of theoretical models besides needing to be related to specific social and socioeconomic contexts.

2. 2. 2 The systemic gender bias model

Unlike the individual perspective model, the systemic gender bias conceptual model tends to explain the differentials in career aspirations of men and women as an effect of the limited opportunities available to women that accompany systemic gender bias (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996; Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11). As the literature shows, in terms of the under-representation of women in management positions, this model turns our attention away from the individual to the educational system itself, and its policies and practices (Khumalo, 2006:3). According to this model, it is the organizational structures, not the individual's own "lack of knowledge, skill and willingness to work hard, desire and aspiration to higher positions" that condition women's behaviours and attitudes in the workplace (Welbourne, 2005:1; Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11). According to this model, the problems are therefore external rather than internal to women (Van der Westhuizen, 1997:545, Neidhart & Carlin, 2003:4). In other words, if women cannot enter high power positions, it is not due to the way in which they have been socialized as females, but because they are locked into low powered jobs by the male-dominated system itself (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11). This model therefore generally assumes that "men advance to higher levels because they are favoured in promotional practices, and women cannot advance even if they wanted to" because the system which favours their male counterparts, does not favour them (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996:644; Bezzina, 2010:3). In the context of the "systemic gender bias model", according to Pirouznia and Sims (2006:11), women do in fact actively seek management positions, are prepared and readily available to occupy these positions, but conditions accompanying recruitment and selection procedures that are managed largely by men, are what prevent women from seeking and obtaining high level administrative positions.

2. 2. 3 The cultural model

The third model is identified as the woman's place or social perspective model (Schmuck, 1980 in Gowe & Montgomery, 1999:3). Tallerico (1996, cited in Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11)

refers to this model as "The women's place model", "the social perspective", and Shakeshaft (1989 also cited in Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11) as the "social structure of society" (2006:11). All these terms focus on and emphasize the cultural and social norms that encourage discriminatory practices and all of them identify 'culture' (i. e. beliefs, values, attitudes dominant in a given society) as the root cause of inequities (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11; Oplatka & Tamir, 2009). Unlike the previous two models, the cultural model looks for explanations for the under-representation of women in management positions in terms of society as a whole, rather than seeing this as situated in individuals or in education systems *per se* (Tallerico, 1996:642). The cultural model emphasizes those cultural and social norms that encourage discriminatory practices. According to this model, the ideology of patriarchy can explain why men, and not women, occupy the formal leadership positions in schools and society (Tallerico, 1996 in Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11). The different ways that boys and girls are socialized into our culture, and the socio-cultural stereotypes in terms of "what's ladylike" and "who looks like a leader", as well as social and domestic roles, together explain why there exists a lack of female role models in leadership positions (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11). In order to try to overcome these barriers, some countries, such as South Africa, have introduced a set of legislative frameworks. The following section presents an analysis of the main legislative frameworks dealing with a range of issues related to the promotion of gender equality in South Africa.

2. 3 BARRIERS THAT CONSTRAIN WOMEN'S CAREER ADVANCEMENT

2. 3. 1 Gender and sex-role stereotypes

Gender stereotyping refers to the perceived and socially received traditional social roles, status differences, and power inequalities that exist between men and women (Eagly & Mladinic, 1989; Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 1999; Prentice & Carranza, 2002:269; Long, 2011:1). According to Pirouznia & Sims (2006:15), sex role stereotyping acts as an internal barrier when it is internalized by women and used by them as a standard to guide their own behaviour. It acts as an external barrier when others in the society use their expectations of women, formed through their own culturally constructed stereotypes, to shape their perceptions of women and women's social roles (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:15). Many studies show that different societies have numerous gender stereotypes and conceptions of sex roles (Eagly & Mladinic, 1989, 1993; Ridgeway, 2001; Prentice & Carranza, 2002). What is

common among many studies, according to Prentice and Carranza (2002:269) as well as Neidhart and Carling (2003), is that women's identities and roles have traditionally been associated with parenting and caring, while men's identities have been associated with paid employment as well as becoming public and industrial managers. Another study conducted by UNESCO (2000) found that femininity is associated with submissiveness, gentleness, emotional dependence, and not taking sound decisions, as well as tactfulness, while masculinity is characterised by dominance, aggressiveness, not being emotional, being direct, independence, and being good at decision making. These conflicting perceptions about the roles of men and those of women, and of their abilities, are encapsulated in a well-known saying: "Women Take Care, Men Take Charge" (Welbourne, 2005:1). A study conducted by Osumbah (2011: 63) lists the following socio-cultural barriers as being responsible for gender and sex-role stereotypes across cultures:

- dual responsibility of family care and employment being too demanding,
- society labelling women as mothers and wives and as not being capable of top management positions,
- belief that women in positions of power and authority tend to be lonely, and
- management and leadership norms have been set by men and women do not seem not fit these norms.

Undoubtedly, these stereotypes carry with them negative consequences as they undermine any perceptions on the part of members of a society of women possessing competence and power (Eagly & Mladinic, 1989, 1993; Jost & Kay, 2005). For example, women who choose to behave in a confident, aggressive, or independent manner are seen by the society as behaving inappropriately in terms of the societal gender norm. This creates social dissonance for women as well as a less than favourable impression of women on the part of members of the society, given the fact that such gender norms seem to suggest that women should not demonstrate the same kinds of aggressive, confident, and independent behaviour as their male counterparts (Burton & Parker, 2010). Some studies indicate that women who do not comply with the gender stereotypes of their society come up against serious difficulties both socially and professionally. For example, according to Cubillo and Brown (2003), capable and successful female managers are often labelled difficult and dangerous. On the one hand, a 'masculine' male is praised and rewarded, while on the other, a 'masculine woman' is often labelled as a 'monster', or 'unfeminine' and as possessing gender problems (Ernest, 2003). It

is this kind of gender and sex stereotyping that has constructed women as not being “managerial task material” (Welbourne, 2005:1), and the gender-role stereotyping which stipulates the expected characteristics of femininity, that explains why women tend to make deliberate efforts to be passive and avoid venturing into the so called ‘men’s roles’ (Chabaya, Rembe & Wadesango, 2009:245). Masculinity, gender and sex also explain why men are more likely to pursue managerial oriented tasks than their female counterparts (Chuma & Ncube, 2010:172).

2. 3. 2 Lack of Aspiration

Lack of aspiration is generally seen as a personal attribute or personality trait for females, but researchers in the area of the lack of aspiration exhibited by women have shown there to be a combination of psychological and social factors that contribute to this perceived lack of aspiration (Rhodes & Brundrett, 2006; Oplatka & Tamir, 2009). One of the factors contributing to women’s lack of aspiration is low self-esteem (Chabaya, et. al., 2009:240). Research findings over the last three decades indicate that low aspirations have been directly affected by women’s internalization of their inferiority as ascribed by society through sex role stereotyping (Gupton & Slick, 1996; Wilkinson, 1991 cited in Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:22; Chabaya et. al., 2009:240). Chabaya et al. (2009:240) report that Smith (1984), in her survey of women managers, conducted in the 1980s, found that “Many women have to a certain degree internalized the attitudes and role expectations about women that they have learnt to fit neatly into the stereotypes” (see also Neidhart & Carlin, 2003:4). Coleman (2004:7 cited in Chabaya et. al. , 2009:240) also observes that, in surveys conducted in the 1990s and in 2004 in the field of education in the UK, women were found to be “more likely than men to refer to lack of confidence or their own perceived faults that stopped them thinking they could become school heads”. The same findings emerged from studies done by Chabaya et al. (2009:240) in Zimbabwe of those factors that women teachers consider to be barriers to their advancement to headship positions in Zimbabwean primary schools. In addition, the higher demands in terms of having to try twice as hard to be considered successful and being expected to fulfil both their domestic responsibilities, made on female educators occupying school management positions in terms of their professional roles make the conflict between self-respect and feelings of inferiority even more acute (Liu, 2000, Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:23). One of the requirements of effective management is self-confidence. However, because of traditional gendered cultural images, some female teachers

feel inferior and lack confidence. Consequently, when these women are appointed in management positions and encounter challenges at work, they doubt their abilities. It is this crippling doubting of one's abilities that may make women ineffective when appointed in school management positions (Liu, 2000). It is this feeling of inferiority, Home (1998) argues, that explains why many women are afraid of the stress associated with administrative positions. Therefore, as Stone and Cooper (2002), coming from a psychological perspective, argue, in order to be successful in management positions, female teachers entering into these positions must find ways of increasing their self-respect and self-confidence.

2. 3. 3 Gender discrimination

In addition to gender stereotypes and lack of aspiration, another factor which has been found to act as an obstacle to female teachers advancing to management positions is gender discrimination. Gender or sex-based discrimination "involves treating someone (an applicant or employee) unfavourably because of that person's sex"(Okechukwu, Souza, Davis, & de Castro, 2011:3). In any society, gender discrimination occurs when sexes are not treated equally. Women in education have suffered discrimination for decades and little substantive change has occurred in recent years (Foster, 2000:316). The problem of gender discrimination is even more serious in the context of traditional African societies where, according to Ipinge (2012:6), very little substantive change has taken place in the lives of Southern African Women despite the existence of a substantial number of documents which have either direct or indirectly provided for gender equality generated by both the African Union (AU) and the Southern African Development Communities (SADC). Despite the existence of these documents, according to Chuma & Ncube (2010:172), the hold of patriarchy has as yet not been effectively challenged by the various documents. Gender discrimination is said to persist because many organisations are systematically structured for male dominance and associate management with maleness, which in turn leads to reluctance on the part of male dominated management to recognise or entertain the idea of female leadership, to discrimination, and a host of other challenges (Chuma & Ncube, 2010:172). In addition, there are various effects and consequences of gender discrimination, especially in the area of employment and hiring practices. For example, gender discrimination in the workplace can lead to an increase in employee turnover and create a hostile work environment. Gender discrimination has also been found to promote harassment and possible workplace violence (Okechukwu, et al., 2011:3). Research findings also reveal that people

respond differently to female managers compared to male managers. For example, a study conducted in the USA by Catalyst (2003), a non-profit organization based in the USA, which promotes inclusive workplaces for women, particularly in business, revealed that surrounding social structures invalidate and undercut women's attempts to be effective, influential and powerful. Another study conducted in the USA by Stewart, Malley and LaVaque (2007) on the relative lack of advancement of women in science and engineering, indicates that women are expected by their employers to combine management with compassion. Women are required to soften their management styles in order to gain the approval of their constituents, or risk being disliked or being less influential, while men are not confronted with this kind of dilemma. The study conducted by Stewart et al. (2007) also reveals that, with regard to job performance expectations, women in most cases tread a narrow path, in the sense that, for them, there is no room for mistakes in comparison to their male counterparts. Any mistake made by women in leadership positions is often quickly and easily associated with the fact that they are women, and accompanied by the common sense assumption that men do not make the same mistakes. Sometimes, people also tend to dislike a female leader who exhibits 'masculine' behaviour and is very directive rather than tactful and understanding (Eagly; 2007). In many countries, including South Africa (in terms of the Constitution, 1996), gender discrimination is illegal and several laws are in place to prevent and eliminate all discriminatory practices. Victims of gender discrimination have the right to file lawsuits to recover damages suffered as a result of discriminatory practices. This will be discussed with reference to South Africa in 2. 5.

2. 3. 4 Glass Ceiling Effect

One of the major reasons for the under-representation of women in management positions is described by the metaphor "glass ceiling". The concept, or image, of a glass ceiling has been variously defined and can refer to (a) the invisible, but impenetrable barrier preventing women from reaching managerial positions irrespective of their achievements or merits (The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995:iii; 1995: 04), (b) an analogy describing the subtle and transparent barrier that prevents women from climbing the organizational ladder (Vinnicombe & Colwill, 1998:07), (c) the under-representation of women in the higher echelons of the organizational hierarchy (Haslam & Ryan, 2008:530), (d) the invisible barrier that blocks women's advancement in positions of higher management (Gelfand et al. , 2005: 93), and (e) the situation where the vertical mobility of men in male dominated domains is

higher than women's vertical mobility in the same domains (Hultin, 2003:32). All these concepts mean the same thing in terms of the perceived impenetrable barrier to the promotion of women to management positions.

There are four factors that can be used to identify the glass ceiling phenomenon in any organisation. Firstly, the glass ceiling leads to inequalities and differentiations that cannot be explained by characteristics that are relevant to the female employees' work (such as education, professional experience, abilities or motivation), but are explained solely by making references to an employee's gender (Cotter et al. , 2001:656-658). Secondly, the inequalities caused by the glass ceiling grow exponentially with the hierarchical structure as discrimination will have stronger and more extensive consequences at higher hierarchical levels. Thus, the higher the level reached by a woman, the harder it will be for her to penetrate the glass ceiling (Cotter et al., 2001:658-659; Wright, Baxter & Birkelund, 1995:428; Kay & Hagan, 1995:304). Thirdly, inequalities caused by the glass ceiling do not only refer to the present ratio of women to men in higher management positions, but also to the probability of women reaching those positions (Cotter et al. , 2001:659). Thus the degree of representation of both genders in higher hierarchical levels depends on the entry level. Therefore, if men embark on a career ladder from a better position in the hierarchy than women, they will be dominant in higher management in the context of similar promotion conditions, and the proportion of those leaving the institution. In addition, if women start their careers within an organisation where their promotion possibilities are limited, there is the chance that they will change their work places much more often than men will, and consequently the latter will find it much easier to obtain promotion, even in the absence of discriminatory practices.

The fourth and final characteristic of the glass ceiling is that of the unequal practices described becoming more significant over time in terms of impact and extent (Cotter et al., 2001:661). Thus, if obtaining a medium management position is relatively difficult for a woman because of various discrimination practices, obtaining a higher management position can pose even greater problems, and vice-versa. Therefore, depending on the national or organizational culture, the glass ceiling can be closer or further from the top within an organization, but irrespective of its location, the base (the positions with limited prestige and low rewards) is formed mostly by women. More often than not, according to Wirth (2001:24), women's access to top-level positions is restricted from the moment they become

members of an organization by their integration into those non-strategic departments (human resources, public relations) that are not considered to be recruitment pools for top managers. Because of their positions in those non-strategic departments, women are excluded from the formal or informal networks that could provide the necessary social capital for advancement into senior management positions (Wirth, 2001:24).

2. 3. 5 Family responsibilities

Family responsibilities have been identified as another contributing factor to the under-representation of women in management positions. For example, Chabaya et al. (2009: 247-8) found that “preference for family responsibilities at the expense of their own career development” to be one reason for the persistent under-representation of women in school leadership roles in Zimbabwe. However, under-representation of women in the management of schools is not an issue limited to Zimbabwe; it is a worldwide problem. This may be due to the way girls and women have been socialised in many countries, which makes them believe in the overriding importance of being a mother and wife first, and that anything else, including their careers, is secondary (Chabaya et. al, 2009:248). A study conducted in the USA by Meyerson in 2001 found several women managers to be more at risk to role stress due to multiple role demands, which are inherent when running a career, while also running a home (Meyerson, 2001). Family responsibilities constitute a major barrier to women’s advancement to higher positions because accepting these higher positions often requires these women to leave home, relatives and the family in order to move across the country for better opportunities resulting in the loss of quality time with their families (Brownell, 2004). Some management positions demand that female managers work long hours, attend lengthy meetings, and travel regularly, thereby affecting the social and family lives of these women (Chuma & Ncube, 2010:181). The consequences of work pressure, and working longer hours associated with management positions, may have negative impacts on the women’s marriages and social lives. This implies that, if women wish to progress to higher levels in their professions; they have inevitably to sacrifice long-term relationships and having children. However, because, according to Mahlatse (1997), Chabaya, et al. , (2009:04) and Thornton & Bricheno (2003:13), women prefer, or feel a strong pull, to spend more of their time with their families than to being in management positions, few woman have been able to abandon their families to take management positions (Brownell, 2004; Warsame, 2006:34). Consequently female educators end up not applying for management positions due to family

pressures (Qi, 2000); Liu & Wilson, 2001). Some researchers, such as Meyerson (2001), have cautioned that work-family conflicts will remain a major problem until men cease to place family care and pressure entirely on women. Meyerson (2001) advocates that organisations should also realise the direct and indirect costs created by work/family conflicts on both women and the organisation itself, and find strategies to help and support women who aspire to higher positions in their organisations.

2. 3. 6 Uncertainty about own abilities

Lack of confidence is another factor contributing to the under-representation of women in management positions. This is the view held by Freedman and Phillips (1998:27) in their argument that women who are in male dominated professions generally lack confidence in their ability to excel in their jobs in comparison with their male counterparts. Evidence of women's uncertainty about their own abilities in the education sector was also found by Chabaya et al. , (2009:5) who argue that under-representation of women in school headship positions could be due to low self-esteem and lack of confidence. This lack of confidence among women led Chabaya et al., (2009:6) to conclude that women are their own worst enemies when it comes to promotional prospects. These researchers saw this problem as perhaps compounded by the fact that female principals are likely to be unsure about their abilities and effectiveness as administrators in a system in which leadership has tended to be perceived as, and continues to be, dominated by males (Smulyan, 2000). In other studies, women tended to rate their own abilities to take up management positions lower than did their male colleagues (Heiskanen, 1993:65). These studies would tend to suggest that it is due to lack of confidence that women tend to avoid seeking management positions. The avoidance of managerial responsibilities as one of the reasons for the under-representation of women in school administration was suggested both Kyriaskoussis and Saiti (2000:08) in a study done in Greece, and by Omukaga et al. (2007) in their East African study. Another factor closely associated with women's lack of confidence is their fear for criticism. This is highlighted in studies such as that of Hansard (1990), which found that women in the UK tended to avoid the risk of facing criticism and receiving negative feedback. According to studies such as that of Hansard (1990), the fear of failure is one of the reasons why women have been reluctant not only to voice their opinions, but also tend to express less confidence in their ability to assume leadership roles. They also fear taking risks and being public figures because, according to studies done by researchers such as Osumbah (2011) in Kenya, most

women, especially in Africa and the less developed countries, prefer to be fairly private (Osumbah, 2011:63), although this is arguable and could be explained in terms of cultural norms and stereotypes, rather than in feminine psychology terms.

2. 3. 7 Lack of support

Lack of support is listed as another barrier to the promotion of female teachers to management positions. A number of studies such as that conducted by Home (1998) in Canada, and Williams and Harvey (1993:187) and Gupton and Slick (1996) in the USA, found that most women do not want to participate in management positions because they are not supported by both their male and female colleagues. Some, such as Chisholm (2001:388), commenting on women educators in South Africa, argue that men and women do not support women who want to be managers because they are generally not ready to be led by women. Others, such as Chabaya et al. (2009:06), writing about Zimbabwe, argue that gender imbalance in school headship is a result of women not receiving the necessary support from their own families. This is because, as Chabaya et al., (2009:07) continue to argue, married women in Zimbabwe tend to consult their husbands, and bow to their wishes, before applying for headship positions. Lack of family support is a crucial factor in many societies in maintaining the under-representation of women in management positions because if the husband does not approve, the wife will not apply for the position (Chabaya et al., 2009:07).

Another form of support necessary for women applying for management positions is networking. Still and Guerin (1986) identified three types of networks, namely formal, informal and community based networks. Formal networks are defined by Still and Guerin (1986) as networks whose members pay fees (subscription fees), receive newsletters and usually engage in network activities (Still & Guerin, 1986). Informal networks are those networks which comprise of like-minded individuals who meet once or twice a year to have dinner and discuss various issues (Still & Guerin, 1986), and community based networks are organisations such as church groups, rotary, and other socially based clubs. Research, such as that conducted by Pirouznia and Sims (2006:100), found that networking plays an important role in assisting women to advance to principalship positions. For example, according to Ehrich (1994:7) and Chen et al. , (2012:240), informal networking and togetherness provide mutual support and promote social and economic survival and advancement. Belonging to these networks enables their members to become more visible in the community and also

assists members with building their confidence for applying and being nominated for promotion (Chen et al. , 2012:240). Networking is also important for sharing knowledge and exchanging information (Chen et al. , 2012:240). Other benefits of networking include exchange of information, career and personal development, career planning, professional support, and general encouragement (Linehan, 2001). Some studies have found that those men, and the few women who are part of these networks, earn more promotion and advance more rapidly in their jobs than people who are not members of these networks (Lewis, 2006).

2. 3. 8 Lack of mobility

Ely and Meyerson (2000:116) argue that geographical mobility is a prerequisite to upward mobility. However, while this geographical mobility appears gender neutral on the surface, a closer look at its gendered nature reveals an implicit gender bias that reflects and maintains women's relative disadvantage. For example, while some studies indicate that male teachers are more willing than female teachers to move their families in order to secure promotions (Ball, 1978:31), many studies show that women are neither willing nor able to do the same. For example, a study conducted by (Home, 1998) in the nineties in Canada, showed that both married and single women were less interested in relocation than men. Recent studies conducted in different contexts, such that of Chabaya et al. (2009:05) in Zimbabwe, also found that some work organizations have reported increases in numbers of female managers who turn down promotions to management positions which will require them to relocate to another place. A comparative study between French and Turkish women executives done by Akpinar-Sposito in 2012 found that it is "true that many women managers would choose not to relocate if asked to because of their children's education and social support systems (Akpinar-Sposito, 2012:7). Another study done by Pochic in 2005 concluded that "In general, women are less available for geographic mobility and are mostly "followers" of their spouses (Pochic, 2005 cited in Akpinar-Sposito, 2012:7). The unwillingness on the part of women to relocate for career purposes is a serious challenge for women aspiring to management positions because mobility is a critical feature of employment at higher levels and, with reference to the current study, does help women to get high level jobs in educational administration. Studies in different countries and in dissimilar contexts such as those done in Japan in the nineties (Lam, 1993), and France and Turkey (Akpinar-Sposito, 2012), as well as Chabaya et al. (2009:05) in Zimbabwe, found that women in management positions were often forced to abandon their management positions when their husbands were relocated.

2. 3. 9 Hiring and promotion practices

Hiring and promotion practices also contribute to the under-representation of women in management positions. This means that, despite some progress, the systemic patriarchal practices have not changed sufficiently over time and gender discrimination still predominates in hiring and promoting practices. Because of the lack of clear and universally accepted criteria for hiring people for administrative positions in education, hiring committees often choose males over females as was shown in studies done in Trinidad and Tobago in 1990 by Morris (1999:56) and in the USA by Gupton and Slick (1996). Edison (in Schmuck & Wyant, 1987) argued that, in the 1980s, in the Western World, selecting officers used different criteria and measures when reviewing female prospective principals than when reviewing male teachers. As a result, inexperienced men were often selected for their potential competence whereas women at that time were required to have already demonstrated their competence (Baltoni, 2013:1). It can therefore be argued that, although the law claims that women have the right to apply for any position, this does not ensure women equality in gaining promotions; equal opportunity does not result in equal participation (Blackmore, 1999:15).

2. 3. 10 Age

Age has a significant impact on female promotions to management positions. This is supported by the findings of a study done in California by Wickham (2007), who argues that age and prior experience continue to be particularly disadvantageous for women applying for promotion. According to Glass (2000), men generally begin their administrative experience between the ages of 25 and 30, while females are typically appointed to administrative positions when they are between the ages of 31 to 40. Wickham (2007) found that women spend an average of fifteen years in the classroom before seeking administrative positions, while men spend an average of five years. Unfortunately, because women tend to begin their administrative functions at a relatively late age, and tend to spend longer periods in the classroom before seeking higher positions, they tend to be much older than men when they finally decide to apply for these management positions and therefore less likely to be selected.

2. 3. 11 Lack of female role models

Role models are vital to the success of young managers and contribute significantly to the advancement of women into management positions (Singh, Vinnicombe & James, 2006:1). According to a recent study conducted by Marcus (2013:2), role models are an extraordinarily fruitful way to inspire women to aspire to great things, and can be found in a variety of places: “Role models can be found close to home or in the people around them, as well as in those at a distance - seen only through the news, even in faraway places” (Marcus, 2013:2). She describes two kinds of role models:

First, “there are those who help us to think about the kind of people we want to be through examples of kindness, fortitude, courage, bravery, integrity, and other admirable characteristics, displayed equally by women and men, in their everyday lives and in the way they conduct themselves in the workplace” (Marcus, 2013:2). Second, there are those “who help us to aspire to roles that perhaps we’ve not thought of before, or not encountered personally, particularly for young women – heads of state, heads of multinational corporations, leaders in political, cultural, or social movements” (Marcus, 2013:2).

Therefore, according to Singh et al. (2006:1) and Marcus (2013:2), seeing women in particular, anywhere in the world, succeeding in an ever widening array of roles helps inspire young women to broaden their expectations for their own possibilities (Marcus, 2013:3). However, other researches show that successful women are not the only source of role models for other women. For example, the study conducted by Gibson and Cordova (1999) looked for differences in how men and women used role models, and found that women in sex-balanced firms were less likely to place importance on same sex-role models. To date, there is no available research to support the assumption that women would benefit even more if there were more women to act as role models for other women in organisations and in the management of schools in particular.

2. 3. 12 Men and women not willing to work under women

According to the European Commission (2012:10), the European business community is dominated by men who do not have confidence in women. The report found that about 76% of Europeans are not willing to work under a woman’s authority. Chisholm (2001:388)

argues that in the South African education system men and women are generally not prepared to work under a woman because women lose their femininity the moment they become managers. Chisholm's study corroborate an earlier study conducted by Greyvenstein (In Van der Westhuizen, 1991:553), which found that peripheral (external rather than internal) issues put pressure on women in top management posts or those who aspire to become managers. These peripheral pressures include being isolated and experiencing a lack of acceptance on the part of peers and subordinates in the ranks, and on the part of both male and female colleagues. Another study conducted in 1994 for the Department of Education in South Africa, also found that, although the teaching environment is made up of men and women, men in management are accepted but women in management experience problems not only from male but also from female employees (Chisholm, 2001:388). The same problems were identified in the 1990s in Trinidad and Tobago by Morris (1993:341) who found that women who became managers there were also faced with challenges to their authority from colleagues who were uncomfortable with women in leadership. Several studies have shown that women tend to abandon their management positions when they face resentment from their own colleagues. For example, Chisholm (2001:393) reports that from 1994 the Department of Education of Gauteng tried to achieve greater equity by appointing women in senior positions. However, all these women had left the Department within six years because their authority was undermined. The literature summarised here shows that women tend not to get the support they need from their male colleagues when they assume management positions. It is however, more painful to learn that they also tend not to get support from female colleagues.

2. 4 THE EXTENT TO WHICH WOMEN ARE AFFECTED BY THEIR UNDER-REPRESENTATION IN MANAGEMENT POSITIONS

According to Blackmore (1999), women's under-representation in management limits their influence and power over policy development in the schools. The literature reviewed in the previous two sections has shown that the lack of female role models for women teachers and girls has been blamed for the under-representation of women in management positions. . In addition, the under-representation of women in management positions, and the lack of role models in turn, contribute to biased appointments and to more promotion opportunities for males than for females. According to Warsame (2006:45), in a study conducted in Somaliland, in Somalia, the total absence and exclusion of women from decision making in

top leadership positions in their country has had several consequences for women and, it could be argued, for the education system in terms of losing valuable skills and competence:

- lack of acquisition of the necessary experience for taking part in public life decision making,
- perpetuation of the negative attitudes regarding women's ability to lead and govern,
- lack of women leader role models for young women and girls,
- important decisions reached without women's view-points,
- lack of interest in decision making by most women as political positions have been stereotyped in terms of male roles.

2. 5 PERSPECTIVES ON INTERNATIONAL CONVENTIONS AND THE SOUTH AFRICAN LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

2. 5. 1 International Conventions

2. 5. 1. 1. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

Article 2 of PART I of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women enshrines the principle of non-discrimination on the grounds of race, ethnic group, colour, sex, language, religion, political or any other opinion, national and social origin, fortune, birth or other status (African Union, 1995:1).

The States Parties to the present Convention are mandated to:

condemn discrimination against women in all its forms, agree to pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women and, to this end, undertake:

(a) To embody the principle of the equality of men and women in their national constitutions or other appropriate legislation if not yet incorporated therein and to ensure, through law and other appropriate means, the practical realization of this principle;

- (b) To adopt appropriate legislative and other measures, including sanctions where appropriate, prohibiting all discrimination against women.

In addition, according to the Preamble of this UN declaration, all States Parties to the International Covenants on Human Rights have the obligation to ensure the equal rights of men and women to enjoy all economic, social, cultural, civil and political rights (United Nations, 1979:1).

2. 5. 1. 2 Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa

The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa recognise that Article 18 of the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights calls on all States Parties to eliminate every discrimination against women and to ensure the protection of the rights of women as stipulated in international declarations and conventions (African Union, 1995:1). It also recognises the principle of promoting gender equality as enshrined in the Constitutive Act of the African Union as well as the New Partnership for Africa's Development, relevant Declarations, Resolutions and Decisions, which underline the commitment of the African States to ensure the full participation of African women as equal partners in Africa's development. Accordingly, Article 2 of this charter, which specifically deals with the elimination of Discrimination Against Women, instructs States Parties to combat all forms of discrimination against women through appropriate legislative, institutional and other measures. In this regard, the African Union (1995:5) encourages States Parties to:

- a) include in their national constitutions and other legislative instruments, if not already done, the principle of equality between women and men and ensure its effective application;
- b) enact and effectively implement appropriate legislative or regulatory measures, including those prohibiting and curbing all forms of discrimination, particularly those harmful practices which endanger the health and general well-being of women;
- c) integrate a gender perspective in their policy decisions, legislation, development plans, programmes and activities and in all other spheres of life;

- d) take corrective and positive action in those areas where discrimination against women in law and in fact continues to exist;
- e) support the local, national, regional and continental initiatives directed at eradicating all forms of discrimination against women.

States Parties are also encouraged to commit themselves to modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of women and men through public education, information, education and communication strategies, with a view to achieving the elimination of harmful cultural and traditional practices and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes, or on stereotyped roles for women and men (African Union 1995:5).

2. 5. 1. 3 The SADC Gender Protocol

The SADC Gender Protocol is founded on the rights-based approach to development (Munalula, 2011:189). When this SADC Gender Protocol is ratified (around 2015), its approach will require the mainstreaming of human rights in the development process of all 15 SADC member countries including South Africa (Munalula, 2011:189). This means embracing human rights in policies as well as in the implementation of programmes. Gender inequality, which is widespread throughout the SADC region, is one of the problems that a rights-based approach is intended to resolve (Munalula, 2011:189). Equality, liberty and dignity – particularly the equality, liberty and dignity of women – are a critical part of mainstreaming (Munalula, 2011:189). The SADC Gender Protocol is therefore both a policy document and an implementation framework for mainstreaming gender equality and equity (Munalula, 2011:189). The Preamble to the Protocol notes that gender equality and equity are fundamental human rights arising out of various international instruments, including the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (hereafter *African Women's Protocol*) (Munalula, 2011:189).

2. 5. 2 South African Legislative Framework

In order to deal with discrimination in general, and under-representation of women in particular, the South African democratic government instituted a range of measures and

legislative frameworks. The first, and arguably the most important legislation which deals with the problem of gender equality in the post-apartheid South Africa, is the South African Constitution (1996). According to the Constitution of RSA Act of 1996, Chapter 2, Section 9 (3), the state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth (Republic of South Africa, 1996). The South African Constitution provides direction for government with regard to the way in which the principles of equality and equity, and gender equality in terms of employment of women in particular, is carried out through policies and programmes. Since any law or conduct inconsistent with the South African Constitution (1996) is invalid, and the obligations imposed by the Constitution, must be fulfilled (RSA, 1996, Chapter 1, Section 2), any form of unfair discrimination constitutes a criminal offence which is punishable by the law in South Africa. A number of Acts, such as the Labour Relations Act (No. 66 of 1995), the Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998, the Employment of Educators Act, Act 76 of 1998, and the principle of Affirmative Action, among many other measures, have been established in order to give effect to the constitutional mandate in South Africa.

2. 5. 2. 1 The Labour Relations Act (No. 66 of 1995)

This Act sets out the laws that govern labour in South Africa. It is guided by Section 27 of the South African Constitution (1996), which entrenches the rights of workers and employers to form organisations for collective bargaining (see Department of Labour, 1995:1). Together with the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No. 75 of 1997, it also ensures social justice by establishing the rights and duties of employers and employees (*ibid*). It also regulates the organisational rights of trade unions, deals with strikes and lockouts, workplace forums and other ways of resolving disputes. It provides a framework for the resolution of labour disputes through the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA), Labour Court and Labour Appeal Court (Ossafrica n. d:1). This Act aims to advance economic development, social justice, labour, peace, and the democratisation of the workplace by fulfilling the primary effect to regulate the fundamental rights conferred by section 27 of the South African Constitution (1996). Section 27 of the Constitution, amongst other rights, states that everyone shall have the right to fair labour practices. Section (a) of Part B of this Act prohibits any form of unfair labour practices. In terms of protecting certain

categories of people (such as women, black people, people with disabilities etc.) who were previously disadvantaged under the Apartheid system, the Act prohibits all sorts of unfair discrimination, either directly or indirectly, against an employee on any arbitrary ground, including, but not limited to, race, gender, sex, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language, marital status or family responsibility (RSA, 1995).

2. 5. 2. 2 Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998

Apartheid policies caused many years of discrimination, inequality and imbalances in the work place in South Africa. During the apartheid era, those classified as ‘Black’, who were and are the majority in this country, as well as women, and people with disabilities, were deprived of many opportunities in all spheres of life, the economic sphere in particular. Certain job opportunities and skills, such as management positions, were reserved for the white minority, while Black people, women and people with disabilities were marginalised. This practice robbed the South African economy of much of its potential to expand. The new democratic dispensation in South Africa since 1994 has ushered in unprecedented changes in the country. It gave birth to a new South African Constitution, which includes and embodies an unequivocal commitment to representative and participatory democracy, equality, accountability, transparency and public involvement (RSA, 1996).

Despite an ideal Constitution, the new government inherited a country that was characterised by inequality and poverty which were primarily engendered by almost five decades of Apartheid legislation built on and entrenching earlier policies of colonialism (May, 1998). Consequently the new government, besides establishing equity and equal rights in all spheres, had a moral duty and justification to eliminate all forms of discrimination in the workplace. In 1998, four years after the end of Apartheid, Affirmative Action was introduced through the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998. The Act was aimed at the promotion of human rights, elimination of unfair discrimination in employment, achievement of a diverse workforce broadly representative of all South Africans, and the promotion of economic development. Furthermore, The Employment of Educators Act, Act 76 of 1998 states that, in the appointment or filling of any vacant post on any educator establishment, equality, equity and other democratic values and principles which are contemplated in section 195(1) of the Constitution of RSA, Act of 1996 shall be considered. These include both the ability and the

suitability of the candidate, and the need to address the imbalances of the past in order to achieve broad representation. Accordingly, Section 2 of the Employment Equity Act, Act no 55 of 1998, aims to achieve equity in the workplace by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination and the implementation of affirmative action measures to correct the employment disadvantages experienced by designated groups in order to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workplace. Section 5 of this Act further indicates that every employer is obliged to promote equal opportunity in the workplace by eliminating unfair discrimination in any employment policy or practice.

2. 5. 2. 3 Affirmative Action

Chapter 3 of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 deals, among other things, with the affirmative action measures designed to ensure that suitably qualified people from designated groups have equal employment opportunities, and are equitably represented in all occupational categories and levels in the workplace of a designated employer. It further indicates that the designated employer must take measures to identify and eliminate employment barriers, including discrimination, which adversely affect people from designated groups.

2. 5. 2. 4 The Employment of Educators Act, Act 76 of 1998

The details of the Employment of Educators Act, Act 76 of 1998 are set out under Section 2. 5. 2 (Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998) above in terms of those democratic principles informing the Employment Equity Act of 1998, of equality and equity, as well as zero discrimination, and the need to address the imbalances of the past both in the appointment of any prospective employee to a vacant post on any educator establishment, and in the fair treatment of appointees irrespective of race, class or disability. However, despite the existence of an elaborate legislative framework, the following sections of this thesis show that women remain under-represented in management functions, especially in the administration of schools. As has been discussed in this chapter, a number of studies have revealed various factors as being responsible for the obstruction of women in their achieving management positions. Some of these factors will be described in detail in Chapter 3, with

specific reference to the Lulekani Circuit, as they emerged from the findings of this literature review.

2. 6 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an overview of the findings and views of national and international researchers and practitioners of the under-representation of women in management positions. The literature review indicates that on a global scale women have been, and continue to be, under-represented in educational administrative positions. The many obstacles in the pathway of women to management positions have been reviewed and discussed, such as sex role stereotyping, lack of aspiration, family responsibilities, lack of mobility, lack of networking, age, and hiring and promoting practices. What this chapter has also highlighted is the fact that the issue of women's under-representation in educational administration is a complex one requiring a complex and creative solution. A number of strategies for overcoming the many obstacles in women's way to promotion are also outlined in this chapter. These will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 5, under 'Recommendations'. The research design and methodology for this study will be presented in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3. 1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review revealed that the serious lack of promotion of female educators into management positions in schools is a global phenomenon, and that it is regarded by researchers in the social sciences as one of the major social problems of the 21st century. The literature review also revealed that the incidence of under-representation of female educators in management positions is exceptionally high in South Africa, and that the various barriers to their advancement to these positions are many and complex, and includes social, psychological, cultural and systemic factors. This chapter will focus on the aim of this study: to investigate, identify and critically analyse the specific barriers to the promotion of female educators to management positions in schools in the Lulekani Circuit in the Mopani District, Limpopo Province. The chapter starts by describing the research design and the methodology used to collect data on the promotion and/or non-promotion of female educators to management positions in schools in the circuit, and clarifies the difference between quantitative and qualitative research methodology, particularly as it relates to the research aim. It describes and explains the qualitative nature of the study and the process of collecting the data by means of structured face-to-face interviews. The process followed in the analysis of the data is also described.

3. 2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is the plan that shows how a researcher intends to explore a research problem (Thomas, 2009: 70; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003: 57-58; Mouton, 2002: 55-57). The aim of the research design is to make sure that the data gathered, and the process of gathering them, will answer the research question(s) as accurately as possible (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993:31). The research design provides a framework that allows decisions to be made about the research process (Mouton, 2002: 55-57; McMillan & Schumacher, 1993:157). It also provides “a plan for selecting the subjects, research sites, and data collection procedures to answer the research question(s)” (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993:157).

There are two main types of research design used in research: quantitative and qualitative designs. The quantitative approach is a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data are used to obtain information about the phenomenon under investigation (Van Rensburg, 2010:85). Quantitative research attempts to establish universal context-free generalisations, and the ultimate goal is to develop a body of knowledge in the form of generalisations (Hoberg, 1999:23). Qualitative research, on the other hand, is an enquiry process of understanding a social or human problem based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants and conducted in a natural setting (Creswell, 1994:06). Given the fact that no numerical data will be collected (see sections on data collections and data analysis below), and that the focus of the research is human and social, a qualitative research design will be used in this study.

3. 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3. 3. 1 Study area and setting

The study was conducted in the Lulekani Circuit which is situated in the Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality of Mopani District, Limpopo Province. Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality is one of the five local municipalities in the Mopani District, namely Ba-Phalaborwa, Greater Giyani, Greater Letaba, Greater Tzaneen, Maruleng, and the District Management Area (The Local Government Handbook, 2011). Ba-Phalaborwa has a geographical area of 3 004. 88 km² and constitutes 27% of the Mopani District (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2009:15). This municipality consist of 23 villages and four towns, namely, Gravelotte, Namakgale, Lulekani and Phalaborwa. According to the 2011 Community Survey conducted by Statistics South Africa, the population of the area is estimated at 131 081, which makes up 13. 59% of the total district population. There are 33 792 households in Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality 2011/2012 Annual Report). The Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality is renowned for its mining activities. Some 1000 years ago, the Ba-Malatji metal working tribe, after discovering iron and copper, moved to this area and named it “Phalaborwa” which means “better than the South” (Greater Phalaborwa Trade and Tourism Council, 2005:03). Here they established a primitive iron smelting and metal working industry. There are currently four mines in Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, namely, Phalaborwa Mining Company (PMC), Foskor, Consolidated Murchison, and Sasol Nitro. Copper and phosphate ores are the main natural resources mined in the area (Greater Phalaborwa Trade and Tourism Council,

2005:03). The economy of the Ba-Phalaborwa municipal area is highly dependent on the mining industry because 80% of the total revenue generated in the municipal area relates to the mining industry. However, about 47% of the population in the area is unemployed and ravaged by poverty due to the closure and downsizing of the mines because of depletion of resources (Greater Phalaborwa Trade and Tourism Council, 2005:03). The Municipality also serves as a convenient gateway to the Kruger National Park and the Trans-frontier Park through the Mozambique Channel. In terms of education, Mopani District has 12131 educators of which 7107 are females. All of the public primary schools, which constitute the setting for this study, are in the Lulekani Circuit in the Ba-Phalaborwa.

3.3.2 Research population

The study population is the entire group of persons or set of objects and events the researcher is interested in gaining information and drawing conclusions from (Van Rensberg, 2010:150). The population of this study consists entirely of primary school educators in the Lulekani Circuit. There are 21 public primary schools in Lulekani Circuit. Table 2 represents a summary of the population.

Table 2: Summary of the population of the study

Category of schools	Public/Primary schools with grade R-7		Secondary public schools Grade 8 -12		Independent schools		No fee schools	
Sub-category	Primary schools-Urban area	Primary schools-Rural areas.	Secondary schools in urban area.	Secondary schools in RURAL area.	Urban	Rural	All primary schools.	All secondary schools.
Number	4	17	1	6	3	2	21	7
TOTAL	21		7		5		28	

Table created by the researcher.

Table 2 shows 28 public schools and five independent schools in the district. Except for the five independent (i. e. private) schools, all primary and secondary schools in the rural areas of the Lulekani Circuit are no-fee schools. They are classified as Section 21 schools, which means that they are situated in high poverty level areas and “the Limpopo Provincial Department of Education deposits money in their bank accounts for them to use according to the schools’ prescripts” (Uwizeyimana & Moabelo, 2013:115). “Prescripts for Financial Management in Public Schools” (or ‘the prescripts’) are the rules and regulations stipulated,

and the standards set, by the Limpopo Department of Education (LDoE) for the managing and controlling of school funds in public schools in the Limpopo Province” (Uwizeyimana & Moabelo, 2013:112). The public schools in the urban areas of the Lulekani Circuit are fee schools. This means that the parents and guardians of the learners must pay fees to sustain the day-to-day activities of running the school. The number of all educators at primary public schools in the Lulekani Circuit is 435, with 343 female and 92 male educators. The number of female teachers in management positions in the district is 45, while the number of male educators in management positions is 33.

3. 3. 3 Sampling methods and sample size

Due to financial, as well as time and accessibility constraints, a smaller group or subset of the population, known as a sample, was selected for the study. Sampling is defined by De Vos et al. (2005:198) as taking any portion of a population as representative of that total population, while Le Compte and Preissle (1993:59) defined sampling as a more general process of focusing and selecting what to study. Their views are supported by Fraenkel and Wallen (1996:111), who define sampling as a process of selecting individuals whom the researcher intends to act as participants in a research study. An appropriate sampling method is vital for selecting a sample that it is representative of the entire population under study. The word “method” here refers to a range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, explanation and prediction (Cohen & Manion, 1997:40). In order to insure the fair representivity of all the diverse elements of the research population, such as the educators in management positions and those who are not, and the two different genders (male and female) comprising the population described above, a “stratified sampling method”, or purposive (rather than random) sampling method, was used in the sample selection of this study. The selection process started with the selection of five out of the 21 public primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit. Out of these five primary schools, three are in the rural areas and two in the urban area of the district. All the schools in the rural areas are no fee schools, while the two schools in the urban area are fee-schools (learners pay school fees).

These five schools were selected on the basis of their proximity to where the researcher lives in order to minimise the financial and time resources required to conduct the interviews. The second step was to categorise the educators of the five selected schools into two groups on

the basis of their gender composition. There are a total of 82 educators in the combined five selected schools, of which 15 are males and 67 are females. The stratification process proceeded by dividing each gender group on the basis of the levels of occupation of its members. There are eight male educators and eight female educators in management positions in the five selected schools. As far as gender is concerned in the five selected schools, 1 in 2 males holds a management position, while only 1 in 8 females is in a management position. For the purpose of gender and position balance, the final sample of the study included 20 educators out of 82. The 20 people in the sample included four males in management positions and four males not in management positions, and four females in management positions and eight females not in management positions. For a sample to be deemed appropriate, the researcher should select a minimum of 10% of the given research population (Babooa, 2008:144). Twenty (20) participants out of 82 represented 24.40% and the sample chosen is above the 10% measure.

3.3.4 Data collection methods

Data collection refers to the collection of information to be used in the investigation (Brynard & Hanekom, 2011:54). There is a variety of methods of data collection in qualitative research, including observations, textual or visual analysis (e. g. from books or video recordings), and individual or group interviews (Gill, Stewart, Treasure & Chadwick, 2008:281). Mouton and Marais (1992:ix) advocate that specific methods and techniques which are deemed appropriate be identified and applied so that a researcher is able to reach valid research findings. Auriacombe (2001: 51) suggests that more than one strategy or source may be used in collecting data for a particular research question. The combination of data collection methods helps to verify information and can lead to richer outcomes (Behrman, 2006:1). The choice of data collection method depends on the information the researcher needs in order to achieve his or her evaluation objectives (The Library Toolkit, 2006; World Bank, 2008:3). This choice is also influenced by the resources the researcher has available to complete the evaluation (Behrman, 2006:1; World Bank, 2008:3). This research used two types of data, namely, secondary data and primary data, in order to achieve the objectives of this research. Secondary data refers to the data that is available in published literature, while primary data refers to the data which is obtained from the original source, which in this study would be the face-to-face interviews (Hanekom, 1987: 28). Secondary data for this study was collected by means of documentary analysis and a literature review,

and primary data was collected by means of semi-structured interviews. A detailed description of the two data collection methods used in this study is presented in the following two sections.

3.3.4.1 Literature survey

This involved a thorough and critical review of existing literature on the factors influencing the promotion of women to management positions (Bush, Clover, Bischoff, Kholeka, Heystek & Joubert, 2006:3). The literature review included works published internationally and in the RSA, and comprised of books, articles in academic journals, official documents, such as government reports and policies, and master's and doctoral theses. Internet data on the promotion of women into management and leadership positions were also reviewed.

3.3.4.2 Semi-structured interviews

To supplement the literature review, an empirical investigation in the form of semi-structured interviews was conducted to collect primary data. An interview is defined as a purposeful interaction between two or more people who are in the process of communication, conversation and negotiation for a specific purpose associated with agreed-upon subject matter (Cormack, 2000:294). According to Seidman (1998 cited in Kaplan & Maxwell, 2005), interviewing, when considered as a method for conducting qualitative research, is a technique used to understand the experiences of others. Interviewing stems from the desire to know more about the people around us and to better understand how these people view the world we live in: "At the heart of interviewing research is an interest in other individuals' stories, views, inner feelings etc. because they are of worth" (Seidman, 1998; Kaplan & Maxwell, 2005:2). Thus interviewing as a data collection method is most effective when the goal of the research is to gain insight into the understandings, views and perceptions of your participants/interviewees (Seidman, 1998). An interview provides access to what is inside a person's head, makes it possible to measure what a person knows, likes or dislikes and thinks (Merriam, 1998:87; Kothari, 2009). Asking participants "why" and "how", and probing or allowing participants the opportunity to elaborate or explain further, enables us not only to observe their behaviour, but to subsequently understand the meanings that underlie that behaviour, and to have this meaning explained to us in the participant's own words. Therefore, interviewing differs from quantitative methods of data collection, such as

questionnaires and surveys, in that it is often more exploratory in nature, and allows for more flexibility (Seidman, 1998). In conducting interviews for the purpose of this research, the researcher chose to use the semi-structured interviewing method to collect data from male and female educators in promotional positions as well as male and female educators who are not in promotional positions in the ordinary public schools (as defined in Chapter 1, 1. 6. 11) in the Lulekani Circuit in the Mopani District, Limpopo Province. In any qualitative research, semi-structured interviews are based on the use of an interview guide (Hardon, Hodgkin & Fresle, 2004:24). This is a written list of questions or topics that need to be covered during the interview (Gupta, & Rangi, 2010). Semi-structured interviews were chosen as a qualitative data collection method for this study because this type of interviewing follows an open, flexible and informal interview style, which allows the interviewer to continue to ask questions until he or she fully understands the situation, and/or the views and perceptions of the interviewees (Hardon et al. , 2004:24). The researcher considered a series of semi-structured interviews to be the best method of collecting primary data for the purpose of this research because it allowed the researcher to pose the same or similar questions to different categories of participants, and to compare the responses from different individuals within and between the groups in relatively objective ways. With the permission of the interviewees, the researcher used a Tape Recorder to record the conversations with the interviewees in order to minimise the loss of vital information. These conversations were transcribed for reference in the process of the data analysis.

3. 3. 5 Data analysis methods

In every study, once all the fieldwork had been completed, the raw data need to be analysed before they can be interpreted. According to Babbie (2010:378), and Corbin and Strauss (2008:01), data analysis refers to a process of examining and interpreting data in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding and develop empirical knowledge about the subject of the research. Mouton (2002) describes this analysis as involving the breaking down of the data into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relationships (Mouton 2002:108). Data analysis thus involves a search for pattern(s) in the data, which could take the form of recurrent behaviours, objects, or a body of knowledge (Mount, 1998:61). In this process the researcher takes a voluminous amount of information and reduces it to certain patterns, categories or themes and then interprets this information by using some schema (Creswell, 1994:154). For the purpose of this research, the secondary data were analysed by means of an in-depth

critical evaluation of the literature dealing with the theories and topics related to women aspiring to and in management positions. Since the primary data used in this research is principally qualitative (i. e. descriptive data, people’s own spoken words, without numbers or counts assigned to respondents’ observations) (Brynard & Hanekom, 2010:28), the data (transcribed from the recorded interviews) were manually organised and displayed using graphics such as bar charts and tables to present the data in a more visual way (Davids, 2011:14). Therefore, a descriptive analysis approach was used to provide preliminary insight into the nature of the responses obtained through semi-structured interviews. The following process for analysing the qualitative data (see Table 3) as proposed by Tesch (1990:186) was followed in the analysis of the primary data in this study.

Table 3: Framework for qualitative data analysis

Step	Procedure
1	Organizing information, preparation of data, reading through all transcripts carefully and making notes.
2	Reading through all the transcripts of the interview, considering the content or underlying meaning of the information and writing down the thoughts in the margins.
3	Listing all the topics, putting similar topics together and forming topics into columns that might be grouped as major topics, unique topics and leftovers.
4	Assigning to each topic an abbreviated and identifiable code and writing the codes next to the data segments that correspond with the code.
5	Writing the most descriptive wording for the topics and turning them into themes or categories.
6	Making a final decision on the abbreviation for each theme or category and alphabetizing codes.
7	Assembling the data material belonging to each theme or category in one place and doing a preliminary analysis.
8	Interpreting and reporting the research findings.

Source: Tesch (1990:186)

3. 3. 6 Validity and reliability of the measuring instrument

The validity of a measuring instrument is defined by the extent to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Thatcher, 2010:05). In other words, validity concerns the relationship between what is being measured and the nature and use to which the measurement is being put. One evaluates a measuring instrument in relation to the purpose for which it is being used. For the purpose of this study the validity of the investigation was ensured by the researcher following certain stages in the data analysis:

- reviewing the relevant literature on the problem in order to establish and evaluate the findings of past and recent researchers,
- using a heterogeneous sample (male and female, younger and older respondents, those in management positions and those not),
- assuring the respondents that their identities will not be revealed, and
- ensuring that the instruments used to collect the data are valid.

According to De Vos (2005:166), a valid measuring instrument is the one which measures what it is supposed to measure, and yields scores whose differences reflect the true differences of the variable or concept being measured rather than random or constant errors. In order to ensure validation of the research instrument the researcher discussed the research problem with the respondents before using the instrument and verified their responses with other participants of the study.

The researcher also followed certain steps to ensure the reliability of the investigation. The extent to which results are consistent over time, and the total population under study is accurately represented by the selected sample, is referred to as reliability (Joppe, 2000:01). In other words, reliability is the extent to which an experiment, test, or any measuring procedure yields the same result on repeated trials. If the results of a study can be reproduced using a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. In this study, reliability was achieved by testing the instruments by means of a pilot study. The aim of the pilot study was to determine possible flaws in terms of ambiguity and the possibility of repetition of questions. At the end of the pilot study, the researcher was able to determine with a reasonable degree of accuracy where there was a need for further refinement of some of the research questions, and/or the addition of further questions.

3. 3. 7 Ethical considerations

Ethics is a matter associated with morality and in research certain ethical guidelines serve as the standard which forms the basis for evaluating the conduct of the researcher (Babbie, 2010:118). All respondents engaged in this study were requested to sign a consent form and were informed about the purpose of the study, the importance or potential value of the findings, and their right to participate voluntarily and withdraw at any time from the

interviews without penalty. Participants were assured of their anonymity and that their names and the names of their schools would not be disclosed in the public domain. In line with the ethical considerations, the researcher was required to show respect for the participants. They were assured that the data would only be used for the stated purposes of the research and that no person other than the researcher and his supervisor would have access to the interview data, as advocated by Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:101). It was hoped that, under these conditions, the participants would feel free to offer honest and comprehensive information.

3. 3. 8 Limitations of the study

The study was concerned with promotion of female educators in primary schools only, all ordinary public and independent (private) high schools, and all educators of special schools (schools for learners with special educational needs due to severe learning difficulties, physical disabilities or behavioural problems as defined by the DBE (2012:2, 32) being excluded from the study. In addition, the sample was necessarily limited to black/African educators. Therefore, while the researcher made sure to include both male and female educators, and those in management and those not in management positions, at five ordinary primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit, it is possible that a different perspective would emerge if the levels of education as well as the racial backgrounds of the educators of those schools had been included in the sampling criteria.

3. 4 SUMMARY

In this chapter the research design for the study and the instruments used in the data collection were described and discussed in terms of the qualitative design and methodology, as well as the pilot study, sample design and size, and the data collection procedures. The validity and reliability of the instruments were discussed and established, as well as the ethical considerations and the limitations of the study. In the next chapter the findings from the data, and the data analysis and interpretation will be presented.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS, DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4. 1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter three focussed on the research design and methodology. After identifying the participants, using a purposive sampling method, the researcher proceeded to request permission from the authorities (see Annexure B) and from participants at the selected schools (see Annexure C). A letter was written to the Head of Department in the Limpopo Department of Education, seeking permission to conduct research in the schools (see Annexure A). After all of the required permission had been granted, the researcher proceeded to meet the principals of the five schools which participated in the research, and to give the educators at the schools letters of consent to read and sign, in compliance with the ethics requirements (see Annexure D:Consent form). The educators who were selected to participate in the study took this opportunity to ask for clarification of various matters concerning their participation in the research project. The researcher also took this opportunity to emphasise that participation in the research was voluntary and that they were free to stop participating at any time during the research. After permission had been obtained from all the selected participants, and the consent forms signed and returned to the researcher, the researcher was able to conduct a one-on-one (face-to-face) interview with each one of the twenty individuals who voluntarily agreed to participate. Each face-to-face interview lasted between 30 to 45 minutes. In order to ensure that similar questions were posed to all participants, the researcher used a pre-determined set of questions (structured interview guide) in all one-on-one interviews. The interview guide included both open-ended questions (questions that require the respondents to elaborate and allow the researcher to probe for further clarification), and closed types of questions (questions that require yes or no, short form answers) (see Annexure E), and the researcher recorded the interview with each participant. In attempting to enhance the validity of the data collected, the interviews were recorded on audio-CD and the CDs were later transcribed for data analysis. In depth analysis was done after the collection of data had been completed, and all the information required and related to the study had been captured from all the relevant sources. This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the findings in terms of their alignment with the research objectives.

4. 2 RESULTS

4. 2. 1 Demographic representation of the respondents

The respondents in this research came from different age groups. As Table 4 indicates, most of the respondents in this study (70 %) were between 31 and 45 years old. The table also shows that 20% (4) of the respondents were aged between 46 and 56, while only 10% were aged between 26 and 30. This indicates that most of the respondents would be considered responsible and mature people who would have amassed enough experience to qualify for promotion to management positions. These age groups represent both the active, young people as well as the older members of the community. In addition, Table 4 shows that 12 out of 20 participants were female, that four of these 12 females were holding management positions, and eight females were not in management positions at the time of the research. The researcher decided to include both male and female educators in the study, not only to render the sample more representative of the research population, but also in order to establish whether, and in what ways, their experiences, views and perceptions of the causes of the under-representation of female educators in management positions in the schools in the Lulekani Circuit differed on gender lines. As has been described, the sample, besides the twenty women educators, included eight male educators, of which four were in management positions and four were not. Male and female educators who were not in management position were included in the sample in order to find out if there were differences in the views and perceptions regarding the causes of under-representation of women in management positions in schools in the circuit between those in management positions and those who were not, and whether, and to what extent, their responses differed along gender lines. Table 4 shows that 60% of the respondents were female educators and 40% were male educators. The researcher believes that these age and gender variations, as well as the holding or not holding of management positions, fairly reflect the diverse views of the sample and the population of the study.

Table 4: The Demographic representation of the respondents

AGE GROUP	Number of Educators- Management positions in		Number of Educators – Not in management positions		TOTAL	% Per age category
	Male	Female	Male	Female		
26-30 years	-	-	1	1	2	10
31-45 years	3	2	3	6	14	70
46-56 years	1	2	-	1	4	20
TOTAL per Gender & management position category	4	4	4	8	20	100

Table 4 created by the researcher.

4. 2. 2. Teaching experience

Table 5 shows that 60% (12 participants) of the respondents had between 9 and 20 years of teaching experience, while 40% (8 respondents) had between 21 and 26, or more, years of teaching experience.

Table 5: Respondents according to years of teaching experience

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	Number of Educators in Management positions		Number of Educators not in management positions		TOTAL	% Per teaching experience
	Male	Female	Male	Female		
26+	1	2	-	1	4	20
21-25	1	1	1	1	4	20
9-20	2	1	3	6	12	60
TOTAL per gender and position	4	4	4	8	20	100

Table 5 created by the researcher.

4. 3 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The following data analysis and interpretation is based on the participants' responses which were gathered from the one-on-one interviews.

4. 3. 1 Barriers preventing female educators from getting promoted into school management positions

One of the research objectives was to identify those factors which contribute to the under-representation of female educators in management positions in schools in the Lulekani

Circuit. The first question in the interview schedule was “What do you think are the barriers which prevent female educators from being promoted to management positions?”

The respondents responded to the question by mentioning various different issues they perceived to constitute the barriers preventing female educators from getting promoted to management positions. It is interesting to note that some of the barriers were mentioned by all categories of respondents, while some were mentioned by one category or two or three categories. The following are the main barriers mentioned by the respondents during the interviews with the researcher.

4. 3. 1. 1 Conflict between aspiring to promotion posts and family responsibilities

Almost all the respondents in the various categories, that is all male and all female (except for one female), irrespective of whether they were in management positions or not, perceived conflict with family responsibilities as being the main barrier to female educators’ promotion chances. Thus 95% of the respondents agreed that family responsibilities contribute to the continued under-representation of women in school management positions. One of the male principal respondents expressed his view regarding women educators balancing the demands of a management position and family responsibilities, and how this detracts from the quality of their performance:

It is difficult for female educators to cope with management job and their family responsibilities. Those who ascend to the top management positions, they find it hard to cope, as a result they do not perform to an acceptable standard.

The analysis of their responses shows no difference between male and female respondents on this particular issue. For example, one of the female respondents, who was not at the time occupying a management position, commented on the possibility of the demands of a management position distracting her from her family responsibilities and her caring role:

Yes I believe that one major barrier for me as woman is my family role which is very challenging. I don’t aspire to occupy any management position now because I am already occupying a challenging position of looking after my family at home. I have to ensure that my house is clean, children are well looked after, clothes are clean and ensuring that we have enough food. I ensure that my husband is well looked after and that the household participates in community affairs like societies, meetings and

women's' clubs. I think that management position here at work will distract me from fulfilling my family roles effectively.

The views of this respondent were echoed by another female educator who was not in a management position in her concern that the responsibilities of a management position could prove destructive to her family:

...Not so much hurdles, but needs a little bit flexibility in job as females have family responsibilities as well. I am not interested in management positions because I am highly committed in my family. I have five children to look after and many other household duties to perform. A management position will disturb me from discharging my family responsibilities. I have seen many families of women in management positions crumble and therefore I don't want to take that route.

The above views were further echoed by male respondents who were heads of department and the views were also seen as a reason for women not taking up management posts at schools distant from their homes, as one of them remarked:

Female educators do not want to work far away from their home. They do not apply for the posts that are far away from home even when they meet the requirements of the posts, because they do not want to stay away from their children and husbands.

The fact that women find it difficult to balance their dual roles as house executives, mothers and school principals was also mentioned by a female principal respondent who indicated that when she became a principal, it was not easy for her to balance the work and family commitments. While admitting that it had been far from easy, she reported that she managed to cope with these dual responsibilities of work and family at a later stage. She is still holding her position as a school principal in one of the primary schools of Lulekani Circuit.

However, not all respondents agreed that family responsibility is a major barrier to the appointment of female educators to school management positions. At least one of the female respondents who was not in a management position did not perceive family responsibilities as a barrier to her taking up a school management position. This respondent remarked that women who are working have people who assist them with their family responsibilities at their homes, and thus she did not view family commitment as a barrier to aspiring to or accepting a management position.

Based on the fact that the results of the interviews show that 95 % of all the respondents perceived conflict between family responsibilities, and the responsibilities that come with school management positions as being the major contributor to under-representation of women in school management positions, it can be reliably concluded that family commitment remains a perceived major barrier to female educators' career advancement.

4. 3. 1. 2 Lack of aspiration

All the categories of the respondents (male, female, those in management positions and those not) who participated in this study mentioned the lack of aspiration or ambition on the part of women educators as a being another major barrier to women's promotion into school management positions. Surprisingly, this negative, and arguably gendered stereotypical, view of women was held by both the males and females who participated in the research. As one of the male principals remarked:

Female educators do not apply for management positions and they seem to be comfortable with their current position. They do not see the need for occupying management positions.

This male principal's assertion was supported by several of those female educators who were not in management positions, many of whom said that they enjoyed being teachers and wanted to stay in their classes with their learners. In the words of one respondent:

For the last several years, being a resource teacher has been a joy and less stressful for me. However, I must be honest; I have not gone out of my way to search for an administrative position.

She also indicated that management positions seem to be accompanied by a high degree of stress. Other male respondents who were also not in management positions indicated that, when promotional posts are advertised, female educators do not apply for them. When asked why they thought women tend not to apply for these posts, one respondent simply replied that female educators do not apply because they "lack self-confidence and maybe they do not believe they have [the] necessary skills required in management positions". When asked what could be the solution to this lack of aspiration among women educators, one female principal indicated that "female educators need to be motivated to apply for promotional positions".

She believed that once they are motivated, they will start to realise their potential for becoming managers.

However, it could be argued that the fact that 100 % of the respondents, both male and female, holding and not holding management positions, perceived lack of aspiration to management positions on the part of female educators as a barrier to their promotion opportunities may not necessarily indicate that female educators are not in reality aspiring to management positions. It could be that female educators do have such aspirations but are not sure about their own abilities. There is a possibility that women would aspire to school management positions if they were motivated, and/or their confidence was built, to take up these positions.

4. 3. 1. 3 Gender stereotypes

Marked differences emerged between males and females on the question of gender stereotyping as a contributing factor to the under-representation of women in school management positions. On the one hand, all (100%) the female educators, both those in and not in management positions, perceived gender stereotyping as a barrier to their promotion and a significant contributing factor to women's under-representation in school management positions. On the other hand, all the males (100%), both those in management positions, and those not occupying any management positions in the participating school rejected the view that gender stereotyping is a barrier to female educators' promotion opportunities. However, one female respondent, who is a principal at one of the schools, described an instance at her school where she perceived that the expectations of her staff were influenced by the gender of a male administration officer trainee:

The administrative role is generally regarded as a male role. All women are regarded as unfit for management position and this view is very wrong. Most people still have double standards and the idea that men can make better managers is strong. Most people believe that men can do a better job. Recently I asked for help from the Circuit Office and the administration sent a male administration officer trainee. When he came in everybody said he is great. Not that I did not appreciate what he was doing, but my vice-principal and me kept everything going. But when he came in everybody said he is great with administrative work. I knew what he was doing; he couldn't do it all, because he didn't have the big picture. I think it is the perception some people have that we need male principal.

Another female respondent who was not in management position echoed this perception:

Women have been seen as different from men, as lacking the necessary personal characteristics and skills to make good leaders, such as dominance and aggressiveness.

Male respondents, both those in management positions and those who were not, disagreed with the women's view on the issues of gender stereotype. For example, one male educator who was not in management position felt that the problem of the lack of promotion of women lay with women: they are not doing enough themselves to get promotion:

I think and in my opinion everyone can reach to his or her destiny unless they work hard and struggle for it; but females sometimes have to put little more effort in order to achieve a certain level of position. I think that men and women have nowadays equal opportunities everywhere in the world to utilize and to grow in their professional life.

The views of this male respondent were in line with those of other male respondents. One male respondent, a Head of Department, saw the problem as located with the women themselves, although he was aware of some of the complexities related to women's family responsibilities:

Female educators need to start to have confidence in themselves and those who are competent, compete with male educators for promotional positions and succeed. Gender stereotypes cannot be used as an escape goat for women's lack of competency. There are policies that are against any form of discrimination, and that women should take the advantage of these policies. I am very worried about this issue of gender discrimination, but in my twenty years' experience as a teacher I have observed that female educators themselves are not serious enough about being promoted to senior positions in our schools and above. During our informal discussions in the staffrooms we motivate female teachers to apply for promotion positions, but most of them indicate that they are committed with their family responsibilities. I have also realised that female educators who are in management positions are at a disadvantage sometimes; when their husbands are promoted to management positions in other provinces they are forced to relinquish their positions in order to relocate with their husbands.

4. 3. 1. 4 Uncertainty about female educators' own abilities

On the question of whether women's under representation could be attributed to their own lack of abilities, this study revealed that 100 % of the male respondents, both those who were

in management and those who were not, perceived female educators as having uncertainties in terms of their management capabilities. One of the male educators occupying a management position had perceived this but admitted that this could be due to societal influences:

Female educators are more dependent on other people to help them identify their talent and skills. They always undermine themselves compared to their counterpart male educators. They do not think they can do the right things. The society has taught them to be submissive to men. It is in their mind that men are [more] capable than them.

Another one of the male educators who was not in a management position confirmed his male colleagues' perceptions of woman's lack of confidence and assertiveness:

Female educators are not confident and are not aware of their own abilities. This is evident when we are in group discussions, and they will choose men to lead the group. When chosen to lead the group they will make some unnecessary excuses.

Surprisingly, the male respondents' views were also supported by all of the four female educators who were in management positions at the time. These women believed that female educators are in fact capable and can manage as effectively, or even more effectively, than their male counterparts, but that their main problem is that they (women) themselves tend not to be aware, or do not believe, that they are capable of management. In this regard, one of the female respondents who is a principal remarked on the need for women to be affirmed by others:

Very few female educators are aware of their own capabilities while the majority are not aware of their talent and skills. This is a barrier because they will wait for someone to tell them that they can be capable managers before they can start aspiring for management positions.

Many of the female principals supported the view that women's lack of confidence and awareness of their innate capabilities to carry out management functions as successfully as their male counterparts is to a large extent responsible for their not aspiring to these positions. Another female principal respondent, like all (100%) of the male respondent (both in management positions or not) above, mentioned the influence of a 'patriarchal' society's

conditioning of women to play dependent and submissive roles, and all members of the society to see women in this way:

I believe that most female educators are not interested in management positions because society has conditioned both men and women to believe that women are not as capable of holding leadership positions as men. This belief leads to lack of confidence in women educators. Since patriarchy has conditioned women to see themselves as inferior, it is unreasonable to expect women to achieve independence on their own. Some talented women teachers still wish to find husbands upon whom they can be dependent.

Another female respondent who is Head of Department concurred with the views of the other female respondents in management positions with regard to women's lack of confidence, adding that one of the reasons is their relative lack of willingness or ability to "advertise themselves to others":

It is true that most female educators are not interested in management positions. Lack of self-confidence is one of the reasons why they are not interested and it prevents women in showing how much capable they are. Female often suffer from a belief that by keeping one's head down and working hard, you get noticed. This can be the main problem as this can be the lack of advertising themselves to others. As letting others know about areas of interest, skills and accomplishments is not bragging, it is giving people valuable information. As, showing up the achievements and one's skills can also value the respect of a person and if females lack this confidence to show up themselves, probably it could be an obstacle for them to rise up to the top management level.

However, while both male and female educators in management positions were of the view that women are not aware of their own capabilities to successfully carry out school management responsibilities, it is interesting to note that none of those female educators who were not in management positions mentioned being uncertain about their own abilities. All eight females (40%) who were not in management positions claimed that they were aware of their own abilities and that they were willing and ready for promotion to management positions.

4. 3. 1. 5 Hiring and promotion practices

When the respondents were asked whether they viewed hiring and promotion practices as barriers to the promotion of female educators into management positions, there were

contradictory views. Some respondents, such as those male and female educators who are not in management positions (60% of the respondents), agreed that unfair practices continue to exist when it comes to appointments to promotion positions at schools. One of the female educators who was not in a management position gave her perception of gender stereotyping coming into play in these selection processes:

There is no fairness in the short listing and interview processes; the interview committees are bias against the female educators because they have the mentality that women are not good managers.

Her views were supported by a male educator in a non-management position who was of the view that there exists a degree of corruption and bias in selection processes in general and this also affects male applicants for promotion posts:

Despite the availability of Acts and policies, which promote fair practices and discourage all forms of discrimination in the appointment of educators, biasness in the appointment of educators in promotion positions continue to exist. To be honest this does not only affect female educators even male educators are affected by this kind of practices.

However, these views were rejected by both male and female respondents holding school management positions. They did not perceive hiring and promotion practices as constituting a barrier to female educators. Based on these responses, it could be argued that the educators who are already holding school management positions (40% of the 20 respondents) seem to reject any idea that hiring and promotion practices affect the promotion of women to these positions, while those male and females who were still aspiring to these management positions (60% of the total sample) did tend to pin the blame for their failure to secure promotion on the hiring and promotion practices.

4. 3. 1. 6 Lack of mobility

The findings of this research show an almost unanimous (95%) perception held by respondents that women educators do not like to accept management positions at schools far from their families. One of the female respondents who was not in management verified this perception:

She can only accept a management position in our town only. As a female educator I cannot occupy a management position very far from my home, where I will be forced to be separated from my family.

This view was supported by a male respondent who is a Head of Department:

Female educators do not want to work far away from their home. They do not apply for the posts that are far away even when they meet the requirements of the posts, because they do not want to stay away from their children and husbands.

This male Head of Department's views were supported by his colleagues in other schools, one of them being of the view that "...it is difficult for female educators to work far from their home, because their husband will not give them permission to go and work far from their home".

It is however surprising to find that all eight women (not holding any school management position) who were in fact aspiring to promotion to management positions were not willing to accept any management post if it meant separation from their loved ones (children, parents, husbands etc.). However, at least one female educator holding a management position remarked that:

I do not think mobility is a barrier nowadays because more women are working far away from their home. They use to travel on a daily basis to and from work.

4. 3. 1. 7 Lack of support

Disagreements emerged between male and female respondents as to whether female educators in management positions, and those not in management positions, experience a lack of support from their male colleagues.

On one hand, all of the female principals claimed that female educators are not encouraged and supported to take management positions. One female principal respondent commented on what she perceived as negative attitudes towards, and discouragement of, women managers:

People would make bad remarks that women are not good managers, and they are failures once they are in leadership and management positions.

These comments were echoed by another female principal who had experienced lack of support of women in management who were often forced to become aggressive and behave in 'masculine' ways in order to command respect:

It is not easy to get support from your colleagues as a female manager. You sometimes have to employ the male leadership style in order show your subordinates that you are in charge by being aggressive.

The comments made by these two female principals were supported by female educators who were not in management positions. One of them remarked on the lack of support for women in management on the part of both female and male colleagues:

She [female educator] will not apply for management position because most female educators, once they are in management positions, they do not get support from their [female] colleagues. In most cases the male educators do not give support to female principals.

However, male educators in management positions (4) and those not in management positions (4) tended to disagree with their female counterparts on the issue of lack of support for female managers (12). One male respondent who was not in a management position argued that those female managers who demonstrated competency would earn support: from their colleagues:

I do not think female managers lack support. They are given support unless their competency level is of an unacceptable standard. To gain support they need to be competent.

At least one of those male educators not in a management position argued that the majority of female educators are not capable of leadership and management. Therefore, while there were sharp disagreements between male and female respondents on the degree of support women in management positions can expect, judging from the responses from the female educators, there is clearly a fear that once they are in management positions they might not get the support they need from their colleagues.

4. 3. 1. 8 Belief that women are weak and not fit to hold management positions

The findings of this investigation revealed that 19 (95%) of the respondents did not agree that women have leadership weaknesses, while only one (5%) of the respondents was of the view

that women have leadership weaknesses. One of the female principal respondents became very emotional when answering this question, seeing leadership capabilities as being evaluated by many men in terms of stereotypical masculine qualities:

I do not think that women have leadership weakness. That is very wrong. Men are judging us very wrongly. I think that the fact that the leadership role is a male domain means that the success criteria, by which a leader is evaluated, have been characterized by men in masculine terms. Therefore, the leadership potential of senior management candidates will be evaluated positively, when displaying the strong masculine characteristics, which are perceived as favourable managerial traits.

These views of women's capabilities, or lack thereof, in management positions were strongly supported by those female educators not in management positions. One of these females reported seeing women performing successfully in management positions, their performance in these positions comparing more than favourably with that of men:

It is wrong to say women have weakness when it comes to management and leadership positions. We have seen so many women managers who are doing very well in their positions. Some men are worse than women in leadership position. Nowadays women are empowered to take positions and doing very well compared to male.

All of the responses from the male participants echoed this view to a lesser or greater extent. For example, all of the male principals who participated in this research rejected the view that the leadership style of women signified weakness, one of the male principals expressing the view that women, while their leadership styles may differ from those of male managers, are more than competent to take on leadership roles:

Women may have a different leadership style to that of man but that does not mean that women are weak leaders. I know many women who are better than men in leadership. Women may be reluctant to occupy leadership positions because they are not interested. I also know of many women who have superior intellectual abilities.

The views of both female and male principals on the issue of gendered leadership styles were strongly supported by those male respondents not occupying any school management position. One of them supported this view by citing many examples of strong women leaders and managers in South Africa:

Recently, women have shown the world that they are good leaders and managers. We have so many good examples of good women leaders and managers in South Africa. Women are capable. Women are not corrupt as males.

Despite the fact that the overwhelming majority of respondents rejected the claim that women have leadership weaknesses, at least one of the male respondents who were not in management position disagreed, seeing women managers as being too emotional, and dependent on their male counterparts for guidance, to provide strong leadership:

Women have got a lot of weakness, they depend on the people. I have seen most of women principal consulting from male principals. They cannot use their creativity in ensuring that the school runs smoothly. They are too emotional in dealing with challenges.

4. 3. 1. 9 Lack of networking and lack of support as a barrier

The findings of this study showed unanimity of views of the vital importance of reducing the degree of under-representation of women in school management positions. One of the female principal respondents listed some of the many advantages of networking for women aspiring to management positions:

The networks provide alternative communication channels and act as a forum of power that challenges stereotyped representations of women as passive and silent. It is essential for those pursuing upward mobility to gain influence, and active networking allows them to do this in at least three ways. It enhances visibility, speeds up the process of finding a mentor, and yields valuable information.

The views of these female principals were supported by other female respondents in school management positions, one of them arguing strongly for the necessity of women being ‘connected’ in order for them to be promoted to management positions:

Competent or not competent, it will not be easy for you to get promotion if you are not connected. I observed so many competent people fail to get promotion because they were not connected. The moment they start to connect themselves with other people they were promoted.

The views of these male and female respondents were supported by the all four male heads of departments, one of whom emphasised the importance of networking for gaining exposure from a wide circle of people in terms of one’s leadership abilities:

It would be difficult to be appointed to management positions if you are not known because people want to work with person who has demonstrated his/her abilities. If you do not mix with people, they will not know what you are capable of. When you interact with people you learn from them and they also learn from you.

However three of the total eight (15%) female respondents who were not in management positions rejected the idea that networking and getting support would guarantee assist female educators to get into school management positions, one of these three female participants arguing that being known by people can work against your chances of being appointed:

I applied for the promotion in my school and other school where they know me but I was not hired. I believe that I performed well in the interview. I always interact with those people in various educational activities. Sometimes people who know you can be detrimental to your career advancement.

It is however surprising to find that none of the respondents, male or female, who were in management positions at the time of the research, admitted to having been helped by their networking to obtain the management positions they were holding. When asked whether networking had helped them get promoted into their management positions, they appeared to be very quick to say “no”. It could be argued that this kind of response could signal the possibility that networking could be mistakenly construed by the female respondents as some sort of nepotism, patronage or corruption. After realising that most female educators were uncomfortable with the question of whether networking could have helped them to get promotion, the researcher decided not to probe further for information/reasons. After realising that most female educators were uncomfortable with the question of whether networking could have helped them to get promotion, the researcher decided not to probe further for information/reasons. Figure 1 represents a summary of all the barriers to women’s promotion into school management positions as reported by the respondents who participated in this research.

Figure 1: Barriers to the promotion of women to school management positions

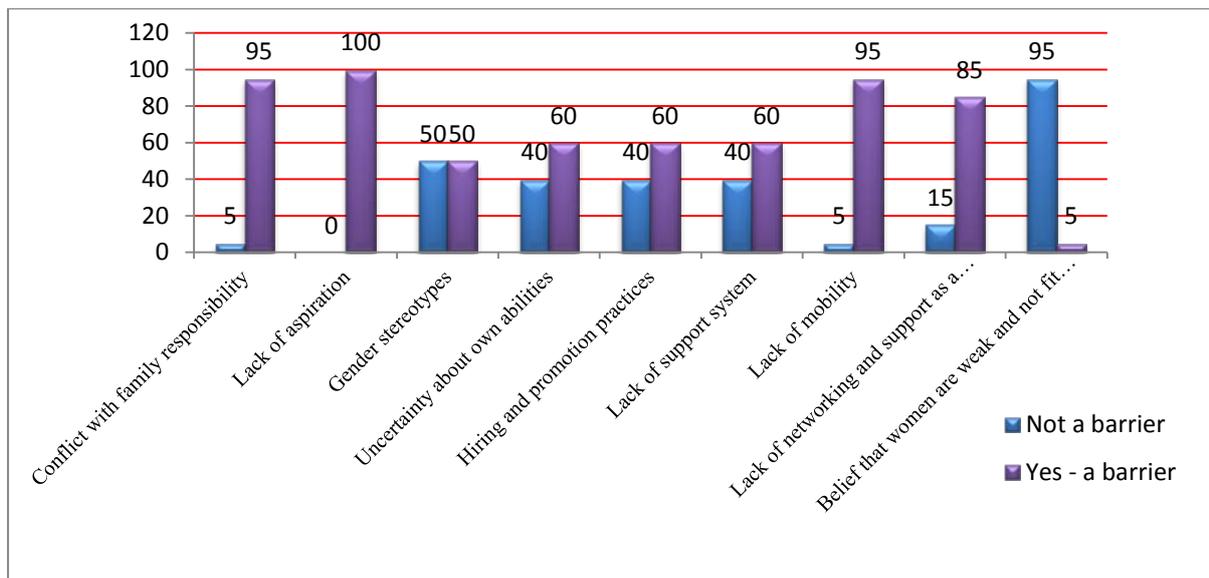


Figure 1 created by the researcher.

As figure 1 shows, 95% of the respondents tend to perceive “conflict with family responsibility, lack of mobility” and the “belief that women are not fit to occupy management positions” as reasons why female educators remain under-represented in school management positions. However, a substantial percentage also believed that women are their own worst enemies in the sense that (100%) of respondents tended to believe that women’s lack of aspiration, and women’s uncertainty about their own abilities to succeed in school management positions (60%), constituted barriers to their promotion to these positions. This negative perception on the part of women is compounded by the fact that 95% of the respondents believed there is a perception among male and female educators that women are weak and not fit to hold school management positions. However, while these reasons given by the respondents point to intrinsic factors, the analysis of Figure 1 shows that a host of extrinsic reasons were given for women remaining under-represented in school management positions. For example, as Figure 1 shows, about 60% of respondents named unfavourable hiring and promotion, combined with gender stereotyping, as being the reason why women remain under-represented in management positions. Other reasons are closely linked to social and cultural factors. For example, lack of mobility was mentioned by 95% of the respondents, lack of support systems by 60%, lack of networking by 85%, and conflict with family responsibilities by 95% of the respondents. I can be argued that all these factors (lack of mobility, lack of support from family and colleagues, and lack of mobility) could be overcome if the ways in which the roles of women in both their professional and

domestic/family lives are perceived were to change, and if women were able to get the full support of their families, their spouses in particular.

4. 3. 2 Perceptions of female versus male educators of barriers to female educators' promotion into school management positions

The researcher also wanted to find out whether there are differences based on the gender of the respondents (i. e. male or female) irrespective of whether the respondents were holding school management positions. There proved to be marked differences as well as similarities between the perceptions held by the group of female respondents and those held by the male respondents on many of the factors named as being barriers to women's promotion to school management positions. For example, an analysis of Figure 2 below shows that both males (100%) and females (92%) tended to agree that family responsibilities is one of the main factors that hinder female educators from taking up school management positions. There seems also to be an agreement between all the males (100%) and all female educators (100%) that female educators do indeed lack aspiration to management positions in schools. There is also agreement between male and female respondents that lack of mobility is a barrier to female educators' promotions into school management positions, with 100% of males and 92% of female respondents confirming this. Figure 2 also shows a high level of agreement among male and female respondents that women are not 'weak', and that they are in fact fit to hold management positions if given the opportunity. All the female respondents rejected the assumption that female educators are weak and not fit to take up school management positions, and 87. 5% of males rejected this assumption (i. e. 87. 5% of male respondents think women are not weak and are in fact fit to be school managers). Another agreement emerged between male (87. 5%) and female (75%) respondents on women's lack of networking being a barrier to female educators' promotion into school management positions. Figure 2 also shows that male and female educators are less divided on the issue of whether hiring and promotion practices constitute barriers to female educators' promotion to school management positions, with 50% of males and 67% of female respondents seeing these practices as barriers. There was however a perception among half of the male respondents that the current hiring and promotion practices do in fact favour women over men.

However, as Figure 2 shows, there is a sharp disagreement on the issue of gender stereotyping, with males (100%) being of the view that gender stereotyping is not a barrier to

women's promotion to school management positions, while all of the females (100%) thought that gender stereotyping is a barrier to their taking up those positions. There seems also to be disagreement along gender lines on the proposition that female educators' uncertainty about their own abilities to manage is a barrier to their being promoted to school management positions. All (100%) male respondents tended to believe that female educators' uncertainty about their abilities to manage in such positions to be the reason why they do not get promoted, or push to be promoted, into school management positions, while 67% of the female respondents disagreed with this view, and expressed the view that they are aware and confident of their own abilities as managers. It is however a serious concern to find that at least 33% of female respondents agreed with the views of the male respondents that women themselves are uncertain about their own abilities to manage schools. There was also sharp disagreement on the issue of lack of family and colleague support being a barrier to female educators' promotion to management positions. While all the female respondents (100%) tended to think that lack of such support constitutes a barrier to female educators' promotion, all the male respondents thought that this is not the case. Following is a summary of the differing perceptions between male and female respondents, irrespective of whether the respondents were in school management positions or not.

Figure 2: Female versus male educators' perceptions

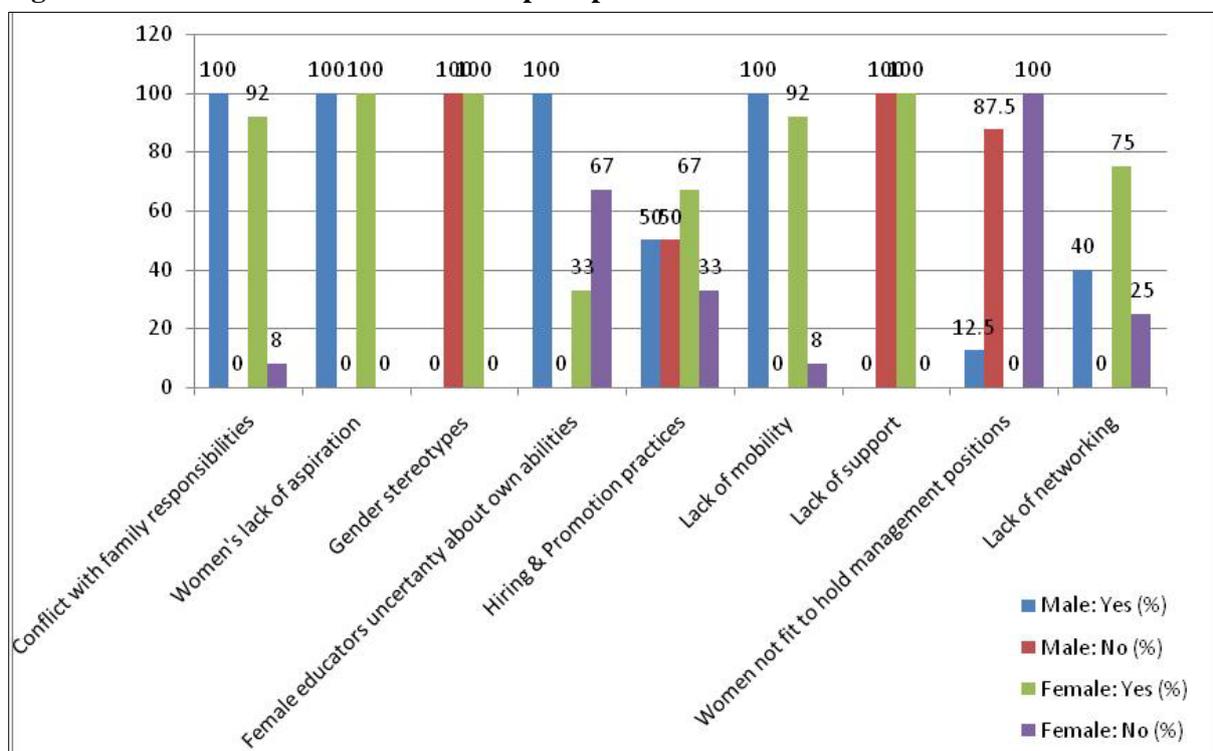


Figure 2 created by the researcher.

From Figure 2 above, it can be concluded that male respondents tend to agree with female respondents on the following reasons for women remaining under-represented in school management positions: family responsibilities, female educators lacking aspiration to management positions in schools, female educators lacking mobility, women educators are not weak and are fit to hold management positions if given the opportunity, and women lacking supportive networks. Male respondents and female respondents were also less divided on the issue of hiring and promotion practices being barriers to female promotions to school management positions.

However, Figure 2 above also clearly shows a sharp disagreement between male respondents and female respondents on issues such as gender stereotyping, female educators' uncertainty about their own abilities to manage, and lack of (family and colleague) support as being the reasons why women remain under-represented in school management positions. While female respondents considered gender stereotyping and lack of (family and colleagues) support to be some of the main reasons why they are unable to get into school management positions, male respondents disagreed. Finally, while male respondents tended to think that female educators' own uncertainty about their abilities to manage to be the reason why they remain under-represented in school management positions, the females disagreed, the majority of them saying that they were aware and confident of their capabilities in terms of taking school management positions and of succeeding in these positions if given the opportunity.

4. 3. 3Perceptions of those in school management positions versus those respondents not in management positions

The researcher wanted to find out whether there existed different perceptions between the groups of educators (both male and females) who hold school management positions and those who do not. As Figure 3 shows, almost all the educators (92%) who are not holding any management position seem to agree with all the educators (100%) who are holding management positions that conflict with family responsibilities is indeed a barrier to women's promotion into school management positions. There seems to be agreement between the respondents who hold school management positions and those who do not that women's lack of mobility (87. 5% of those in management positions and 100% of those who are not in management positions) and lack of networking (100% of those in management positions and

75% of those not in management positions) is the other main contributing factor to the continued under-representation of women in school management positions. There is also agreement between the respondents in management positions (100%) and those who are not (92%) that women are not weak and are in fact fit to take up school management positions. However, there seem to be disagreements between perceptions of the group of respondents holding school management positions and those not holding these on certain issues. For example, all four males in management positions (i. e. 50% of this group) disagree with their female counterparts (also 50% of this group) in management position and those four males (33% of this category) who are not in management positions also disagreeing with the eight females who are not in management positions (67% of this category of respondents). In all cases, the male respondents rejected gender stereotypes as being the barrier to female educators' promotion opportunities, while the females were of the view that gender stereotyping is the reason why they remain under represented in school management positions.

In addition, while 100% of the respondents who were in school management positions disagreed with the assumption that women's lack of awareness and uncertainty about their own abilities to manage, 33% of the respondents who were not in management positions (who were all (4) males) tended to believe that women are uncertain about their abilities. All eight women in this group tended to disagree with the assumption that women are unaware of their own abilities to manage, as described in the previous paragraph. There is also sharp disagreement on whether the current hiring and promotion policies/practices are barriers to women's promotion into school management positions. As Figure 3 shows, while all the respondents who hold school management positions think the current hiring and promotion practices are sound, and have helped women to get into school management positions, all (100%) of the respondents who are not in management positions think these policies and practices are not useful to them . Finally there seems to be a disagreement between those who are in management positions and those who are not as to whether lack of support on the part of family and colleagues has contributed to female educators' under-representation in school management positions. While 50% of the respondents in school management positions view this lack of support as having been a factor, only 33% of the respondents not in school management positions agree that this has contributed to this lack. The gender difference is obvious on this issue because all four (50% of the respondents in management positions) agree, while all four males (i. e. 50% of the respondents in school management positions)

disagree, and all of the eight females (i. e. 67% of the respondents who are not in management positions) agree, while all four males (i. e. 33% of the respondents who are not in management positions) disagree that lack of support has been the reason why female educators remain under-represented in school management positions. Following is a summary of the different views held by those educators who are in management positions and those who are not.

Figure 3: Views held by educators in management positions versus views of educators who are not in management positions

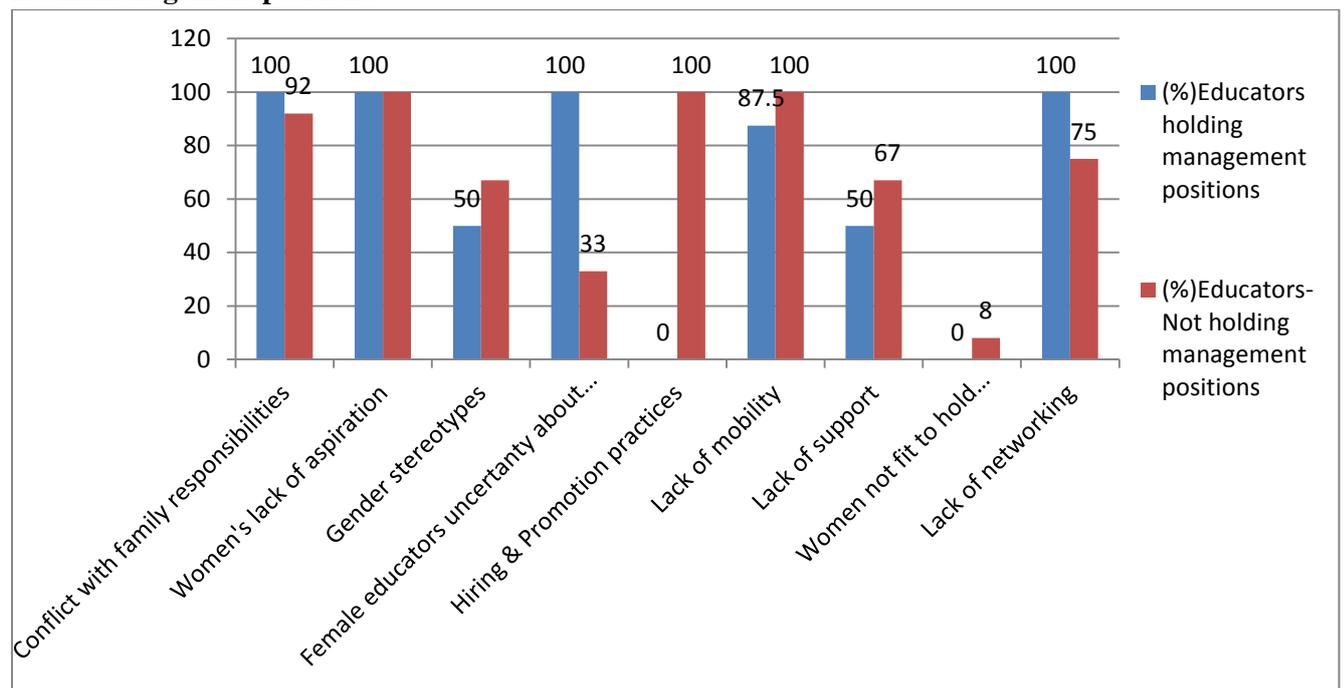


Figure 3 created by the researcher.

4. 3. 4 The challenges faced by female educators in school management positions

The researcher made a deliberate attempt to find out from the female educators in management positions about the challenges they as women in management positions are currently facing or face at times. Therefore, only female educators in management positions responded to this question. Some of the challenges are heart-breaking in terms of the negative impact on them of legislation intended to create equity in the employment of women and other marginalised groups. One of the respondents remarked on the distorting effect of the legislation in terms both of the selection process for women applying for management positions, and particularly on the way in which highly competent women in those positions are perceived and treated by their male counterparts and colleagues:

I am a principal of a primary school who is also facing numerous challenges at my work place. Some males feel threatened by women who they perceive may have the promotional edge due to Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity Act. As highly-educated and motivated women enter the workplace, some men reject them saying that they only got the job because they were female and they were not necessarily the best for the job. This trend often hinders a woman's commitment to a demanding career. I am also experiencing this at my work place.

Another female respondent supported this view, describing her experience of being marginalised and given little support by her male colleagues, and being perceived by them as not fully focussed on her job due to her family responsibilities:

I am a head of department at our school and like all other female educators in management positions; I have a huge mountain to climb. I am well-qualified with a Master's Degree but I am undermined by male educators who have less qualification than me. I am not regarded as efficient in the work place just because they consider women to have a family orientation. They believe that women's families have a negative impact on their work. All this is giving me stress. They try everything possible to isolate me from other educators and this lack of formal or informal support causes more stress.

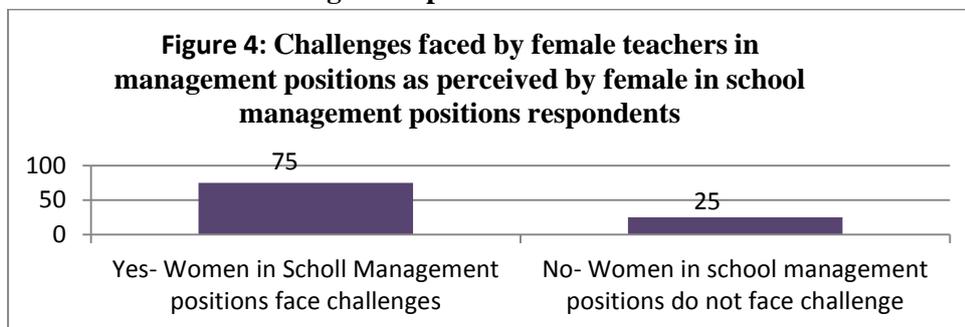
Other female respondents also complained of the many challenges faced by females in management positions. One of the female respondents, a Head of Department, reported her observations of how the lack of respect accorded female principals by their male colleagues, including sexual harassment, sabotaged their performance as managers:

I am not a school manager, but I have seen many principals suffer from sexual harassment. Male educators do not respect female head of departments, deputy principals and even the principal. I have witnessed many of them who were sexually harassed by male educators by making unwarranted sexual advances, even to those who are married. This makes them uncomfortable in the work place. Sexual harassment is disruptive and it produces work performance stress as well as distraction from tasks, dread of work and inability to do work. Unwanted sexual advancements comments interfere with their ability to do job.

Only one out of the four female respondents who were principals seemed to feel that she was not experiencing the kinds of problems which interfere with work performance as reported by her counterparts:

I do not experience any challenges as I do my work according to the policies. If you do not do your work according to the policies you are inviting problems.

Figure 4: Challenges faced by female educators in management positions as perceived by female educators in school management positions



4. 3. 3 The role of legislation in the promotion of female educators to management positions

A closer analysis of the responses collected through the interviews shows that there exist sharp disagreements between the males and females in the categories of manager and non-manager, that is, those males and females occupying school management positions and those who are not in school management positions. For example, one of the female respondents, a principal, had a very positive view of the legislation intended to bring about employment equity and considered it to have had a clearly observable effect on the promotion of women to various management positions in the education sector:

Our government is one of the best in the world in fighting discrimination in all sectors of life, including the promotion of female educators. Since the promulgation of several policies, such as the Equity Act and the Employment of Educators Act, we have seen many women appointed in management position, such as Head of departments, principals, Circuit Managers, District Senior Managers and Members of Executive Councils (MEC's). I am very proud that our current Minister of education in South Africa, Angie Motshekga, is a woman.

This positive view was also supported by those male respondents who are Heads of Departments:

We salute our government for eliminating gender discrimination in the Department of Education and the whole country. The target that has been set by the government of South Africa is 50:50 representation of both male and female in all work places, which

is progressing very well. We see in other interviews when four females and one male are shortlisted because of gender equity policy. We believe that the gap will be closed very soon.

However this view shared by males and females occupying various categories of school management positions was in sharp contrast to the views of those respondents not holding management positions. Both male and female respondents in this 'non-management' category thought that the legislation was not being effectively or correctly implemented in South Africa, if implemented at all. A female educator not in a management position perceived there to be a gap between the policies and the practices of appointing educators to management positions:

Our country has good policies and legislation for fighting gender discrimination in South Africa, but the implementation of the policies leaves much to be desired. We are discouraged by interviews which are conducted meanwhile a male candidate has already been silently appointed by the School Governing Bodies. Interviews are conducted just to fulfil while they know who will be appointed and it is usually a male candidate. This practice is widespread in our province.

Her male colleagues who were also not in management positions supported the view that good policies exist in South Africa, but that these policies are only good on paper and have become next to useless because of lack of proper implementation. One male respondent in this non-manager category did not think the policies had made a measurable difference in the appointment of more females to management positions:

Policies are good, but I do not think they play a role in assisting female educators in getting promoted. All forms of unfair practices continue to exist which prevent female educators to ascend to management positions. Only few people are being assisted by the policies.

Based on the findings of this research, it can be concluded that both the male and female educators in promotion positions share the same view in terms of legislation playing an important role in the promotion of female educators to management positions. All the respondents in management positions considered that the government should be applauded for their efforts to promote gender equity in South Africa, while both male and female respondents not in management positions did not think the policies are assisting female educators in getting promotion to senior posts. It could be argued that these differences in

perception and opinion between those in management positions and those not could be the result of the fact that those who are in management positions are already enjoying the benefits of these policies and Acts, while those who are not in management have been, and are still, waiting to enjoy the benefits. Figure 3 illustrates the different views of respondents about the importance and positive effects of the South African legislation in the promotion of female educators to management positions.

Figure 5: Respondents' perceptions of the role of legislation in the promotion of female educators to management positions

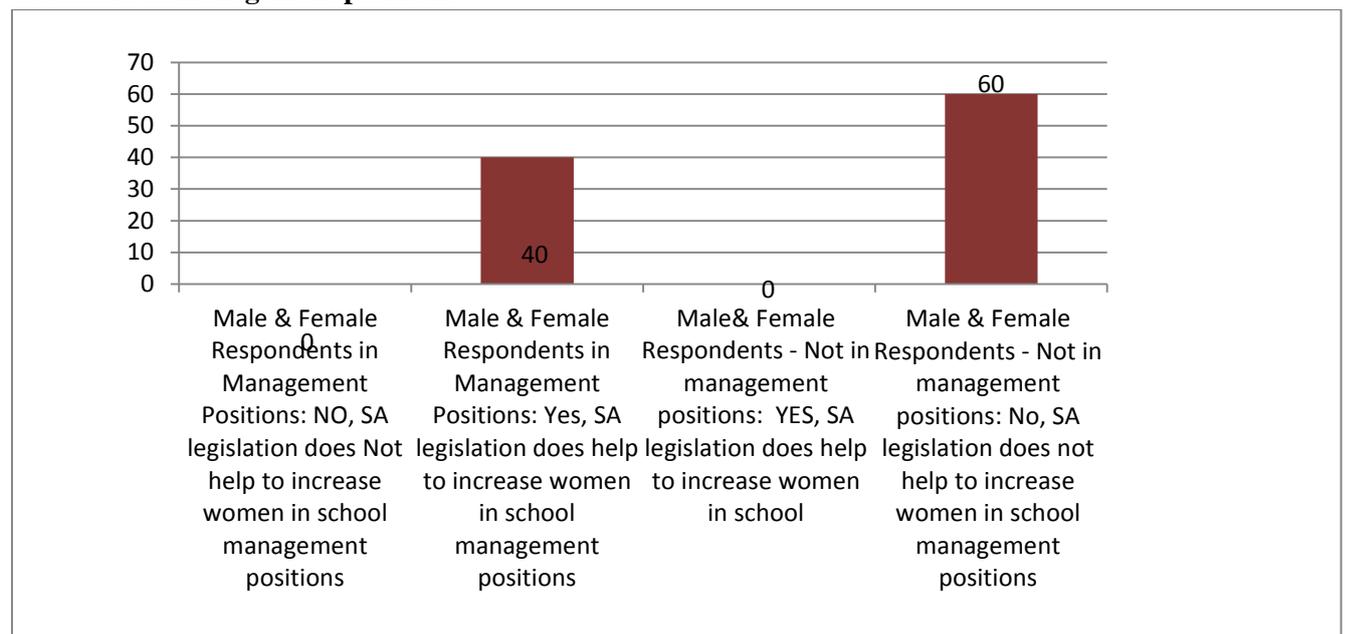


Figure 3 reflects an interesting and important difference in opinion between the management category and the non-management category. It shows that both male and female respondents who are not in management positions, (comprising 60% of the total sample) perceived the employment equity legislation not to have had a positive effect in terms of increasing the number of women in school management positions, in comparison with those males and females occupying school management positions (40%) who did. However the graph does not reflect the division along gender lines.

4. 4 SUMMARY

This chapter focussed on the data collected and the findings from these as well as a preliminary analysis and discussion of the findings in terms of their alignment with the objectives of this research. The analysis in this chapter, to be developed and summarised in

the following chapter, shows clearly that the respondents had differing views and perspectives on a range of issues considered by researchers and practitioners in the area of the promotion of women to school management to be factors contributing to their under-representation at this level. A more detailed analysis and summary of the findings of the study, as well as certain recommendations arising from these findings, will be presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5. 1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four discussed the findings and analysis of the data obtained through semi-structured interviews. The purpose of this chapter is to provide concluding remarks on the research problem stated in section 1. 3 ('Statement of the Problem') of this study. Useful recommendations based on the data analysed in the previous chapter will be provided with the intention of assisting school management structures and the Department of Basic Education in South Africa in addressing the challenges that hinder female educators from occupying school management positions, and for possible further research in this area. A summary of the preceding chapters is given in the following section.

5. 2 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The first chapter provided a background to the study. This chapter highlighted the fact that, despite the increasing number of women in the teaching profession, women remain under-represented in leadership and management positions in schools. The objective of this researcher was to investigate the various challenges and factors keeping female educators under-represented in management positions in the primary schools of the Mopani District in Limpopo Province. In order to address this problem, a number of research questions were formulated and research objectives developed to assist in answering the research questions. The main objective of Chapter one was to contextualise the study and to explain the relevance and importance of the problem of under-representation of women in school management positions both internationally and in South Africa. The chapter includes the definition of concepts relevant to the field of study, the data collection methods, ethical considerations, the significance of the study and an outline of the research chapters.

Chapter two of the study critically analysed the literature relevant to the topic of under-representation of women in management positions globally and in Southern Africa, school management positions in particular. For the purpose of this study, management positions specifically refers to educators, both male and female, who occupy positions such as principals, deputy principals, heads of schools or heads of departments in schools, more specifically in primary schools because these are the main focus, and comprise the setting, of this study (see section 1. 6. 1 in Chapter 1). The literature review focussed on the three main

theoretical analyses or approaches to this field of study: the individual perspective, the systemic gender bias, and cultural theories. The description and discussion of the various theoretical models was followed by an analysis of the various factors identified by researchers in the field as barriers hindering women's career advancement to management positions in organisations. The chapter presented an analysis of the extent to which women are affected by their under-representation in management positions based on available print and electronic literature. This chapter also analysed the international conventions such as the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979), the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (1995), and the SADC Gender Protocol (2013), some of which preceded, and have therefore influenced, the legislative framework of the democratic South African government at its establishment in 1994. The chapter discussed the South African legislative framework in terms of the specific legislation related to the issue of women's under-representation at management level in the South African context, describing the ways in which the representation of women in management positions has to be legally aligned to the requirements of the Constitution (1996), the Labour Relations Act (1995), the Employment Equity Act (1998), and, in particular to The Employment of Educators Act (1998). The chapter concluded with a discussion of women's representation, or lack thereof, in the education administration sector in South Africa.

The purpose of Chapter three was to describe and provide the rationale for the qualitative research design, the methodology used to collect data and the process for analysing the data. The purpose of the data collection, using structured interviews, was to assist in the understanding of the depth and extent of the problem of under-representation of women in school management positions as perceived by the respondents in the sample, which consisted of female educators (those in management positions and those who are not) and their male counterparts (in management positions and those not). The sampling method, the sample size and the reasons for the selection of respondents, as well as the qualitative data analysis methods, were also provided. The validity and reliability of the study were discussed, as well as its limitations and the ethical considerations.

Chapter four focused on the empirical research informed by the research methodology and data analysis described and discussed in Chapter three. The recorded structured interviews

were described, and the data collected from these discussed and analysed in terms of certain patterns and themes which emerged.

Chapter five presents the research findings and a detailed analysis of the data collected in the course of the empirical research process as described in Chapter four. The analysis is based on data collected through semi-structured interviews as discussed in Chapter four. The twenty participants who constituted the sample for this research included both males and females in management positions, and those who were not. This range of respondents was selected in order to be able to gather a range of different perceptions and views on the issues and problem under study as well as to establish patterns of agreement and disagreement between and within the categories of the sample. The remainder of this chapter will present a more detailed analysis of the data and the conclusions from this analysis, as well as certain recommendations arising out of these conclusions.

5. 3 CONCLUSIONS BASED ON THE FINDINGS

The specific aim of the collection of the evidence was to answer the research question: what are the factors which contribute to the under-representation of female educators in management positions in Lulekani Circuit schools in the Mopani District, Limpopo Province? After having carefully considered all evidence collected using the two data collection methods (i. e. literature review and structured interviews), the following conclusions are drawn in line with the objectives of the research:

5. 3. 1 The extent to which female educators are promoted to management positions at primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit of Mopani District.

The South African democratic government has performed impressively in establishing a legislative framework whose stated purpose is to create conditions which allow for women's promotion to management positions in the various different sectors of the South African economy, including the education sector. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, the Labour Relations Act (No. 66 of 1995), the Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998, and The Employment of Educators Act, Act 76 of 1998 in particular, have ensured the legal right of women to equal work opportunities and promotion equity. However, despite such a solid and extensive legislative framework, and despite the fact that the total number of

women in education is far greater than the number of men, women remain under-represented in school management positions, as was described in Chapters one and two. The fact that women remain under-represented in school management positions in South Africa, including the Limpopo Province and the Mopani District (where this research was conducted), is based on statistical evidence. As shown in this research, in 2012 there were 418 109 educators in both the public and independent schools in South Africa. The number of female educators in both public and independent schools at the time of this research is 285252, while male educators number 132852. Based on these figures, 68% of educators in both the public and independent schools in South Africa are females, while fewer than 32% of educators in these schools are males. The number of female educators in Limpopo province is 34 074, while 24120 are male educators. In Mopani District (where this research was conducted), there is a total of 12131 educators of which 7107 (just under 59%) are female educators. However, despite the fact that women clearly dominate the primary school teaching profession in Limpopo and in South Africa as a whole, this research has shown that there are 2350 educators in promotional positions in the Mopani District. Despite the fact that women clearly dominate the teaching profession in this District, the number of male educators in promotional position is 1410, while women in those positions number only 940. These inequalities are cascaded further down the hierarchy. This research has shown the number of all educators at primary schools in the Lulekani Circuit to be 435, with 343 females and only 92 male educators in this Circuit. Despite the fact that the number of female teachers make up just under 80% (79% to be precise), only 45 of them are in management positions, while more than a third (31 out of 92) of male educators in the Lulekani Circuit hold school management positions. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that women educators remain under-represented in management positions in primary schools. Most women are relegated to classroom/teaching work, while more males than females tend to be in management positions, lending truth to the famous saying that: “Women Take Care, Men Take Charge” (Welbourne, 2005:1). The fact that women remain under-represented in the management sector of a profession in which they dominate is a clear indication that more needs to be done to achieve the principles of gender equality enshrined in the Constitution (1996), and the other pieces of legislation mentioned in terms of achieving equality of opportunity for women in the workplace.

5. 3. 2 Factors which contribute to the under-representation of female educators in management positions at the selected schools in Mopani District

The data collected through the literature review have corroborated a number of factors believed by many scholars to be the main factors contributing to the under-representation of female educators in school management across countries and cultures. Most of the authors seem to point to issues such as gender stereotyping, sex-role stereotyping, family responsibilities, lack of confidence, lack of networking, lack of female role models, lack of support from colleagues and administrators, lack of aspiration, discriminatory hiring and promotion practices, lack of mentoring systems in the teaching profession, lack of support systems (from both family and colleagues) and lack of mobility for women educators.

An analysis of the above findings leads to the conclusion that women face all of these problems in various combinations in the teaching profession in South Africa as a whole and in the Mopani District in Limpopo specifically. For example, all the respondents (except one) in all categories, irrespective of whether they were in management positions or not, reported conflict with family responsibilities as being the main barrier to female educators' promotion. This finding concurs with the findings of other research conducted in a variety of socio-economic contexts, such as the study conducted by Chabaya et al. (2009:248) in Zimbabwe, and that conducted in the USA by Meyerson in 2001. The fact that this finding is also in line with studies conducted in the 1990s, such as that conducted by Mahlase (1997) in South Africa, suggests that little change in terms of gender-role stereotyping has taken place over the past 20 years or so. A comparative analysis of the above findings on the basis of male versus female respondents has shown high levels of agreement between the males and female respondents. As the analysis above shows, 100% of males agree with 92% of females that conflict with family responsibilities is a serious barrier not only to women's promotion but also to their aspiring to school management positions. In addition, the above analysis has shown a similar pattern of agreement when respondents' perceptions are compared on the basis of respondents being in management positions or not. That is, 100% of respondents who are holding management positions agree with 92% of respondents who are not holding any management position that conflict with family responsibilities is indeed a major factor that prevents qualified and capable female educators from seeking or accepting school management positions. These findings correlate well with the "Woman's Place or Socialisation" or "Cultural" model/approach which was discussed in the literature review (2.

2. 3). This theoretical model postulates that women (female educators in this research) remain under-represented in school management positions because of certain gendered cultural norms, and gendered socio-cultural stereotypes in terms of "what's ladylike" as well as in terms of social and domestic roles (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11). As Chapter 2 of this research showed, it is this gender-role stereotyping which associates women with parenting and caring, while men's identities have been associated with paid employment as well as with becoming public and industrial managers (Prentice & Carranza, 2002:269; Neidhart & Carling 2003), that contributes to the continued under-representation of women in school management positions. Therefore, in order to deal decisively with the problem of under-representation of female educators in school management positions, one has first to deal with gender-role stereotyping. Unfortunately, the problem for women of conflict with family responsibilities is coupled with lack of support, especially from their male partners and male co-workers. The analysis of the findings above has shown that all the female educator respondents (in and not in management positions) blame lack of support (from family and colleagues) for being the contributing factor to their under-representation in school management positions, while all the males reject this proposition. An analysis on the basis of respondents being males or females (i. e. a gender based analysis) shows that all (100%) of the female respondents think they remain under-represented in management positions because of lack of family and colleague support, while all the male respondents disagree. The analysis above has also showed that female educators fear that once they are in management positions they might not get the support they need from their colleagues. An analysis of the findings on the basis of respondents being in management positions or not has shown that sharp disagreements are aligned with the gender of the respondents in each category. For example, all the women in the category of respondents in management positions disagree with all the male respondents in the same category, and all the females in the category of respondents who are not in management positions disagree with all the males in the same category. This contradictory voice from the male respondents on the question of whether lack of support has been a contributing factor to the continued under-representation of female educators in school management positions was generally missing in the current literature, simply because most researchers have tended to exclude male educators from their samples. Without family support it is difficult for female educators to work far away from their homes or relocate to schools in places where their management skills are needed. The stress that comes with management positions, coupled with the stress that comes with lack of family support, could be the biggest problem needing to be tackled within both family and societal

contexts in order to create conditions conducive for women to both assume, and succeed in performing, management duties. The problem of lack of support is closely associated with another identified problem: women's lack of aspiration.

As the findings of this research have shown, all the categories of the respondents (male, female, those in and not in management positions) reported lack of aspiration on the part of women educators as being a major barrier to women's promotion. A comparative analysis of the findings on gender basis (i. e. male versus female) respondents, irrespective of whether the respondents were in management positions or not showed that all the male respondents (100%) tended to agree with almost all the female respondents (92%) that lack of aspiration on the part of female educators is indeed the contributing factor to their continued under-representation in school management positions. A comparative analysis of the findings on those respondents in management positions versus respondents who not holding any school management position, irrespective of whether the respondents are males or females also showed that all the male respondents (100%) tended to agree with almost all the female respondents (92%) that lack of aspiration on the part of female educators is indeed the contributing factor to their continued under-representation in school management position. Based on these findings, it can therefore be concluded that lack of the aspiration on the part of women educators is almost certainly a major barrier to their promotion and there are no gender based differences of opinion on this, or differences based on whether the respondents are holding a school management position or not. These findings tend to confirm the assumptions of the "Individual or Meritocracy" conceptual model which blame women as individuals for being the cause of their relative failure to attain top management positions (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:10; Growe & Montgomery, 2000:2) as discussed in section 2. 2. 1 of Chapter 2 of this research.

Lack of aspiration is likely to remain the biggest contributing factor to the under-representation of women in management positions. A number of female educators who were not in management positions at the time of this study reported that they enjoyed being teachers and wanted to stay in their classes with their learners rather than aspiring to school management positions. However, I would argue that this apparently widely held perception that women lack aspiration needs to be seen in the context of other limiting factors such as family responsibilities, and lack of family and co-workers' support. It could thus be argued that women would not continue to lack aspiration to management positions if they had

sufficient support and encouragement from families and work colleagues. However, an analysis of the findings of this research shows that securing the support of colleagues, particularly that of male colleagues, for women who occupy, or who aspire to, school management positions is not likely to be an easy or uncomplicated task.

The reason for this, as the analysis of the findings has shown, is that, while all the women respondents in the study perceived gender stereotyping to be one of the main barriers to acquiring school management positions, all the male respondents (100%), both in management positions, and those not occupying management positions, disagreed with this perception. They rejected gender stereotyping as a barrier to female educators' promotion opportunities. A comparative analysis of the perceptions of those who are in management positions and those who are not holding any management positions showed marked gender based differences within each category. In the course of the above analysis, it was found that males in the category of respondents who were in management positions disagreed with their female counterparts who were also in management positions, and that the males who were not in management positions also disagreed with those females not in management positions. In all cases, the male respondents rejected gender stereotyping as a barrier to female educators' promotion opportunities, while the females were of the view that gender stereotyping is the main reason why they remain under-represented at school management level. This kind of contradiction along gender lines has the potential to create a serious problem in terms of fair interviewing and selection procedures for management positions. For example, if there are more males in management positions than women, it is likely that the selection process and the promotion decision will be dominated by males who may not believe, or may not be aware, that gender stereotyping is affecting the selection and promotion process. It also tends to reinforce the males' allegations that the blame rests with the women for their own under-representation in school management positions. In addition to this kind of gender stereotyping on the part of others, particularly their male colleagues, women themselves tend to doubt their own abilities as women to take up and succeed in school management positions. An analysis on the basis of respondents holding management positions or not showed that all the males (in management positions or not) tended to agree with all the females in management positions that indeed female educators tend to doubt their own abilities to be successful managers. This position was rejected by all the female respondents who were not in management positions (i. e. 67% of the category of respondents who were not in management positions). In addition, the analysis of the findings on the basis

of gender (male versus female respondents) found that all the males and the four females who were holding school management positions agreed that female educators are held back from promotion to school management positions because of their own uncertainty about their abilities to manage. Once again, the females who were not in management positions took a different view, saying that they were both aware and confident of their abilities to manage. As the literature has shown, in order to aspire to management positions, it is important that women first become aware of, and address, their own negative self-perceptions and those limits to their capabilities and opportunities which they may have learned as members of a powerless and oppressed group (Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11). The literature showed no hard or conclusive evidence to suggest that women do not have what it takes to succeed as school managers. This belief in women's abilities emerged from the findings of this research; they show that that 95% of the respondents (both males and females) rejected the assertion that women have leadership weaknesses. The gender-based analysis in this research has shown that all the females, and at least 87.5% of male respondents believe female educators are not weak and are in fact fit to take up school management positions. In addition, the analysis based on the category of those holding a management position or not also showed almost no disagreement, with 100% of those respondents in management positions, and 92% of respondents not in management positions agreeing that indeed women are not weak and are fit to hold management positions. Thus, from these findings, it can be strongly argued that women need to work on their own self-image, in addition to issues of family support and mobility.

In summary, there was no agreement among those participants in management positions and those who were not on the issue of unfair hiring and promotion practices. The findings also show that female educators in the sample are negatively affected by a lack of people with whom to network. Evidence, both from the literature and from the data collected for this study, also shows that women in the education profession lack role models at the same time as finding it often difficult to network with male colleagues. The analysis above has shown that all the respondents in management positions and 75% of all the respondents not in management positions agree that women educators' lack of networking has contributed to their continued under-representation at school management level. In terms of gender, the above findings have also shown that all the male (100%) respondents agree with 85% of the female respondents that lack of networking has indeed been a contributing factor in female educators' under-representation at school management level.

5. 3. 2. 1 Legislation plays an important role in the promotion of female educators in management positions

An analysis of the data in Chapter four shows that all the respondents agreed that South Africa has a solid and impressive legislative framework in terms of equality of opportunity for women in the workplace. There was, however, a sharp disagreement as to whether in practice the South African employment equity legislation comes into play in redressing the under-representation of females in school management positions. They tended to agree that solid and comprehensive laws are in place, but that the lack of proper or effective implementation makes it impossible for the laws to achieve their intended objectives. Only that category of male and female educators who were holding various school management positions in Lulekani Circuit at the time of the study considered South African legislation to be playing an important role in the promotion of female educators to management positions. This group constituted 40% of the sample. In addition, all the female and male respondents in management positions conceded that the government should be applauded for their excellent work in the promotion of gender equity in South Africa. These findings would seem to correlate with the theory of “systemic gender bias model” which suggests that the organizational structures, culture and policies, rather than the individual’s own “lack of knowledge, skill and willingness to work hard, desire and aspiration to higher positions” influence women's behaviours, attitudes and achievements in the workplace (Welbourne, 2005:1; Pirouznia & Sims, 2006:11). However, both male and female respondents who were not in management positions (60% of the sample) did were of the opinion that the existence of good policies was not manifestly assisting female educators in achieving promotions. This group tended to argue that these laws are not being sufficiently and speedily implemented or enforced. It could be argued that this difference in perception and opinion of the effects of the equity legislation between respondents in management positions, and those not, could be the result of the fact that those in management positions are already enjoying the benefits of these policies and Acts, while those not in management have not tasted these benefits, are not sure whether they will ever be promoted and are therefore more critical of the implementation process of the legislation. This conclusion is further substantiated by the fact that those males (mostly Blacks/Africans) who were not yet in management positions also perceived the legislation to be insufficiently implemented in terms of quickening the pace of transformation. There was no such finding in any of the existing literature reviewed. The fact that the literature reviewed in Chapter two did not indicate that people (both males and

females) not in management positions tend to view hiring and promotion policies and procedures in a different light to those who are in management positions could be explained by the possibility that most previous literature and research in this area has tended to exclude respondents who are not in school management positions.

5. 3. 3 Challenges faced by female educators in promotion positions

As the analysis of the data shows, Affirmative Action and the legislation aimed at creating equal opportunities for women in the workplace, while these have allowed some women to attain school management positions, may also have created a new set of challenges for women. For example, as the data showed, even well qualified women who are performing well in their current school management functions, are not well respected or supported by their male counterparts. About 75% of those respondents who were all females in management positions reported that “some men reject them, saying that they only got the job because they were female and they were not necessarily the best for the job”, implying the legislation has afforded women an unfair advantage. Women in management positions have many other mountains to climb. This research found that even well-qualified women in school management positions continue to be undermined and regarded as inefficient by their colleagues who include male educators who are less qualified than they. This is a serious problem which those women who venture to apply for, and take up, management positions have to deal with every day of their lives. However there is also a contradiction in the way male educators treat their female managers. For example, as the findings have shown, although 95% of the respondents (both males and females) rejected the assertion that women have leadership weaknesses, those same males are also the ones who undermine those women who venture to take up management positions in their schools. Another serious problem facing some female educators appointed to management positions which emerged from the findings is sexual harassment. Sexual harassment is disruptive in terms of women managers performing their functions efficiently because it produces work performance stress as well as distracting these women from important and demanding tasks. Furthermore, being undermined by their male counterparts and being sexually harassed leads to isolation and lack of formal or informal support which in turn causes more stress to these women in school management positions. Finally, female educators’ readiness and willingness to occupy management positions remains a problem because even well qualified female educators still doubt their own abilities to perform management functions, or tend to be more concerned

with their family roles and responsibilities than with taking up school management positions which they fear may end up destroying their families. It can be argued that this perceived reluctance on the part of women should not necessarily be interpreted as women not being ready for promotion into management positions; it could simply mean that their family and work environments are not supportive of, or conducive to, women fulfilling their dual roles as mothers and wives, and as school managers. Thus it can be argued that the women's willingness and abilities to occupy management positions is not a problem in terms of their promotion. There are many well qualified women, but not only do they themselves need to recognise and have confidence in their abilities, but society must play its part in allowing them to realize their aspirations. In the next section some strategies are suggested to reduce the problem of under-representation of women in school management positions.

The undermining of women's abilities to manage, and the continued reports about lack of support and sexual harassment, are closely linked to some cultural issues which could be addressed not only through a national debate, but also by means of social education about the role and challenges of women in African societies.

5. 4 RECOMMENDED STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE THE REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITIONS

One of the objectives of this research was to make recommendations for addressing the challenges preventing and/or discouraging female educators from occupying management positions. This section outlines certain recommendations based on, and emerging from, the findings, the analysis and the conclusions of this study,

The literature reviewed in Chapter two and in this chapter indicates a pressing need to speed up transformation and progress towards the development of successful women managers in order to prepare them for management positions in schools as well as in other sectors of life. Some of the strategies to achieve this objective would include the creation of awareness and understanding, as well as an acceptance of the process aimed at changing the status quo in the organisation (Simpson, 1995:27). Researchers, such as Mckeen and Burke (1991:48), have suggested the possibility that those male managers who are aware of the issues facing women in management could support change in relation to gender issues in their organisations. With specific reference to the African context, some, such as Osumbah (2011, 63-64) in his study

conducted in Kenya, make the following suggestions for improving the representation of women in the teaching profession and those aspiring to management level in the education sector:

- Training of women in top, middle and supervisory management in the skills required for top educational management and leadership positions.
- Providing gender sensitive training to both males and females to promote non-discriminatory working relationships and respect for diversity in work and management styles.
- Creating a system for mentoring women in middle and supervisory management.
- Engendering equitable government educational and employment policies, with the government committing itself to provide the political will which is a pre-requisite to the success of policy implementation.
- Employing affirmative action, such as constitutional managed quotas, to improve the representation of women in top educational management and leadership positions. It is however important to stress the fact that well-qualified women themselves need to shake off their inferiority complexes and proactively apply for these management posts. Unfortunately this research has indicated that well-qualified women often admit they are reluctant to seek administrative positions (see also Aifeng, 2000). The legislative framework cannot have a positive and measurable impact on resolving the problem of under-representation of women in school management positions if well qualified women do not apply for these positions. This proposition is in line with the proposed solution of Aifeng (2000) for women teachers who seek administrative roles. Aifeng (2000), on the basis of studies conducted in China, argued that such women need to improve their sense of self and develop their 'spiritual qualities' by improving their education in self-reliance and ideals, and by overcoming their psychological and mental barriers in order for them to have true self-respect, self-confidence, and self-reliance, and for them to provide valuable role models for other women.
- Mobilising and educating women about their own abilities to manage. Strategies for achieving this could focus on girl child education in terms of women in top educational management and leadership providing realistic role models, meeting the

biological and sanitation needs of girls in school, and removing all negative stereotypes of women at all levels of education (Aifeng, 2000). This strategy is vital in order to educate female children to be confident so that they can be as effective as managers as their male counterparts. Therefore, in order to change the attitudes of women themselves, according to Pirouznia (2013), it is important to start examining what is done about this in early childhood and primary school gender role education. This strategy is also in line with the wide range of solutions proposed more recently by Mordi et al. (2011) to produce better managers. These propositions include appropriate education of women, education of the girl child, male involvement in childcare, leadership training and development for women, mentoring of women, and social networking among women.

- Changing the views of patriarchal and traditional societies about gender roles. The analysis of the findings of this research indicates that there is no doubt that males, as husbands, fathers, co-workers, and as the dominant force in school management positions, are part and parcel of the problem of under-representation of women in management positions. Patriarchy has long been cited as the root cause of women's role conflict in traditional societies such as those in developing countries and is also often mentioned as a root cause of women's role conflicts in modern societies such as in the UK (Archer & Lloyd, 2002). On the basis of the research done in the UK, Liu (2000) argues that the higher demands made on the professional roles of women teachers make the conflict and tension between self-respect and feelings of inferiority even more acute. Research done in Kenya by Osumbah (2011) and in Zimbabwe by Chabaya et al. (2009) report similar findings. These two studies are also, to a certain extent, similar to this research in terms of the socio-economic and historical context. The fact that women's lack self-respect and feelings of inferiority have been found to constitute a major cause of their under-representation in a range of different contexts suggests the seriousness and wide-spread existence of this factor hindering women in the workplace. Therefore, in terms of research cited in the literature review, and according to the findings of this study, women need to take charge of their own destinies and to be proactive in order to succeed. Aifeng (2000:6) sees males as having to change their perceptions of the value of women, discard traditional concepts, including and particularly gender concepts formed over thousands of years.

- Finally, intensifying government intervention. Most of researchers appear to agree that women themselves cannot succeed without the intervention and support of the government and other social partners, such as employers and unions (Davidson & Cooper, 1992:165). However, the existence and implementation of a solid and well-thought-out legislative framework does not mean that women should be promoted simply on the basis of being women. Therefore, those women who are not well qualified should not be encouraged to apply for management positions, and if they apply they should not be appointed in school management positions on this basis. If this happens, or if Affirmative Action is interpreted in this way, those women will fail as school managers, and their failure will further re-enforce the already existing negative perception among many males that females are not good managers. Most importantly, an incompetent and failed school manager has a negative impact on the education of the learners in her school, as well as on the well-being of other teachers.

5. 5 CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

5. 5. 1 Concluding remarks

This study explored the perceptions of a group of educators of the barriers to the promotion to school management positions of female educators. The findings of the research revealed that the barriers are not only complex in nature but are also intertwined. It became apparent from both the literature review and the analysis of the findings of this study that both men and women and the society in general create and perpetuate most of these barriers. In this context, it is important to note that gender discrimination is against the spirit and the letter of the South African Constitution. Therefore, since women make up the majority of the teaching profession in South Africa, including and more specifically in the Lulekani Circuit, this study recommends that policy makers should consider implementing the strategies suggested under 5. 4 above, and/or developing their own strategies in order to solve the problem of the under-representation of women in school management positions.

5. 5. 2 Recommendations for further research

This study focussed on the barriers preventing female teachers from promotion to management positions in the Lulekani Circuit. Since the study was limited to the area of Lulekani Circuit, it is recommended that other studies on gendered barriers to promotion to management positions be extended to the other areas of the Mopani District, to the whole Limpopo Province and to South Africa as a whole. It is also recommended that further studies be conducted on strategies for eliminating gender discrimination in the teaching profession as a whole. Another important and valuable study could be one which investigates the specific reasons for most female educators in school management positions tending to shy away from the questions that suggest that their promotions could have been influenced by these women's abilities to network. The researcher observed this attitude among the female participants during the interviews, but for the reasons given in the analysis above, was not able to probe its causes. What emerges above all is that the under-representation of women at management level is a problem to be understood and shared by both men and women. That is, men's awareness and sensitivity to the problem and to the difficulties under which women, particularly in 'traditional' societies labour, needs to be heightened. Finally, not only do women need to be more proactive, men also need to be more sensitive.

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ANNEXURE B: A LETTER TO THE PRINCIPALS REQUESTING TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SCHOOLS

P. O. Box 1316
LULEKANI
1392

The principal
..... School

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT YOUR SCHOOL

The above matter bears reference.

I am Master’s Degree student at the University of Limpopo.

The title of my dissertation is: “Promotion of female educators into management positions at schools in Lulekani Circuit in the Mopani District, Limpopo Province at the University of Limpopo”.

I have planned to conduct my research from the 1st June 2013 to 30th June 2013.

I would love to conduct my study with female educators not occupying management positions at your school. I would love to interview them, and the interview is scheduled for approximately for 45 to 60 minutes.

I hope to receive your positive response in this regard.

Yours sincerely,

MathevulaNavela Sodas

ANNEXURE C: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO THE PARTICIPANTS

P. O. Box 1316

Lulekani

1316

Dear Madam

RE: INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

I hereby request you to participate in a one day academic research which I will conduct at your school.

I am a masters' student working on a dissertation with the title, "Promotion of female educators into management positions at schools in Lulekani Circuit in the Mopani District, Limpopo Province", and I would like share your views, opinions and experiences.

The interview will be scheduled in advance, and all the resulting information will be held in the strictest confidentiality. The interview will last for approximately 45 to 60 minutes, and with your permission will be audio recorded for the verification of the findings.

Thank you. I anticipate talking to you.

Yours sincerely

MathevulaNavela Sodas

ANNEXURE D: CONSENT FORM

I have read and understand the purpose of the research project and accept to partake in the study as requested. I understand the rules governing this research and give my consent for my interview to be tape recorded.

I understand that my identity and that of my school will be kept anonymous and that all information provided by me will be treated as confidentiality.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am not obliged to share information that I do not feel comfortable to say.

.....
.....

Signature

Date

ANNEXURE E: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

PROMOTION OF FEMALE EDUCATORS INTO MANAGEMENT POSITIONS AT SCHOOLS IN LULEKANI CIRCUIT IN THE MOPANI DISTRICT, LIMPOPO PROVINCE

1. Statistics revealed that female educators are underrepresented in management positions. What do you think are the barriers which prevent female educators from promotion into management positions?
2. Explain why some female educators are not interested in promotion posts.
3. There are some people who believe that women are not fit to be in management position because there are some weaknesses that are inherent in women that make them unsuitable for promotion positions. Do you agree or disagree. Motivate your answer
4. Do you think networking and support is a barrier to women in getting promotions?
5. The government has promulgated various legislations such as the “Equity Act” in order to assist women in getting promotion posts. Is there any improvement and what can be done to remove the barriers?

Please note: The following question is for women in management positions.

6. What challenges do you experience as a female in a management position?