

**GENDER EQUITY IN SECONDARY SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN KADOMA
DISTRICT IN ZIMBABWE**

by

MODENI MUDZAMBA SIBANDA



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Supervisor: Professor BRG Lindeque

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ABSTRACT

Attempts to explain women's lack of achievement in education management, suggests that both socio-cultural and organisational barriers, keep women from advancing to management positions in education. Women's career progress is particularly impeded by socio-cultural impediments, especially those involving marriage, childcare and domestic responsibilities. Women are also perceived to be lacking in self-confidence and self-esteem and there is a stereotype that women would not cope with the 'masculine demands of management'. Organisational barriers result from the fact that organisations so structure the behaviour of their workforce that women limit their performance because they are locked into low power, low visibility, dead-end jobs. Women under-representation in educational management is underscored by these complex, diverse and interacting variables, which function at the individual, organisational and socio-cultural levels. These variables compound strategies to promote greater gender equity in educational management.

Using both quantitative and qualitative approaches the present study investigated the socio-cultural and organisational factors affecting gender equity in school management in Kadoma district, Zimbabwe. Results indicated that constraints on the promotion of women were based primarily on these stereotypic attitudes and expectations regarding gender roles. Career decision-making was based on personal experiences of women. Positive or negative perceptions regarding promotion created from these experiences

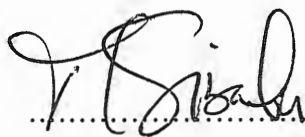
either reinforced career aspirations, or led to self-limiting beliefs and values, which deterred their advancement.



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DECLARATION

I declare that **“GENDER EQUITY IN SECONDARY SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN KADOMA DISTRICT IN ZIMBABWE”** is the author’s original work and has never been submitted by the author or anyone else at any university for a degree. All the sources that I have quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



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* Finally a word of thanks to God the Almighty, for we all make plans but He has the final say.

The views expressed and the conclusions arrived at in this dissertation are those of the author. Any shortcomings in this work are acknowledged as entirely my own.

DEDICATION

This piece of work is dedicated to my late grandparents, Masikati (*Mike*) and Jesirina (*VaMagumbo*), my parents, Rudorwashe and Ratidzo Charles and my family members, Dorica, Ronald and Louis.



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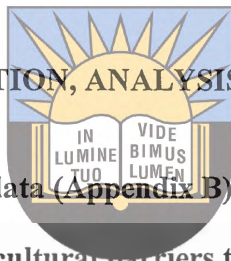
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CHAPTER 1

STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the background to the research problem, purpose and objectives of the investigation, critical assessment questions of the study and the rationale for the investigation. The chapter ends by discussing the delimitation of the investigation, definition of key concepts and how the dissertation is organised.



1.2 Background of the research problem

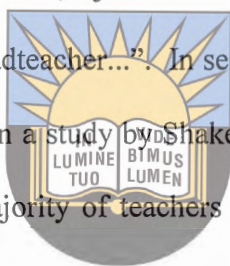
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Women under-representation in management positions, especially at the upper levels of management is well documented in most of the industrialised countries of the world (Browne, 1997:107). Khan in Tichy (1996:6) reveals the fact that “every country for which data are available, the proportion of women in management is smaller than the proportion of men”. In most European countries and in the United States of America (USA), available data show that women make up the majority of primary and secondary school teachers. Despite this large number of female teachers, there are disproportionately few women in positions of authority. Women are under-represented at the level of educational management and as policy and decision-makers. At the level of the school, where authority to determine policy and make decisions resides in the principal, women are not found in this category in the proportion that one would expect given the number of female teachers in the system. In several countries this is seen as a

problem (Van Eck, Volman and Vermeulen, 1996:403). In a wide-ranging review of teaching staff in countries in Africa, Central America, India and China, Davies concluded that, “whether or not the profession is female dominated numerically, formal decision-making is in the hands of men...educational administration is still seen as a masculine occupation in many countries” (Davies, 1990:62).

Research by Ouston (1993:2) indicates, “just under half of the primary schools in England and Wales has a women headteacher...”. In secondary schools around one in six schools has a woman headteacher. In a study by Shakeshaft in Ouston, (1993:47) it was observed, “while women are the majority of teachers in most of the classrooms in the United States, they do not hold the majority of the positions of formal leadership”. In China, it appears that no official statistics are available detailing the numbers of women who hold positions of responsibility in education. However, research (Coleman, Qiang and Yanping, 1998:142) indicate that the numbers of women represented in senior management teams was small, particularly in secondary education in urban areas, and in all schools in the rural areas. In New Zealand secondary schools, 51% of teachers are female and 81% of the principals are male (Prinkle and Timperley in Coleman, 2001:76). Women are also poorly represented in school management in Germany, “in the case of the *Gymnasien*: these are firmly in the hands of men, female principals are the absolute exception” (Faulstich-Wieland, 1997:62). Contrary to men’s reverse discrimination fears (Mackay in Browne, 1997:109) actual participation rates of Australian women in management positions suggests that cracking the ‘glass ceiling’ and rising to higher levels in management remains a substantial problem for women.



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In the Republic of South Africa, available statistics show an undeniable under-representation of female educators in promotion posts (Van Deventer and Van der Westhuizen, 2000:235). Management has traditionally been male dominated in the senior levels of decision-making, although equal opportunities policies introduced since 1994 by government has led to significant improvement of opportunities for women especially in the public sector (Wolpe, Quinlan and Martinez, 1997:195). According to the report of the Gender Equity Task Team of the Department of Education, South Africa (Wolpe et al 1997:196) a majority of women teachers are employed by the Department of Education. They are however located in the lower ranks of the profession, having increasing representation at middle management levels but with the unseen barrier to women's career mobility, 'the glass ceiling' applying at higher levels of educational management. While men made up 36 percent of all teachers in South Africa in 1994, they held 58 percent of all principal posts and 69 percent of all deputy principal posts (Edusource Data News, 1997:18). The position of women in management in secondary schools and of black women in particular, is even weaker (Wolpe et al, 1997:200). The historical and present participation of women at the position of school principalship and above in the USA, the UK and the Republic of South Africa (RSA) thus confirms that a marked degree of imbalance occurs. Egalitarian issues are raised by statistics showing a disproportionately small number of women engaged in the more influential areas of education. The relatively low numbers of women in positions of seniority also indicates the loss of potential, expertise and managerial ability to the educational community.



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Superficially there might appear to be no obvious restrictions limiting movement into management posts since there are no national qualifying requirements, such as professional management qualifications, for promotion to senior management posts such as deputy or headteacher post or Education Officer or District Education Officer. Nonetheless, although teaching is popularly characterised as women's work, women are missing from the top management in education. Like their counterparts in the UK, the rest of Europe, RSA, Asia and the USA, women in Zimbabwe are confronted by a 'glass ceiling' when it comes to accessing positions of power in educational management. The profile of women's employment in education management in Zimbabwe reveals a number of structural inequalities based on gender. Micro-level studies (Dorsey, 1996; Gordon, 1995) show that women are often represented disproportionately. This tends to confirm the common reality that "...most women enter to teach, but most men enter to administer..." (Shakeshaft, 1989:87; Marshall and Mitchell, 1989:4).



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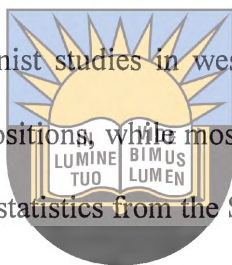
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This gender related dichotomy still holds true despite strategies to rectify it, posing problems for women aspiring to the ranks of management within the education system in Zimbabwe. The Ministry of Co-operatives, Community Development and Women's Affairs (MCCDWA) in Zimbabwe, which was set up in 1980 to deal with issues affecting women and to promote their empowerment, adopted the Equity policy in 1981 (Zwart, 1992:20). The creation of the Ministry of Co-operatives, Community Development and Women's Affairs (MCCDWA), whilst evidence of the government's commitment to gender equity, early on, was based on the belief that women's issues could be addressed and inequities redressed by piecemeal reform in areas where these inequities were most

visible (Swaison, Bendera, Gordon and Kadzamira, 1998:99). This view, which also probably accounts for the lack of a national gender policy, has led to the neglect of gender issues in education and other state organisations. By and large, therefore, where gender was raised as an issue in governmental institutions and departments, only half-hearted attempts have been made to address it.

The patterns of women's under-representation in educational leadership in Zimbabwe echo those identified in many feminist studies in western societies, documenting men holding the majority of leadership positions, while most women are placed at the bottom of workforce hierarchies. Available statistics from the Salary Service Bureau (May 1999) supports this observation by indicating that, out of a sample of 7 860 management positions in government, only 62% are held by women in Zimbabwe. The percentage of a mere 20.6%, tells a sad story, given that women constitute 52% of the Zimbabwean population. Statistical evidence (Salary Service Bureau, May 1999) further reveal that, out of 5 748 senior managers in the Public Service, by grade and equivalence from grade 8 and above, only 1 132 (19,7%) are female. This poor picture of representativity takes place without clearly advanced reasons, except perhaps the "...persistent stereotype that associates management with being male". (Antal and Izraeli, 1993:63).

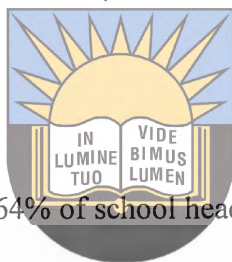
The actual extent of this reality can further be deduced from the limited data available regarding the proportion of males and females in school management hierarchies in the Zimbabwean education system. Nkwate (2000:1) indicates that, while 84,5% of senior



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grade 1 management posts at primary school are held by men in Matabeleland South Province, only 15,5% are held by women. The same trend persists in Mashonaland Central Province where the representation of women at the position of school head grade 3 to 1 at primary school level was extremely low. While 89,8% of the school heads were male, a paltry 10,2% was female. At the secondary school level in the same province, the situation was slightly better, but equally pathetic with 81,3% of grade 3 to 1 school heads being male, whilst only 18,7% were female (Dehwe, 2000:1). This pattern is no better in Manicaland Province.



Dehwe, (2000:1) reports that, while 54% of school head grade 1 post are held by males at primary school level, only 5% are held by females. She further observed that at secondary schools 56% of the school heads held posts, while females held only 9%. In Matabeleland North, Ngwenya, (2000:1) reports that male school heads at primary school level constitute 66,8% against 33,2% for females. At the secondary school level, female representativity is even lower, at 74,8% for males against 25,2% for females. This trend is also apparent at the national level, where women are clustered in the lower ranks and are totally under-represented in the upper echelons of secondary school management (Table 1.1).

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Table 1.1: National distribution of management posts by category and gender in Zimbabwean secondary schools.

Category	Male (N)	Female (N)	Total (N)	Male (%)	Female (%)	Total (%)
Head Grade 1	150	43	193	77.7	22.3	100
Head Grade 2	375	70	445	84.3	15.7	100
Head Grade 3	659	221	880	74.9	25.1	100
TOTAL	1 184	334	1518	78	22	100

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture Statistics, May 2000

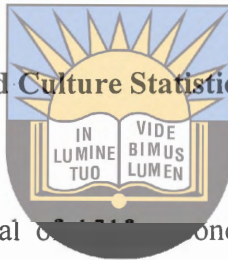


Table 1.1, shows that out of a total of 1518 secondary school management posts in Zimbabwe only 334 (22%) were held by women. The majority of women are however clustered in lower ranks of management (School Head Grade 3). This shows that despite widespread commitments to international agreements on gender equity, the key policy and decision-makers in this education sector are still predominantly male. Although the available data may not be statistically comparable or indicative of all regions and districts nation-wide, data from Kadoma district explicitly depicts this national trend of low women representativity.

Table 1.2: Distribution of management posts by category and gender in secondary schools in Kadoma district.

Category	Male (N)	Female (N)	Total (N)	Male (%)	Female (%)	Total (%)
Heads Grade 1	4	0	4	100	0	100
Heads Grade 2	6	2	8	75	25	100
Heads Grade 3	23	5	28	82.1	17.9	100
TOTAL	33	7	40	82.5	17.5	100

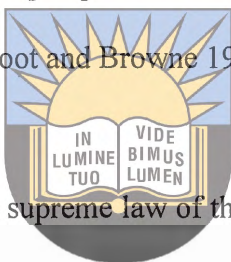
Source: Ministry of Education and Culture, Kadoma District, May 2000.



Table 1.2, shows that out of 40 management posts in secondary schools in Kadoma District, 33 posts (82,5%) are occupied by men, with a mere 7 posts (17,55%) being held by women. Not a single woman occupies the senior management post of Head Grade 1. Again they are mostly clustered in the junior grades.

The above statistics show once more that more men than women are employed in management positions of leadership nationally and in Kadoma district in particular. The total population of Zimbabwe currently stands at 12.5 million. Of this population, 6,5 million are female and 6 million male. Thus, women constitute 52% of the total population while men constitute the remaining 48%. The sex ratio is 95 males per 100 females (World Bank 1998:5, United Nations Human Development Report; Zimbabwe, 1998:1). If the above figures are anything to go by, then women as constituting a particular gender group are discriminated against, more so, that they form 52% of the Zimbabwean population. Men thus continue to dominate the upper occupational echelons

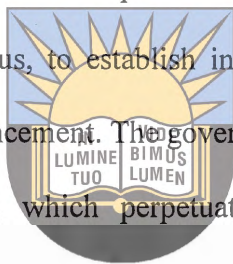
despite the fact that women have in the most caught up with them in the educational stakes. The marked under-representation of women in the available data in four out of ten provinces in Zimbabwe, reflect the extent of the gender equity problem. The imbalance of sexes in senior positions is of particular concern, because females are not seen to hold status positions and consequently, girls and other female teachers are not provided with positive female role models. The absence of females at school management level also ensures the perpetuation of the male perspective in education policy and the learning experiences provided for learners (Bloot and Browne 1996:82).



The constitution of Zimbabwe as the supreme law of the country prohibits discrimination on the grounds of gender, which under the current Labour Relations Act is termed 'unfair labour practice'. However, the ~~Constitution of Zimbabwe~~ does not mention the issue of equality between the sexes. It was only in 1996 that for the first time the constitution of Zimbabwe specified that gender discrimination would be prohibited in Zimbabwe (Women and the Zimbabwean Constitution Fact Sheet, 2001:4). However, the provision in section 23(3) of the Constitution does not go far enough and provides little protection for women. The Constitution, while prohibiting gender discrimination, does not prohibit sex discrimination. It only addresses discrimination in the public spheres. Yet, the site of most discrimination that Zimbabwean women and girls suffer is in the private sphere of the home and the extended family.

Zimbabwe is a signatory to several international conventions, which include the Convention on the Political and Civil Rights, the Equal Remuneration Convention and

the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). The CEDAW is the most important of these conventions as it addresses all the forms of discrimination that the other conventions deal with. The government of Zimbabwe ratified the CEDAW in 1991 (UNICEF, 1995:1). By ratifying the CEDAW, the government of Zimbabwe committed itself to the provisions of the convention. In terms of the Convention, the Government promised to establish equality for women in the political, economic, social, cultural and civil spheres. It also promised to change laws, to eliminate women's subordinate status, to establish institutions and to undertake other measures that further women's advancement. The government also promised to outlaw all the cultural practices and beliefs, which perpetuate the subordination of women (UNICEF, 1995:1-5). Since the adoption of the convention, the government has attempted to fulfil the terms contained therein. However, the condition of the majority of women has not improved. Most of the women in Zimbabwe are still subordinated, despite these measures that are being taken to empower them. As a member of the Commonwealth, Zimbabwe is a signatory to the Commonwealth Plan of Action, which adopted the Gender and Development (GAD) approach to promoting equality between men and women, taking cognisance of the fact that women have been historically undervalued and are still undervalued today. Despite particular initiatives and Equal Employment Opportunity (EEC) legislation, there has been little change in the proportions of women and men in leadership positions in education.

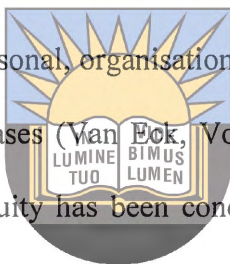


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Women in Zimbabwe are thus confronted by a 'glass ceiling' when it comes to accessing positions of power in educational management. This 'glass ceiling' is often invisible, but

women experience it as a very real barrier when they vie for promotion (Davidson and Cooper, 1992:15). Being female one can argue is equated with suffering from an irreversible handicap. Women are perhaps subordinated or marginalised, “for biological reasons” (Ostergaard, 1992:6). Studies of female managers have generally ruled out lesser skills, abilities, attitudes and motivation as reasons for the slower career progression of women (Coleman, 1996b: 173; Hall, 1996). It is currently recognised that the under-representation of women in educational management is a complex issue involving interacting factors of a personal, organisational and social nature, the impact of which differs at different career phases (Van Eck, Volman and Vermeulen, 1996:404). Most of this research on gender equity has been conducted in European countries, the USA, and to a lesser degree RSA. Such research has identified the broader social and cultural factors underpinning the ‘*Together in Excellence*’ dominance’, as a set of power relations in schools in western societies (Blackmore, 1993:114).



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However, there is no reason to believe that the findings of those studies can be generalized across countries. In cultural analysis, one can speak of an assemblage of practices and forms that are articulated to constitute a specific cultural formation, cultural formation however, comes into being at a specific time and place, that is, within a specific context. Thus a study of socio-cultural and organisational process factors affecting gender equity can take place only contextually. This therefore affords the opportunity to explore some of the questions raised in western countries, by examining the position of women in educational management in Zimbabwe.

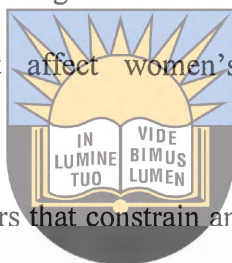
1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate socio-cultural and organisational process factors that militate against women's access to and participation in educational management in secondary schools in Kadoma District in Zimbabwe.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are, to investigate:

- Socio-cultural factors that affect women's advancement to management positions.
- Organisational process factors that constrain and affect women's advancement to management positions in education.



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1.5 Statement of the research problem

The core research question is:

What socio-cultural and organisational process factors affect the equitable representation of women in secondary school management in Kadoma District in Zimbabwe?

1.6 Critical assessment questions

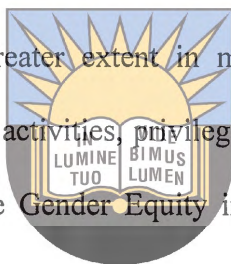
To investigate factors affecting gender equity in secondary school management the following critical questions guided this study:

1. What key variables affect application for advancement to management positions in secondary schools?

2. What socio-cultural values, norms and beliefs embedded in our socio-cultural system affect women's advancement to management positions in secondary schools?
3. What constraints within the organisational processes affect women's advancement to management positions in secondary schools?

1.7 Rationale for the investigation

Gender inequity is present to a greater extent in male and female gender roles in education in Zimbabwe, with men's activities, privileges and responsibilities being more highly valued than women's. While Gender Equity in Education Project (GEEP) was included in the Zimbabwe/UNICEF programme of co-operation for the period 1995-2000, it addresses only some of the inequities in the education sector and is mainly concerned with primary education. Other broader policy concerns are not addressed by the project, including male/female teacher ratios and gender inequity in educational management. Despite being a signatory to various international conventions and resolutions upholding the rights of women, Zimbabwe stands guilty of paying lip service to implementation of equal opportunity legislation. Women still teach and men manage in schools (Marshall and Mitchell, 1989:4). There are at least three reasons for regarding the issue of gender equity as being central to human resource management in education, the moral, instrumental and legal. The moral argument is that, as a matter of principle, everybody should receive equal treatment throughout all the various aspects of and processes involved in human resource management regardless of gender. The instrumental argument is that if schools and local authorities are to provide the best



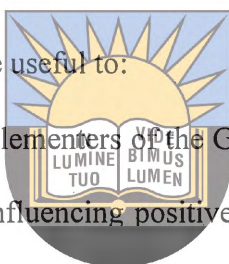
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possible education for students within available resources, they must ensure that the best available people have access to all jobs and positions and that they receive equal treatment once in post. The legal position contends that schools and local authorities must operate according to their national laws on equal rights and opportunities. It is against this background that investigating the possible factors affecting gender equity in secondary school management becomes desirable and necessary.

The findings from this study could be useful to:

- policy-makers, planners, implementers of the Gender Equity in Education Project and teachers in general by influencing positive change in their attitudes towards gender equity in educational management, and
- the various gender focal persons within government ministries, researchers and organisations involved in lobbying and advocacy for women's empowerment, advancement and the education of the girl child.



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Gold (1996:421) ably summarises the significance of women under-representation, arguing that, “one point is simple equity.... women should have the same access to power and resources as men”. Blackmore (1997:12) arguing for the need for gender reform states, “it is about political commitment to social justice and passion for change which cannot be appropriated”. It is also hoped that the findings of this study will add to a greater awareness of constraints faced by women in advancing to management positions, thereby, increasing the need for further research on the issue, reducing the effect of

factors through intervention strategies and increasing the awareness of gender commonalities and differences.

1.8 Delimitation of the investigation

The study covered only one educational administrative district of Kadoma in Mashonaland West province in Zimbabwe. Kadoma district incorporates, Kadoma urban, peri-urban, Sanyati and Mhondoro Ngezi communal rural areas. It was from these areas that a representative sample of secondary schools in Kadoma district was selected. This district was chosen due to its geographical proximity and hence accessibility to the researcher. The study involved a random sample of 30 educators in management positions, 70 female educators and 60 male educators in the promotional grade of senior teacher. Fifteen secondary schools were involved in the study. Of the 15 schools in the sample, 3 were government schools in Kadoma urban, 9 were rural secondary schools, 2 were mine schools and 1 was a mission school. The randomly selected educational administrators and educators responded to questionnaires and interviews that solicited responses on their attitudes, beliefs and perceptions on socio-cultural and organisational factors affecting gender equity in educational management positions.

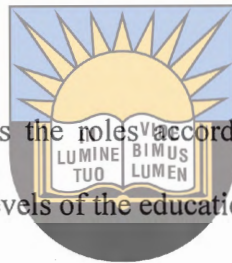
1.9 Limitations of the investigation

The researcher acknowledges the presence of factors that constitutes limitations. Firstly due to limited financial and time resources, the sample was rather small for a study of this nature. Another limiting factor was that gender has a pervasive influence on culture, and shapes basic beliefs and values that cannot simply be isolated and insulated in the social

processes of scientific inquiry. Subjects to this study may thus give what they perceive to be normative or socially desirable responses. On account of these factors, findings and conclusions from this study may not be extended (or may be extended with caution) beyond the sampled population.

1.10 Definition of key concepts

The following key terms will be defined in the context of this study:



Educational management: Denotes the roles accorded to persons functioning in the management hierarchies at various levels of the education system.

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Gender: Refers to social relationships between men and women, usually asymmetrical divisions and attributes, connoting relations of power domination and rule (Manicom in Mbilinyi, 1997:49).

Gender Equity: Is used to mean treatment that is fair to women "...allowing fairness to be placed above traditional rules of law" (Jacklin, 1981:56). Within the context of this study, gender equity was taken to mean fairness towards women in the management hierarchies of education.

Attitude: Is a psychological construct, or latent variable, inferred from observable responses to stimuli, which is assumed to mediate consistency and covariation among responses. Within this view attitudes are thus, complex mixtures of cognitive, emotional

and behavioural components. The cognitive component is made up of beliefs, whilst the affective consists of emotional feelings (e.g. liking or disliking). The behavioural (or conative) component refers to action or tendency to act in certain ways, in this context, with regard to women advancement.

Patriarchy: Is a form of male domination, based on the powerful role of a father head.

The term refers to systems of legal, social, economic and socio-political relations, which validate and enforce the sovereignty of male heads of families over the dependent persons in the household.



Perception: Refers to individual interpretations, opinions or feelings about other people.

In the context of this study perceptions are views, opinions or feelings that society has on women and their advancement to management positions.

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1.11 Organisation of the dissertation

The dissertation will be organised in the following manner:

Chapter 2

This chapter will define concepts central to the topic under investigation. Past studies related to gender equity and literature pertaining to socio-cultural and organisational process factors that affect gender equity and hence women under-representation in education management will be reviewed.

Chapter 3

The chapter will outline the methodology, research approach and design of the study. The population, sample and sampling procedure, data collection instruments, reliability and validity of instruments and data analysis will be described.



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Chapter 4

This chapter will present the data, analyse and interpret it for findings.

Chapter 5

The chapter will summarise the study, present conclusions on socio-cultural and organisational process factors affecting gender equity in educational management and some recommendations based on the research findings will be highlighted.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses concepts central to gender equity and women in educational management. Past studies related to gender equity are highlighted and discussed. The chapter also discusses socio-cultural barriers to gender equity. Organisational constraints which include career breaks, lack of mentoring and support, recruitment and selection procedures, career paths and planning are also discussed.

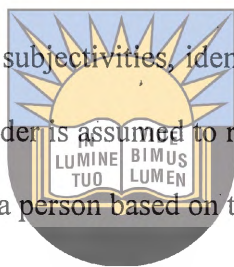


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2.2 The concept of gender

Sex is a biological description, one that divides most of humankind into two types of people, females and males (Shakeshaft, 1993:95). Gender is a cultural term, it is socially constructed and describes the characteristics we ascribe to people because of their sex, the ways we believe they behave, or the characteristics we believe they have based upon our cultural expectations of what is male and what is female (Shakeshaft, 1993:95). One's biological identification as male or female has very little to do with how people behave and the work they do in schools, one's gender identification, however, has a tremendous influence on behaviour, perceptions and effectiveness. The identification of characteristics as being basically male or female can be modified by use of the term 'gender', which when applied to social roles is relatively value free. Interestingly, gender

has somehow become identified, and in some cases become synonymous with women. This is unfortunate, since it has led to some confusion about both the direction and the importance of research that examines the influence of gender on organisational dynamics. Scott in Davies (1996:663) regards gender not as an attribute, but a relation. The relational quality of gender provides challenges. It affirms gender as a social construction, drawing attention away from the behaviour of men and women towards historically and culturally constructed masculinities and femininities, which are one resource among others, from which subjectivities, identities and behavioural regularities emerge. Within this perspective gender is assumed to refer to the social expectations and roles attributed to or experienced by a person based on their biological sex.

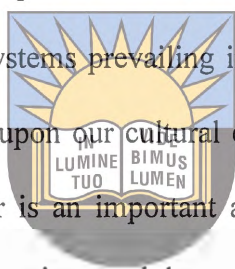


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There is also a focus on gender relations as power relations that take a binary form, a form in which women are constructed as 'devalued other', as carriers of qualities that thereby remain unacknowledged and denied (Jay in Davies, 1996:664). Gender understood in these ways can be seen to operate at multiple levels, it gives meaning to, and affects, the formation and reproduction of organisations and institutions, as well as having an influence at the levels of interactions and identities (Acker in Davies, 1996:664). Feminist theorists however tend to agree that gender is a social construct. In feminist scholarship, gender is an agreement that resides in social interchange; it is precisely what we agree it to be. Within this view, gender is constructed and reproduced culturally, socially (Meena, 1992:49) and historically. 'Masculine' and 'feminine' represent, coherent, consistent ideal types, which none of us are. Gender is not defined by physical sex, so an individual may have a very clear identity as a man (male) while

having a largely 'feminine' behaviour repertoire (Gray 1989: 43). Active processes at different levels are necessary to sustain gender relations; such relations can thus be challenged, dislodged and transformed in the process of their daily reproduction. Masculinity and femininity from this perspective cannot be regarded as fixed and stable but rather as contextual and flexible. As Ostergaard (1992:6) puts it, gender divisions are not fixed biology, but constitute an aspect of the wider social division of labour and this in turn is rooted in the conditions of production and reproduction and reinforced by the cultural, religious and ideological systems prevailing in a society. The ways we believe females or males behave are based upon our cultural expectation of what is considered male or female. In this vein gender is an important aspect of the complexity of daily interactions that make up life in society and has a tremendous influence on one's behaviour and perceptions. It follows therefore that gender expectations may partially determine the under-representation of females in school management. Gender relations are however, historical, changeable, subject to abolition and transformation through everyday happenings as well as periodic moments of crisis and transformation



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2.3 The concept of equity

Equity in educational management is critically important with increasingly diverse work populations. Equity is defined in many different ways, and these definitions are often inconsistent and even contradictory. Lee (1999:88) defines equity in general terms as "the quality of being fair or impartial...that which is fair and just". Equity implies fairness, justice and rightfulness in an ethical and moral sense, embodying more than just

equality in terms of value and law (Schreiner, 1996:81). Equity in terms of justice goes beyond the letter of a law, to unwritten and evolving notions of justice, as social, political and economic climates change in society. A just institution is one that equitably distributes social goods, such as rights, liberties and access to power among its participants (Rawl in Lee, 1999:88). Based on the notion of equity as social justice, Secada (1994:22) points out that, equity in education refers to the scrutiny of social arrangements that undergird schooling to judge whether or not those arrangements are consistent with standards of justice. Although equity is closely related to equality, a distinction is important in considering the under-representation of women in educational management.



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Equality is defined in general terms as "the state of being equal; correspondence in quantity, degree, value, rank, ability" (Lee, 1999:89). According to Secada (1994:23) "equality of opportunity usually refers to efforts to ensure that diverse groups...in the aggregate, are treated the same. While equity is associated with fairness and justice, equality is associated with sameness or an absence of differences. Equality explores quantitative differences between groups; it however fails to address those qualitative socio-cultural, psychological and organisational process factor aspects against which that equality is assessed. Precisely, such issues must be addressed as part of efforts to ensure gender equity in educational management. Failing to ask whether socio-cultural practices, socio-psychological and organizational processes are just in what they legitimate, may work to achieve equality, but seems highly unlikely that equality will represent a just distribution of power. To attain gender equity in educational management, it is necessary

to act on these and other elements of the social and organisational system (Stromquist, 1993:380). Within this perspective gender equity in educational management can be conceptualised as both the elimination of sex discrimination, sex stereotyping and sex segregation and the responsiveness of educational systems and personnel to the needs, interests and concerns of women that arise from inequitable educational practices and policies.

2.4 Theory of patriarchy

In exploring the sociology of women's education, Middleton (1987:79) makes the distinction between liberal feminist sociologists who expose the inequalities of the education system with a view to removing or at least reducing these inequalities and the more radical perspectives, which have in common the belief that women are an oppressed (as distinct from the liberal 'disadvantaged') group and that this oppression is structural. Such structural oppression may be reinforced by patriarchy within society. For Millet in Haralambos and Holborn (1990:546) relationships of domination and subordination are located in patriarchy, "a system in which male shall dominate female". Bryson (1992:185) similarly views patriarchy as, "...a social system based on male domination and female subordination", which, Whitford (1991:174) argues is "an exclusive respect for the genealogy of sons and fathers and competition between brothers".

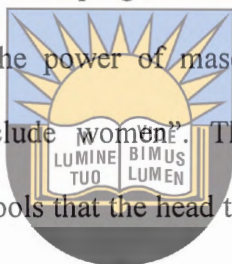
Patriarchy, in its broad terms, thus refers to systems of legal, social, economic and socio-political relations, which validate and enforce the sovereignty of male heads of families, over the dependent persons in the household. Patriarchal male stereotypes are widely



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believed to have a high degree of ‘socially constructed’ reality in patriarchal societies like Zimbabwe. The genealogy of women is lost in patriarchal cultures, where women and children take the names of their husbands and fathers respectively. Such gender stereotypes based on the patriarchal ordering of society may account for the relative subordinate position of women in educational management and the mythical stereotypes accorded to gender roles. A predominantly male culture is a pervasive factor that women must contend with in making their career progress in mixed secondary schools. Mac an Ghail (1994:29) has identified the power of masculinity as an institutional force, operating to marginalize and exclude women. There has also been an absolute assumption on the part of some schools that the head teacher should be a man (Coleman, 2001:84).



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2.5 The ‘glass ceiling’ phenomenon

The phrase ‘glass ceiling’ sums up all the frustrations of working women at every level who can see where they want to get to, but who find themselves blocked by an invisible barrier (Flanders, 1994:1). Generally, the term refers to transparent cultural, organisational, and attitudinal barriers that maintain rigid sex segregation in organisations. According to Davidson and Cooper (1992:15) this ‘glass ceiling’ is invisible, but women experience it as a real barrier when they vie for promotion to top jobs. They argue that politics of ‘glass ceilings’ are commonly attributed to the closed ranks mentality and fraternity of a generalised male bureaucratic and organisational culture. Maltis (1994:264) points out that, even women themselves may fail to recognise the glass ceiling for what it is, “ a cumulative outcome of attitudinal, cultural and

organisational biases that are at work in the system.” Maltis suggests, therefore that there is need to identify in deliberate and systematic fashion, the specific barriers and biases in the culture and work environment, and to develop systematic approaches to eliminating them (Maltis, 1994:264).

2.6 Theoretical Framework

Women’s experiences and impact on the workplace has been the subject of much discussion, and theorising. An approach often taken to the study of gender diversity in management is the ‘person centred’ or ‘gender centred’ approach (Fagenson, 1993:6). This framework argues that gender influences men and women’s behaviours, attitudes, traits and the like and encourages comparisons between women and men, to evaluate the occurrence of gender-based differences. In this perspective, gender differences are often attributed to differences in women and men’s biological heritage and/or their socialisation patterns (Powell in Fagenson, 1993:6).

An alternative theory, the situation or organisation structure perspective, contends that, perceptions, beliefs and behaviours of men and women are a function of different organisational structures they experience (Kanter in Fagenson, 1993:6). This theoretical perspective argues that, any observable differences in the behaviour, attitudes and traits of men and women are attributed to structural and situational factors. A third theoretical perspective is the gender-organisation-system (GOS). This theoretical perspective is premised on the view that an individual and his or her organisation cannot be understood separately from the society (culture) in which he or she works, and that when the

individual, the organisation and/or the system in which they are embedded change, other components change as well (Fagenson, 1993:6). Fagenson (1993:6) thus, points out that systemic factors that influence individuals and organisations include, but are not limited to laws, policies, sex role stereotypes, expectations, ideologies, cultural values, traditions and histories.

The GOS approach further argues that organisational context factors such as organisational policies, ideology, culture and history affect individuals' behaviours, experiences and orientations. As such the GOS approach does not only examine the status of women (and men) in organisations, but also the organisational and societal system in which they function. It locates differences in men and women's behaviours, attitudes and traits to individual, organisational and/or systemic factors.



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Since life-styles of women are shaped by a complex set of factors, this study also drew insights from role theory. A specific type of conflict with important implications for understanding the dual-career relationship is work-family conflict, which is predicated on role strain and role conflict (Kahn et al, 1964). According to Kahn et al (1964:19), role conflict is the simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of pressures, such that compliance with one would make compliance with the other more difficult. This theoretical perspective is based on the premise that individuals have limited resources in terms of time and physical, mental and emotional energy and that the demands and competing requirements of multiple roles (career and family) create inter-role conflict and role overload and attendant role strain on individuals. Career-family conflict can be

presented as one specific aspect within this general role-conflict framework, in which the “role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect (Greenhaus and Bentell, 1985:77).

2.7 Studies of women in educational management.

The causes of the disproportion between the numbers of women teachers and the number of women senior managers in the UK and many other countries are complex and are related to a range of social and cultural attitudes linked to the role of women in society (Coleman, 2001:76). Legislation in many countries of the world has made discrimination against women illegal, however, the fact that women tend to take the major responsibility for family and the home coupled with the cultural identification of men with leadership (Schein, 1994) do make it more difficult for women to take on management roles in education and elsewhere. The view taken by many women that leadership is not for them is: ‘something different’ (Blackmore 1999:6) and that in the end, career is only one facet of life; make many women reluctant to progress to the exposed position of school head. For those that do, “their position as administrators makes them ‘insiders’ to the organisation but their ‘abnormal’ status as women makes them ‘outsiders’ in their organisations (Schmuck, 1996:356).

While literature provides evidence for the increasing recognition of management and risk-taking roles by women (Birley, 1989:37), research evidence suggests that women are often excluded from managerial positions of authority and leadership within organisations. Adler and Izraeli (1988:7) affirm that women’s participation in

management, “remains negligible, almost everywhere”, elsewhere in the world, studies also demonstrate female under-representation. In Singapore, Chan (1988:57) reports that the percentage of women in management grew from 7 percent in 1970 to 18 percent in 1983. Zambia’s two women out of 140 parastatal directors are pointed to as proof of non-discrimination (Lungu, 1989:181). A study by the Women’s Bureau in Japan, points out that, just 56 percent of companies offer promotion opportunities to women. It further notes that the few women in management are concentrated at lower ranks, and those women often sacrifice marriage and family to demonstrate loyalty to their organisation (Steinhoff and Tanaka, 1988:110). In Cuba, where official ideology promotes gender equality and enforcement mechanisms support *puestos preferentis* (preferential posts) for women, even garment factories with their large pools of women production workers show women representing only 4 percent of their top management (Safa, 1989:4).



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2.7.1 ‘Male model’ of leadership

The perception of a male model of leadership is closely linked to both the patriarchal structure of the education system and the stereotyping associated with gender-roles. There is a tendency to present the male and his encumbent attributes as the ‘norm’ in management roles, and then to perceive the female as deficient in leadership qualities, lacking skills and competences of her male counterparts, because she differs from this norm. This is a consequence of the trait theory, which dominated research in the early decades of the 20th century. This theory postulates that only traits determine leadership capabilities and that leaders possess qualities and abilities that differentiate them from followers (Hoy and Miskel, 1996:376). Added to this is the rejection by females of the

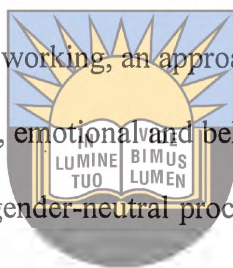
elements of these management roles, which they perceive as masculine: the aggressive competitive behaviours and the emphasis on control, rather than collaboration, negotiation and problem solving (Blout and Browne, 1996:89). Early studies on women in management often set out to establish women's similarities to men in terms of leadership behaviour, motivation and the like, to earn them acceptance against unquestioned norms of the successful good manager. Much attention has been paid in the personal domain to men and women's forms of management. Some studies show that male and female head teachers lay different priorities on some tasks or have a different managerial style, while other studies do not (Coleman, 1996; Kruger, 1994; Shakeshaft, 1987).



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Schein's classic study and title 'Think Manager, Think Male' summed up the world in which women were meant to prove themselves. Research undertaken in Europe and the USA has shown that the stereotype generally held regarding leadership tends towards those qualities that are identified as 'masculine', therefore tending to identify men with leadership. One of the most important hurdles for women in management in all countries has been thought to be the persistent stereotype that associates management with being male (Schein, 1994:47). It follows that gender expectations may partially determine the management style school heads employ in their role. There is a stereotype of a tough, aggressive, leader who is pre-occupied with tasks rather than relationships, and women are not seen fitting this image. Some women it showed reject moving into educational management as a consequence of what they see as its masculinism and inappropriate technician and hierarchical systems of control.

The concept of management style however needs clarification and explanation. A style is a form of social accomplishment, a particular way of realising and enacting the authority of headship. It is eminently an individual accomplishment, but at the same time it is essentially a form of joint action (Ball, 1987:83). From Ball's definition it follows, school heads manage their schools in different ways and enact diverse levels of control and authority. Their relationships with staff range from participative, non-directive relationships to autocratic- directive ones. Overall, according to Evetts (1994:160), a style of management "is a manner of working, an approach, a feeling, a method and a way ... term seems to comprise cognitive, emotional and behavioural elements". Based on the approach that management is not a gender-neutral process a number of feminist writings and studies in educational management focused on the sameness among women in their methods of leadership and use of power (Gray, 1993; Evetts, 1994; Coleman, 1996; Hall, 1996).



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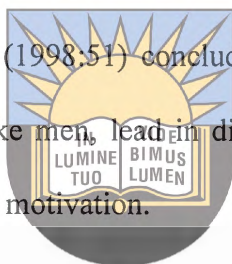
Women school heads were considered to act according to a 'feminine' management style (nurturing paradigm: caring, creative, intuitive, aware of individual differences, non competitive, tolerant, subjective, informal), whereas men were conceived as using a 'masculine' style (defensive/aggressive paradigm: highly regulated, conformist, normative, competitive, evaluative, disciplined, objective, formal) (Gray, 1993:111). Women were found to be more task-focused and visionary. They seemed to be more democratic and participatory in their decision-making style than men (Coleman, 1996) and were more likely to withdraw from conflict in their role (Kruger, 1996).

Relationships with others were more central for women than for men, resulting in a sharing of power, instead of 'power over' like men (Hall, 1996).

The 'male as norm' base of management was however, later rejected arguing that the qualities previously stereotyped as 'female' were also potentially valuable. In her study Rosener in Marshall (1995:58) found that woman, more often than men adopted an interactive management style closely aligned with transformative leadership. Similarly, in a review of effective management in schools Bolam et al (1993:119) observed that the head of an effective school, "had a consultative 'listening' style, was decisive and forceful but not dictatorial, was open to other people's ideas and was easily accessible to staff ". Findings from a study by Coleman (2000:24) supported the view that most women manage their schools in *Together in Excellence* as consultative and people oriented, with an emphasis on teamwork and 'power to' rather than 'power over' others. The study interestingly found out that much of the resentment to women leadership was linked to this softer, more participatory style of management of female heads on the part of males who were used to a more decisive autocratic style.

In recent years the traditional approach to the dichotomy of the 'masculine' versus 'feminine' management style has increasingly been questioned in educational management. Evetts (1994:160) manifest the problem of the assumed gender differences in management styles, arguing that, the question of leadership style and gender differences is one, which is difficult to handle empirically. She points out that while quantitative testing procedures have found few significant differences between male and

female school heads, in their perceptions of leadership, qualitative studies have suggested gender differences in style. Other studies have suggested that women are less confident, less aggressive in their decisions (Johnson and Powell, 1994:125; Mokgatlhe and Schoeman 1998:30). However, Chanti in Johnson and Powell (1994:127) found no significant differences between the way women and men manage in terms of the seven 'S's: shared values, strategies, structures, systems, staff, skills and styles. Self-confidence was found to be the only differentiator, as males were found to exhibit significantly higher degrees than females. Court (1998:51) concluded that, there is not a universal women's way of leading, women like men, lead in different ways, influenced by their values, persuasions, personalities and motivation.



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Emerging from these studies is that since women tend to operate in a consultative manner (Bolam et al 1993:119), likely to empower others (Coleman, 2000:24) and endorse values of transformative leadership, their paucity in positions of leadership indicates a loss of potentially effective leadership in schools. Beare et al in Coleman (1998:151) stress the importance of transformational rather than transactional leadership and the importance of collaborative decision-making. They also list a further generalisation about leadership that both 'masculine' and 'feminine' stereotypical qualities are important in the leader, regardless of their gender. Rather than reinforcing any stereotypes, the types of qualities listed by Gray (1989) need not be mutually exclusive, each person can recognise that they have qualities from both lists. According to Gray (1989:39) the better adjusted we are emotionally the easier it is for us to accept this 'fully androgynous' duality...seeing it simply as a full description of a mature person,

whether male or female being of little relevance. Similarly, Vinnings in Brown and Ralph (1996:18) suggests an 'androgynous' management, which is sensitive, empathetic in dealing with people, assertive and able to manage power and conflict. The androgynous management style combines both male and female leadership characteristics.

2.7.2 Sex roles

Browne (1997:113) in a study of gender discrimination in the workforce found reasons for the lower participation of women in management positions to revolve around personal lives, family obligations, lack of support networks, male opposition to women in management, lack of mentoring relationships, active discrimination in the workforce and lack of motivation. Spouse support has consistently been found to be an important requirement for the management of work/family conflict for dual careerists (Sekeran in Burley, 1995:485). There is a widespread tendency to portray women as the primary parents and as the people in charge of domestic responsibilities (Marshall, 1995:58). This individualised emphasis in sense making has implications for gender equity in educational management in that, it is unlikely to foster change in organisational or social cultures and practices. It may however, reflect a 'realistic' appraisal of the limited change energy available in these realms, and the continued under-representation of women in educational management.

Some studies of gender equity have tended to favour person centred approaches, emphasising internal and psychological factors, blame the victim approach, and an



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emphasis on sex and gender differences. Other studies (Davies, 1986:73-74; Jones and Montenegro, 1982:20-21) however, show a paradigm shift from the blame-the-victim or women's fault approach, towards a more holistic approach where, the individual, the organisation, the society and the complex relations between them, form the framework for researching barriers to women advancement from both male and female perspectives. Schmuck (1986:177) for example identified that, women in management tend to be older, had more teaching experience, and were less often married and less often had children or had older children than their counterparts. Findings from Coleman's (1996:163-174) study indicated that female head teachers experienced role conflict at some time of their careers. Sex roles therefore have a contributory effect on career growth of women. For most women the choice for a management position may mean choosing not to have a family. It has also been found that gender inequality in management can flow from the fact that society is patriarchal, and that through sex role socialisation, sex stereotyping and sex discrimination, women often have low self-images, low self confidence and lack motivation (Brown and Ralph, 1996:222; Blackmore, 1993:114).



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2.7.3 Old-boy networks

In a study examining the selection of school principals for gender bias, MacCurdy in Brown and Ralph (1996:18) found an 'old boys network' operating, women under-representation in management was found to result from their exclusion from these 'old-boy networks' that recruit and successfully place candidates. Being left out from the 'old-boy networks' can be detrimental to women advancement, important deals could be struck during informal social gatherings and social functions that exclude women, thereby

effectively excluding them from important opportunities to cultivate professional connections (Northcraft and Gutek, 1993:224). Old-boy networks underlie the covert barrier to women advancement referred to as filtering where males are seen as gatekeepers. However, after examining typical selection procedures (MaCurdy in Brown and Ralph 1996:18) these processes were found not merit based enough to result in leaders who could meet the many emerging needs of the times.

2.7.4 Guidance and advice

Guidance and advice from assessors or school principals has also been found to be particularly valuable for women (Cubillo, 1998:9). Gold (1996:424) similarly observed, the importance of sponsorship and mentorship for women, concluding that there is a significant relationship between an individual's job/career experiences and their protégé status. In a UK study of 10 male and 20 female managers, Anold and Davison (1990:10-18) found out that women, who had not experienced a mentoring relationship, mostly reported feeling disadvantaged in their career advancement. The study however, concluded that women suffered specific problems when mentored by males. Cross-sex mentoring it was however found could be tinged with traditional dominance-subordination behaviour or with perceptions of sexual intimacy, which are usually devastating for women aspiring to management (Staudt, 1993:136). Cross-sex or lack of mentoring could probably therefore be a significant constraining factor to female advancement into educational management.



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Although these studies have mostly been conducted in European countries, they, however, give insight into some of the possible barriers affecting gender equity in educational management. Barriers identified in these studies can therefore be used as guides in the present investigation to find out if they also affect gender equity in educational management in Zimbabwean secondary schools.

2.8 Socio-cultural constraints to gender equity

The socio-cultural perspective conceives gender inequity as the result of deliberate manipulation by those in power in order to maintain the distributive status quo, or the result of social arrangements created by latent historical forces, which have not been manipulated by anyone and thus operate independently of conscious human control (Eisinga et al, 1999:236). Eisinga et al (1999:236) from the social perspective, natural weakness, gentleness, passivity, motherly feelings (the maternal instinct), nurturance and so on, are all part of the portrait drawn by commentators anxious to domesticate women (Eisinga et al, 1999:236).

2.8.1 Culture

Culture plays an important role in the ideological change necessary for sustainable change away from discrimination. The sexist attitudes of both men and women are rooted in material conditions, in the way we live and produce in our society, but are also woven into the fabric of our cultural attitudes. Culture is however, a concept with a complex and often contradictory history, and as such forms at once part of the discursive apparatus of modernity and provides opportunities for dismantling discourses of oppression,

subjugation, and marginalisation. Culture is both a historical and a political concept. Bell (1986:40) uses culture in the sociological and anthropological sense to denote a process, which shapes specific distinct ways of life. Culture in this use refers to both artistic productions and systems of meanings and values. Laitin (1986:12) similarly points out that systems of symbols operative within a society constitute culture, what we mean by power, by authority, by justice is unavoidably symbolic. Norms, values, beliefs and meanings constitute systems of symbols, which may also be called networks of symbolic meanings. Symbolic, in this sense, means that the meanings that one attaches to certain practices (female subordination) are not given, but ascribed to those practices.



Culture is related exclusively to issues of meaning, but meaning is constructed within a social and political context, meanings are not given, they are created. In a sense culture is regarded as a text that can be analysed or 'read', even if culture is regarded as a process, such a process entails the production of specific, almost guaranteed meanings. Thompson (1990:134) views culture as "an assemblage of texts", as "acted documents", as "imaginative works built out of social material". According to this definition, one would consider meaningful systems like religion, traditions, customs, political practices, economic behaviour, and so on as subsystems of culture, as different "texts", assembled into a single culture. Taken in its wide ethnographic sense, culture can be viewed as, that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society (Theodorson and Theodorson, 1969:65). Culture is however, defined within a specific discourse, by people who have specific aims. Van Staden (1998:16) suggests that the act of defining culture is

in itself a cultural act that takes place within a cultural context. The definition of culture that is finally adopted will be one that is informed by the philosophical discourse in which culture itself is considered. The point is there are pitfalls one needs to be careful of when attempting to define culture, as every definition of culture is already a specific use of culture as it entails certain exclusions and inclusions.

The way men and women are socialised into gender roles, and the implications of the socialisation process are subjects with profound consequences for gender equity in educational management. Socialisation is a complex set of processes, covert and explicit, that train individuals of society to take their place as responsible members of society (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:66). It assumes inculcation of norms and values by agents such as the family. Socialisation encompasses learning the values, attitudes, beliefs, norms and meanings of society, it involves learning the culture. These constitute the controlling matrix in a society and can consequently be responsible for prescribing that the place of women is in the domestic sphere (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2000:128). In this process, roles are means by which individuals fit into the various areas of social life (Stromquist, 1997:539). Cultural prescriptions can lead to gender role stereotyping, prejudice, beliefs and attitudes influencing women advancement to management positions (Swaison, et al 1998:23). Gender roles are specifically behaviours and expectations based on social attributions of gender, these attributions involve a multiplicity of rules that range from what is 'proper' to what is 'taboo' for men and women. Shakeshaft (1987:94) states that, "men and women divide their labour on the basis of sex and male tasks are more valued than female ones". Gaidzanwa in Meena, (1992:10), points out that the ideal woman is



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depicted as submissive, married, faithful and loyal to a spouse and parents. To the contrary the aggressive, independent minded woman is portrayed as vicious, manipulative and immoral. Extended stereotypical views of women accumulated throughout the history of man remains at the core of society, with women targeted as secondary and subordinate to males in most facets of social life. Overt and covert discrimination, sexist language and behaviours and the experience of sexual harassment forms part of women's daily work routines. Assessment of women's work is far too frequently made on the basis of their ascribed femininity or sexuality rather than on the basis of actual performance. Sexuality is viewed as women's most valuable asset and this is seen as both the cause of women's downfall and as dangerous to men, whereas men are valued for other attributes, which include their power, strength and authority and their domination over the sexual power of women (Greyvenstein, 1996:79). The subordinate position of women in education management, and their relegation to mainly support roles may thus, be understood as a reflection of their domestic subordination located in cultural practices.



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Tsoka, in a recent study confronted the issue of women being denied promotion simply because culture had consigned them to the domestic sphere (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2000:128). The study concluded that, "...folkways, mores, laws, and taboos formed serious stumbling blocks in the way of women advancement to leadership positions in education. Similarly, Ncube et al (1997:19) observed that, "...women were, and often still are treated as appendages to men". They further observed that the 'maleness' of the public world and its ordering is the predominant social and legal image that influence and shapes gender relations. The theory of male domination of society and culture is applied

to all areas of life including the world of education. Theories of patriarchy and ‘androcentrism’ hold that male-centred culture invests worth in male values and regards female values and experiences as less significant. Cultural socialisation patterns are believed to reinforce existing stereotypes due to the ingrained assumptions that cultural socialisation produces (Sanday in Ncube et al, 1997:24). Gender stereotypes form an intrinsic part of the heritage and paradigms of societies and therefore determine the relative position of women in society. Jones and Montenegro (1982:8) posits that gender stereotyping is transferred from generation to generation in an unquestioned form via acculturation and socialisation, perpetuating gender inequities in an unquestioned form.



Such undermining attitudes and practices are often very much a part of the school's cultural norms captured in the **University of Fort Hare** work relations. These may come to rationalise unjust and inefficient management practices especially in decision-making, in the selection and promotion of staff and the allocation of duties and opportunities. Feminist analyses prefer the concept 'patriarchal ideology' to emphasise that the values and norms inculcated through gender socialisation processes are arbitrary (have no intrinsic truth) and depend on the will power of the dominant group (men) (Stromquist, 1997:539). According to Greene (1985:33) inequities, exclusions and humiliations are maintained not only by a firm belief in the mythical stereotypes accorded to gender roles in society, but also by an unwillingness to accept changes towards a more equitable position for men and women. Furthermore it is common knowledge that entrenched attitudes and philosophies are difficult to change.

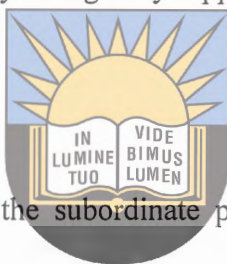
Even though patriarchal ideology assumes various forms from society to society, its fundamental commonalities include the value placed on motherhood and domesticity, and the strong dichotomy between femininity and masculinity. Women teachers can thus be struggling with neglect, marginalisation, and with challenges to their competence while seeking to improve individual and institutional practice and develop their careers. This may in turn account for the under-representation of females in positions of management consigning them to the domestic sphere.

2.8.1.1 Marriage and lobola



The lobola practice has continued to entrench the subordinate position of women in post independence Zimbabwe. The Legal Age of Majority Act of 1992, which conferred full legal status on all Zimbabweans above the age of eighteen, had implications on the position of women especially with regard to marriage and the lobola practice. The Legal Age of Majority Act of 1982 permits a woman to enter into a marriage contract without assistance from the family members. The Act no longer sees lobola as a legal requirement for the validity of marriage. According to Armstrong (1990:191) women in fact, can choose whether or not they want lobola to be paid for them. The complex set of cultural socialisation processes operative within the Zimbabwean society continue to inculcate norms and values which allow members of a woman's family (especially males) to negotiate, bargain for and receive lobola (dowry) payments. This practice perpetuates the commodification of women. Economic hardships prevalent in the country today make the situation even worse for women by increasingly making lobola a source of income for many men. Men charge exorbitant 'prices' in the form of cash or any other material

valuables. More often than not, women are given price tags according to their levels of education, those with tertiary or university education being more 'expensive' than the women who would have attained only primary and high school education. Armstrong (1990:191) argues that the status of women has by and large been reduced by this practice that has increasingly turned them into commodities. The implication is that as long as lobola continues to be paid for women as part of the marriage transaction, women will continue to be dominated and psychologically oppressed within the institution of marriage.



Another aspect that has promoted the subordinate position of women in Zimbabwe, which is closely related to the marriage issue, is the manner in which the Citizenship Act of Zimbabwe is defined. According to the act, a married woman who is a citizen of Zimbabwe does not have the right to pass citizenship to her husband or her children. Under section 7(2) of the Citizenship Act of Zimbabwe (No.23/1984) a woman who marries a Zimbabwean citizen has the right to be registered as a citizen of Zimbabwe. A foreign man who marries a woman who is a citizen of Zimbabwe does not have that right. Under section 5 of the Act a legitimate child born in Zimbabwe to a citizen mother and non-citizen father, who is not ordinarily resident in Zimbabwe does not acquire citizenship by birth. On the other hand, under section 6 of the Act, if the father were a citizen and the mother a non-citizen the child would be entitled to citizenship either by birth or descent. Therefore, the citizenship of a legitimate child depends upon the citizenship of the father. The mother passes the citizenship to her child only if the child is illegitimate (Armstrong 1990:169). In this regard, the law clearly

discriminates against women. Zimbabwean women unlike their male counterparts do not therefore enjoy the equal benefits of full citizenship, as the Citizenship Act of Zimbabwe continues to promote the low social status of women in Zimbabwe.

2.8.2 Religion

The traditional inequity between men and women may be traced throughout history where it has been cloaked in androcentric philosophies. It is deeply embedded within societies, often emanating from religious thought predominant in specific eras. These androcentric philosophies contribute towards the traditional stereotyping of gender roles and sex role socialisation, thereby affecting the relative position of women compared to men in education and in society. In traditional pre-colonial Shona and Ndebele society there was a strong belief in 'midzimu' or *Together in Excellence* spirits. Both men and women possessed spirits and acted as intermediaries between the society and amadlozi and uNkulunkulu, the high God. Spirit mediums were accorded a high social status in both Ndebele and Shona pre-colonial societies. Powerful women like ambuya Nehanda and men like sekuru Kagubi and the spirit medium Chaminuka, were accorded a high social standing in Shona society. Ambuya Nehanda commanded authority and influence over both men and women in traditional society because of the role she played in society as a spirit medium. This traditional religious paradigm, which accorded women, an equitable and complimentary position in relation to men in society challenge contemporary androcentric philosophies.

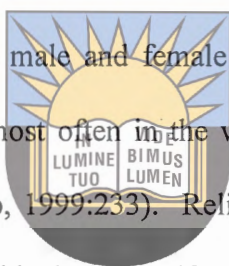


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Colonialism however brought with it new religions, Christianity and Islam, whose doctrines and beliefs downplayed African traditional beliefs. Hence, the spirit mediums could no longer exercise the power and influence that they previously commanded before the advent of Christianity and Islam. These religions seriously impacted not only on the powerful influence of spirit mediums but also on the lives of the ordinary women (Adewuyi, 1999:5).

The religious perspective conceives male and female differences as a result of divine causation by a supernatural force, most often in the western world personified as God (Eisinga, van Den Elzen and Verloo, 1999:233). Religious writings have been used to justify and reinforce a patriarchal ideology, justify cultural practices, explain sexual differences and to define the roles of men and women (Rockwood, 1987:6). There is a belief that because Eve was formed from Adam's rib, she was a secondary creation, subject to and inferior to Adam (Rockwood, 1987:4). Much of the Old Testament describes a strong patriarchal social order with gender roles, which depict the subordination of women. Much of this subordination is related to marital roles in which women are regarded as mere possessions of their husbands and unmarried women as possessions of their fathers (Good News Bible, 1977: Numbers 30:3-16). This patriarchal domination, together with evils such as polygamy (Good News Bible, 1977: 1 Kings 11:3), biased immorality laws (Good News Bible, 1977: Deutronomy 22:13-20) and divorce laws (Good News Bible, 1977: Deutronomy 24:1-4) do not enhance the position of women. The Old Testament has also largely been viewed as having repeatedly promoted the importance of powerful, patriarchal men, and women's emotional and



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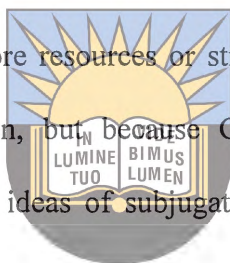
economic dependence on them. Paul who refers to the equality of men and women in his letter to the Galatians (Good News Bible, 1977; Galatians 3:28) also alludes to the patriarchal order within a marriage with the husband being "...supreme over his wife" (Good News Bible, 1977: Corinthians, 11:3, 8-9). Acting according to the philosophy of their time early Christian fathers perpetuated Paul's admonition to the Corinthians with regard to women emphasising the immoral and evil nature of women referred to in proverbs 5: 1-23: 6: 20-27. Thus being a woman was equated with sexuality, and sexuality with sin.



Adewuyi (1999:5) however, notes that, the creation of man and women according to the Hebrews did not start with inequality. He notes that by the time the woman was created from the ribs of man, the equality ~~together in Excellence~~ was acknowledged. The present subordination of women, however, started with the first woman, Eve when she was found guilty of deceiving her husband in the Garden of Eden, because after that act God declared that the husbands should rule over their wives (Good News Bible, 1977: Genesis 3: 16). The husband's superior position over the wife's was later reaffirmed in the New Testament.

Zimbabwean society is predominantly Christian, with large Muslim and Hindu minorities and a prevalent residue of overlapping and co-existing beliefs in ancestral spirits. Despite the potential for Christianity to appear as one of the more modern and egalitarian elements amongst this variety of creeds, the conservative view that wives are to assume subordinate positions is entrenched in the Christian religious tenets, to which there are

millions of adherents in Zimbabwe. The difference between the sexes may be conceived to be God-implanted and therefore beyond human capacity to change. Fundamentalist interpretations of bible verses such as, "...women must learn in silence and may not teach or have authority over men" (Good News Bible, 1977: Timothy 2:12-13; Corinthians, 14:33-35) tend to make these gender stereotypes an intrinsic part of the heritage and paradigm of societies, thereby shaping the relative position of women in society and organisations. Hence, the equality of sexes that was implied by the time of creation was removed, not because men have more resources or stronger physical strength and thus have greater influence over women, but because God has ordained the inequality (Adewuyi, 1999:6). However, the ideas of subjugating woman and treating them as inferior "are done away with in Christ (Jewet, 1976:171). Christ's 'truth' speaks of the restoration of the order of authority to God's original order of creation before the fall of man as described in the first chapters of Genesis. Christ never preached that women were subordinate or inferior to men (Charles, 1987:58), he preached about ethical behaviour for everyone and taught all who were willing to listen (Walsh, 1981:81).



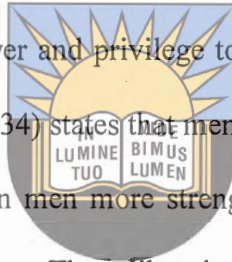
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From the religious perspective, eternal principles and laws of creation, sacred in the sense that they are inviolate and set in motion by an otherworldly force, are responsible for gender differences and inequity. Christianity favours men in the acquisition of resources, which were sufficient to relegate women to a perpetual subordinate position. Women are still targeted as subordinate to males in most facets of life, this is evident in the traditional stereotyped legacy regarding general, innate gender roles accorded to men and women in society in varying degrees. In the household, men continue to engage in

production while women engage in reproduction. Men therefore, have access to, and acquisition of resources that enhance their influence over women. To this end, it can be said that some biblical doctrines, by and large, promote and perpetuate the subordination of women. They are accounted for as the result of a divine spark in humanity and rationalised as part of God's plan (Eisinga et al, 1999:233).

Similarly, in the writings of Islam, it is recognised that the superior resource base of men over women conferred on men power and privilege to influence all aspects of decision-making in the home. The Quran (5:34) states that men are the protectors and maintainers of women, because Allah has given men more strength than women and because men support women from their means. Thus like the Bible the Quran reinforces the subordinate position of women, recognising that men were superior to women in both physical and economic resources.

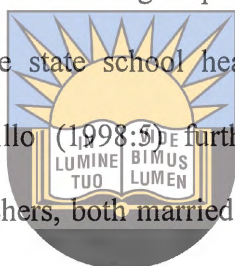


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2.8.3 Self confidence

Issues relating to confidence for women are evident in research both in the USA and the UK. Women themselves construct some barriers, either consciously or subconsciously. Lack of confidence is often cited as a barrier to women applying for promotion. Johnson and Powell, (1994:127) found confidence to be the differentiator between men and women, as males were found to exhibit significantly higher degrees of confidence than females. Similarly research (Berry in Johnson and Powell, 1994:127) confirms earlier findings that women are less confident in their choices. Shakeshaft (1993:51) points out, evidence to indicating that women lack confidence in applying for promotion, in contrast

with their male colleagues, they only apply for jobs in which they are fully qualified. Johnson and Powell (1994:127) cite research by Estes and Hosseini who also found that women were less confident in their choices even though subsequent analysis showed no difference in the quality of male and female decisions. They explained that this lack of confidence might simply be caused by women's often-insecure positions within organisations. Marshall in Johnson and Powell (1994:127) concluded that, women are forced to acquiesce to male norms in order to gain promotion. However, the subjects of Coleman's (1996) study of female state school headteachers had been confident in applying for senior posts. Cubillo (1998:5) further supports this positive career orientation arguing that female teachers, both married and single, show a high degree of career orientation and would welcome the challenge and opportunity of promotion. Shakeshaft (1989:87) therefore argues that as low self-image, lack of confidence and lack of motivation result from the social context of men holding power and privilege over women. She suggests that women aspire to management, but societal barriers prevent women from acknowledging or acting on their aspirations.



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2.8.4 Self-Esteem

Due to their low self-esteem women less often apply for promotion positions. According to the Social Identity Theory (SIT) (Mokgathe and Schoeman, 1998:29) individuals strive to belong to groups, which contribute positively towards their self-esteem. Crocker and Luhtanen (1990:60-61) refer to this as collective self-esteem, which they describe as the extent to which individuals generally evaluate their social groups positively. Traditional gender role attitudes based on a dichotomous conception of male versus

female social categories, presents women with a limited range of behavioural options, which limits their freedom of choice, independence and access to power, relative to men. Women may lack self-confidence and tend to down play their particular skills and abilities viewing achievement in a career as socially unacceptable for their sex. This need for conformity to sex role stereotypes may result in lack of self-confidence in taking up challenging posts, contributing to their under-representation in educational management.

2.8.5 Role conflict

Role conflict occurs whenever a person is required to perform diverse social roles that demand incompatible behaviours. Work/home role conflict refers to the concurrent and incompatible time demands that women with both work and family obligations encounter.

Parasuraman and Greenhaus (1993:194) observed that extensive family responsibilities, especially those involving marriage, childcare, and household activities can impede women's career achievements. They particularly found involvement in the family domain to produce extensive work/family conflicts, to which women respond by reducing their employment involvement, which in turn, restricts their career opportunities and advancement.

Reduced career involvement due to role conflict, according to Parasuraman and Greenhaus (1993:196) could take the form of restricted time devoted to the job, seeking a less demanding job and/or refusing a promotion, less psychological investment in a career or unwillingness to relocate. Parasuraman and Greenhaus (1993:197) further, report, evidence that some women avoid family tension and competitive feelings in their



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husbands by moving to lower status jobs or making compromises that limit their career success. Furthermore, Greyvenstein (2000:32) points out that, women's income may be seen as supplementary to the male breadwinner's income, thereby seeing the career as supplementary to women's primary role in the family. This implies that for many women choosing work over family may usually not be a conceivable option.

Contradictory empirical evidence however exists regarding the impact of heavier load on role conflict. For example, Haley et al in Mokgatle and Schoeman (1998:29) found that hardship experienced as a result of segregation and other life stressors, lead to an adaptive process of reframing of these difficult life experiences and the development of a sense of competence, positive self-esteem, determination to survive and other experiences related to a sense of well being.

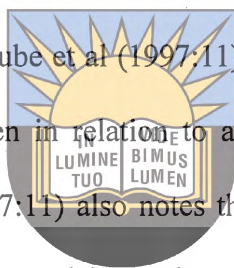


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2.8.6 Family commitments

Expectations regarding the role of women in the family are closely linked with patriarchal and heterosexual values. There has been little rethinking in a changing society regarding the automatic allocation of family roles according to sex, regardless of individual interest, talent or qualification. Notwithstanding the removal of discriminatory policies, many women are still forced to choose between career and family. With women organised to undertake childcare and homemaking, personal priorities and responsibilities outside work roles can be seen to vie with professional commitments.

Family and home responsibilities are thus viewed as a major gender based barrier. The relationship between family and career causes conflicting roles and expectations. For many women a professional career is dependent on the grace and favour of the spouse. Not only may women seek their husbands' approval in selecting managerial positions (Taylor and Spencer, 1988:267), but their career involvement can be reduced in response to their husbands' career needs (Brett and Yogev, 1988:159-163) and husbands' perception of their wives' failure to fulfil the maternal role (Chassin et al 1985:307). Patriarchal systems according to Ncube et al (1997:11), especially in the African context exclude women and oppress women in relation to access and control over resources. Dengu-Zvobgo in Ncube et al (1997:11) also notes that the competence of women and their right to opportunities are contested by society in general and by their family in particular, especially the husband and children, who need to support the woman's advancement to management. Men thus continue to perceive women as bearers of their children, they find it understandable, indeed appropriate that women should renounce their careers to raise families. Not only do they see parenting as fundamentally female, they also see a career as fundamentally male (Greyvenstein, 2000:32; Schwartz, 1989:67). This serves to maintain male dominant structures in the education system.



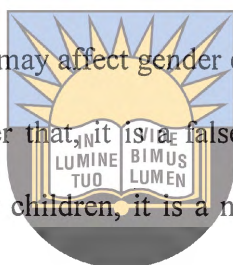
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According to Kaziboni (2000:233), lack of support from those at home, work and society at large can be a source of discouragement for women careerists. The assumption that management takes away women from their domestic and childcare responsibilities is particularly damaging. For dual career families it is thus common for the career of the husband to take precedence over that of the wife. Evetts (1994:58) calls this a 'balancing

strategy approach'. What this all means is that, issues of family pose great problems when adult women vie for management positions, largely because women have additional responsibilities of managing the household and caring for children. This dual role may contribute to the lower achievement and advancement of women as they try to dovetail household roles and management roles to avoid tension from family members who may feel that women are neglecting home duties.

While this family/career dichotomy may affect gender equity in educational management, Ostergaard (1992:5) argues however that, it is a false stereotype that because it is the biological nature of women to bear children, it is a natural biological outcome that for their lifetimes women should be obliged to do all the housekeeping and domestic activities. An alternative view that highlights the fact that although family commitment is frequently cited as a reason for women not seeking promotion, due to time constraints and restricted mobility, there are married women in promotional positions. Davies (1990:39) argued that the dual role for women of career and family has become a 'convenient peg on which to hang explanations of "underachievement" and has become almost as much a form of "victim analysis" as sex role socialisation. This distribution of labour, Ostergaard (1992:5) argues is clearly of a social and not biological nature. Such stereotypes are therefore pitfalls for thought and can lead to irrational actions that continue to relegate women to low visibility positions in education hierarchies.



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2.9 Implications for this study

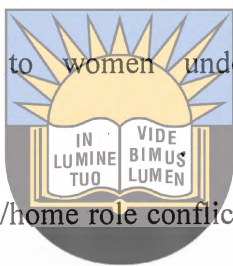
Socio-cultural barriers to gender equity indicate that social arrangements created by latent historical forces which operate independently of conscious human control impede women advancement to education management. The issue of patriarchy has important implications for this study as it provides a conceptual understanding of the gender power dynamics operative in society. The power and politics of masculinity is an important institutional force, operating to marginalize and exclude women. Patriarchal stereotypes are widely believed to have a high degree of socially constructed reality in patriarchal societies. Socio-cultural barriers to gender equity identified in literature also have important implications for this study:



- the way culture socialises men and women into gender roles, has profound implications for gender equity in educational management. Cultural prescriptions lead to gender role stereotyping, prejudice, beliefs and attitudes, which influence the advancement of women to management positions. Cultural socialisation inculcates norms and values within the Zimbabwean society, which perpetuates commodification of women. The practice of lobola has implications for gender equity in that it perpetuates the social domination of women and it psychologically oppresses them within the institution of marriage by commodifying them.
- Of importance to this study are religious doctrines. Religious doctrines reinforce a patriarchal ideology, by justifying cultural practices and explaining sexual differences to define the roles of men and women. Conservative religious views entrenched in Christian religious tenets which hold that wives are to assume subordinate positions, make gender stereotypes an intrinsic part of the heritage of

societies, thereby shaping the relative position of women in society and in leadership positions in education.

- Barriers such as low self-image, lack of confidence and motivation result from the social context of men holding power and privilege over women and have important implications for this study. Due to this low self-esteem women are said to apply less often for promotion positions. The need to conform to sex role stereotypes may result in low self-confidence in taking up challenging posts subsequently contributing to women under-representation in educational management.



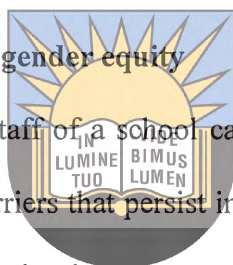
- It is also indicated that work/home role conflict resulting from incompatible time demands that women with both work and family obligations experience, can impede women's career advancement. The implication for this study is that, this family/career dichotomy may contribute to the under-representation of women as they try to dovetail household and management roles to avoid tension from family members who may feel that they are neglecting home duties.
- One of the most important socio-cultural barriers to this study is the perception of a 'male model of leadership'. The tendency to perceive the male and his incumbent attributes as the norm in management roles and to perceive the female as deficient in leadership qualities (Schein, 1994:47) may mean that women reject moving into educational management as a consequence of what they see as its masculinism and inappropriate technicist and hierarchical systems of control.

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As these socio-cultural factors influence and affect women advancement to educational management as discussed in chapter 2, it would be worthwhile to investigate whether the same affect gender equity in secondary school management in Kadoma district in Zimbabwe. This study will investigate the 'male model' of leadership, culture, religion, self-confidence and self-image, role conflict and family responsibilities as socio-cultural constraints to gender equity.

2.10 Organisational constraints to gender equity

Being a woman on the faculty or staff of a school can be problematic in ways beyond career advancement. Most of the barriers that persist in organisations today are insidious. Studies indicate that the biggest barrier to women in moving into educational management is sex discrimination (Shakeshaft, 1987). Sex discrimination is so deeply embedded in organisational life as to be virtually indiscernible. Discrimination against women in organisations lingers in a plethora of work practices and cultural norms that only appear unbiased. They are common and mundane, and woven into the fabric of an organisation's status quo, which is why most people do not notice them. They however create a subtle pattern of systemic disadvantage, which blocks all but a few women from career advancement (Meyerson and Fletcher, 2000:128). Research documents the pervasiveness of gender constructions and practices in organisations. Research (Martin, 1993:230) shows that organisations are not sets of empty gender-neutral positions that are filled in accord with the dictates of rationality or efficiency, based on applicants' objective qualification irrespective of gender. Rather it shows that practically all jobs and job ladders are gender biases and all job searches are gender searches (Acker, 1990:140).



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The gendering of jobs and positions varies according to organisations, but in any particular organisation at a given time the vast majority of workers are segregated horizontally and vertically by gender (Bielby and Baron in Martin, 1993:280).

The barriers to career progression of women that are experienced within the work place are intertwined with the perception of women in their domestic role, which influences the presumption that women may be ill fitted for management and leadership. At its most extreme this can lead to overt and covert discrimination against women in relation to their promotion and appointment for more senior roles. Barriers to women's career progress have been identified to exist at the point of recruitment and selection (Erwee, 1992:8) career planning, in differential levels of opportunity within the post, in the differential expectations of others and from stereotypical roles that men and women tend to adopt in management (Coleman, 1996:320). Schmuck (1986:179) identifies the 'grooming' of male teachers, males tending to mentor other males, lack of female role models in senior management, more opportunities given to males to exhibit leadership and male domination of selection committees, as leading to gender inequity in educational management. Flanders (1994:79) further identify networking as extremely important in providing information, contacts and support and as invaluable to women advancement to leadership. In educational management and in the world of work generally, career breaks have generally been found to be detrimental to women's career development (Coleman, 1996:321).

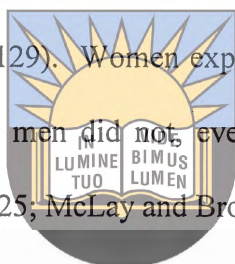


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2.10.1 Career breaks

There is a perception that the career break is the main factor responsible for the poor representation of women in educational management. This is despite the fact that the average length of career breaks appears to be lessening to 3.5 years for the average women (Davidson and Cooper, 1992). Women are mostly unfairly penalised by the majority of employers for taking a career break, unlike maternity breaks, breaks initiated by employers (study leave) are accepted as being inevitable, essential or for the greater good (Davidson and Cooper, 1992:129). Women experienced demotion on returning to work after a career break, whereas men did not, even when they had worked outside teaching (Weidling and Early, 1987:25; McLay and Brown, 2000:103).



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As 'gatekeepers' men have a perception of career breaks for childbirth and care as having no value in terms of training or experience, whereas career breaks for reasons other than child care are tolerated (Coleman, 1996:321). Women returnees to work after a career break mostly face the common barrier of lack of confidence, lack of knowledge about current working practices and being out of touch with people of influence in the world of work. Career breaks thus disadvantage women in terms of fewer years of experience, since there is no accreditation for childbearing and childrearing years. Greyvenstein (2000:32) cites re-entry problems after a career break as a barrier, which systematically constrains women's career progression. The freeing of the market for jobs appears to allow an increase in the level of overt and covert discrimination against the general employment of women. For women vying for a management position, children are

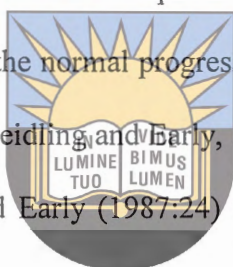
thought to be interference, and such women may turn more toward their families when their careers no longer provide substantial opportunities for satisfaction or success.

2.10.2 Career paths

The traditional route for career progress starts with experience of middle management, which may include head of department, followed by experience of deputy headship and then headship. This generally mirrors the experience of head teachers surveyed by Weidling and Early (1987) where “the normal progression to headship was via a head of department and deputy headship (Weidling and Early, 1987:20). In a sample of 188 head teachers in the 1980s Weidling and Early (1987:24) found that, for women there were “significant differences in career paths, notably in relation to age on appointment, to headship, years in teaching and years as deputy head”. Recent research with both male and female teachers show the career pace of women proceeding more slowly than for men, whether or not they had children. This was despite the fact that generally the career experience of the women head teachers was wider than that of men (Evetts, 1994). This supports Ozga’s (1993:1) assertion that “women do not have access to the experience of unilinear progression open to men”. Similarly, Stott and Lawson’s (1997:110) study found that women managers especially principals, did not as a rule plan their careers over the long term.

2.10.3 Career planning

When schools were expanding gaining a promotion seemed almost automatic. Planning a career seemed superfluous since most ambitious teachers had a series of jobs, which



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rapidly took them towards management posts. However Brown and Ralph (1996:18) argue that today teachers need to be rather more systematic in their approach to promotion. They contend that senior staff work their way steadily through a constructive series of jobs in order to become suitably prepared for management roles. This task is seen as difficult for women. Research has identified the difficulties that women have in planning their career (Acker, 1994; Evetts, 1990). Amongst Chinese respondents (Coleman, Haiyan and Yanping, 1998:407) the same difficulties were experienced. Women regarded the family as the most important aspect of lives, this meant that they had a long career plan. Similarly Davidson and Cooper (1992) report evidence showing that women in education and in management generally do not develop a career plan. Such lack of forward planning, it is argued may be considered detrimental to their potential progress. They identified three patterns linked to the different concept that women have of a career. First, they identify the late career decision, defined as a conscious commitment to advancement over the long term. Women typically make this decision some years into their career, having concentrated primarily on the day-to-day aspects of their job. The second pattern the passivity phase, is where women claim that career advancement 'just happened, somebody did it for me'. The third pattern is where there is the emphasis on self-improvement as the critical factor in determining career development. In itself, the third pattern is related to the sense of passivity, to the overwhelming sense of 'waiting' to be chosen. Davidson and Cooper (1992:128) claim that even today a large number of women just drift into senior positions without clearly planning their career strategy.

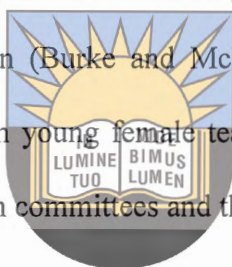


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2.10.4 Mentoring and Support

Female teachers do aspire to management positions, but fail to apply for them because they do not receive the initial patronage and support given to men (Blout and Browne, 1996:85). The differential encouragement provided to females and males by significant others, confirm the social perceptions that leadership and decision-making in management was more appropriate for males. Literature on careers suggests that mentors play a crucial role in career development and that they may be even more critical to the career success of women than men (Burke and McKeen, 1994:22). Male principals interact more with young male than young female teachers, and young men tend to be given more opportunities to serve on committees and therefore begin to exhibit those very qualities that will recommend them for further responsibility (Coleman, 1994:185). Male teachers also benefit more from an informal level of 'mentoring' than their female equivalents. In relation to women aspiring to principalship in Queensland, Australia: male mentors (male principals and executive staff in education) tend to sponsor male protégés (Ehrich, 1994:11). Cullen in Coleman (1997:129) also recognised the value of mentorship for women in educational management, suggesting that, it is "in addition to valuable formal mentoring relationships, it was important to create institutionalised opportunities for networking for women". More women than men who advance to management therefore bemoan the absence of mentorship, arguing that promotion prospects can be enhanced for people who are mentored. In her study of women head teachers, Coleman (1997:7-8) found a high preference for schools where the culture and ethos was one of encouragement and staff development, and instances where senior personnel in schools gave practical help and acted as mentors. Dodgeson in Healy



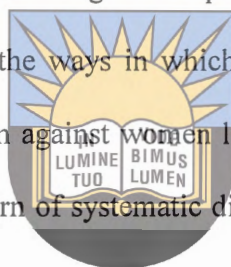
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(1989:34) however observed that in organisations the 'Queen Bee' syndrome could be a constraining factor to women advancement. Where there can only be few superior females who gained top positions by their own ingenuity, they may be unwilling to help other women.

2.11 Implications for this study

Literature on organisational constraints to gender equity has very important implications for this study. An examination of the ways in which males and females are treated in schools indicates that discrimination against women lingers in a plethora of ways which systematically creates a subtle pattern of systematic disadvantage, which blocks all but a few women from career advancement.



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Career breaks are an important aspect of this study. In educational management and in the world of work generally, career breaks have been found to be detrimental to women's career advancement. Career breaks disadvantage women in terms of fewer years of experience and women are more likely than men to experience career breaks, particularly for childbearing.

In terms of career paths and career planning, the implications for this study are clear. Literature identifies difficulties that women have in planning their careers. Such lack of forward planning may be detrimental to women's potential progress. This study is also concerned with the issue of mentoring and support. Mentors play a crucial role in career development and they may be even more critical to the career success of women. Women

who advance to management bemoan the absence of mentorship, arguing that promotion can be enhanced for people who are mentored.

This study will investigate career breaks, career plan, career paths, recruitment procedures and mentoring and support, as organisational barriers, to find out whether they affect gender equity in secondary school management in Kadoma district in Zimbabwe.

2.12 Summary

This chapter reviewed literature on concepts central to gender equity. Research and literature reviewed identified the social, cultural and organisational factors underpinning the reproduction of gender dominance. These power relation dynamics are largely viewed as responsible for hindering the career progress and leadership opportunities of most women. Research into teachers' careers has suggested a range of factors, which contribute to the difference in promotional status between female and male teachers. Internal barriers exist in the form of self-devaluation or perhaps devaluing the work of women. The external barriers are more structural; built in to the system; taking the form of groups interacting; interdependent elements which affect the hiring, advancement decisions and institutional climate for women. The negative effects of stereotyping and sex discrimination on promotional procedures and on women's opportunities for development comprise a major portion of the possible deterrents discussed in the literature, in conjunction with a number of more specific factors which impinge on women's career patterns. Since the factors affecting women in educational management in Zimbabwe may echo those identified in the reviewed studies and literature, these were



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investigated in this study. The next chapter will describe the methodology and design of the study.



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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology and research design that will be employed in this study. The chapter also describes the population, sample and sampling procedures, as well as the data collection instruments. The reliability and validity of instruments and data analysis techniques are also described.



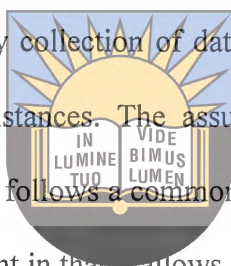
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3.2 Methodology

Method refers to the use of particular techniques. Feminist discussions of method often compare quantitative and qualitative approaches, often suggesting that the latter is a more suitable feminist choice because of its sensitivity to context and greater likelihood of allowing the interpretations of participants to emerge. Harding and Acker (1997:217) argue that essential features of feminist research are that it: derives its research problems from women's perspectives and experiences, it allows the researcher to enter into the same 'plan' as the subjects and is for women, aiming to give answers to questions asked by women. Lather and Acker (1997:217) rejects the model where the researcher stays aloof from the 'subjects', suggesting instead that, self-disclosure and reciprocity should be part of the research relationship. However, others argue that there is nothing inappropriate

about using any technique (Acker, 1997:216), researchers adopt different approaches depending on the context, positionality, the problem under study, the theoretical framework and their epistemological position.

For this study, the descriptive survey method, sometimes, called the normative survey method will be employed to process data that comes to the researcher through observation (Leedy, 1993:185). The advantage of this method is that it allows the researcher, by drawing conclusion to one transitory collection of data, to extrapolate what is likely to happen again under similar circumstances. The assumption, underlying this method, being that, given phenomena usually follows a common pattern or norm. The descriptive survey method will also be convenient in that it allows data analysis to be both qualitative and quantitative.

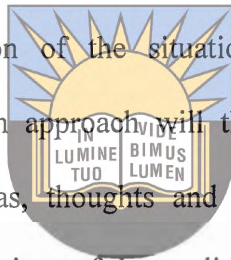


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3.3 Research approach

The general research approach in this study will be both qualitative and quantitative. Quantitative research approaches are generally associated with measurement, statistical analysis and mathematical models. It is a positivist orientation where knowledge is gained through scientific research and is objective and measurable. The quantitative approach is deemed appropriate, the assumption is that social facts have an objective reality and variables can be identified, relationships measured and data is reduced to numerical indices.

The choice of the qualitative approach is informed by the nature of the investigation. The qualitative approach is deemed appropriate for analysing participants' feelings, beliefs, ideas, thoughts and actions (Schmuck 1993:373). Qualitative design is appropriate when description and explanation is sought and when it is not possible or feasible to manipulate the potential causes of behaviour (Merriam, in Schumacher and McMillan, 1993:70). It is based more on what is called naturalistic phenomenological philosophy, which assumes that multiple realities are socially constructed through individual and collective definition of the situation (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993:14). The qualitative research approach will thus be appropriate for analysing participants' feelings', beliefs, ideas, thoughts and actions. Constructivism closely parallels the philosophical underpinnings of the qualitative approach to this study. This approach assumes an "emphasis on the world of experience as it is lived, felt, undergone by social actors...what we take to be objective knowledge and truth is the result of perspective" (Schwandt, 1998:236). The assumption is that the perceptions and the meanings that people attach to the world around them influences behaviour. Qualitative data in this study will mainly be collected through interviews and open-ended items on questionnaires.



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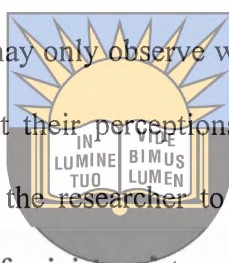
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Quantitative data will be collected through closed-ended items on the questionnaire. Quantitative research often "forces" responses of people into categories that might not "fit" in order to make meaning. Qualitative research on the other hand sometimes focuses too closely on individual results and fails to make connections to larger situations or possible causes of the results. Rather than discounting either approach for its drawbacks,

this research will incorporate elements of both to ensure that the study is as accurate and thorough as possible.

3.4 Research perspective/biases

Research reporting on qualitative data relies to a large extent on the interpretation of its originator. Researchers impose all kinds of categories, codes, and themes in order to derive an account, which is comprehensible to others. Qualitative researchers are thus subjected to the criticism that they may only observe what they want to see, that they are biased in their perceptions, and that their perceptions or observations are incomplete. Hence qualitative research requires the researcher to put his/her perspective/biases on record. This study will take a feminist epistemology and philosophy of science perspective, which identifies ways in which dominant conceptions and practices of knowledge attribution, acquisition and justification systematically disadvantage women. As a male, culturally socialised in a society with an exclusive respect for the genealogy of sons, the researcher views himself as an 'outsider' having insufficient personal experiences as 'insiders' (women) to know their social order, but with 'enough' critical distance to empower critique. By bringing together the general account of situated knowledge with the account of gender as a kind of social situation, a catalogue of ways can be generated in which, what the researcher knows or thinks he knows can be influenced by his own gender (roles, norms, traits, identities) other people's genders, or by ideas about gender (symbolisms). It is against this background that the qualitative approach was included in this study. As a phenomenological approach to educational research, qualitative research is descriptive, and the description of realities is based on the



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participants' perspectives. It allows the researcher to state his "biases, values, and judgement' explicitly. However, critical and post-modern perspectives posit that all knowledge, regardless of how it is generated, is partial, that all data are filtered through researcher biases, and that no technique for data collection is infallibly accurate

3.5 Research design

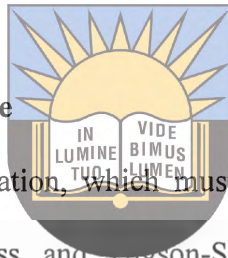
Research design consists of answers to a series of questions such as: will the study be theoretical or empirical? Will it rely on available data or surveys? How and from whom will data be collected and what instruments will be used? (Acker, 1997:216). This study will employ the descriptive survey design. Surveys allow widespread opinion to be ascertained (Babbie, 1973:57), they also gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions (Cohen and Manion, 1994:83). Further, surveys ask many respondents about their beliefs, opinions, characteristics and past or present behaviour (Newman, 1997:228). For these reasons, the survey will be appropriate for investigating factors affecting gender equity in secondary school management. The descriptive survey research design will make it possible to collect data from a relatively large number of teachers and educational administrators by probing their attitudes, beliefs, perceptions and experiences, through questionnaires and interviews. However, inherent in survey designs are some problems. Surveys can be reactive and misleading. Standardised questionnaires may miss out what is most important to the respondents. Surveys also only access those who are willing and co-operative. They may make the respondent feel special, thereby producing responses, which may be artificial or inaccurate.



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Some measures will however, be put in place to safeguard these problems in this study. The sampling will be made to produce a sample that is representative of the population. Both open-ended and close-ended items will be included in the construction of the questionnaire to minimise standardisation. Interviews will also be employed in order to have a fuller understanding of respondents' views, beliefs and perceptions on factors affecting gender equity in educational management.

3.6 Sample and sampling procedure



A sample is a subset of the population, which must have properties, which make it representative of the whole (Bless and Ingson-Smith 2000:86). Observing the characteristics of the representative sample, one can make certain inferences about the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn (Best and Khan, 1993:13).

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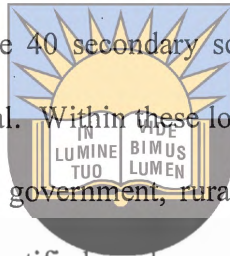
Accordingly from a population/universe of 40 secondary schools in Kadoma District, 37.5% constituting 15 secondary schools will be sampled. Bearing in mind, generalisability, time and budgetary constraints, this sample will be representative of secondary schools in Kadoma District in terms of grade status, category and location of schools. Sample representativity is paramount, as Borg and Gall (1979:178) point out:

a sample should not only be selected, so as to be representative of the population from which it is drawn, but it should also be large enough so that the investigator can be reasonably sure that if a different sample had been drawn, using the same procedure, similar results would be obtained

However, Borg and Gall (1979), suggests that the general rule is to determine, the largest sample possible.

3.6.1 Sampling procedure

The stratified random sampling procedure will be used in this study. Stratified random sampling requires the researcher to divide the population into sub-populations (strata). A random sample will then be drawn from each stratum (Newman, 1997:212). The population unit in this study will be 40 secondary schools located in Kadoma urban, Kadoma peri-urban and Kadoma rural. Within these locations, the schools have different responsible authorities that include, government, rural district council, missionary and mining corporation authorities. A stratified random sampling procedure will result in a representative sample of the schools in Kadoma District in terms of grade status, category and location of schools.



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The 40 secondary schools will be stratified as follows: 9 urban schools, 5 peri-urban schools, and 26 rural schools. These secondary schools will further be stratified into categories, resulting in, 9 government schools, 26 rural district council schools, 1 missionary school and 4 mining corporation schools. A random sample of schools from each category will be taken to come up with 37.5% of each category. This will result in a sample of 3 urban government schools, 9 rural schools under district councils, 2 mine schools and 1 missionary school. The resultant sample will constitute 15 secondary schools, constituting 37.5% of the population. A random sample of respondents, 37.5% from each sampled stratum will then be taken. The sample of respondents will thus

consist of 30 administrators, 70 female and 60 male educators (see, table 3.1). Data will then be collected from school administrators and qualified senior educators randomly selected from the sampled secondary schools.

Table 3.1: Summary composition of questionnaire respondents sample

N = 160

School Category	Population / Universe	Schools Sampled	Administrators sampled	Females sampled	Males sampled
Government	9	3	5	14	12
Rural	26	9	18	42	36
Mine	4	2		9	8
Missionary	1	1		5	4
TOTAL	40	15		70	60



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3.7 Data collection instruments

Attempting to solicit people’s perceptions, attitudes, beliefs and opinions is in itself problematic in that most data collection instruments are unreliable. This study will use questionnaires and interviews to collect data. The questionnaire will make use of both closed-ended and open-ended items and the interviews will consist of structured open-ended items. Both instruments will seek to elicit the same data whereby interviews will explore further, issues brought up in the survey questionnaire. The use of a variety of data collection instruments has been described as triangulation. Through triangulation, the credibility of the interpretation is thus enhanced.

The present study takes full cognisance of the involvement of human beings as subjects. To that effect, no effort will be spared to maintain high ethical standards and to protect and respect the respondents in the study. Approval to carry out the study will be sought from the Ministry of Education and Culture. Individual consent of respondents will also be obtained through an introductory letter, stating that participation is voluntary. Anonymity in data collection and later in reporting will also be assured.

3.7.1 The questionnaire

According to Gall, Gall and Borg (1999:297) a well-designed questionnaire can elicit in-depth information, in addition questionnaires allow for a measure of quantification. Questionnaires will therefore be deemed appropriate for the present study, in that each respondent will be given the same set of items as everyone else, phrased in exactly the same way and the data obtained from questionnaires are more comparable than that obtained by means of interviews. Questionnaires therefore tend to be more reliable, because when anonymous they encourage greater honesty. Questionnaires are also more economical than interviews in terms of time. Furthermore, questionnaires are appropriate for this study because, the respondents, educational administrators and educators are literate and capable of understanding issues raised. They will therefore be able to complete the questionnaire with minimum assistance from the researcher. Entwistle and Nisbert (1972:113) support this view. They contend that:

... questionnaire surveys are particularly appropriate where respondents are able to understand the subtleties of the written word and have technical knowledge or expertise



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Part A of the questionnaire will solicit demographic data such as sex, age, marital status, number of children, highest qualification and so on. Part B will contain closed-ended items on individual, organisational (systemic and structural processes) and socio-cultural issues affecting gender equity. Part C will contain open-ended questions, which will allow participants freedom to express themselves as they wish, as detailed and complex, as long or as short as they feel appropriate (Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000:118).

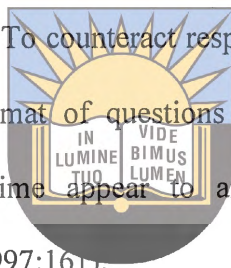
Close-ended questions will be constructed using the Lickert Scale. Lickert Scales can assess attitudes, beliefs, opinions and perceptions toward an issue by asking respondents to indicate on a continuum whether they Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) (Newman, 1997:159; Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000:116).

Lickert Scales are advantageous in that the answers are standard and comparable between respondents. Fixed alternative responses are also easy to analyse as they can be coded directly from the questionnaire.

Inferring attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions from expressed opinion however has limitations. Respondents may conceal attitudes and express socially acceptable opinion (Best and Khan, 1993:112). The tendency of respondents to answer all questions in a specific direction regardless of the content of the questions, response set, is another problem (Newman, 1997:161; Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000:115). The response bias is the tendency of some people to respond to a large number of questions in the same way (usually agreeing) out of laziness or a psychological disposition. Moreover, people may not really know how they feel about an issue, never having given the idea serious thought.

Another shortcoming of closed-ended items is that, it is easy for one to guess. A respondent may also feel frustrated if an appropriate response category is not given or if there is no room for clarification.

To counteract some of these problems open-ended questions will be included in the questionnaire. These questions will solicit information requiring respondents to further explain or clarify issues. Open-ended items are however, demanding in terms of handling, interpreting, coding and analysing. To counteract response set, the researcher will break the monotonous sequence and format of questions and response categories, so that respondents who agree all the time appear to answer inconsistently or to have contradictory opinions (Newman, 1997:161).



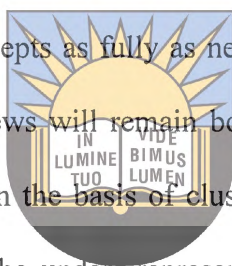
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3.7.2 The Interview

The interview will also be used to collect data. The decision to use interviews is based on the following advantages: Firstly, interviews are holistic in that they enable individuals to conceptualise their careers within their total life experiences, taking account of historical influences on career development. Secondly, interviews allow flexibility, depth of clarification, and permit probing in order to obtain 'richer' more complete data. They also provide the respondent with a frame within which to react without placing any constraint on the reaction. Thirdly, unexpected responses, which may reveal significant information not anticipated by the researcher, can be incorporated. A fourth advantage of the interview lies in the fact that the researcher is able to establish and maintain a rapport with the respondent, to assess the respondent's level of knowledge, and to monitor and

ensure the effectiveness of communication. With a small but roughly representative sample of the population, interviews afford an indispensable way to learn about the nature of variation and how to go about operationalising it.

Interviews using a structured interview schedule are considered the most appropriate form of interview. Such guides provide an outline of themes to be covered to make data collection more systematic and comprehensive for each respondent, while providing sufficient flexibility to explore concepts as fully as necessary (Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000:105). In this way the interviews will remain both conversational and situational. The interviews will be structured on the basis of clusters of factors emerging from the reviewed literature as reasons for the under-representation of females in promotional positions.



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Interviews however have several quite important disadvantages. To begin with personal interviews are costly in terms of time and money. The interviewer has to spend hours interviewing each participant and may also have to travel extensively to reach respondents. These constraints will result in a small interview sample for the study (Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000:109). The presence of the interviewer can also be perceived as a handicap as far as anonymity and respect for the private life of interviewees are concerned. Respondents may also be embarrassed by questions which touch on confidential and private issues in front of an interviewer, whereas they would respond more freely and honestly if left alone to fill an anonymous questionnaire. Moreover, such

factors as the social status, sex and age of the interviewer can affect the respondents' answers (Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000:109).

3.7. 3 Selection of interview sample

A purposeful sample will be selected for this study. Purposeful sampling is a process of “selecting information-rich cases for in-depth study”. According to Schumacher and McMillan (1993:378), the researcher searches for information-rich informants “..because they are likely to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomenon the researcher is investigating”.



A purposeful sample will be selected. Some individual cases of the participants will be known in advance to the researcher, these will include the District Education Officer and the Education Officer, Staffing because some common characteristics will be deemed necessary for this study. For the other respondents, network sampling will be used. Network sampling is a strategy whereby the few selected key informants will recommend other successive information-rich participants (Goez and LeCompte, 1984:79). The researcher will describe the type of information relevant to the study and on that basis, the key informants will refer the researcher to potential participants. According to Schumacher and MacMillan (1993:381) this is a useful strategy especially when participants do not form a naturally bounded group, but are scattered throughout populations. The researcher will locate the respondents scattered throughout Kadoma district through networking and snowballing. Through snowballing the respondents will tell the researcher about the respondents who will give information. In selecting the key

informants, the researcher will consult the District Education Officer for Kadoma district and the Education Officer, Staffing as key informants. These will assist with the identification of other potential information-rich participants. The participants' referrals will have a snowballing effect to come up with a total of twelve interview participants. There will be dissimilarities as well as commonalities among the participants. These will include, sex, age, professional status. Creswell (1998) believes it is often advantageous to select cases that show different perspectives on a problem. This study will thus, include the Kadoma District Education Officer, the Education Officer Staffing, 2 educators each, one male and one female from the school categories, government, rural, mine and missionary and 1 male and 1 female administrator.



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Table 3.2: Summary composition of interview respondents sample

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n=12

Category	Status	Male	Female	Total
District Office	D.E.O	1	-	1
District Office	E.O. (Staffing)	1	-	1
Government	Senior Teacher	1	1	2
Rural	Senior Teacher	1	1	2
Mine	Senior Teacher	1	1	2
Missionary	Senior Teacher	1	1	2
Rural	School Head	1	-	1
Government	School Head	-	1	1
Total		7	5	12

3.7.4 Interview data collection procedure

Data collection will include twelve semi-structured interviews. The interview protocol will include 15 open ended, multi-dimensional questions on factors affecting gender equity, which will reveal the respondents' perceptions regarding barriers to both their own advancement, and that of other educators. These will also indicate the interviewees' construction of 'truth' based upon their values, attitudes and experiences. The interviews will be audiotaped and then transcribed verbatim. This will serve two purposes, to provide an unedited copy of the interview for the purpose of analysis and documentation. Morse (1994:230) describes this documentation as an "audit trail" that will leave evidence so that others could "reconstruct the process by which the researcher reached his conclusions". At the end of the study the tapes will be erased.



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3.7.5 Trustworthiness

Dependability as an aspect of trustworthiness is whether the process of the study is consistent and reasonable over time and across researchers and methods (Miles and Huberman, 1998). This study will employ methods of triangulation. Triangulation attempts to map out the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint (Newman, 1997:151). This prevents the researcher from accepting too readily the validity of initial impressions. Through triangulation, the credibility of the interpretation is thus enhanced. Transcripts of interview cases will be read and analysed for undisclosed researcher bias, accuracy, and to confirm emerging findings. The recording and preservation of the audiotapes will serve as an additional determinant of reliability, the transcripts will be "preserved unobscured" (Miles and

Huberman, 1998:279). Multiple data gathering enabled the researcher to validate quantitative data.

Verification of truth-value (Maxwell, 1996) is the correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, or interpretation. The researcher will include low inference descriptors, verbatim comments in his discussion of verisimilitude and ask whether a particular perception/response has a relationship to some agreed-upon opinion or opinions.



3.7.6 Transferability

A perceived limitation of the qualitative research method is that it is not generalisable in the usual quantitative sense. However, concepts discussed by the participants in this study may have transferability or fittingness to other settings. The key informants in Kadoma district were representative of educators in other districts. Hence, when contexts are similar, generalisations from this study may be transferred to those similar contexts. However, such generalisations should be extended with caution.

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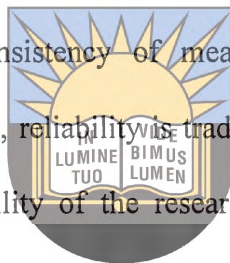
3.8 Document analysis

This study will use documentary evidence from official records at the district offices, the regional offices in Mashonaland West province and the Ministry of Education and Culture Head Office in Harare. Documents to be consulted will include, staffing lists, promotion and selection committee lists. Such documentation will provide the researcher with statistical data on distribution of management posts by gender in secondary schools,

as well as providing information on recruitment and promotion procedures. However, accessing relevant documents could be problematic as districts could hold some documents in strict confidence. Efforts will however be made to assure the relevant authorities of high ethical standards in the handling of any documentation availed for purposes of this study.

3.9 Reliability and validity of instruments

Reliability is concerned with consistency of measures (Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000:126). In quantitative research, reliability is traditionally associated with accuracy, stability, consistency and repeatability of the research (Nieman et al, 2000:284). To ensure internal reliability and random error reduction, this study will use triangulation, both questionnaires and interviews will be used.



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3.9.1 Reliability of the questionnaire

Statistically, reliability can be described, either by reliability co-efficient or by a standard error of measurement (Black, 1993:72; Bourma and Atkinson, 1995:105; Gay, 1992:161). Cronbach alpha co-efficient correlation will be used to calculate reliability of the main data collection instrument, the questionnaire. In this study, cronbach-alpha, co-efficient ranged from 0,82 to 0,90 indicating acceptable levels of reliability for assessing factors affecting gender equity in secondary school management.

3.9.2 Reliability and validity of the interview

Measures taken to enhance the reliability and validity of the data will include recording of interviews to provide verbatim accounts of respondents' conversations and to facilitate accurate transcription. Interviewees will also be given an opportunity to verify interview transcripts, clarify all responses, and make additions and/or amendments.

3.9.3 Pilot study

Researchers from the quantitative paradigm can determine the degree of validity by asking the question, Is the research really measuring or observing what the researcher thinks it is measuring? (Goetz and LeComte, 1984:221). In this respect a pilot study to test the questionnaire was conducted with 5 male and 5 female educators and 3 educational administrators in the  South Africa. The pilot study was conducted to determine whether instruments were adequate. It was also meant to reveal whether most respondents understood the instructions, whether the research situation was plausible, and how long it took to respond to the questionnaire.

3.10 Data analysis

Data analysis will be both quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data will be collected through structured closed-ended items on the questionnaire. Qualitative data will be collected through structured interviews as well as open-ended items on the questionnaire. Quantitative data, including Lickert-scale items with statements requiring responses on a 4-point continuum were analysed and processed, using Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) Version 8. The chi-square test for independence was used. Qualitative data from

open-ended response items and interviews were used to validate quantitative data responses. This facilitated comparison and interpretation of respondents' attitudes, views, beliefs and perceptions on factors affecting gender equity in educational management.

3.10.1 Data analysis (Qualitative data)

Data organisation, analysis and interpretation were done simultaneously. Analysis of data obtained from interviews and documents was done through content analysis, which entailed identifying, coding and categorizing the primary patterns in the data (Miles and Huberman, 1998). In trying to make sense of the data, transcriptions of interviews were read and re-read and tentative categories and subcategories emerged. Coding was the primary categorising strategy in the analysis of qualitative data. Data was organised and segmented into units of meanings called topics and the topics were grouped into larger clusters to form categories (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993:486). Categories emerged from the collected data and were not imposed on data prior to data collection. However, in some instances, literature influenced the inclusion of categories.

Thematic connections and recurring patterns emerged from sorting the data into subcategories and categories (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). Pattern-seeking, "...a relationship among categories." (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993: 495) helped the researcher to understand the complex links between various aspects of people's situations, orientations and beliefs. Because qualitative analysis depends on "grounded categories of meanings" the researcher kept interrogating the data, comparing

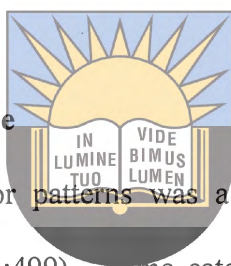
subcategories, categories, and confirming emerging tentative patterns. This analysis resulted in a close correspondence regarding categories and subcategories already discovered by the researcher. Further, the analysis helped to identify relevant ideas and quotations from the participants to support the appropriate categories (Creswell, 1998). Patton (1990:404) posits that pattern seeking is a useful “creative process that requires making carefully considered judgements about what is really significant and meaningful in the data”.

3.10.1.1 Pattern-Seeking Technique

Ordering and sorting categories for patterns was a useful pattern-seeking technique (Schumacher and MacMillan, 1993:499). Some categories were combined, subsumed and new categories created so as to make sense of the research problem. Categories were then grouped into patterns namely, socio cultural and organisational/systemic factors affecting gender equity in education management.

3.11 Summary

In describing, and otherwise interpreting the female world and gender inequity, the descriptive research methodology is deemed to be most suitable for this research. It aims at describing, rather than explaining a particular phenomenon. It also allows phenomena to be investigated extensively with relatively low costs. It is also convenient in that, it allows data analysis to be both qualitative and quantitative. Questionnaires and interviews will be used as research instruments. From a target population of 40 secondary schools, a stratified random sample of 15 secondary schools will be selected.



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From these schools a random sample of 30 administrators, 70 female and 60 male educators will be used as subjects in this study. A total of 12 interviews will be conducted with the District Education Officer, the Staffing Officer, 2 male and 2 female administrators, 3 male and 3 female educators. Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) version 8 will be used to analyse quantitative data using chi-square test for independence. Qualitative data will be used to validate quantitative data. The next chapter presents the data analyses and interpretation of the results based on critical questions.



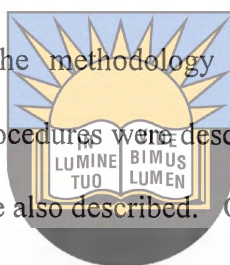
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CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter described the methodology and design of the study. The population, sample and sampling procedures were described. Data collection instruments and their reliability and validity were also described. Questionnaires and interviews were used as data collection methods. This chapter presents the data, analyses and interprets it for results, based on critical questions 1, 2 and 3 respectively.



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4.2 Demographic questionnaire data (Appendix B)

The following demographic data was obtained from the 160 respondents who completed the questionnaire:

Table 4.1: Sex of respondents

n=160

Respondents	Men	Women	Total	%
Male	76	-	76	47.5
Female	-	84	84	52.5
Total	76	84	160	100

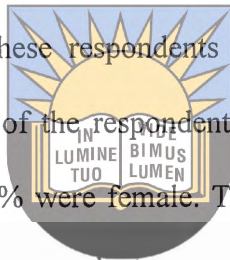
47.5 % of the respondents were male and 52.5 % of the respondents were female.

Table 4.2: Age of respondents

n=160

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
18 to 26 yrs	4	2.5	7	4.4	11	6.9
27 to 35 yrs	32	20	37	23.1	69	43.1
36 to 45 yrs	35	21.9	33	20.6	68	42.5
46 to 55 yrs	4	2.5	5	3.1	9	5.6
56 + yrs	1	0.6	2	1.3	3	1.9
Total	76	47.5	84	52.5	160	100

The highest percentage of respondents in this investigation i.e. 43.1 % was in the age group 27 to 35 years. 20 % of these respondents were male and 23.1 % of these respondents were female. 42.5 % of the respondents were in the age group 36 to 45 years, 21.9 % were male and 20.6 % were female. Thus, in total 43.7 % of the female respondents and 41.9 % of the male respondents were in the childbearing age group of 27 to 45 years and these were likely to experience role conflict as a result of childbearing and rearing responsibilities.



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Table 4.3: Marital status of respondents

n=160

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
Single	8	5	10	6.3	18	11.3
Married	65	40.6	66	41.3	131	81.9
Divorces	0	0	2	1.2	2	1.2
Separated	1	0.6	2	1.2	3	1.8
Widowed	2	1.3	4	2.5	6	3.8
Total	76	47.5	84	52.5	160	100

The highest percentage of respondents in this investigation i.e. 81.9 % was married. 40.6 % were male and 41.3 % were female. In total, 11.3 % of the respondents were single, 5 % male and 6.3 % female. It can be assumed that for the majority of female respondents

in marital relationships the incompatible demands of both family and promotion impede their promotion prospects.

Table 4.4: Number of children in the family

n=160

Respondents	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
1-2 children	36	22.5	48	30	84	52.5
3-4 children	30	18.8	27	16.9	57	35.7
5+ children	10	6.2	9	5.6	19	11.8
Total	76	47.5	84	52.5	160	100

The highest percentage of respondents in this investigation i.e. 52.5 % had between 1 and 2 children. 30 % of these were female and 22.5 % were male respondents. In total 47.5 % (i.e. 22.5 % female and 25 % male) of the respondents had 3 or more children in the family. With regard to this finding, it can be assumed that for those females with children, advancement to educational management could be affected by childcare responsibilities, role conflict and related guilt associated with abdication of childcare for a promotion post.

Table 4.5: Highest academic qualification of respondents

n=160

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
'O' Level	32	20	44	27.5	76	47.5
'A' Level	17	11.9	22	13.7	41	25.6
Degree	25	15.6	18	11.3	43	26.9
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	76	47.5	84	52.5	160	100

47.5 % of the respondents (i.e. 20 % male and 27.5 % female) had ordinary level as their highest academic qualification. 25.6 % (i.e 11.88 % male and 13.75 % female) had Advanced level as their highest academic qualification. Only 26 % of the respondents (i.e 15 % male and 11.25 % female) had university degrees as their highest academic qualification. Thus, the majority of the female respondents 41.2 % had either ‘O’ level or ‘A’ level as their highest academic qualification. It was also interesting to find out that while 15.6 % of the males had university degrees only 11.3 % of the females had degrees. Advancement to educational management for most female respondents could be negatively affected by this low academic qualification.



Table 4.6: Highest professional qualification of respondents

n=160

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Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
CE/ Dip Ed	32	27.5	64	40	108	67.5
B.Ed	7	4.4	6	3.8	13	8.1
B. Degree	10	6.3	5	3.1	15	9.4
B. Deg+G.C	9	5.6	6	3.8	15	9.4
MEd	2	1.3	2	1.2	4	2.5
Masters Deg	4	2.5	1	0.6	5	3.1
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	76	47.5	84	52.5	160	100

67.5 % (i.e. 27.5 % male and 40 % female) had either a Certificate in Education or a Diploma in Education as their highest professional qualification. A total of 16.3 % of the male respondents had Bachelor’s degrees, while only 10.7 % of the female respondents held this professional qualification. It is also interesting to note that while a total of 3.8 % of the male respondents had Masters degrees only 1.8 % of the female respondents had these degrees. The low professional qualifications of women may result in lack of self-

confidence in taking up challenging posts, thereby contributing to women's under-representation in educational management.

Table 4.7: Teaching experience

n=160

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
1 to 5 yrs	9	5.7	13	8.1	22	13.8
6 to 10 yrs	20	12.5	29	18.1	49	30.6
11 to 15 yrs	29	18.1	22	13.8	51	31.9
16 to 20 yrs	13	8.1	14	8.8	27	16.9
21 to 25 yrs	4	2.5	1	0.6	5	3.1
Over 25 yrs	1	0.6	5	3.1	6	3.7
Total	76	47.5	84	52.5	160	100

30.6 % (i.e. 12.5 % male and 18.1 % female) of the respondents had teaching experience of between 6 and 10 years. 31.9 % (i.e. 18.1 % male and 13.8 % female) had teaching experience of between 11 and 15 years. A cumulative total percentage of the respondents, i.e. 23.7 % had teaching experience of 16 and more years. This finding indicates that, most of the respondents in this investigation had the requisite teaching experience (at least 4 years) for appointment to a management position in education. It is assumed that, for all these respondents, lack of experience should not be a barrier to promotion, as they all meet the minimum requirements for promotion.

Table 4.8: Professional status of respondents

n=160

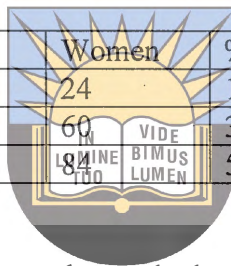
Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
Snr. Teacher	60	37.5	70	43.8	130	81.3
School Heads	16	10	14	8.7	30	18.7
Total	76	47.5	84	52.5	160	100

The majority of respondents in this investigation i.e. 81.3 % (37.5 % male and 43.8 % female) were in the promotional grade of senior teacher. 18.7 % of the respondents were in management grades. This means that in terms of promotion criteria, all the respondents had sufficient experience and in the relevant grades, to be considered for promotion.

Table 4.9 Application for promotion in education management

n=160

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total	%
Yes	40	25	24	15	64	40
No	36	22.5	60	37.5	96	60
Total	76	47.5	84	52.5	160	100



It is interesting to note that of the respondents who have never applied for promotion i.e. 60 %, the majority, 37.5 % were female, while only 22.5 % were male. Of the 40% who had applied for promotion, only 15 % were female while 25 % were male. This finding supports the perception that many women do not consider themselves as potential leaders

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4.3 Critical question 1: What key variables affect application for promotion to management positions in secondary schools?

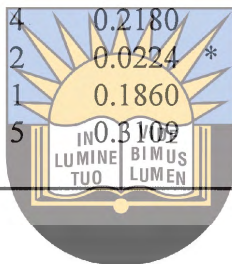
The chi-square test for independence was used to investigate whether there was an association between key demographic variables (sex, age, educational qualification, experience, marital status, family size, professional status, professional qualification) and application for promotion. To find this relationship, demographic variables were used as dependent variables, while the item measuring application for promotion was used as an

independent variable (covariate). The results of the test are shown in Table 4.10, and only significant relationships are discussed in this investigation.

Table 4.10: Relationship between key variables and application for promotion

variable	chi-square	df	p - value
Sex	9.624	1	0.0019 *
Age	16.308	4	0.0026 *
Educ. Qualific.	2.497	2	0.2869
Experience	34.420	5	<0.0001 *
Marital Status	5.747	4	0.2180
Family Size	13.111	2	0.0224 *
Professional Status	57.674	1	0.1860
Professional Qualif.	5.952	5	0.3109

* Significant at $\alpha= 0.05$



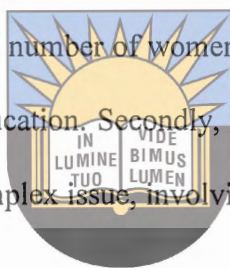
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Table 4.10 shows that there was a significant relationship between application for promotion and four key demographic variables as shown by an asterisk in the p value column of the table (sex, $p<0.0019$; $\alpha<0.05$; age, $p<0.0026$; $\alpha<0.05$; experience, $p<0.0001$; $\alpha<0.05$ and family size, $p<0.0224$; $\alpha<0.05$).

The results presented in Table 4.10 showing a significant relationship between sex and application for promotion ($p<0.0019$) indicates the gender equity problem. The extent of the problem is further confirmed by the odds ratios and their 95% confidence intervals. These odds ratios indicate that males were 2.8 times more likely to apply for promotion than females (see Appendix A). These results are in tandem with available statistics depicting women under- representation in the public service in general and in education

in particular in Zimbabwe (Salary Service Bureau, 1999, Nkwate (2000:1; Dehwe 2000:1; Ngwenya 2000:1).

The findings are also consistent with research on women under-representation elsewhere. For example, Khan in Tichy (1996:6) noted that for every country for which data are available, the proportion of women in management was smaller than that of men. Important implications can be drawn from these findings. Firstly, egalitarian issues are raised by a disproportionately small number of women likely to apply for promotion than men for influential positions in education. Secondly, the under-representation of women could therefore be considered a complex issue, involving interacting factors of a personal, organisational and social nature.



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Despite the results showing that men were more likely to apply for promotion than females, themes in qualitative data showed a general insistence that men and women were treated equally. The insistence on equality of opportunity in the schools extended to the belief that women were actually favourably treated. A typical response from one male teacher was:

Of course, for many years, everything is equal.

Another respondent pointed out that:

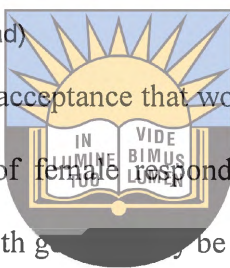
Women themselves need to initiate their advancement, as there are no barriers whatsoever to women advancement in the education system (Male respondent).

Despite evidence to the contrary, another respondent stated that the rights and opportunities for men and women were equal, stating that:

Whoever becomes leader is decided by other things, such as chance, luck and ability
(Female School Head)

It was however interesting to note that when asked what her opinion was, with regard to the promotion of women, the respondent stated that:

Before the adoption of the policy on women advancement, the number of women promoted was very low. However, the situation has changed. A lot of women are being promoted to middle level management posts and still rarely do they get to top management. Generally the reasons are that women are looked down upon by men as incapable. (Female School Head)



Thus, there appears to be a general acceptance that women are theoretically equal to their male colleagues. The responses of female respondents in management who did not indicate any problems associated with gender may be operating a double standard, on the one hand recognising that they had experienced differential treatment and on the other, denying that they experienced any discrimination. Confronted with the same issue Wild (1994:92) concluded that a proportion of women who reach senior positions may see their success as evidence that there is “no problem” and, in effect deny that there are particular obstacles for women’s progress. Others having reached a position of power may wish to pull up the ladder behind them.

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Respondents’ perceptions from qualitative data could be indicative of the fact that, despite attempts to redress the imbalance of females in promotional positions through policy changes and affirmative action, the framework of attitudes and ideas, which causes most people to judge females according to male criteria, still lingers, continuing to impose restrictions on perceptions regarding promotion. The continued impact of

stereotypic notions was demonstrated in a number of subtle ways. For example many male and female respondents interviewed became defensive at the mention of “gender issues” and promptly denied their existence and significance.

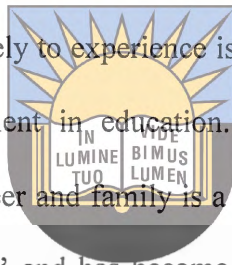
Conflicting opinions however exist with regard to women’s low promotional orientation as an explanation for their under-representation at senior levels. One explanation is that this lack of interest in promotion by female teachers is largely a product of gender-role stereotyping and the socialisation process that neither encourages nor provides incentives for females to aspire to career advancement to the same extent as males (Stromquist, 1997:539; Shakeshaft, 1987:94; Ncube, et al, 1997:19). However, Acker (1983) and Ball (1987) believe that to propose women’s lack of interest in promotion as the reason for their under-representation in leadership was a sexist perception and an oversimplification of a complex situation. They suggested it was more likely that it was attributable to the fact that females lacked awareness of the promotional process and the confidence to pursue more aggressively a promotional path of their own accord. Further, the fact that some women choose not to accommodate the male model of leadership was an act of resistance rather than a passive acceptance of the status quo.

Results indicating that age was a significant factor in application for promotion ($p < 0.0026$) significantly contributes to an understanding of under-representation of females in leadership roles. The odds ratio for the association between age and application for promotion (see Appendix A) showed that while males in all age groups were equally likely to apply for promotion, females differed significantly.



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Findings show that female respondents in the age group 18-26 were less likely to apply for promotion than respondents in the age group 46 and above. Similarly, respondents in the age group 27 to 35 were also less likely to apply for promotion than those in the age group 46 and above. However respondents in the age group 36 to 45 and 46 and above were found to be equally likely to apply for promotion. The explanation could be that within the latter age group, the care of small children ceased to be the concern. For respondents in the age groups 18 to 26 and 27 to 35 the potential for role conflict and the associated guilt that women are likely to experience is a theme that runs through existing literature on women in management in education. For example Davies (1990:39) concluded that the dual role of career and family is a 'convenient peg' on which to hang explanations of 'underachievement' and has become almost as much a form of 'victim analysis' as sex role socialisation for women.

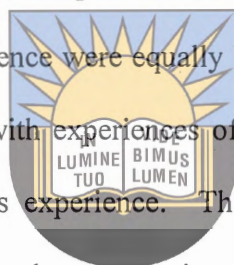


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The results in Table 4.10, which show a significant relationship between application for promotion and family size ($p < 0.0224$) tend to support literature. An analysis of these results using confidence intervals of odds ratios showed that, while males with more than one child were all equally likely to apply for promotion, those with one child were less likely to apply than those with more than one. However, it was interesting to note that females with one child and those with four or more were equally likely to apply, while those with two children were less likely to apply than those with four or more. However those females with three children and those with four or more were equally likely to apply for promotion. With regard to this finding it would probably be right to assume that for those females with children, application for promotion would depend on the individual

guilt associated with childcare. Those females with two children who were found to be less likely to apply could be in the childbearing age and those with three or more could be having older children thereby experiencing less role conflict.

Results showing a significant relationship between experience and application for promotion ($p < 0.0001$) could also explain that the issues of age, family size and experience closely interact. Confidence intervals for odds ratios (see Appendix A) showed that, males and females with experiences ranging between 11 to 15 years and those more than 16 years of experience were equally likely to apply for promotion. The explanation may be that females with experiences of 11 years and more could also be older women than those with less experience. This explanation is compatible with Schmuck (1986:177) who found out that women in management tended to be older, had more teaching experience, were often less married and less often had children or had older children than their counterparts. Coleman (1996:163) also concluded that female head teachers in her study had at some stage of their careers experienced role conflict between family and job.



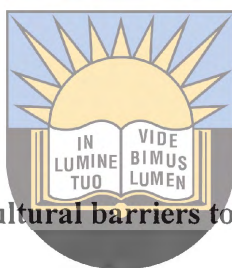
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The issue of guilt associated with childcare was also a common theme for female respondents to the survey, some typical responses were:

My children are still young and need motherly care. If I apply, I may be separated from my family (female respondent age 27 to 35).

My children are still young to be left on their own. I would rather apply for promotion when they are older, meanwhile I would rather take care of my children (female respondent age 27 to 35).

The concurrent and incompatible time demands that women with family obligations involving childcare responsibilities is a theme that also runs through existing literature on women's career achievements (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 1993:194). As men continue to perceive women in the child bearing age group as bearers of their children, they may find it understandable, indeed appropriate that women renounce their careers to raise families. Implications drawn from this are that domestic labour may still be socially distributed, leading to irrational actions that continue to relegate women to low visibility positions in education hierarchies.



4.4 Questionnaire data on socio-cultural barriers to gender equity (Appendix B)

The following data was obtained from the 160 respondents who completed the Likert-scale items on the questionnaire *Together in Excellence*

Table 4.11: Perceptions of respondents on the 'male model of leadership'

n=160

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Agree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 13	23	14.4	50	31.2	49	30.6	38	23.8	160	100
Item 28	23	14.4	56	35	56	35	25	15.6	160	100

In total 45.6 % of the respondents in this investigation had the perception that women lack firmness and assertiveness in management. 54.4 % rejected the perception that women lack assertiveness and firmness.

Table 4.12: Perceptions of respondents on culture and religion

n=160

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 38	25	15.6	48	30	53	33.1	34	21.3	160	100
Item 27	22	13.8	46	28.8	48	30	44	27.4	160	100

The highest percentage of respondents in this investigation i.e. 54 % did not perceive culture as a barrier to women promotion. 15.6 % strongly perceived culture as a barrier and 30 % perceived it as a barrier. Thus only 45.6 % of the respondents held the perception that women were denied promotion because culture consigns them to the domestic sphere. The majority of respondents in this investigation i.e. 57.4 % rejected the view that religious teachings subordinated women thereby affecting their advancement to management. Only, 42.6 % of the respondents viewed religious teachings as affecting women advancement.



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Table 4.13: Perceptions of respondents on self-confidence

n=160

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 20	18	11.3	66	41.3	43	26.8	33	20.6	160	100
Item 25	22	13.7	66	41.3	46	28.7	26	16.3	160	100

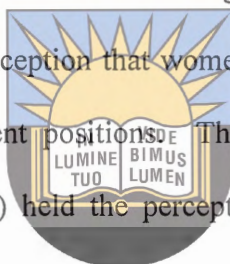
The highest percentage of respondents i.e. 52.6 % (item 20) and 55 % (item 25) held the perception that women lack self-confidence and motivation to apply for promotion posts.

Table 4.14: Perceptions of respondents on self-image

n=160

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 10	30	18.7	50	31.3	46	28.7	34	21.3	160	100
Item 18	22	13.8	69	43.1	50	31.3	19	11.8	160	100
Item 19	51	31.9	40	25	19	11.8	50	31.3	160	100
Item 37	18	11.2	75	46.9	38	23.8	29	18.1	160	100

The highest percentage of respondents in this investigation i.e. a total of 56 % (item 18 and 58. 1 % (item 37) held the perception that women do not aspire to management as they prefer teaching to management positions. The majority of respondents in this investigation i.e. 56.9 % (item 19) held the perception that women do not apply for promotion to management posts because they have a lower self-esteem than men. 11.8 % of the respondents disagreed and 21.3% strongly disagreed with this view.



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Table 4.15: Perceptions of respondents on role conflict

n=160

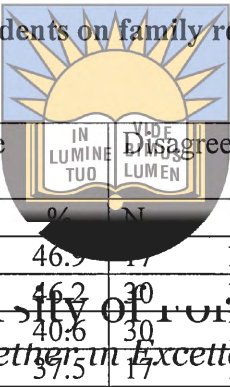
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 11	35	21.9	31	19.4	67	41.9	27	16.8	160	100
Item 15	35	21.9	61	38.2	37	23.1	27	16.8	160	100
Item 30	41	25.6	68	42.5	34	21.3	17	10.6	160	100

58. 7 % (item11) of the respondents rejected the view that most women in management are often not married. The majority of the respondents i.e. 60.1 % (item 15) viewed childcare as a hindrance to women advancement to management positions. It is however, interesting to note that while the respondents did not perceive marriage as a hindrance,

the highest percentage of respondents in this investigation i.e.68.1 % (item 30) were in agreement with the view that, for most women a professional career is dependent on the grace and favour of the spouse. This factor could be a result of the concurrent and incompatible time demands that women with both work and family encounter. Women may thus, respond to work/family conflicts by reducing their employment involvement and restricting their career opportunities for professional advancement.

Table 4.16: Perceptions of respondents on family responsibilities and sex roles

n=160



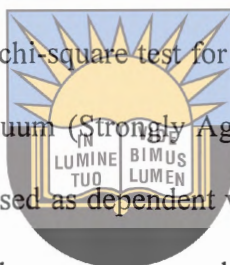
Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 29	56	35	75	46.9	17	10.6	12	7.5	160	100
Item 31	51	31.9	74	46.2	30	18.8	5	3.1	160	100
Item 32	60	37.5	65	40.6	30	15.6	10	6.3	160	100
Item 34	74	46.3	60	37.5	17	10.6	9	5.6	160	100

The highest percentage of respondents in this investigation i.e. 81.9 % (item 29) held the perception that family and home responsibilities affect women advancement to management. 78.1 % (item 31) were in agreement with the view that domestic and childcare responsibilities affect women advancement. 78.1 % (item 32) held the perception that women with young children would rather take up promotion when the children were older. The highest percentage of respondents in this investigation, i.e. 83.9 % (item 34) were in agreement with the view that families or spouses can object to women taking up a promotion post which takes them away from the home. These findings confirm earlier research findings (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 1993:194; Coleman, 2001:79) indicating that extensive family responsibilities, especially those

involving marriage, childcare and household activities can impede a woman's career achievements.

4.5 Critical question 2: What socio-cultural values, norms and beliefs in the socio-cultural system affect women advancement to management positions in secondary schools?

To test whether there was an association between respondents' perceptions and socio-cultural barriers to gender equity a chi-square test for independence was carried out. The item responses on a 4 point continuum (Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) were used as dependent variables while sex was used as the independent variable. The variable sex was used because it enabled all the 160 respondents, males and females to be included for their overall perceptions. The results are provided in Table 4.17 and the study discusses only those factors, which are significant.



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The table shows that there was a significant relationship between gender and five items measuring perceptions on socio-cultural constraints to gender equity in education management as shown by an asterisk in the p value column of the table (item 11, ($p < 0.0235$; $\alpha < 0.05$); item 13, ($p < 0.0011$; $\alpha < 0.05$); item 19, ($p < 0.0256$; $\alpha < 0.05$); item 20, ($p < 0.0011$; $\alpha < 0.05$); item 25, ($p < 0.0031$; $\alpha < 0.05$) and item 29, ($p < 0.0223$; $\alpha < 0.05$). Thus, item 11, measuring role conflict involving marriage, item 29 measuring role conflict involving family and home responsibilities, items 19, 20 and 25 measuring confidence and self-esteem and item 13 measuring perceptions of women as managers,

were identified by the respondents as socio-cultural constraints contributing to the under-representation of women in secondary school management.

Table 4.17: Perceptions of respondents on socio-cultural barriers to gender equity

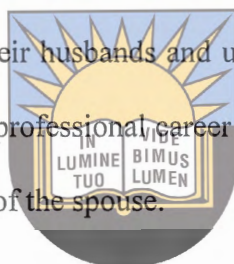
Item	Variable	Chi-Square	df	p-value
10	Sex	0.989	3	0.8039
11	Sex	9.484	3	0.0235 *
12	Sex	0.544	3	0.9068
13	Sex	16.163	3	0.0011 *
15	Sex	2.162	3	0.5395
18	Sex	3.726	3	0.2926
19	Sex	9.297	3	0.0256 *
20	Sex	15.997	3	0.0001 *
25	Sex	13.880	3	0.0031 *
27	Sex	0.233	3	0.9721
28	Sex	1.622	3	0.6543
29	Sex	9.000	3	0.0223 *
30	Sex	1.8586	3	0.6023
32	Sex	3.6092	3	0.3069
32	Sex	5.8659	3	0.1183
33	Sex	0.8440	3	0.8389
34	Sex	2.2016	3	0.5316
37	Sex	0.9118	3	0.8226
38	Sex	2.185	3	0.5348

* Significant at $\alpha=0.05$

4.5.1 Role Conflict associated with marriage and family responsibilities

Results of the investigation showed a significant association between sex of respondent and role conflict involving marriage and family responsibilities (item 11, $p<0.0235$) and item 29, $p<0.0223$). These results confirm earlier research undertaken elsewhere (Davidson and Cooper 1992; Burke and McKeen 1994; Lewis 1994) indicating that generally the major responsibility for all domestic tasks including childcare and care of

other dependents falls on women. Parasuraman and Greenhaus (1993:194) found extensive family responsibilities, especially those involving marriage, childcare and household activities to impede a woman's career achievements. Marriage particularly can result in role conflict. This could result from the practice of lobola, which may entrench the subordinate position of women, by perpetuating their commodification. As part of the marriage transaction lobola was found to psychologically oppress women (Armstrong, 1990:191). The subordination could be related to marital roles in which women are regarded as mere possessions of their husbands and unmarried women as possessions of their fathers. For many women, a professional career in education management could be dependent on the grace and favour of the spouse.



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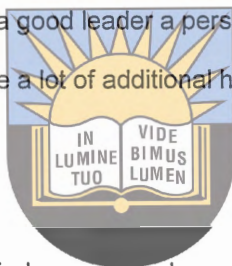
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As in studies elsewhere, the general perception among respondents in this study was that woman tend to take overall responsibility for domestic tasks and for childcare. Even where men take on domestic tasks it appears to be that the household management role is a gender boundary, which remains contentious and difficult to dismantle (Lewis, 1994:231). This could be understood in terms of restricted time devoted to the job, seeking a less demanding job and/or refusing a promotion, less psychological investment in a career or unwillingness to relocate. Given this situation woman who are in paid employment outside the home face a “double shift” or even a “triple shift” where childcare is concerned (Acker, 1994).

Interviews highlighted three aspects of family commitment that were perceived to inhibit promotional opportunities. Firstly there was a traditional expectation that the female

assumes the bulk of responsibility for the family, and consequently has less time than the male to devote to her career. Linked to this are her restricted geographic mobility and the tendency to support the partner in his career, perhaps at the expense of her own. Data from open-ended items and interviews indicate an acceptance that the female of a household will take all the main responsibilities for domestic tasks:

Women have a lot of housework to do. In a family women always have more responsibility, so they have less time to spend on work than men. Housework always affects women's work....to be a good leader a person needs the quality of being a teacher. If women did not have a lot of additional housework they could be good leaders (Male educator)



Other respondents felt that:

Family responsibilities often hinder career advancement and also children need care. So one often gives priority to family responsibilities than to career advancement when she is a woman (Female School Head)

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Family responsibilities, involving marriage, childcare and household activities have a very negative effect, as these chores are primarily a woman's job (Female interviewee).

Family responsibilities are a dilemma, which forces many women to forego promotions, preferring to take up traditional domestic responsibilities (Male interviewee).

It is interesting to note that even female principals, who had achieved a senior role, were still subject to the difficulties associated with their domestic situation. The majority commented on how tired they always are. One school head with children stressed the difficulty of trying to balance all the different aspects of her role against one another. Another female teacher said how difficult it was to pursue a career as well as support family commitments and both commented that men did not do housework and that they

had to do all the chores at the end of the day. These results are consistent with Coleman's (2001:79) findings. In her study, she found out that for those with a husband or partner, the female took the major domestic responsibility. Additionally Coleman (2001) found out that there was only a minority of men, who appear to take the major responsibility for running the household. However, this was apparent in those over 50 years of age with no children, some of whom were husbands who had retired or semi-retired. Thus for most women there is a particular balance to be struck between the achievement of satisfaction through a career and through a family. In an attempt to maintain a balance in their lives, women may hesitate to seek promotion into management posts, deterred by anticipated difficulties in preserving such a balance (Al Khalifa, 1992:96). However indeed, as Evetts (1990:94) points out the notion of success is subjective and the decision to combine family responsibilities with a career as a teacher rather than a manager may be seen as desirable and therefore highly successful by some women teachers. Some respondents to open-ended questionnaire item 9, who claimed no interest in leadership, exemplified this view, stating that:

I enjoy classroom work (female respondent)

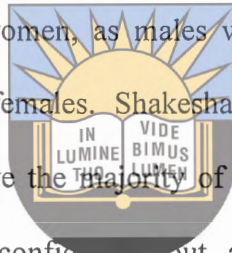
A promotion usually sends someone to remote areas, so I think it's no longer a promotion because I always want to be with my family. I therefore have no interest in the posts (female respondent)

The results showing a significant association between gender and role conflict involving marriage and home responsibilities and those from qualitative data are consistent with the corpus of research and literature on gender equity and thus confirms the notion that the poor representation of women in educational management is ascribed, among others, to

the unequal division of domestic responsibilities and constraints of a marriage relationship within the Zimbabwean cultural setting.

4.5.2 Self-Confidence and self-esteem

The chi-square test showing a significant relationship between gender and self-confidence (item 20, $p < 0.0011$ and item 25, $p < 0.0031$) confirm previous research findings. For example, Johnson and Powell (1994:127) found self-confidence to be the only differentiator between men and women, as males were found to exhibit significantly higher degrees of confidence than females. Shakeshaft (1993:51) concluded that women were more likely to expect to have the majority of qualities required for a job before application, whereas men were confident about applying with only some of the qualifications and experience.



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The perceptions of respondents studied in this study were typical of the majority of women in education, who do not become senior managers. A number of women respondents interviewed indicated that they had harboured doubts in their ability to obtain headship. One interesting finding was that, despite the fact that the female teachers sampled were in the promotional grade of senior teacher, in possession of the requisite professional qualification for promotion and had adequate experience for promotion, they still indicated that they harboured doubts about their suitability for promotion. When asked, whether she had ever applied for a promotion post, one female educator stated:

I have never applied for such a post because I know very little about administration of schools

I have never applied for such a post because I know very little about administration of schools

When further asked what she considered to be the most important barriers to women advancement in education, she further mentioned that:

Most women do not want to take up management posts due to inferiority complex feelings. They feel they are not capable educational managers

These findings support the perception that many women do not appear to consider themselves as potential leaders. Internalised views of the incompatibility of leadership roles with femininity held by women themselves have often been cited as a reason why women are viewed as less competent, less objective and less logical than men. Some highly capable women make a conscious decision not to apply for promotion because it would mean either losing aspects of the job that they value, or trying to resolve tensions between their beliefs and the administrative practices of the establishment (Al-Khalifa, 1992).



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While quantitative testing found a significant relationship between self confidence and woman advancement to management positions, findings from qualitative data showed conflicting opinions with regard to the perception that, women apply a lot less for management positions than men because of lack of confidence and a low self-esteem. When asked for an opinion on the perception that women lack in self-confidence especially when it comes to education management, one respondent said:

It is more difficult to lead for a woman because people do not accept them easily.

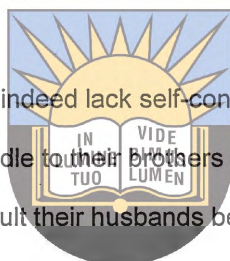
One has to work really hard to prove oneself where men would simply be respected

without any hassles. It is not a question of lack of confidence but the attitude (negative) of society towards women.

This perception further, supports the contention that lack of confidence may be a product of traditional beliefs and organisational systems that limit opportunities for female teachers to acquire experience that will help build their self-image (Shakeshaft 1987:85). The perception that women are lacking in self-confidence as a result of traditional beliefs and organisational systems had support from some female respondents themselves. One typical response was that:

It can be supposed that women indeed lack self-confidence and this is because they are socialised to play second fiddle to their brothers as they grow up. When they get married they are trained to consult their husbands before they make a decision.

Ultimately they behave as though they do not have a point of view. However, if left to a challenge without societal pressure, women are very confident



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This perception confirms and supports literature and research, which indicates that women's lack of confidence may prevent them from aspiring to promotional positions in education management as early in their careers as men. For example, Hill and Ragland (1995:7) ascribe women's under-representation in education management to a lack of self-confidence and public exposure and the absence of a supportive and encouraging environment to develop and improve female leadership qualities. However, Bloot and Browne (1996:85) concluded that many women do aspire to senior positions, but fail to apply for them because they do not receive the initial patronage and support given to men. The differential encouragement provided to females and males by significant others, confirm the social perception that leadership and decision-making in education management was more appropriate for males (Davies, 1990). Gold (1996) therefore,

refers to their need for encouragement, their ability to “drift” into leadership and sometimes recognition that they have been managed by someone less effective than themselves. The significant relationship in perceptions between gender and self-esteem is also consistent with literature. For example, Mokgathe and Schoeman (1998:29) pointed out that individuals strive to belong to groups, which positively contributes towards their self-esteem. Traditional gender role stereotypes based on a dichotomous conception of male versus female social categories may present women with a limited range of behavioural options, limiting their freedom of choice, independence and access to power relative to men. The lack of self-confidence and low self-esteem may thus be explained in terms of the need for conformity to sex role stereotypes as a result of collective self-esteem (Crocker and Luhtanen 1990:60)



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4.5.3 The ‘male model’ of management

The results showing a significant association between gender and the perception that most women lack the firmness and assertiveness, essential for effective school management (item 13, $p < 0.0011$) supports the existence of the notion of a male model of leadership closely linked to both the patriarchal structure of the education system and the stereotyping associated with gender-roles. Research has supported the existence of these stereotypes. For example, Bloot and Browne (1996:89) concluded that there was a tendency to present the male and his incumbent attributes as the ‘norm’ in decision-making roles, and then to perceive the female as deficient in leadership qualities, lacking the skills and competences of her male counterparts, because she differs from the norm. Boverman in Johnson and Powell (1994:124) found that males were perceived to be more

able to act as leaders, more dominant, more aggressive and more independent than females. Similarly, Schein (1994:47) found the persistent stereotype that associates management with male traits as a hurdle for women aspiring to management. The stereotypes are consequently reinforced. There is a stereotype of a tough, aggressive, leader who is pre-occupied with tasks rather than relationships, and women are not seen fitting this image. The majority of respondents in the present study made mention of the impact that perceptions of male dominance had on them personally or on other female teachers. The problem arose from the non-acceptance of their position by those they worked with, and in the need to continually prove themselves to justify their occupation of leadership roles. The following comments summed up the concerns of many respondents:



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Maybe I think males are naturally better leaders, not because they are male, but because there is just a difference between men and women. Not that I agree with it, but kids, parents and other teachers are going to look to the man – it's just our society still. I don't necessarily think it's right, but that is what happens, and it's a really tough battle if you want to fight it...women won't just aspire to management. They don't see it as their role (female respondent)

Respondents also tended to see male characteristics as being those that equated with good leadership:

Sometimes males have strong abilities and are brave and act quickly and are wise. Female leaders are reluctant and hesitant (Male respondent)

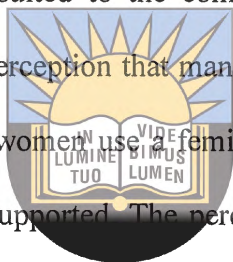
Women are careful and cautious and too kind which is not appropriate (Male respondent)

Females thus tended to be particularly identified as careful and good at detail and men as being particularly gifted in strategic thinking.

Male leaders grasp the overall picture. Females stress detail and teacher relationships and affections. Female teachers are more careful (Female Education Officer)

Women are careful and men are strategic (Female School Head)

Rai (1994:125-126) therefore concluded that in the sphere of general management, women might be regarded as not suited to the competitive thinking and work ethic required in the market place. The perception that men manages using a masculine style, defensive/aggressive paradigm and women use a feminine management style, nurturing paradigm (Gray 1993:111) is thus supported. The perception which views the feminine nurturing paradigm as inappropriate in management however contradict studies which have sought to reject the 'male as norm' base of management, arguing that qualities previously stereotyped as female are potentially valuable. For example in a review of effective management in schools Bolam et al (1993:11) found out that the head of an effective school had a consultative 'listening' style, was decisive and forceful but not dictatorial, was open to other people's ideas and easily accessible to staff. Findings from Coleman's (2000:24) study also found that, most women managed their schools in ways that could be identified as consultative and people oriented, with emphasis on teamwork and 'power to' rather than 'power over' others. Some respondents concurred with Bolam et al (1993) and Coleman (2000), who felt that many females bring to leadership an alternate set of qualities and strengths which are equally as important as those espoused by the perceived male model of leadership. One such response was:



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I think women bring into leadership different skills. It's not just status or power for them. They bring in things like social justice and treating people with greater respect and caring. I really just think that the way women see power is different, unless they try to emulate male power, but I don't think that is the case. Theirs is a different way of illustrating power and leadership

It is interesting to note however that Coleman (2000) also found out that much of the resentment to women leadership was linked to this softer, more participatory style of female heads, on the part of males used to a more decisive autocratic style.



The 'masculine' versus 'feminine' dichotomy is however one which has been found difficult to handle empirically. For example, few significant differences have been found between male and female school heads using quantitative testing procedures, whereas qualitative studies have suggested gender differences in styles of management (Evetts, 1994:160). However, Beare et al in Coleman et al (1998:151) conclude that both masculine and feminine stereotypical qualities are important in the leader regardless of gender. Gray (1989:39) stresses the need to accept the fully androgynous duality (feminine style - nurturing paradigm and masculine style - defensive/aggressive paradigm) seeing it as a full description of a mature person, whether male or female being of little relevance. A few respondents who claimed that they saw no real difference in leadership of males and females also supported this position:

Men and women have equal capabilities. They manage in similar ways, there is no obvious difference. A person's individual characteristics are more important than gender. A leader needs to be brave, wise, flexible, clever and sociable, and these qualities are needed equally in men and women (Male District Education Officer)

However despite the acceptance of this rational gender androgyny the results of the study still show a tendency to expect males and females to accord with the appropriate paradigm. Stereotypes of good leadership tended to revert to that of the decisive, strategic, task-oriented ‘masculine’ mode. A further stereotype cited was that women in management would be too soft and unable to cope.

4.6 Questionnaire data on organisational constraints to gender equity.

The following data was obtained from the 160 respondents who completed the Lickert scale items on the questionnaire:



Table 4.18 Perceptions of respondents on career breaks, career plan and career paths

n=160

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Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 14	27	16.9	52	32.5	51	31.9	30	18.7	160	100
Item 21	17	10.6	68	42.5	52	32.5	23	14.4	160	100
Item 26	67	41.9	39	24.4	14	8.7	40	25	160	100

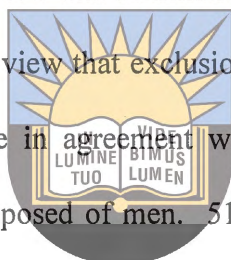
The majority of respondents in this investigation i.e. 50.6 % (item 14) rejected the view that career breaks affect women advancement. 53.1 % (item 21) and 66.3 % (item 26) were in agreement with the view that most women do not advance to management due to lack of career path planning.

Table 4.19 Perceptions of respondents on recruitment procedures

n=160

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 17	48	30	75	46.9	28	17.5	9	5.6	160	100
Item 23	14	8.7	76	47.5	58	36.3	12	7.5	160	100
Item 35	46	28.7	53	33.1	47	29.4	14	8.8	160	100
Item 39	33	20.6	50	31.3	51	31.8	26	16.3	160	100

76.9 % of the respondents held the view that affirmative action helps women to advance. 56.2 % were in agreement with the view that exclusion from 'old boy networks' affects women advancement. 61.8 % were in agreement with the view that the promotions committee at regional office is composed of men. 51.9 % were of the perception that promotion procedures favoured males.



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Table 4.20 Perceptions of respondents on mentoring and support

n=160

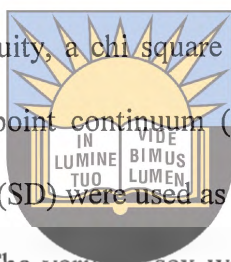
Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 16	34	21.3	64	40	39	24.4	23	14.4	160	100
Item 22	25	15.6	84	52.5	39	24.4	12	7.5	160	100
Item 24	14	8.7	47	29.4	79	49.4	20	12.5	160	100
Item 36	23	14.3	40	25	56	35	41	25.7	160	100

The majority of respondents in this investigation, i.e. 61.3 % (item 16) and 68.1 % (item 22) held the perception that women do not support and encourage each other. The highest percentage, i.e. 61.9 % rejected the view that mentoring plays no significant role in women advancement. It was however interesting to note while mentoring and support

women advancement. It was however interesting to note while mentoring and support were perceived as important, 60.7 % of the respondents disagreed with the view that women are not given equal opportunities.

4.7 Critical question 3: What constraints within the organisational processes affect women advancement to management positions in secondary schools?

To test whether there was an association between respondents' perceptions and organisational barriers to gender equity, a chi square test for independence was carried out. The item responses on a 4 point continuum (Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)) were used as dependent variables while sex was used as the independent variable. The variable sex was used because it enabled overall perceptions of all the 160 respondents, males and females to be investigated. The results are provided in Table 4.21 and the study discusses only those factors, which are significant.

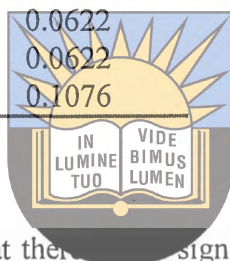


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Table 4.21: Perceptions of respondents on organisational barriers to gender equity

Item	variable	chi square	df	p value
14	Sex	3.9887	3	0.2627
16	Sex	3.4389	3	0.3288
17	Sex	2.413	3	0.4925
21	Sex	7.260	3	0.0041 *
22	Sex	2.974	3	0.3956
23	Sex	1.275	3	0.7351
24	Sex	1.826	3	0.6092
26	Sex	12.845	3	0.0050 *
35	Sex	3.064	3	0.0622
36	Sex	7.326	3	0.0622
39	Sex	6.083	3	0.1076

*Significant at $\alpha=0.05$



The results in Table 4.21 reveal that there was a significant relationship between sex of respondent and the perception that lack of career planning was a barrier to women advancement in education management (item 21 $p<0.0041$ and item 26, $p<0.0050$). No significant relationship was noted between sex of respondent and other organisational constraint factors, support and positive reinforcement (items 16 and 20), lack of mentoring (item 24) and promotion procedures (items, 17, 23 and 36). The results showing no significant relationship between sex of respondent and lack of support and positive reinforcement and lack of mentoring contradict earlier research which identified the value of mentorship for women aspiring to principalship. For example, Burke and McKeen (1994:22) suggests that mentors play a crucial role to the career success of women.

The significant relationship supports the notion that women in education, and in management generally do not develop a career plan. For example, the head teachers interviewed by Coleman (1996:321) had developed career plans as their careers progressed, rather than aiming for headship from the start. This finding is also in accord with that for the majority of heads interviewed by Weidling and Early (1987:20) who saw their career progressing within the context of their particular school, obviously developing a career plan within that context, but even at that stage not thinking about going on further to, deputy headships or headships. Weidling and Early (1987:24) concluded that there were significant differences in career paths for women, notably in relation to age on appointment to headship, years in teaching and years as deputy head.



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When asked about their views on the perception that men unlike women plan their career paths, the issue of family responsibilities in a society where women are still expected to take up a disproportionate share of domestic duties resurfaced:

Men have less constraints and pressures from society. They have enough room to manoeuvre. Women on the other hand may not have the means with which to do what they want. They may have to consult spouses before planning career paths (Female respondent)

Women are controlled by other commitments like marriage and therefore find it difficult to independently plan their career paths. Only a very small percentage that remains unmarried has the power to plan their career paths (Female respondent)

The sentiments expressed by respondents in this research seem to indicate a deep-seated barrier that tends to direct females away from management roles. The majority of

respondents in this study, both men and female, when talking about their backgrounds indicated that they had 'fallen' into management by accident than by design. However, women were more likely to make reference to career breaks. In common, with Stott and Lawson (1997:110) women have not as a rule planned their careers over the long term. However, it was interesting to note that some career moves seemed more likely to have been planned:

I always knew I wanted to teach. I always thought I would be a principal...I think I started planning five years ago lets say, to this kind of goal but up until then I was just anxious to get what I could earn....and gather qualifications as I went along (female principal)

Although this respondent had begun to plan her career in the last five years, her advice to other aspirants in the profession was indeed to have a goal. This thus suggests evidence of career planning by some females. Such findings present a challenge for research and literature that suggests women are not career planners.



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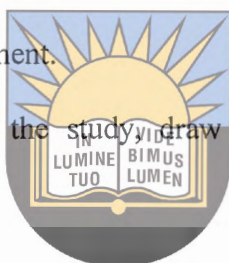
4.5 Summary

In this chapter, the results and discussion of the statistical analyses used to test respondents' perceptions on socio-cultural and organisational process factors affecting gender equity have been presented. Responses from qualitative data where respondents gave their perceptions through open-ended items on the questionnaire and field interviews have also been presented as validation for quantitative findings. The chi-square test for independence was used to test the relationship between respondents' sex and items measuring socio-cultural and organisational barriers to gender equity.

Results showed that:

- There was a significant relationship between application for promotion and four key demographic variables sex, age, experience and family size.
- There was a significant relationship between the sex of respondents and the perception that role conflict involving marriage and family responsibilities, lack of confidence and self-esteem and perception of women, as managers were socio-cultural factors affecting gender equity in education management.
- Lack of career path planning was perceived as an organisational barrier to gender equity in education management.

The next chapter will summarise the study and draw up conclusions and make some recommendations



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CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented, analysed and interpreted the data of the investigation. This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the investigation and suggestions for future research.



5.2 Summary

The study conceptualised gender equity in educational management as both the elimination of sex discrimination, sex stereotyping and sex segregation and the responsiveness of educational systems and personnel to the needs, interests and concerns of women that arise from inequitable social, organisational and educational practices and policies. The problem as identified in chapter 1, lies in the fact that women are grossly under-represented in management positions, documenting men holding the majority of leadership positions, while most women are placed at the bottom of workforce hierarchies. This poor picture of representativity takes place without clearly advanced reasons. Some studies (Coleman, 1996b; Hall, 1996) have generally ruled out lesser skills, abilities, and motivation as reasons for the slower career progress of women. It is currently recognised that the under-representation of women is a complex issue involving interacting factors of a personal, organisational and social nature, the impact of which

differs at different career phases. To investigate the problem of the study, the core research question, which is “What socio-cultural and organisational process factors affect the equitable representation of women in secondary school management “, the following critical questions guided the study:

- What key variables affect application for advancement to management positions in secondary schools?
- What socio-cultural values, norms and beliefs embedded in our socio-cultural system affect women’s advancement to management positions in secondary schools?
- What constraints within the organisational processes affect women’s advancement to management positions in secondary schools?



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Research of the literature resulted in a review of the concepts central to gender equity and women in management. Review of literature and past studies established that patriarchal male stereotypes are widely believed to have a high degree of socially constructed reality in patriarchal societies. There is a tendency to present the male and his incumbent attributes as the norm, identifying leadership with those qualities and roles that are identified as ‘masculine’, therefore tending to identify men with leadership. The socio-cultural perspective conceives gender inequity as a result of manipulation by the ‘powerful’ in order to maintain the distributive status quo or a result of social arrangements created by latent socio-historical forces. Research of the literature resulted in the identification of culture, religion, marriage and lobola, self-confidence and self-esteem, role conflict and family constraints as broader social and cultural factors underpinning the reproduction of gendered dominance. Literature on organisational

constraints to gender equity showed that, career breaks, career plans and paths, mentoring and support created subtle patterns of systemic disadvantage, which block most, but a few women from advancement to educational management.

To investigate the socio-cultural and organisational process factors affecting the equitable representation of women in secondary school management in Kadoma district in Zimbabwe the research design as discussed in chapter 3 was put into action.

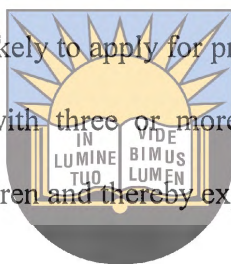
5.3 Conclusions



The findings of the investigation showed that women under-representation in secondary schools in Kadoma district in Zimbabwe result from the fact that society is male dominated and through socialisation, sex stereotyping and sex discrimination, women often have low self-image, low self-confidence and lack motivation. One of the main limitations of the career progress of women are the stereotypes held about women. Many individuals hold negative opinions towards women in positions of power and there is a widely held belief that women are less effective managers than men. The most common stereotype about women relates to the perception that they are primarily bound with the children and domesticity, and will naturally take on a caring role. A further stereotype was that women would be too soft to cope in management.

The majority of women experience barriers to career advancement linked to their gender and this was felt more with those who are married and with children. The significant relationship between sex and application for promotion indicates that men were more

likely to apply for promotion than females. These results show that despite attempts to redress the imbalance of females in promotional positions through policy changes and affirmative action, the framework of stereotypes continues to impose restrictions on perceptions regarding female promotion. Respondents in the age groups 18 to 26 and 27 to 35 were less likely to apply for promotion than those in than age group 46 and above. This implies that the potential for role conflict associated with childcare could be a constraining factor to those women aspiring to management. Like the women with two children who were also found less likely to apply for promotion, these women could be in the child bearing age and those with three or more children could have passed the childbearing age, or have older children and thereby experiencing less role conflict.

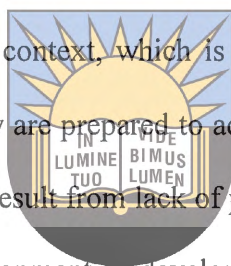


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One of the major findings emerging from the research is the high level of discrimination faced by women who aspire to education management positions, the discrimination being fuelled by stereotypes that include the identification of women with their domestic role. Related to this are the more practical domestic factors women face in terms of generally bearing the brunt of domestic responsibilities in addition to work outside the home. In addition marriage is generally perceived as a barrier indicating that the combination of a career and motherhood remains a difficult prospect. It appears that career advancement to education management for most women in Kadoma district in Zimbabwe are impeded by family responsibilities, especially those involving marriage, childcare and household activities. The perception of women as bearers and rearers of children persists. In an attempt to balance their lives between family and career, the majority of women may hesitate to seek promotion. They may opt for a single state, childlessness, a 'balancing'

career strategy or working harder and longer than competitors, male or female. The continued existence of gender related stereotypes and issues relating to domestic responsibilities continue to make it difficult for women to attain positions in educational management.

Women are also perceived to lack self-confidence and self esteem. The internalised views of the incompatibility of leadership roles with femininity indicate that women in Kadoma district are operating in a context, which is inimical to women succeeding in educational management unless they are prepared to adapt to the prevailing values. This perceived lack of confidence could result from lack of public exposure and the absence of a supportive and encouraging environment to develop female leadership qualities. This could further be explained in terms of the need for females to conform to sex role stereotypes as a result of collective self-esteem.



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Evidence from the survey indicates the pervasiveness of the perception that women lack firmness and assertiveness. This perception tends to celebrate male attributes as the norm, viewing females as lacking in leadership qualities. There is therefore a problem of the non-acceptance of women leadership as women are regarded as not suited to the 'competitive' thinking and work ethic of educational management

The major organisational barrier to women advancement is the perception that women do not generally develop a career plan. This perception is closely aligned to and interacts with the issue of family responsibilities. Underlying this is gender role stereotyping. This

social process, which attributes particular behaviours, attitudes, values and beliefs to one sex rather than the other, is largely believed to be responsible for the gender imbalance in educational management. Because any moves towards female leadership challenge the foundations of our traditional male-dominated society, it is inevitable that they will meet with resistance, and since females are an integral part of that society, the resistance may come from within themselves as well as from others. For these reasons, it is likely that changes will be slow and progress to gender equity uneven.



The findings of the present study support recent pessimistic literature on the limited effects of equal opportunity based policies. This suggests that unless equal opportunity is enforced, and is accompanied on the one hand by programmes to bring about attitudinal change in men and women, and on the other hand by a willingness to modify the system so that the female perspective is valued equally with that of the male, then any real change in the circumstances of females is unlikely to occur.

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5.4 Recommendations

- 5.4.1. More research is needed to investigate how those women head teachers who have achieved against the odds structure their lives and reconcile the conflicting demands of their social lives and careers.
- 5.4.2 Human resource development and training are two ways in which the Ministry of Education and Culture can positively impact on the position of women. Training is essential as a means of equipping women with the knowledge, skills, techniques, attitudes and experiences to prepare them to carry out their present

jobs satisfactorily and to assume greater responsibility. In addition, programmes should be developed to assist all employees, in particular women, in overcoming obstacles to their entry and development in employment.

5.4.3 Educational management development training programme which contributes to the advancement of women through greater commitment to a programme of action aimed at providing training opportunities to women to meet their skills as well as enhance their career opportunities.

5.4.4 Establishment of a Teaching Service Commission (TSC) established by a statute of parliament, a body responsible for the selection, interviewing and appointment of officers deemed suitable to head educational institutions. Selection boards or committees should be gender balanced and the questions asked should be gender sensitive and should not prejudice candidates on the basis of sex or status.



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5.4.5 Special affirmative action for advancement of women into educational management positions based on statutory provisions for promotion of equity at government level, with necessary implementation and control measures is needed. While the policy on promotions and advancement is to give priority to merit and performance, in order to promote gender equity, all things being equal (i.e. qualification, experience, and performance), where a female candidate competes with a male candidate, preference should be given to the female candidate.

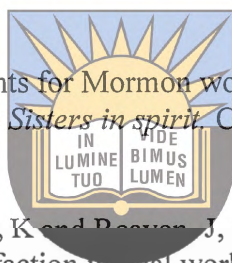
5.4.3 Ministries/Departmental training units should serve as gender information centres and focal points. All gender focal points/training units should undergo training programmes to enhance their understanding of gender issues and also cascade to other human resource practitioners, policy makers and workers.

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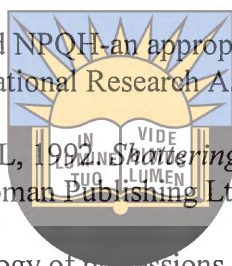
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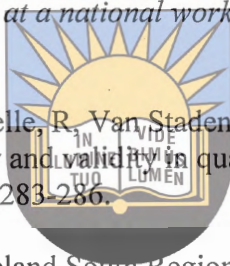
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APPENDICES
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APPENDIX A

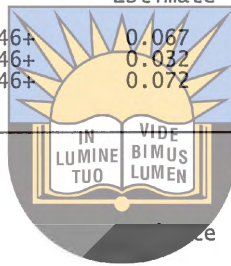
APPLICATION FOR PROMOTION: 95% CONFIDENCE INTERVALS OF ODDS RATIOS

<i>SEX</i>				
	Effect	Estimate	Confidence	Limits
	Male vs Female	2.778	1.445	5.339

<i>AGE</i>				
MALES				
	Effect	Estimate	Confidence	Limits
	18-26 vs 46+	0.222	0.012	3.979
	27-35 vs 46+	0.400	0.058	2.748
	36-45 vs 46+	1.455	0.212	9.984
FEMALES				
	Effect	Estimate	Confidence	Limits
	18-26 vs 46+	0.067	0.005	0.970
	27-35 vs 46+	0.032	0.003	0.319
	36-45 vs 46+	0.072	0.008	0.683

<i>EXPERIENCE</i>				
MALES				
	Effect	Estimate	Confidence	Limits
	1-5 vs 16+	0.082	0.012	0.559
	6-10 vs 16+	0.077	0.038	0.530
	11-15 vs 16+	0.165	0.038	1.787
FEMALES				
	Effect	Estimate	Confidence	Limits
	1-5 vs 16+	0.149	0.026	0.852
	6-10 vs 16+	0.061	0.011	0.327
	11-15 vs 16+	0.566	0.167	1.926

<i>NUMBER OF CHILDREN</i>				
MALES				
	Effect	Estimate	Confidence	Limits
	child 1 vs 4	0.179	0.036	0.887
	child 2 vs 4	0.385	0.113	1.310
	child 3 vs 4	1.256	0.334	4.733
FEMALES				
	Effect	Estimate	Confidence	Limits
	child 1 vs 4	0.313	0.077	1.271
	child 2 vs 4	0.227	0.057	0.903
	child 3 vs 4	0.429	0.109	1.685



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APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a Master of Education Student at the University of Fort Hare in South Africa and I am carrying out a study to identify Factors affecting Gender Equity in secondary school management in Kadoma District, Zimbabwe

I kindly request you to spare a few minutes to respond to the questions below. Your co-operation in this exercise is greatly appreciated. Please do not include your name. Your responses will be held in strict confidence and will be used for this study only.



SECTION A: PERSONAL DETAILS

Please tick the most suitable response

1. Are you male or female?

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Male	Female
1	2

2. What is your age?

18-26	27-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	Over 65
1	2	3	4	5	6

3. What is your marital status?

Single	Married	Divorced	Separated	Widowed
1	2	3	4	5

4. How many children of your own do you have?

1 – 2 children	3 – 4 children	5 or more children
1	2	3

5. What is your highest academic qualification?

"O" Level	"A" Level	Degree	Other (Specify)
1	2	3	4

6. What is your highest professional qualification?

CE/Dip Ed	B.Ed	B. Degree	B. Deg+Grad	M.Ed	Masters	Other (Specify)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. For how long have you been teaching?

1-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21-25 years	Over 25 years
1	2	3	4	5	6

8. What is your professional status?


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Senior Teacher	School Head
1	2

9. Have you ever applied for a promotional position in school management?

YES	NO
1	2

9.1. If your response to item 9 above is No, Why have you not applied for promotion?

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SECTION B

In completing each item in this section, carefully read each statement and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by ticking the appropriate column.

Key:

1. SA Strongly Agree

2. A Agree

3. Disagree

4. Strongly Disagree



		1	2	3	4
		SA	A	D	SD
10.	Most women do not aspire for management positions in education.				
11.	Most women in management are not married.				
12.	Female teachers mostly assume roles such as in charge of tea or guests.				
13.	Most women lack the firmness and assertiveness, essential for effective school management.				
14.	Career breaks by women (such as maternity breaks) adversely affect women's advancement to management positions.				
15.	Childcare is a hindrance to women's advancement to management.				
16.	Women do not support and encourage each other to apply for promotion.				
17.	Affirmative action helps women in advancing their careers.				
18.	Women prefer teaching to management positions.				
19.	Women do not apply for management posts because they have a lower self-esteem than men.				
20.	Lack of confidence impinges upon women's advancement to management positions.				
21.	Most women do not advance to management due to lack of career path planning.				
22.	Lack of support and positive reinforcement from peers affect women advancement to management positions.				

		SA	A	D	SD
23.	Exclusion from “old boy networks” that recruits and place candidates to management positions affects women’s advancement.				
24.	Mentoring plays no significant role in women’s career advancement.				
25.	Most women lack self-confidence/motivation to apply for promotion.				
26.	Women do not plan their career paths.				
27.	In this society religious teaching subordinates women affecting their career advancement to management.				
28.	Most women are not interested in becoming managers as they are more fitted to the role of teacher.				
29.	Family and home responsibilities affect women advancement to management.				
30.	For most women a professional career in management depends on the grace and favour of the spouse.				
31.	Domestic and childcare responsibilities affect women advancement in education.				
32.	Women with young children would not take up a promotion post when the children are old.				
33.	Women without child responsibilities are more likely to take up a promotion post.				
34.	Families/spouses can object to women taking up a promotion post which take them away from the home				
35.	The promotions committee at Regional Office is mainly composed of men.				
36.	Female teachers are not given equal opportunities with men to prepare them for future management roles.				
37.	Most women are content with just being classroom practitioners.				
38.	Women are denied promotion because culture had consigns them to the domestic sphere.				
39.	Promotion procedures like short-listing, interviewing and selection favours males and hence affects the promotion of females.				

SECTION C:

This section is designed to give you the opportunity to express yourself freely on issues pertaining to Gender Equity in educational management. Please kindly respond by writing your responses in the spaces provided.

41. List what you consider to be the most important barriers to women advancement in education?

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42. Are there other barriers/factors, which you still think contribute significantly as barriers to women advancement?

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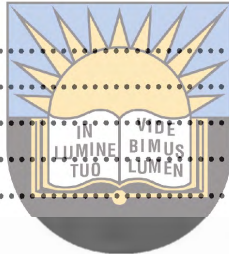
43. In your opinion what should be done to effectively remove barriers to women's career advancement?

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5. Men unlike women are said to plan their career paths. What have been your observations?

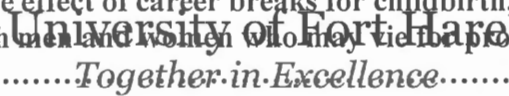
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6. What is the situation in your school/s with regard to the availability of mentorship and support for women aspiring for management?



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7. What could be the effect of career breaks for childbirth, study leave and childcare for both men and women who may vie for promotion?



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8. In your opinion what is the effect of family responsibilities, involving marriage, childcare and household activities to women's career advancement?

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9. Do you see the recruitment procedures, such as short listing, interviewing and selection as fair in terms of gender equity? Explain your view.

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10. Can women have men as role models and men women as role models? Explain your view.

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11. What have been your observations with regard to community perceptions of women as school heads and school managers?

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12. What do you consider to be the most important barriers to women advancement in education?

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13. One view sees women as unsuitable for effective school management because they lack assertiveness and firmness. What do you think?

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14. It is often said that women do not plan their careers. What is your comment?

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All communications should be addressed to
"The Secretary for Education Sport and Culture"
Telephone: 734051/59 and 734071
Telegraphic address : "EDUCATION"
Fax: 794505



Ref: C/426/3

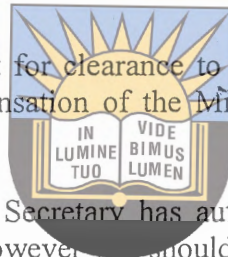
Ministry of Education Sport
and Culture
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
Zimbabwe

22 January 2001

Dear Mr. M. Mudzamba

Re: APPLICATION FOR CLEARANCE TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH STUDY IN KADOMA SECONDARY SCHOOLS: TITLED: GENDER EQUITY IN SECONDARY SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN KADOMA DISTRICT IN ZIMBABWE

I am making reference to your request for clearance to carry out research work in the above named districts under the dispensation of the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture.



Please be advised that the Permanent Secretary has authorised you to carry out your research subject as per your request. However, you should approach the school head with this clearance letter first before you can undertake any activities within the school environment.

University of Fort Hare
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The Ministry through the Permanent Secretary's office would appreciate a copy of the finished report as the topic has a bearing on our core business in the Ministry. It is in the best interest of the Ministry to have exposure to current research work for reference and information gathering.

Wishing you the best in your academic career.

N. Matare
Ms. N. Matare
Public Relations and Communication Officer

PERMANENT SECRETARY
MIN. OF EDUCATION, SPORT
AND CULTURE
22 JAN 2001
P.O. BOX CY 121, CAUSEWAY
ZIMBABWE

for: - PERMANENT SECRETARY FOR EDUCATION, SPORT AND CULTURE