



**WOMEN UNDER-REPRESENTATION IN SENIOR MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN
INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING IN SOUTH AFRICA: CASE STUDY OF
EASTERN CAPE UNIVERSITIES.**

BY

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ABSTRACT

It is commonly thought that men and women differ in the extent or frequency with which each exhibit certain traits- especially traits that are frequently perceived to be of managerial relevance (for example their social role, their organisational role and their cultural role). This leads to influence behaviour of men and women both in the workplace, with many real world consequences, not least of which are those often manifested in the differential treatment of men and women in management positions. Due to such various factors women are under-represented in management positions and remain in lower echelons positions despite the increasing enrolment of female students in tertiary institutions of education and government interventions (for instance, affirmative action policies, employment equity policies and gender equity policies).

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The study investigates factors and related decisions that influence the career dynamics of females in senior management positions. The research involved the collection of detailed career, personal and structural perceptions of 102 (female and male) senior managers. The data was used to establish the disparity between women's organisational and occupational mobility patterns. It was found that women face problems in senior positions, where pressures created by a demanding work environment are compounded by organisational barriers that result from the fact that institutions of higher learning so structure the behaviour of the workforce that women limit their performance because they are locked into lower positions of influence and hamstring by family demands. The findings suggest that it is essential to change ingrained attitudes and operating practices in higher education management to encourage more female participation. The quality issue must be addressed by the institutions of higher learning and to develop a skilled workforce that taps the talent of all regardless of gender.

DECLARATION

I declare that **“WOMEN UNDER-REPRESENTATION IN SENIOR MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING IN THE EASTERN CAPE OF SOUTH AFRICA”** 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.



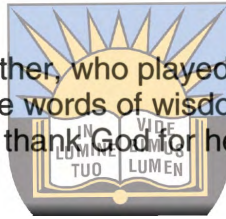
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November 2007

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- My only beloved son, whom I have left at home since he was only 6 months.
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-iv-

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this piece of work to my only beloved son Kamohelo.



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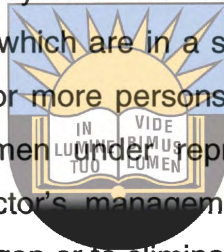
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CHAPTER 1

STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

One of the major challenges in education in general and higher education in particular in the new democracy is the issue of women under-representation in senior management positions. Higher education comprises a cooperative system that is complex. This cooperative system involves complex physical, biological, personal, and social components which are in a specific systematic relationship by reason of cooperation of two or more persons towards at least one definite end (Barnard, 1965). Thus women under-representation have persistently dogged the higher education sector's management. The challenge of higher education is to narrow the gender gap or to eliminate it.



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It is well at this point to distinguish the concepts of “gender”, “sex” and “women under-representation”. Gender and sex are sometime used interchangeably though they are quite different in meaning and denotation. Gender denotes those characteristics, attributes, behaviors, and activities considered to be appropriate for men and women. Sex has to do with the biological differences between men and women (Morrison 1992:24).

Women under-representation on the other hand , is generally thought to be due to women being emotional , dependent and less assertive than their male counterparts who are perceived to be independent , assertive and rational (Morrison ,1992:24) . In this study, women unrepresented is characterized as “unequal access to opportunities for professional and career advancement, equal representation in high level and administrative positions as well as equal access to information and promotion opportunities for both men and women”.

Therefore a critical look at factors that curb participation and access in the professional advancement of women in higher education, particularly with regard to their under representation in academic and administrative positions is needed in an attempt to achieve the following objectives: to investigate the psycho-social attributes (personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women)and such factors as curb the participation of women in senior management positions in institutes of higher learning. Structural factors (disadvantageous position of women in the organizational structure (few in numbers, restricted power, limited access to resources) that hinders women's access to senior management positions in institutes of higher learning as well as Cultural (social role) factors that which women's participation in senior management positions need to be investigated and current employment policy in relation to gender stereotype/ discrimination in South Africa needs to be evaluated.



Thus a single given underpins this study, that women are currently under-represented in senior management positions across the higher education sector. This study will review previous work in the area of women under-representation. This study will present an overview of the topic of the study, a brief discussion on the theoretical framework that is to guide the investigation, and the methodology used for this study. The study ends by discussing the delimitation of the investigation.

1.2 Background of the research problem

Women are under- represented in senior management positions in South African higher education institution, and tend to be clustered in the lower echelons (Moultrie, Alison, De la Rey, Cheryl, 2003). Humm (1996) agrees that women in tertiary institutions tend to be under-represented in the high status and leadership positions, both in faculty and in administration, and that they tend to be found in the lower ranks mainly. This is despite the increasing enrolment of female students in tertiary level. This study follows a structural-functionalist approach.

Scientific method suggests that one can study the social world in the same way as one does the physical world. Functionalists see the social world as "objectively real," as observable through techniques such as social surveys and interviews (Merton, 1968).

A structural-functionalist holds that cooperate systems are organizations where men and women work and interact as individual wholes in relation to a formal system of coordination (Zaleznick, 1965:24). Zaleznick (1965:24) observes that the concrete structure is the resultant of the reciprocal influences of the formal and informal aspects of organizations. Furthermore, this structure is itself a totality, adaptive "organism" reacting to influences from the external environment (Zaleznick, 1965:24).



Within the external environment affecting the institutions of higher learning is the government with its intervention strategies, such as introducing employment, affirmative action, and gender equity policies for organizations so as to make sure that previously disadvantaged groups such as women should also be included in the top decision making levels of institutions of higher learning, this is meant to maintain social equilibrium, through the socialization of members of society into the basic values and norms of that society, so that consensus is reached. Accordingly the needs of women in a society equate with those of men in maintaining equilibrium bringing about harmonious the societal relationships.

Levels of education and career expectations of woman have increased greatly in South Africa during recent decades and, as a result, the differences between men and women in this respect have decreased. Nevertheless, most institutions of higher learning in South African are still characterized by more or less sharply demarcated gender-specific segregation (Rudolph, 2004). Theories offering an explanation for this form of social inequity may be divided into two categories: Structural/ action/oriented theories.

1.2.1 Structurally-oriented theories

These theories emphasize how formal and positional characteristics of organizations act as filtering mechanisms for certain careers and or areas of work and positions. For women, this tends to mean that jobs and careers are categorized both within the organization and between organizations (Achatz/Fuchs/van Stebut/Wimbauer, 2002). Gender stereotyping in society has important consequences for both recruitment and career development.

Acker (1990) indicates that the concept of gendered organizations starts from the premise that the binary division of gender (males vs. females) is a constitutive element of every organization. A gendered substructure working at a level that tends to be hidden behind the supposedly gender-neutral official structures functions according to norms and rules based on male life patterns. However, more recent studies concerning the relation between organizations and gender highlight the need for a differentiated, context-sensitive and contingent approach (Heintz/Nadai 1998), (Rudolph/Théobald/Quack 2001).

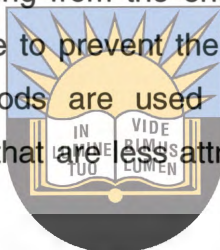
1.2.2 Actor-oriented theories

This theory comprises a wide range of concepts, including the human capital approach (Becker 1985). These concepts have in common a tendency to ascribe the segregation of women to female characteristics or behavior: women have too little or the wrong kind of human capital, their socialization makes them unsuited to the demands of the labour market and/or their capacity for caring work “predestines” them to domestic tasks, thus limiting their availability for other types of work.

A second group of action-oriented theories sees employing organizations as systems of social relations and focuses on actors, groups and interactions (Achatz et al 2002: 208) Assignment according to gender has particular

significance in categorization processes and usually functions as the preferred basis for stereotypical evaluations. In the course of such processes and evaluations, it is usually women who end up in social categories perceived as being lower than those in which men find themselves.

Professionalisation processes can be particularly relevant for the gendering of career positioning. Abbott (1988) characterizes these processes as the competition for jurisdiction. A profession constitutes a group privileged by its monopoly of a “market”. Its members try to protect their social status against what is seen as a devaluation arising from the entry of “inferior” social groups such as women. If it is not possible to prevent their entry entirely, e.g. through legal measures, then other methods are used such as marginalization of “newcomers” in jobs and positions that are less attractive in terms of tasks, pay and/or influence.



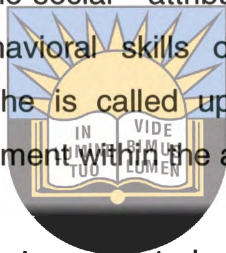
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When it seemed that education could advance the goals of society, women were welcomed as a “cheap labour force” by which to institutions of higher learning (Curcio, Morsink, & Bridges, 1989). From the time women entered the education workforce, they have been viewed as maternal careers who nurture and care and help and support. So it is in schools. The man will run the schools and the women will nurture the learners (Shakeshaft, 1989).

However, women have gained significantly greater access to an increased participation in higher education. More women are enrolled for undergraduate programmes, and for postgraduate studies, and more of them take up employment in higher education institutions (Jasbir, 1999). Yet in all countries, almost without exception, women occupy the lower levels of the institutions. In most countries, a small proportion of women are also beginning to reach top management positions in higher education institutions in the form of vice-chancellors, deputy vice-chancellors, deans and heads of departments. While the numbers are still small, they form a highly visible and influential group who may

help change the organisational climate and structures of higher education to enable more women to play their rightful role in academia (Jasbir, 1999).

There are contributing factors which disable women from participating in management positions in institutions of higher learning. For the purpose of this study these factors will be mentioned briefly in this chapter, and they will be discussed in depth in chapter two of this study. Jasbir (1999) shows that there are three factors which explain the continuing dearth of women in senior administrative positions. In the psycho-social attributes perspective the paucity of women is attributed to psycho-social attributes, including personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women themselves. The problem is the individual's and she is called upon to adapt herself to the traditional, male concept of management within the academy.



An alternative perspective, the structure-oriented paradigm, advances the view that it is the disadvantageous position of women in the organizational structure (few in numbers, little power, limited access to resources) which shapes and defines the behavior of women. The problem lies in the structure and the remedy is a fundamental change to eliminate inappropriate discrimination in institutional policies and practices. A third perspective explores the culture-centered approach according to which gender-based social roles, irrelevant to the workplace, are carried into the workplace.

Thus the South African's disproportionate number of women in academic and executive leadership positions is set to change through various institutions including "Women in Higher Education Executive Leadership (WHEEL)" (Mlisa 1999). The programmes established to redress the disparities of the past involves increasing the cadres of women able to move into senior executive positions. Recent mergers in South African higher education have reduced, rather than increased, the number of women leaders. Only one Vice Chancellor is a woman. This deficit and other trends prompted a consortium of sponsors,

including *Higher Education South Africa (HESA)*, the *United States Agency for International Development (USAID)* and the *United Negro College Fund (UNCF)* to structure special executive women leadership training programs (Mlisa 1999) .

To enable the leadership programmes, the government of South Africa, since 1995, has provided an enabling legislative environment. In terms of gender equality and women's educational development ,each of the nine provincial departments has a gender forum, tasked with the challenge of addressing gender discrimination and latent problems that perpetuate discrepancies between males and females participation in educational management. At national level, the Further Education and Training (FET) Act was passed in 1998 (Nerishni, 1999).

Although the main premise for this Act was not to address the gender inequality within education, the Act does address women's educational inequality. It creates a ladder or an in-between affordable education opportunity; enabling the millions of young unemployed youth (mainly black youth and the majority women) to enroll at tertiary institutions acquire relevant skills. For the purpose the government set out to integrate the Department of Education, Trade and Industry and Labour (Nerishni, 1999).

The Department of Trade and Industry has a separate gender unit which is mandated to implement gender capacity building programmes that specifically target women (especially rural women) and business skills. Gender desks will also be established nationally and in marginalized communities. The department of Labour has ratified The Labour Relations Act which has two key prongs directly related to training, generally in corporations: The Skills Development Act (incorporating the South African Qualifications Authority, National Qualifications Framework and the 1% training levy) and the Employment Equity Act (which indicates that companies should indicate the efforts such as training. South Africa is perhaps in a unique position in that public policies are progressive and women's emancipation has been highlighted as key national priority for the

reconstruction and transformation period. However, women's education lags, job segregation, gender income differentials, and high unemployment still prevail and, in fact, on the increase (Nerishni, 1999).

Eggs (1997) is of the opinion that in various countries, notably the United States, Australia and the United Kingdom, professional development programmes for women leaders have been used as a strategic tool towards reversing this trend. This global pattern is also allowed in South Africa where women are still largely excluded from major decisions at tertiary institutions, as they are under-represented at the level of tertiary management and decision-making level.



Prior to 1994, the legal codes of South Africa categorized human beings as Africans, colored, Indians or whites. In addition to the laws that governed the lives of women and men, apartheid acted to curb the participation of women particularly black women in various aspects of life (Eggs, 1997). Moultrie *et al*, (2003) show that in the post-apartheid era, higher education policy in South Africa has been informed by simultaneous pressures to redress the injustices of past discriminatory policies while introducing a framework based on greater accountability and efficiency.

In the post apartheid era, women's higher education levels is more conducive than before to focusing on strategies by which to advance women to higher positions in higher education. There have been recent changes in legislation such as the introduction of the employment equity and gender equity policies, which are meant to ensure that gender issues receive more attention than before. Nevertheless, in general women still remain under-represented in senior management positions in higher education institutions.

1.3 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the Psycho-social, Structural, and Cultural factors that curb the participation and access of women in senior management positions in institutions of higher learning, and to assess the current employment policy in relation to gender stereotypical discrimination in South Africa, by way of a case study of the Eastern Cape Province during the last decade of democracy.

1.4 The Objectives of the study

The objectives of this study are to, investigate;



- Psycho-social attributes (personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women themselves) factors that curb the participation of women in senior management positions in institutions of higher learning.
- Structural factors (disadvantageous position of women in the organizational structure (few in numbers, little power, limited access to resources) that hinders women's access to senior management positions in institutions of higher learning.
- Cultural (social roles) factors that preclude and abstract women's participation in the senior management positions and assess the current employment policy in relation to gender stereotype/ discrimination in South Africa

1.5 Statement of the problem

The core research question is:

What psycho-social, Structural, and Cultural factors affect and curb women's participation in and access to senior management positions in institutions of higher learning in the Eastern Cape?

1.6 Critical assessment questions

To investigate the factors affecting access and participation of women in management positions the following critical questions guided this study:

1. What key variables affect application for advancement to management positions in institutions of higher learning?
2. What psycho-social and personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women themselves cause them to remain in lower-level positions in institutions of higher learning?
3. What Structural factors, that is, what constraints within the organizational processes affect women's advancement to management positions in institutes of higher learning?
4. What cultural factors, social roles, norms and beliefs embedded in our socio-cultural system affect women's advancement to management positions in institutions of higher learning?



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1.7 Rationale for the investigation

Institutions of higher education resemble the labor market generally. The workforce is strongly gender segmented, horizontally and vertically. As with other large employment organizations, women are found in a narrow range of low-level jobs in institutions of higher learning. Women under-representation is mistaken in higher education in South Africa, with men's activities, privileges and responsibilities being more highly valued than women's. There is considerable historical and contemporary evidence that women are under-represented in the upper echelons of the academic and managerial hierarchies of the universities

and are found mainly in low positions, and in part-time, or temporary posts (Jackson, 1990).

For those women who have been successful, there is still a disadvantage in the form of pay differential (AUT, 2004). At the center of all commentary on perceived or invisible barriers to women's progress to academic and administrative posts; there is the need for appropriate equal opportunities policies. Such policies are associated with strategies to improve the position of disadvantaged groups, including women. Disadvantage in democracy (which informs anti-discrimination legislation) is taken to mean unintended but considerable consequences of outdated procedures and policies. This is problematic for strategies and denies women's differences, since the goal is to emulate normative male values.



There is also a danger that formal procedures generate a sense of complacency. Their existence reinforces the notion that current processes and practices are fair and efficient. Equal opportunities policies inevitably focus on the primacy of individual merit being and its recognition, yet the question of individual merit is fraught with difficulty. Williams (1989) carried out a review of equal opportunities policies in higher education in the late 1980's. Various inequities were examined including women under-representation and other gender issues.

They considered that women under-representation did exist and that equal opportunities was a problematic concept for higher education staff, which held as unassailable the liberal assumptions about the fairness of their institution's structures and practices. Williams concluded that it reflects a lack of understanding of progress even now. This study seeks to bring a greater awareness of the constraints faced by women in advancing to management positions, and increase the urgency for further research on this issue, to the end that intervention strategies and heightened awareness about women under-representation will contribute to its reduction.

1.8 Delimitation of the study

This study focuses on women and men currently holding top administrative and academic positions and on faculty managers in the institutions of higher learning in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. It is understood that academic and administrative staff members perform different function in these institutions. The study zeroes in on just two Universities in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. It is hence that a representative sample of Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University and the University of Fort Hare was drawn. The study targeted a random sample of 51 academic senior positions (including Professors, associate professors, senior lectures and lectures – both male and female), and 51 administrative positions, including Faculty managers, Vice Chancellors, Deputy Vice Chancellors, Registrars, Chief Human Resource Officers, General Managers, Chief Librarians, and other top administrative staff. The randomly selected administrators and academics responded to questionnaires and interviews that solicited responses in terms of their attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of psycho-social, structural or organizational and cultural factors affecting the representation of women in the top echelons in institutions of higher learning.

1.9 Limitations of the investigation

The researcher acknowledges the presence of limiting factors. Firstly, there are very few women in senior management positions in the institutions of higher learning, more women are found in positions that lack power and influence and were not the target of this study. This resulted in a sample consuming of more male than female respondents.

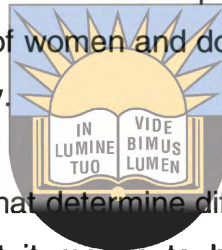
Another limiting factor is that the study was initially to focus on four universities in the Eastern Cape, namely, the University of Fort Hare, the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Rhodes University and Walter Sisulu University.

However the researcher was only granted permission to proceed with the research in two universities (Fort Hare and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan). Also research was conducted in English and not in the languages of other race groups which may have restricted the feedback from some respondents to an extent.

1.10 Definition of key concepts

The following key terms has been defined in the context of this study:

Women under-representation: Denotes that employers do not strive to achieve fair results in hiring and promoting of women and do not offer equal opportunities for women who have skill and ability.



Social factors: These are factors that determine differences between males and females in their ideas about what it means to be high or low in the social hierarchy. The most basic distinction between these two groups is between that which power (men) and that which does not have power (women).

Structural factors: Refers to the ownership or managerial role that largely characterizes the socio-economic features of the organization. Within the context of this study, it refers to the role of the organization in causing and maintaining women Under-representation.

Cultural factors: These are factors that emphasize shared cognitive approaches to reality that distinguish one group from the other. In the context of this study it reflects a collective programming of the mind which distinguishes women from men.

Stereotyping: Refers to simplified and fixed images of all members of a culture or group (based on race, religion, ethnicity, age, gender, national origins). In the form of male domination, stereotypes suggest that all women are the same,

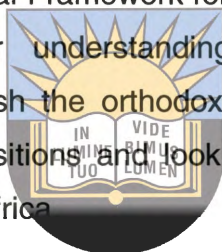
when in fact, they are quite different. This dehumanizes women and places them in a simple category.

1.11 Organization of the dissertation

The dissertation has been organized in the following manner:

Chapter 2

Chapter two defines the history of women managers, women and gender in South Africa. It provides a theoretical Framework for the study of women, women in educational management, for understanding gender stereotypes and leadership styles: and so establish the orthodox view. It also discusses the constraints women face in top positions and look at legislation on gender for women in the workplace in South Africa



Chapter 3

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This chapter discusses locus of control and how it impacts on women differences in organizational behavior and reveals the effects of locus of control in the workplace in the consideration of women in management positions.

Chapter 4

Chapter four discusses the marginalization of women in decision making and leadership positions, and highlights some of the reasons why women are still under-represented.

Chapter 5

Chapter five deals with international perspectives concerning women in higher education management.

Chapter 6

Chapter six outlines 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.

Chapter 7

Chapter seven presents the data, and analyzes and interprets it.

Chapter 8

Chapter eight presents a summary, conclusion concerning social, cultural and structural factors affecting women under-representation in institutions of higher learning and some recommendations based on the research findings.



1.12 Summary

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In 2004, South Africa celebrated 10 years of freedom. South African women have come a long way and yet the battle for women empowerment still rages on. Women have not yet fully achieved equal status. In fact, the struggle for women leadership has intensified in a sense that nowadays-influential positions are also associated with sensitive perks and career patching, which means women are more than ever seen as a threat in relation to the occupation of these positions.

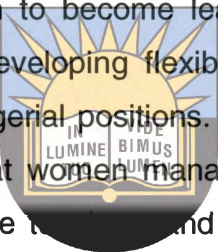
Women are faced with challenges when they have to apply for or be placed in institutions of higher learning management. This study seeks find out why the number of female managers is less than of male colleagues.

CHAPTER 2

PERSPECTIVES OF WOMEN IN ORGANISATION

2.1 Women Leaders in History

The history of women in management reflects the culture of competition and paternalism which assumes that women bring only weakness to their own positions. Women managers in traditional male organisations learn the good old boy rule, but rely on their strength to become leaders. Taking risks, curbing maternal over-responsibility, and developing flexibility and confidence prevent derailment on the way to top managerial positions. Walker (1999) indicates that forty years ago, the only things that women managed outside the home were children and sick people. They were teachers and nurses, or they were clerks and secretaries who had only difficult customers and pushy bosses to wrangle with (Walker, 1999).



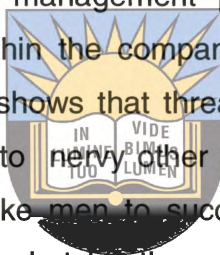
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As important and difficult as this work is, it was not considered real work by the men who held the keys to virtually every leadership position in private and public sector organisations. In all work groups of that era, especially in heavy manufacturing, shop worn myths about effective leadership and male entitlement to positions of authority kept a lot of good women down, and still does so in some industries. In companies where traditional male leaders do not see the advantages of women, then how will women move into positions of influence and how can they stay there?

What are the pitfalls of women's management ways and what can they do to increase their influence in organisations and society? Long ago, when men hunted and gathered away from the safety of the home, they faced danger, were cut off from the support of others and had to make quick decisions about the physical world. In this environment, the military model of leadership made perfect

sense (Helgesen, 1990). Having no time to reflect on the Zen of the hunt, men grew accustomed biologically and culturally to acting in goal-directed ways, staying on one path, not considering options, and avoiding intimate connections or feelings of any kind.

Walker (1999) is of the opinion that, in the 50's and 60's, the organisation man acted similarly. He (man) preferred defined job roles that involve a narrow set of skills, interacted with others only for utilitarian reasons, and totally involved the separation of his personal life from what he did on the job. When, in this era women were first promoted into management positions, they received no welcome from above or below within the company and no support from any segment of society. Walker(1999) shows that threatening established ways at work and puzzle constituting other to ~~nerve~~ other segments of society, the first female managers learned to act like men to succeed and they were tolerate alienated from the healthier emotional styles they used so successfully at home (Walker, 1999).



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However during the early 70's when knowledge and services replaced manufactured products as the dominant commodity and when Americans withdrew their blind allegiance to higher authority, an organisational and cultural upheaval took place which changed the definition of good leadership. More significantly, the definition of organisational success changed too because the workforce of the 70's had a fragile capacity for loyalty, demanded more control over their work, and expected more collaborative relationships with its leaders. Traditional hierarchical leadership methods no longer suited these workers nor did they fit the way modern information age companies now worked. Griggs (2003) says that this social landscape required males in traditional male organisations to identify managerial talent in less rigid ways and to allow a more diverse array of skills to be considered.

Today, in sectors such as publishing and educational services, the achievements of talented female executives are well known and not limited by archaic notions of how a good manager is supposed to think or act. Rather, in industries, men accustomed to the traditional military management style, the hierarchy of command and control, have had trouble appreciating the flexible leadership style women have used for eons to organise their home and children. Helgensen (1990) indicates that women are better at seeing the human side, quicker to cut through competitive distinctions of hierarchy and ranking and are impatient with cumbersome protocols. Thus listening, connecting, and allowing time for personal development makes women's organisations more responsive to the human soul. By integrating private and public concerns at work, female leaders bring a touch of home and sanity to the workplace (Walker, 1999).



2.2 Women and gender in South Africa

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The term "gender" does not refer to woman or to man, but has to do with the roles and attributes which society has ascribed to maleness or to masculinity and femaleness or femininity. Although this research tends to focus mainly on those roles and attributes associated with "femaleness", it is not to suggest, that gender is synonymous with woman (or femaleness). At this point, it might be helpful to distinguish the concepts "gender male or female", "sex" and "stereotype". "Gender" and "sex" are sometimes used interchangeably though they are quite different in meaning and denotation.

"Gender" denotes those characteristics, attributes, behaviours and activities considered by societies to be appropriate for men and women respectively. "Sex" has to do with the biological differences between men and women, their being male or female. A "stereotype" as defined by Morrison (1992:24), is a relatively rigid oversimplified conception of a group of people in which all individuals in the group are labelled by the so called group characteristics. Gender stereotyping concerns both men and women. For example, women are generally thought to

be emotional, dependent and less assertive than their male counterparts who are perceived as naturally destined for professional and career advancement, suited for high level academic and administrative positions such ideas are stereotypes of women and men both.

Morrison (1992) argues that gender is associated with several possible barriers to women` advancement. Many of these are subtle, and are believed to emanate from cultural backgrounds, beliefs and primary socialisation patterns also from within organisations and institutions and from the women themselves. In short there are extrinsic and intrinsic factors which act as barriers to women`s advancement. The extrinsic factors include, organisational structure, the individual`s position in the organisational setting, the amount of power they have in their job, and the numerical distribution of women in these positions (Morrison, 1992).



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One of the main cultural barriers is that traditional views of what constitute leadership are male-oriented. Men are traditionally believed to be leaders, women, and followers. The intrinsic factors include early childhood socialisation patterns where women are traditionally socialised to be feminine that is, submissive, compliant, affectionate, tender, and soft-spoken and so forth. In other words, they are expected to display expressive rather than instrumental characteristics, and this may limit their chances for advancement into positions in which instrumental characteristics are perceived as the norm. Promotable people are believed to be aggressive, forceful, rational, competitive, self confident, independent and strong. Other factors emanating from women themselves include poor self-concept. Women tend to unwittingly undermine their own efforts at work.

Many lack the self-esteem, confidence and competitiveness which seem to facilitate men`s advancement in their careers. Moreover, research reveals that women either decide late to pursue careers (hence they initially choose jobs or

positions with no room for advancement) or they simply perceive their jobs as a stable position without career context. Women are more likely than men to experience conflicts due to attempts to balance career and family tasks, and even those women who have succeeded in breaking the class ceiling still find themselves faced with the conflict of being women (female) and being expected to function in a traditionally male-oriented and male-bound and defined position of leader. They are forced to enact both the role of women and the organisational role of leader (Brody, 1985). Can women circumvent the barriers hampering their advancement? What can institutions do to minimise the invisibility of women in top level academic and administrative positions?



The democratic election of 1994 won by African National Congress in South Africa signalled the end of the apartheid era. Under apartheid, forced segregation had resulted in a disparity between the economic and social growth of the predominantly white urban areas and the independent black homelands. Unfortunately, the new democratic government could not instantly correct these inequalities deriving from years of control and oppression, but the end of apartheid did bring the promise of access to educational facilities previously denied to large sectors of the population. In 1994, the Ministry of Education embarked on a single national system of education in South Africa.

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The policy of Affirmative Action and the Reconstruction and Development programme implemented soon after to empower people through education reinforced the ability of those previously disadvantaged due to race, gender, and disability to be allowed greater chances of attending tertiary institutions. The ANC also established a National Commission on Higher education and an interim Assistance Group with the purpose of transforming and improving the tertiary education system (Brody, 1985:1).

The Feminist theorist tends to agree that women under-representation is a social construct. It is not specifically biological in nature; rather it is based on social

relationships. Brody (1985:20) identifies gender as belonging to behaviour, attitudes and presentation of self. Since this definition is largely determined by society, the understanding of this concept will vary from one state to another and may even alter slightly over time. One factor however, remains fairly constant, that of female subordination (Griggs 2003:4). Women tend to gain less access to educational institutions due to a combination of factors such as, male prejudice, confinement to the domestic sphere, and limited financial resources.

Male prejudice is a major obstacle to women furthering their education. From an early age, females are coerced into believing that the male is the bread winner and the provider for the household, while the females are the caregivers and the supporters. Due to this belief system, many females at schools are not actively encouraged to continue in science and mathematics, two subjects which are usually required for university acceptance. Although this omission affects most scholars, in 1999 only 28% of all matriculants enrolled for higher grade mathematics (Griggs 2003). It is to the distinct disadvantage of female scholars .This is further aggravated in South Africa, where there has been a tendency for women to leave school in Grade 10, two years short of matriculation and this denies them the opportunity to attend higher education institutions.

In order to redress the problem of people leaving school at an early age due to the discriminatory political climate of apartheid and an inferior education system in the homelands, non governmental organisations supported by the Department of Education initiated Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET). These classes are designed to encourage adults to complete their schooling, and are held in the evenings and weekends. The courses emphasise literacy and numeracy skills. Should they matriculate successfully and gain access to higher education institutions, studies show that gender streaming still occurs with women continuing to study in the humanities and vocational schools such as secretarial colleges (Griggs 2003:43).

There is no doubt that black females were most negatively affected by the socio-economic conditions of apartheid. Due to the nature of apartheid in South Africa and the unequal distribution of wealth between urban and homelands, many black men were forced to seek employment outside their area of residence. Furthermore, according to tradition, black women have been responsible for looking after the family, as well as tending the crops to meet the subsistence needs of the family. Thus the women in South Africa found themselves in a double quandary, having to deal with both traditional stereotyping and governmental prejudice. Both of these limited their opportunity for further education and career development (Griggs, 2003).



South African women, irrespective of their racial identity, have always stood in the lower ranks of society. Past policies and laws deliberately favoured men, particularly white men. The socio-cultural beliefs of all groups defined women to be inferior to men and as such assigned them minor position in both public and private spheres of life (Mathur-Helm, 2004). This created inequality of power between women and men, and inevitably led to the unequal sharing of resources such as information, time, and income.

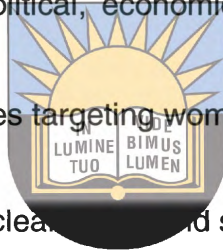
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Present day South Africa is trying hard to meet global needs by transforming rapidly to gain respect and promote the rights of all citizens irrespective of race, gender, class, age, and disability (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). Its new policies and strategies are aimed at implementing the equal and inalienable rights of all women and at improving the status of women in the workplace. Emerging from a long period of struggle for a democratic society, South Africa following the democratic elections of 1994, implemented equal opportunity and gender legislation as a system of national strategy, to redress the past imbalances created by apartheid (Mathur-Helm, 2004).

Hence, women's issues came for their rights, their equality with men, welfare and empowerment, and important measure is to ensure these gained attention. A

result, in 1996, the South African government authorised the international convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAWO), by passing the Gender Policy Framework (GPF). The GPF's main aim was to integrate gender policies by ensuring that:

- Women's rights are perceived as human rights
- They have equality as active citizens
- Their economic empowerment is promoted
- Their social upliftment is given priority
- They are included in decision making
- They are beneficiaries in political, economic, social, and cultural areas, and
- Affirmative action programmes targeting women are implemented



With the purpose of establishing a clear and structure, the GPF guided the process of developing laws, policies, procedures, and practices that would serve to ensure equal rights and opportunities for South African women in all spheres of government, private and public sector jobs, community, and family. The GPF believes that until women in South Africa have equal opportunities, access to resources, sharing, control and decision making in the economy, provision of services, and access to fair treatment, the aim behind GPF will not be successfully achieved. This step legally bound parliament and the executive to work actively towards the abolition of gender discrimination from governance of the country. Many of the above-mentioned policies and strategies have been implemented by the new South African government, in both the public and private sectors. However, their efficiency and success are still debatable.

The Commission of Gender Equality (1999), points out that although women constitute the major segment of the South African population they account for only a third of the labour force, few senior and top management positions, as gender equality within the workplace is undermined by job segregation and perceived roles associated with gender groups (Jain, 2002; Commission on

Gender Equity, 1999). The fact is that correct implementation of the strategies relies more on the fairness of the regulations and the legal protection of women's rights and welfare than on constitutional implementation and imposition of these policies and strategies. The social and cultural assumptions used in management strategies persistently create obstacles to integrating women into mainstream management. Thus women are still under-utilised in the South African employment market and are underutilised resource.

2.3 Women in South Africa

Shortly after coming to power in 1994, the ruling African National Congress adopted a non-sexist constitution and a strategy for setting in place South Africa's celebrated national machinery for advancing gender equality. This placed South Africa at the cutting edge of experience in state-initiated gender policies and structures. Goetz and Hassim (2003) point out that as a result South Africa is heralded internationally as having one of the most progressive policy frameworks for improving the condition and representation of women. Nevertheless, South Africa's structures and processes for achieving gender equality still merit critical scrutiny, particularly when viewed from the bottom up (Albertyn, 1998). During the early transitional period, government strategies in relation to women's presence in academic and administration were wholly neglectful of the institutions.

One factor inhibiting women from taking their rightful place in the process of democratic consolidation was a preoccupation with technocratic structures and procedures for enhancing governance. The gender Advocacy Programme led the commission on Gender Equality to eventually take up the importance of women representation in all institutions. The Commission for Gender Equality has also embarked on a campaign to increase the representation women in all institutions and to ensure that the government becomes more responsive to women's interests and demands (Albertyn, 1998).

2.4 Theoretical Framework on women

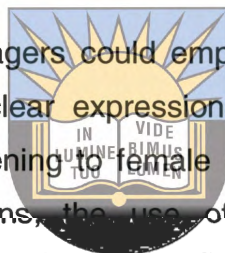
The theoretical perspectives underpinning the phenomenon of the under-representation of women in higher education management, need to be discussed clarify the questions raised by in this study. Powell and Butterfield (1994) indicate use of the concept of the glass ceiling to explain women's absence from top leadership positions. Their explanation is found in Klenke (1990:171) where they state that; the metaphor of the glass ceiling has become a popular explanation of why few women attain leadership positions, why they do not appear to move up the organisational hierarchy as rapidly as men, and why they tend to be faced with more stringent promotion requirements than are their male counterparts.

The term glass ceiling has been used to describe an invisible barrier that is transparent, yet strong enough to stymie access to leadership for women and other minorities. Although the glass ceiling exists at different levels in different organisations or industries, the term is typically used to suggest a barrier to entry into top management positions (Powell & Butterfield as cited in Klenke, 1996:171). Women's under-representation in management and leadership positions is often explained in terms of the socialisation patterns which occur in early childhood, that is, primary socialisation patterns. Young girls and boys are taught at an early age to value what society perceives their proper different characteristics.

Lyons (2002) defined glass ceiling as invisible or artificial barriers that prevents women and people of colour from advancing past a certain level. The commission described some of the barriers that prevent women from advancing. These include corporations that have more men than women in influential positions and the common societal perceptions that men are leaders while women are supportive followers, reinforced by lack of strong female role models and the existence of a good old boy network.

Family responsibilities too such as care for children which will directly affect women's ability to network after hours and presence to have to develop a professional style with which male counterparts would be comfortable were other reasons for the discomfort that women experience. Such corporate practices as the use of only traditional methods, which do not reach women and minorities, not assigning special jobs that might increase visibility and enhance career development for women, the need for women to prove themselves as better than their male peers, and the culture dictating a subordination of all other life roles to their work were yet other deterrents to women's success.

Some of the strategies that managers could employ to minimise the negative effects of the glass ceiling are clear expression of top level commitment to addressing this phenomenon, listening to female managers, as to how best to attract women to higher positions, the use of merit-based practices and behaviour, encouragement of diversity, and reflection of career development experience in terms of specific career path programme



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Additionally, the establishment of formal mentoring programmes and employee-sponsored networks and affinity groups, work like and family practices and policies that benefit all employees could also help (Lyons 2002). Another type glass ceiling has emerged. Opton (2004) uses this term to describe a growing of age discrimination for those aged 50 and above. The committee of 2000, an organisation of women business executives, found that there is still ground to cover in gaining parity in the boardroom.

The idea that there are lack of women are fewer at senior levels of management because they are better than men at multi-tasking, team-building and communicating is misses the point and risks simply exchanging one set of stereotypes for another . In a service economy, a firm' staffing costs may exceed its capital costs. So to select leadership from only half of the population is

inefficient as it ignores the wider pool of talent and ultimately erodes true competitor, and yet the glass ceiling continues to be reality.

This kind of socialisation pattern results in girls and boys believing, for instance, that being modest, submissive, affectionate, nurturing, people-oriented and emotionally-expressive exhibits female characteristics, whereas being aggressive, independent, rational and task-oriented is for males characteristics (Klenke, 1996). Young girls now grow up with a belief that to display male characteristics is improper; the same applies for young boys who are discouraged from displaying what society believes are female characteristics. This attribution of roles and characteristics perceived as appropriate for a particular gender is what is termed gender-stereotyping, and it is stereotyping of roles by gender in society which may be responsible for women not aspiring to be leaders for meeting barriers when they do attempt to enter leadership positions (Klenke, 1990).



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Society has categorised certain roles as male or female roles and expects males and females to conform to them. In many instances, women experience conflict between the roles they are expected to play, According to role theory (which consists of role conflict, role expectation and role ambiguity) for instance, society traditionally determines whose role it is to raise children and to look after home or to work, head the household and provide for the home. Although these traditional roles are fast changing in many societies, women may still face conflict in the work place between their roles as wife, mother and homemaker and as a career woman and/or leader (Klenke, 1990).

Hence they tend to cluster around positions or jobs in the workplace which call for caring and nurturing skills, and these positions are at the bottom of the administrative hierarchy whereas men are often in positions of leadership and control. Therefore in a patriarchal society like that of South Africa, and in institutions of higher learning there is a strong domination of hegemonic

masculinity (Heward, 1996). It is hardly surprising that women are clustered at the bottom of the organisational hierarchy and are almost non-existent at the top. As if the existence of the glass ceiling and gender stereotypic tendencies are not enough to ensure that women do not move up the management level, the exclusion of women from the old boys network and an informal web of networks presents another barrier for women.

Women do not have the advantage of formal and informal information sharing network which males enjoy nor do they have enough female role models and mentors to assist them to learn the ropes of leadership and contribute to their personal growth. Networking and mentoring relationships are critical for women seeking leadership roles, and the exclusion of women from these informal processes deprives them from the opportunity to benefit from informal exchange, career planning and strategising, professional support and encouragement, increased visibility and upward mobility (Klenke, 1990:182).



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The old boys network ensures that women are left out of these critical information networks where important decisions are sometimes made, often in places frequented mostly by men. Nominations and recommendations for jobs are also made at these informal gatherings (Heward, 1996). Women's representation patterns may also be explained by the homogeneity hypothesis, which (Heward, 1996) believe may be responsible for the perpetuation of the same type of people in leadership positions. Heward (1996) shows that managerial positions are filled by candidates for their close resemblance to those in power in terms of, for instance, social background. Since leadership in academia and elsewhere is perceived as male-oriented, it follows that prominent leadership positions will be filled by males.

2.5 Women in educational management

Male dominance in education management is a worldwide phenomenon. Moreover, minorities experience even greater barriers to career development in education management (Gardiner, Enomoto & Grogan, 2000:4). In South Africa, management has traditionally been male dominated at the senior levels of decision making, although equal opportunities policies introduced since 1994 by government have led to significant improvements in opportunities for women in the public sector (Wolpe, Quinlan & Martnez, 1997:195).

According to the report of the Gender Equity Task Team of the Department of Education, South Africa, a majority of women is employed by the department of education (Wolpe *et al*, 1997). They are however in the lower ranks of the profession, having increasingly greater representation at middle management levels but with the unseen barrier to women's career mobility, the glass ceiling, applying at the highest levels of school management. While men make up 36% of all teachers in South Africa, they hold 58% of all principal posts and 69% of all deputy principal posts.

The position of women in institutions of higher learning and of black women, in particular, is even weaker (Wolpe *et al*, 1997:200). The poor representation of women in educational management has been ascribed, among other things, to the unequal division of domestic responsibilities, lack of self confidence and public exposure and the absence of a supportive and encouraging environment to develop and improve female leadership qualities (Hall, 1996:7). Moreover, women in educational management tend to show a preference for particular styles of management which appears to inhibit career development. Considerable research carried out in several countries (Shakeshaft, 1993; Blackmore, 1999) suggests that women in education management prefer a different style that of men.

They are less hierarchical, more democratic, flexible and sensitive, foster cohesion, value trust and openness and are more humane. The features of management converge with innovative and softer management discourse that focuses on people management as a new source of productivity in organisations. Yet the association of effective management and leadership with masculinity and autocratic control remains, as does the disproportionate representation of men in senior posts in education (Hall, 1996:3)

2.5.1 Gender Stereotypes and Leadership Style: the orthodoxy

There are stereotypes about how men and women in management and leadership operate. Women are thought to be caring, tolerant, emotional, intuitive, and gentle and predisposed towards collaboration, empowerment and teamwork. Men are supposed to be aggressive, assertive, analytical, decisive and more inclined to act independently (Bem, 1974; Gray, 1993). However, the concept of maleness is not one-dimensional, it can be differentiated. For instance, Connell (1987:180) identifies the aggressive, sometimes, violent, heterosexual masculinity of manufacturing workers and the masculinity associated with professionals which is emotionally flat, centred on specialised skills, insistent on professional esteem and on technically based dominance over other workers, and which requires for its highest (specialist) development complete freedom from childcare and domestic work for which their wives and maids are responsible.

The masculine character of professionalism has been supported by the simplest possible mechanism, the exclusion of women. (Connell 1987:181) Similarly, Collinson and Hearn 2000:264 have drawn attention to the stereotypical view of heroic leadership, where initiatives are driven by one charismatic leader and to the fact that men are associated with the concept of managerialism and implicit rationalism as opposed to the view of women as essentially caring. There is

therefore recognition of the concept of masculinity, as allowing for a range of ways of behaving that take into account class, race and sexual orientation.

Stereotypically gendered views of leadership may constrain men as well as women. Current thinking about leadership in education focuses on transformational leadership, and stresses vision and values and leading for learning. There is recognition of a preferred type of leadership in education. Collinson and Hearn (2000:21) states that transformational leadership is the style most likely to help; those in and served by, current and future schools respond productively to the significant challenges facing them. Transformational leadership which develops and motivates staff to share a vision for the school owes much to a feminine paradigm of management rather than a masculine one'.



The masculine paradigm is closer to the idea of managerial leadership focusing on the achievement of tasks in a formal and hierarchical way. Studies of women leaders have identified them as more likely than men to be focused on learning in the style of educational leaders (Shakeshaft, 1989). In terms of the normative thinking about leadership in education, it is therefore possible to adopt an essentialist view identifying women as potentially better suited to leadership as men.

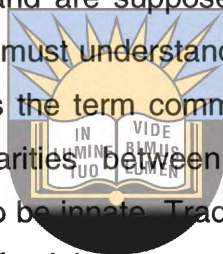
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2.5.2 Sex roles

The proportion of female managers and administrators increases steadily worldwide. While the positive trend is good, the figures show that men still dominate the senior levels in organisations. Furthermore, women managers and administrators are not evenly distributed across industries. For instance, in Hong Kong in 2001, 38.2% of people employed in manufacturing were women, but only 19% of managers and administrators in the industry were females (Shakeshaft, 1989).

The role of women worldwide is undergoing a dramatic change. Women today share the limelight with men in almost all fields. A country's development is expected to be measured increasingly by the role of feminine participation in the economy. Working women are no longer a rarity but are accepted as part of the workforce. South African organisations have experienced a steady increase in the number of women employees and this pattern is expected to continue in the future as well (Gray, 1993).

Most individuals have been exposed to traditional stereotypes about the traits that females and males possess and are supposed to display. To understand these gender stereotypes fully one must understand the traditions on which they are based. Traditional sex roles, is the term commonly used to emphasise the difference rather than the similarities between women and men. These differences are typically assumed to be innate. Traditional sex roles also suggest that women should behave in a feminine manner, and that the men should behave in a masculine manner. These roles have a profound impact on the relations between women and men in society in all spheres of life; in the family, the educational system and the workplace, both in management and non management echelons in the workplace (Gray, 1993).



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Gray, 1993) indicates that on the basis of these sex roles, it has been agreed to be natural that men assume the dominant position of a manager in the work organisation and that women assume the submissive position. The chain of reasoning is as follows:

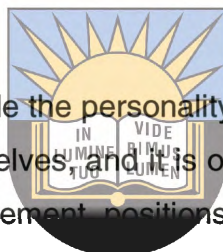
- Differences exist in the division of labour between women and men, with most management positions held by men
- The differences must have some functions
- The differences evolved as our species developed
- The differences are natural and must not be altered

This kind of argument could be used to justify almost any difference between the behaviour and the status of men and women that exists today. It has its limitations, however, sex differences that may have necessary at this point in time, and they could be undesirable in the future (Gray, 1993). Thus the majority of women are still performing women work such as domestic and clerical work in the society.

2.6 Constraints for women in top positions

2.6.1 Psycho-social attributes

The psycho- social attributes include the personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioural skills of women themselves and it is one of the factors that curb the participation of women in management positions within institutions of higher learning. Work is central to the survival of every individual as an adult. Having a paid job constitutes an important component of human needs (Ekore, 2001). Apart from having the desire to meet personal needs through working, it also enables individuals as workers to satisfy the security needs and to enhance the psychological wellbeing of their families. The desire to meet these needs is a major factor that motivates every individual to seek employment



2.6.1.1 Personality characteristics

For both male and female workers, personality traits have been associated with cross-cultural adjustments (Brody, 1985). Brody (1985) suggests that there are three personality orientations in the working environment. These three personality dimension are broadly categorised as self-orientation (stress reduction, technical competence and reinforcement substitution), other orientation (that is, the ability to form relations and willingness to communicate with other employees, and perceptual orientation (that is, the ability to understand the behaviours of others).

- **Self-orientation**

Self-orientation may be especially important for female employees because, as Alder (1984, 1987) notes, female employees must have an extraordinary level of technical competence. Kanter (1977) indicates that in a situation where women are thought to have a token presence, they have to demonstrate exceptional competence to advance their career. Given the under-representation of women in institutions of higher learning, this observation seems especially relevant for female employees. In addition, female employees must possess stress management skills called for by being the only female in a given work setting. The ability to handle stressful situations and condense in one's abilities has been found to be positively related to cross-cultural adjustment.



- **Other-orientation**

It has been noted that women tend to rely on co-operation to achieve goals, and adopt an indirect style of communication (Tung, 1997). This trait may be partially useful for female employees conducting business in white -context cultures (Asia, Latin America), where the social values dictate indirect communication .The primacy of co-operation in forming alliances between them in institutions of higher learning has also been recognised (Tung, 1997). Thus, the ability to form relationships with colleagues, superiors, subordinates and students may be integral to performing tasks for employed women, and it may be facilitated by certain traits that women are known to possess (Tung, 1997).

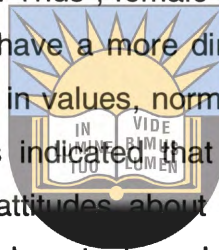
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Further, in a domestic context, Ragins and Sundstorm (1989) have pointed out that forming interpersonal relationships at work plays a key role in the career advancement of women. By forming relationships with superiors, subordinates and peers, women use mentoring, support and networking opportunities (Ragins and Sundstorm, 1989). In an international context, other- orientation may enable

women to form such relationships, hence enabling better cross-cultural adjustment.

- **Perceptual orientation**

Given that women often work in management where there are fewer women (Caliguiri and Tung, 1999), the perceptual orientation of women may be particularly important. Women need to understand not only cultural differences, but also the gender differences that might be present in cultures that seek a more traditional role for women in society. Thus, female employees may be placed in situations where these differences have a more direct impact on their job, and the ability to be open to differences in values, norms and behaviours may be all the more important. Research has indicated that employees (both male and female) who are anxious in their attitudes about cultural differences and are willing to learn from different cultural context are better suited for management positions (Harvey, 1988; Abe and Wiseman, 1983; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985).



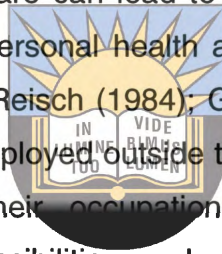
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- **Family responsibilities**

Family responsibilities are among the social stimuli that can cause women to exhibit behaviours and attitudes that reflect job involvement. Frone, Russel and Cooper (1992) also related job involvement to family responsibility. They reported that an individual seeks to construct desired images represent a threat to their identification. The identity to any individual is founded in their family responsibilities. similarly vein, Cox, Owen, Henderson and Margand (1992) argued that with childcare (very much concern for women's family responsibility) can, among other things, increase productivity and employee morale and help reduce accidents rates, absenteeism and turnover known to stem from involvement problems.

The responsibilities of mothers are numerous and indispensable in families just as are those of the male counterpart. The female employee, as mother, also assists the husband to balance family and job demands. This goes to show that if an employee feels his job allows or does not allow him to be responsible to his family, such an individual will display a correspondingly high or low involvement on the job. Just so, meeting both social and organisational roles could entail major conflict for women in the work place.

Brody (1985) found that family responsibility may present a woman's climb on the career ladder, and the burden of care can lead to emotional collapse, strained personal relationships, decline in personal health all factors that could affect a woman's level of job involvement. Reisch (1984); Gibert, Holahan and Meaning (1981) found that those who are employed outside the home must also deal with the stressors associated with their occupational role often without any reassignment of household responsibilities such as cooking , shopping and ironing. Moen and Dempster-McClain (1987) asserted that the jobs may be onerous either they or their spouses would prefer.



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Women as organisational members remain also family members. An employee's level of responsibility in the family by separates one role from the other. As it is with most art form the world, fathers and mothers (males and females) as workers also have the responsibility to bring up children with the utmost care, attention, and concern and to give adequate attention to their own parents and such relatives as may depend on them. Even single women do have dependants such as children, parents, siblings and other relatives.

2.6.2 Structural factors

The structural factors explain the disadvantageous position of women in organisational structure (few numbers, little power, limited access to resources) a position that hinders women's access to management positions in institutions of

higher learning. Bond (1997) highlights that those holding leadership posts in higher education institutions play a uniquely important role in shaping the institution and learning for the future. It is therefore, particularly critical that there be an equal partnership of women and men in most management levels within the academy so that women can exercise their own intellectual and moral leadership.

The inclusion of the talents, beliefs, and life experiences of women alongside well as men is changing the academy in fundamental ways. The discovery of knowledge is an activity of individual inspiration, initiative and enlightenment, even if it takes place in the context of the institution, a discipline and with peers engaged in similar activities. The influences that stimulate discovery are not just scholarly but include personality, life experiences, and the cultural context (Bond, 1997).



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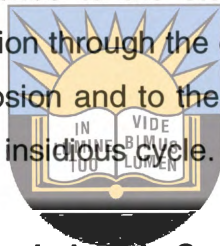
Bond (1997) argues that the perspectives underlying structural factors suggest men and women to be equally capable and committed to positions of leadership. The problem lies in the structure, and the remedy is fundamental change so as to eliminate inappropriate discrimination in institutional policies and practices.

2.6.3 Cultural (social roles) factors

For this study, cultural (social roles) factors are those that prevent women's participation in management positions. Socialisation of individuals into sex roles is a process by which sexes come to assume different personality characteristics, preferences, and skills. This process implies that cultural views as to proper attitudes and behaviours for each sex are communicated through of parents, significant others, the media, teachers, and friends (Bailey, 1988).

Social message are internalised as appropriate sex-role behaviour and they continue to be reinforced. Patterns of behaviour provide the foundation for

stereotyped sex-role behaviour (Epstein, 1988). Stereotypes are passed from generation to generation with endless justification and reinforcement. A vast variety of laboratory experiments conducted by psychologists have amassed considerable evidence about processes that reinforce stereotypes (Bailey, 1988). The influence of stereotypes compelling individuals to conform to set expectations results in behavioural confirmation better known in organisational behaviour literature as the "self –fulfilling prophecy". Individuals tend to observe and experience behaviour in terms of the stereotype and they reject evidence that contradicts the stereotype. The issue is further complicated by the fact that stereotyping individuals often subscribe to the stereotypes about themselves. Only a restructuring of the socialisation through the education of all parties reject the stereotypes will lead to their erosion and to the eventual successful release from the constraints imposed by this insidious cycle.



2.7 Legislation on women in the workplace in South Africa **University of Fort Hare** *Together in Excellence*

2.7.1 Employment legislation

A study group on women in employment did an intensive survey, in 1978, of labour legislation that contained clauses discriminating against women workers. As a result of prolonged lobbying, a number of bills were amended in 1983. The Manpower Training Amendment Bill prohibits employer discrimination in all aspects of training. The wage Act Amendment Bill has made discrimination against women in wage agreements illegal. The conditions of Employment Bill lifted a long-standing ban on women's working nights and overtime. The aim of the Labour Relations Amendment Bill is to provide more stable working conditions and greater protection to workers and to eliminate the existing discriminatory clauses (13). The Wiehahn Commission's investigation of South African trade unions led to the Labour Relations Act, which legalizes black trade unions (Benade, 1984).

As a result, the black trade union movement has grown considerably, but only a few black women have become leaders in this area. Black women trade unionism is especially dominant in the retail, clothing, and chemical engineering and food industries. A major grievance of married, skilled women employees and businesswomen is the legal discrimination inherent in joint taxation with hundreds, which is especially detrimental to the recruitment of higher-level womanpower. The authorities argue that two working people living together have a greater taxable capacity than two people living singly, and therefore want to keep joint taxation. The counterargument is that the incentive for a family member to earn should not be blunted by tax considerations that depend on the economic position of other members of the family (Mulholland, 1986).



2.7.2 Employment policies

Women have become legal equals in the workplace during the past few years. The positive changes in legislation are, however, not always implemented by employers. Some employers still practice discrimination, for instance in relation to pensions and medical benefits. In 1982 and 1984, surveys were conducted among graduate (university) women in professional/technical and managerial-administrative occupations to determine the employment conditions in their companies (Erwee, 1994). The 1982 sample included only white women managers, whereas the smaller 1984 sample included both white and black professional women. More than half (52%) of the respondents indicated that the company they currently worked for did not plan their employees long-term career development (Erwee, 1994).

Only 34% of the respondents reported that their companies had career planning for all employees; the rest offered career planning for males only (8%) or for selected groups of women (6%). Moreover, the same organisations (education, commerce, and services) do not offer career planning including formal training programmes for women employees. The supervisory and management training

that does include women is offered by financial and manufacturing institutions and by certain research and service organisations. Most (61%) of women report that they are able to get financial support from their organisations to attend training seminars offered by other institutions (Erwee, 1994).

Re-entry training for older women is still rare. The respondents believe that the training opportunities available to women do not meet their needs (Erwee, 1984). The respondents receive the usual benefits from their organisation; a pension, medical insurance, and group (or other) insurance. Maternity leave is usually offered (58%) and few companies have day-care facilities (11%). Only a third of the organisations make housing subsidies available to their women employees whereas almost all male employees receive such subsidies.



Most respondents (54%) do not think their organisations discriminates against them regarding the above mentioned benefits, although some believe such discrimination exists at the lower level (14%), while 18% at the highest level think so. Half the respondents think that women are not promoted as frequently as are men in their organisations and 39% observe that is not always the most task-competent people who are promoted. Many companies (41%) have no women in top management positions. Those that do (41%) are mainly educational and service institutions, or such have a large proportion of female employees; the rest (85%) have women at lower management levels. Although most women (54%) think they receive equal pay for equal work, some perceive discrimination at their present level or at higher levels. Only a few (17%) state that they do not currently receive equal pay for equal work (Erwee, 1994).


The Wage Act Amendment Bill of 1983 makes labour market discrimination in wages between sexes illegal and such practices are being phased out. However, Erwee (1994) has noted that in the clothing industry, it is common practice for a male production manager to be paid more than a female manager. With regard to the differences in productivity level, Erwee (1994) has found that some

companies now prefer black women as workers because of their greater output, which leads to higher productivity.

2.7.3 Accepting the Challenge

Despite the barriers to managerial advancement there are many forces in South African society and strengths within women that can assist them in overcoming obstacles. By Identifying and using those forces constructively, a women in her managerial career.

- **The social responsibilities of companies**



Organisations that have adopted a positive policy of non-discrimination against women can provide constructive forces for change. There are 400 United States multicultural corporations operating in South Africa; of these, only 146 are signatories to the Sullivan Code, which aims to end racial discrimination in US companies operating in South Africa (Valentine and Godkin 2000). These 146 foreign multicultural are making a substantial and very direct contribution by providing employees with equal opportunities to secure quality education and community facilities, adequate housing, unrestricted union organisation, and the freedom to locate where job exist. Valentine and Godkin (2000)notes that the 146 Sullivan signatory companies contributed more than \$5.5 Million to help educate blacks who were not their own employees and 5,600 employee days of work in education institutions. One can only hoe that the remaining 254 US multinationals will join the list of Sullivan signatory companies.

The Sullivan Code focuses mainly on improving the employment conditions of black workers as a group. This has a direct, positive influence on the upward mobility of black women in these companies. White women have also benefited indirectly as discriminatory personnel policies have been eliminated. High achieving women will therefore be promoted on merit; race or sex not being

taken into account. The positive example of the US companies has influenced policies in South African companies. Schein (1989) indicate a growing awareness of social responsibility among South African business leaders, who believe they can make a significant contribution to the solution of social problems, for example, the training and education of blacks.

- **Training managers**

Schein (1989) have observed that many South Africa companies are in a position to invest time, money, and effort in the development of potential black managers, and that the whole problem of black advancement needs further attention. According to these authors, black managers have indicated that their most important training needs are developing cognitive skills and learning to master such management functions as planning, organising, problem solving, and control. The research also indicates that the managers` tasks should be clearly defined and that he or she should be given a job or assignment that will allow him or her to develop the necessary managerial competences. Strategies such as those mentioned above may be common practice in the United States. In South Africa, however, many companies do not currently employ such strategies, but are gradually changing their policies for all managers, regardless of race or sex.

- **Creating mentors**

Many South Africa companies are debating whether an official management sponsored mentor is desirable for their organisation. Newman (1995) and Nicholls (1984) support the idea that a system in which potential managers are assigned to a mentor could be used in most South African organisations. Newman (1995) has noted that the male model of mentorship does not appear to be totally applicable to females, and that there is a dearth of female mentors in most (male-dominated) organisations in South Africa, mainly because of the small number of women in management positions. Male managers are reluctant

to serve as mentors for women, because such roles are unfamiliar to them and are often taken to be a personnel development technique.

The scarcity of mentors for female managers within an organisation can, to some extent, be overcome by the use of role models in the broader South Africa society. In the past, black, coloured, and Asian women had few roles to emulate. This has led to the formation of groups such as the women's Bureau of South Africa, Women for Peace, and the Women's Legal Status Committee. The members of such organisations work together across racial lines to promote cross-cultural understanding and to help and solve problems common to all women. These women believe that being female transcends racial divisions. Several business and professional women's clubs have organized seminars on career guidance and advancement in which women of all races share strategies for advancement in organizations.



- **Career workshops**
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Because of the interest of women in their careers the Women's Bureau of South Africa formed a Career Counselling Work Group, which develops (a) training courses and workshops aimed at equipping women to meet the demands of higher level professional and managerial jobs and to develop entrepreneurial and industrial skills, and (b) vocational and career counselling methods to meet the needs of women, and application of these methods within companies (Morley, 2006).

Women attending career workshops may be classified according to three groups; Young professional women (20-29) years in the exploration phase of their careers, older professional women (30-39 years) who aim at higher level management posts and senior women (age 35-45) who are contemplating a second career. Each of these groups has unique career development needs that are accommodated in the workshops. The senior professional women often

contemplate starting their own business, and special workshops on starting a business have been developed by the Women Bureau of South Africa. This organisation is compiling register of professional women working in offices at home as part of a nationwide Employment Creation Project.

2.7.4 Future Trends

In South Africa the growing recognition shortages of qualified managerial and professional resources augurs well for women aspiring to managerial and professional careers, as this will create more opportunities for advancement. Although the numbers of white, black, Asians, and coloured women who have moved into management are relatively small, the trend is encouraging. Many other changes in South African society such as the elimination of discriminatory clauses in labour legislation, changes in the legal status of women, and greater availability of educational opportunities, do support the advance of women.

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There is greater awareness in multinationals and South African companies of the aspirations and strengths of men and women of all races and of the problems related to their advancement. There are still barriers to be overcome, such as unequal pay, but women are campaigning against these unfair practices. More women are taking the initiative in planning their own career development and in managing their own small business, and are thus creating new role models. Of equal importance is the growing readiness of women to support the career aspirations of other women and to assist in their realisation.

2.8 Summary

During the past few decades, women have attained to higher levels of education in many parts of the world and comprise around 40 percent of workers worldwide (ILO, 2002). In many countries women have higher rates of enrolment in schools and universities and they dominate certain economic sectors such as education. This phenomenon has not been paralleled by equal access to work opportunities at the higher levels of organisation or equal access to fair and equitable pay; this is also true of institutions of higher learning.

There is a persisting world trend affecting women managers where they reach their development plateaus at middle management positions (Wentling, 2003). While the number of women qualified for management jobs continues to increase (with the 1990s characterised as periods of increasing post-secondary educational attainment for women) significant differences persist in the numbers of men and women who achieve senior management roles worldwide (Winn, 2004). Women's accumulating management experience and completion of professional education programs does not seem sufficient to ensure their access to senior management positions at comparative rates to men (Veale and Gold, 1998).

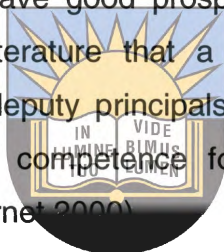
The issue of women's career advancement in organisations has attracted substantial attention in management literature. Some scholars attribute women's under-representation in management positions among institutions of higher learning to their socialisation, power, control, structure, culture and agency/institutions. From this perspective women's ascendancy to top management positions has been systematically, historically and culturally undermined by their prescribed socially constructed roles and by male control over institutions.

CHAPTER 3

LOCUS OF CONTROL

3.1 Introduction

The broad responsibility of the top positions for the administration of institutions of higher learning and the achievement of its educational goals demands that particular attention be paid to the recruitment of managerial candidates who possess the relevant skills and have good prospects of success. There is a consensus in the professional literature that a teacher's success in junior management positions, such as deputy principalship, or in subject and grade coordination, is no guarantee of competence for managing an educational institution (Klein & Wasserstein-Warnet, 2000).



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In the past two decades, some studies have demonstrated that only a small number of skills and characteristics have any actual bearing on successful management. In a study of the association between personality traits and successful school administration, it was found that of the 16 personality traits that describe all of the salient aspects of a personality, according to Cattell (1986), only four were associated with successful management: assertiveness, imagination, independence and friendliness (Lunenburg, 1990). In a meta-analytical study of the relation between the 12 skills tested at the NASSP evaluation center and successful management, it was found that these skills were limited predictors of success in administrative positions (Williams and Pantili, 1992). According to these researchers, only one basic quality, leadership, characterized a successful manager. This trait encapsulates different skills that were studied in the past as independent variables. They suggested continued clarification of the essence of this quality and the tools for measuring it to be crucially important.

One of the qualities that have for a long time been attributed to successful leaders and managers is internal locus of control. This concept was first proposed as a personality variable by Rotter (1966). Two types of individuals were identified: those with internal locus of control, who perceived success and failure as a consequence of their own actions and reactions, and those with an external locus of control, who attributed both success and failure to external factors such as luck, coincidence, fate or the influence of people stronger than themselves.

Locus of control tests, based on Rotter's work, were developed in various fields, among them: learning, work (Spector, 1988) and health (Halfens, 1995). The link between internal locus of control and successful management may be explained by the fact that individuals with an internal locus of control have faith in their ability to achieve self-appointed objectives and to transform the environment. They feel personally responsible for the job's success, and display a deep involvement in planning work projects and implementing them to the best of their ability. When something backfires they attribute this to inadequate participation on their part in the effort, and to their own failure to steer the team properly.

A series of studies supports this theory. Place (1979) found that internal locus of control was an accurate predictor of levels of efficiency in the work of directors in governmental departments of trade. Johnson & Hennessey (1984) identified a connection between internal locus of control of managers and the productivity of subordinates. Hiers and Heckel (1977), Anderson and Schneier (1978), Howell and Avolio (1993), and McCullough, Ashbridge & Pegg (1994) all reported that successful leaders were endowed with a high internal locus of control, whereas the less successful ones typically had a low internal locus of control, i.e. an orientation toward an external locus of control.

These decisive conclusions concerning the relation between internal locus of control and managerial success deserve further clarification in view of findings

indicating that locus of control is unstable, and that life experiences influence its development. Rotter (1966), Hahn (1979), and Kulas (1996) identified a link between type of experience at elementary school age and internal or external orientation to locus of control. Similarly, Sherman (1984) and Krampen (1989) cited the effect of experiences between the ages of 8 to 13 years. Work experience during adulthood (Lester and Genz, 1978; Frantz, 1980) and even hospitalization (Halfens, 1995) did affect orientation as to locus of control. Experiential activities aimed at heightening internal locus of control were found to be effective at junior high school (Nowicki and Barnes, 1973; Zhang, 1990) and at college levels (Santa-Rita, 1997). In other words, at least some subtraits of this factor are acquired by learning.



Administrators, whether male or female whose superiors offer them less freedom in making decisions, tend to ~~yearn~~ move toward an external locus of control than those who work in more permissive environments. It is also likely that managers with a strong internal locus of control, who work in a centralized environment that fails to allow them to fulfill their personal ambitions and frustrates their desire to exercise greater authority, will clash with superiors. In very restrictive conditions, it is probably preferable to have principals with an external locus of control, who are willing to accept the dominance of superiors and do not demand greater authority, rather than principals with an internal locus of control.

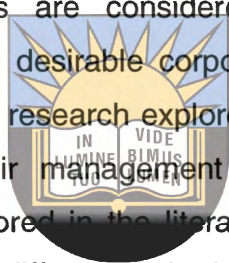
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This chapter defines locus of control as an important personality trait that may affect the behavior of women in the workplace environment and also discusses its effects in the work environment. The discussion it makes easier to understand why some women may behave the way they do in relation to the way they portray their leadership roles and why they remain under represented in senior managerial positions.

3.2 Definition of locus of control

The willingness and ability of women to effectively lead organizations is explored extensively in the gender literature (Cooper, 1997; Reskin and Padavic, 1994). In particular, women's successes in leadership are prompted by their transformational supervisory practices), their keen awareness of themselves (Van Velsor, Taylor, Leslie, 1993), and their aversion to competitive problem resolution.

Since many of these behaviors are considered advantageous, women's leadership may positively develop desirable corporate cultures (Marongiu and Ekehammer, 1999). While previous research explores the leadership of men and women, the relationships of their management practices to employee job responses is not extensively explored in the literature (Bass, 1990). Research implies that "there may be gender differences in the likelihood of overrating and underrating of managerial abilities" (Van Velsor et al., 1993, p. 250).



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As public institutions of higher education grow larger and more complex, governing them internally and externally becomes ever more cumbersome. Boards of trustees have a tremendous responsibility to attend to the long term stability, current mission, and future advancement of the institution for the benefit of all citizens within the state (Zwingle, 1980, 1984). Traditionally, however, boards have remained homogeneous in nature, attracting white males from the clergy, faculty, business, law, and politics (Kerr & Gade, 1989; Martorana, 1963; Taylor, 1987). Especially among the public universities, women are over-represented as students, but under-represented as trustees, administrators, and faculty (Muller, 1978; Scollay, Bratt, & Tickameyer, 1997; Twale & Shannon, 1996).

Because board composition is predominantly decided by appointment or popular election, women are less likely than men to be active (Nason, 1974-75; Paltridge,

Hurst, & Morgan, 1973; Rauh, 1969; Taylor, 1987). *Trustee* is a role into which women are neither socialized nor trained, nor do they have many role models to follow or mentors to observe (Kanter, 1993). These factors preclude women from penetrating the 'inner circle'. Thus, their unique perspective is absent from trustee bodies, not only curtailing the female voice on the board, but also women's influence in education within their state (Gilligan, 1982; ; Korhammer, 1985; Nason, 1974-75). Contrary to this fact, women indicate their willingness to serve their state and higher education institutions, and to be a representative voice for women (Smith, 1976; Taylor, 1987).

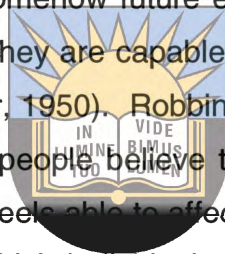
Gender is indeed embedded in both organizational structure and process (Acker, 1990), and it appears that “organizational designs, practices, and cultures are constructed within economic, social, and cultural processes that are always already gendered” (Halford and Savage, 1997:13). Organizations are often viewed “as sites of ‘socially situated practices’ that always in some way implicate gender (as well as race-ethnicity, class, and sexuality)” (Ollilainen, 2000: 84). Previous research also indicates that gender is related to a variety of employment practices and job experiences (Browne, 1997; Dalton and Kesner, 1993; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Fox and Schuhmann, 1999) and that gender composition of the workplace can affect management’s success (Bass, 1990).

Rotter (1950) is of the opinion that people tend to ascribe their chances of future success or failure either to internal or external causes. Persons with an internal locus of control see themselves as responsible for the outcomes of their own actions. Internal locus of control describes people who believe that what happens to them is determined by their abilities, efforts, and their own actions (Spector, 1982:486). These individuals often believe that they control their destiny, and are often observed to excel in educational or vocational contexts.

Someone with an external locus of control, on the other hand, sees environmental causes and situational factors as being more important than

internal ones. Such one sees luck rather than effort as cause of success or failure in the future, and is likely to see him/her self as victim in any given situation Rotter (1950). According to Rotter (1950) locus of control is related to, but distinct from several other social psychological constructs related to control. Attributions for example are explanations that people provide, after the fact, to explain why some thing has occurred. Like locus of control beliefs, attributions may also be classified as either internal or external.

Self efficacy is another related concept, introduced by Albert Bandura. Although someone may believe that how somehow future events will be forced for them, they may or may not believe that they are capable of behaving in a way that will produce the desired results (Rotter, 1950). Robbins 1998:56 indicates that locus of control is the degree to which people believe they are masters of their own fate, the extent to which a person feels able to effect his or her own life. Locus of control describes the degree to which individuals accept personal responsibility for what happens to them (Kren, 1992:992).



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3.3 Women differences impact on organizational behavior

Obviously people differ from each other. How and why they differ is less clear and is the subject of the study of individual differences. Although to study individual differences seems to be to study variance, how people differ, it is also to study a central tendency, that is how well can a person be described in terms of an overall within-person average. Indeed, perhaps the most important question about individual differences is whether people are more similar to themselves over time and across situations than they are to others, and whether the variation within a single person across time and situation is less than the variation between people. A related question is that of similarity, for people differ in their similarities to each other.

Thus, specifically, women differences evident in the work environment include race, age, gender, culture, social status, personality, abilities, learning capacities, skills, experiences qualifications, perceptions, attitudes, and attributions. Luthans (1998:182) define attributions as the cognitive process, particularly perception of the causes of behavior and outcomes. According to Luthans (1998:182) the attributions people make impact on work motivation, and these attributions are based on the actual internal and external forces on behaviors. Ivancevich and Mattenson (1999:131) agree that these individual differences (including locus of control attributions) impact on the work environment, work behavior, work satisfaction, work motivation, relationships, personal development, and performance outcomes.

3.4 The effects of locus of control in the workplace

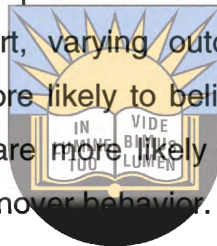


Research on locus of control suggests that individuals vary in the expectation as to ability to control events that affect them, and in their attribution of causes for their success or failure to internal and external sources. Those with an internal locus of control (internals) have high expectations of their ability to control events, and they attribute success or failure to themselves. Those with an external locus of control (externals) have low expectancies of control and attribute success or failure to external sources, such as specific situations, other people, or fate (Rotter, 1966). Research suggests that internals are likely to exhibit greater intrinsic motivation, be more achievement oriented and report lower turnover intentions (Renn & Vandenberg, 1991; Spector, 1982).

Because internals are more likely to believe that they are able master their environment and control their outcomes, they may be more likely to believe that they will be successful in obtaining an attractive and, are more likely to act on their turnover intentions than are externals. Externals, conversely, may be more likely to believe that attempts to control are futile, which would contribute to passivity and low motivation (Baumeister & Scher, 1988). Spector (1982)

suggested that externals would be more likely to remain on a job even if they were dissatisfied and wanted to quit, whereas such internals would be more likely to quit. Blau (1987) found that locus of control did moderate the relationship between withdrawal cognition and turnover such that the relationship was stronger for internals.

Research has found that the intentions-behavior relationship is stronger for internals than for externals in weight reduction behaviors (Saltzer, 1981), safe sex behaviors (Terry & Galligan, 1993 as well as with regard to turnover (Blau, 1987). As opposed to the mere expression of intentions, quitting a job is a behavior choice that involves effort, varying outcomes and expectations of success. Because internals are more likely to believe in their ability to control events and the environment, they are more likely to act, for instance on their turnover intentions and so exhibit turnover behavior.



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Internals are more proactive individuals are more likely to take initiative and act to manipulate the environment and accomplish their goals. Externals on the other hand are less proactive and are likely to allow events to happen and then react to changes (Bateman & Crant, 1993). More proactive individuals are more likely to make changes, act to solve problems, and actively pursue possibilities that could advance their interests and careers. Bateman and Crant (1993) suggested that a proactive personality should be positively related to problem solving and coping.

When facing a decision, individuals have a tendency to be either attracted to or repelled by alternatives that are perceived as more or less risky. Risk aversion refers to a sense that more risk is worse and that risk is undesirable (Bell, 1995; Wiseman, Gomez-Mejia & Fugate, 2000). More risk adverse individuals would be less likely to make a choice perceived to involve risk than would less risk-averse individuals. Turnover decisions appear to involve risk and uncertainty.

In fact, some behavioral measures of individuals' propensity to take risks include resignations as an indicator of willingness to engage in risky behavior.

From the discussion it is evident that individual differences and specific personality attributes including locus of control, are powerful predictors of behavior in organizations. The conviction that one exerts personal control over one's life and events in the environment also has a direct and powerful bearing on organizations as such. According to Robbins (1998:57-57) internals are more satisfied with their jobs, have lower absenteeism rates, are less alienated from the work setting, and are more involved in their work than are externals.



Internals believe that health is substantially controlled by through proper and responsible habits, and this reflects in lower absenteeism (Robbins 1998:58). Spector (1982: 485) explains that internals attempt to exert more control than externals in specific areas of the work environment in specific areas such as work flow, task accomplishments, operating procedures, work assignments, relationships with superiors and subordinates, working conditions, goal settings, work scheduling, and organizational policy.

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3.5 Locus of control and goal orientation

Goal orientation refers to two types of super ordinate goals that individuals focus on during achievement situations (Nicholls, 1984). These goals affect important outcomes such as learning, motivation, and performance in general, showing stronger beneficial effects for a learning goal orientation (Nicholls, 1984). Goal orientation is a somewhat stable individual difference factor that can be affected by situational characteristics (Nicholls, 1984), furthermore, beneficial effects for state learning and state performance goals, that is, goals induced by situational cues on task performance, depending on the nature of the task (Steele-Johnson, Beauregard, Hoover, & Schmidt, 2000. However, when few situational goal

orientation cues are present, individuals' dispositional goal orientation will motivate them.

There are typically two goal orientation dimensions (Nicholls, Cheung, Lauer, & Patashnick, 1989). Learning goal orientation addresses the extent to which individuals believe that their ability levels can be improved with practice and their desire to do so. Individuals high in learning goal orientation tend to believe they can increase their ability, evaluate their performance in relation to their own previous performance and choose for and persist in challenging tasks (Nicholls, 1984). Performance goal orientation addresses the extent to which individuals focus on providing their competence relative to others and avoid negative evaluations of their competences. Individuals high in performance goal orientation tend to believe that their ability levels are fixed/ evaluate their ability levels in comparison to the ability levels of other individuals (Nicholls, 1984), and choose tasks that allow them to demonstrate their ability and avoid negative evaluations (Nicholls, 1984)



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Goal orientation can further be defined in relation to competence valuation, that is, approach or avoidance (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). Locus of control reflects the degree to which individuals believe they have control over events in their lives or whether they believe outside forces, control the events in their lives (Rotter, 1966)

In general then, locus of control reflects an individuals' belief in their ability to control their own performance outcomes. Elliot & McGregor (2001) indicate that goal orientation framework suggests that individuals with learning goal orientation would reflect a high level of internal locus of control, while those with a performance goal orientation would reflect a low level of internal locus control or even external locus of control. Rotter (1966) found that locus of control was positively related to both orientation and performance goal orientation.

These findings suggest that both learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation are related to internal locus of control. While the findings of (Nicholls, 1984) are contrary to the theoretical propositions suggested by Dweck and Leggett (1988) for performance goal orientation, the measure of locus of control used in their study was modified for use in work settings. It is unknown whether these scale modifications may have accounted for the unexpected findings with regard to performance goal orientation.

3.6 The Impact of locus of control on working life

While recognizing that new forms of management may well call on women's innate skills to facilitate change (Dweck and Leggett 1988), shifts on organizational culture do not inevitably open spaces for women and others to occupy. Indeed, according to (Dweck and Leggett 1988), women's representation in management experienced an overall decline from 10.2% in 1993 to 9.5% in 1994. The transformation that has occurred, then, in both the public and private sectors over the past decade and a half can be understood not only in terms of a move towards a more entrepreneurial, managerialist culture, sustained by both new privileged knowledge, but, crucially, also as a re-ordering of gendered space, a re-ordering which some commentators suggest will reinforce women's general sense of exclusion and marginalization (Ozga and Walker, 1995).

For in privileging the objective task-oriented manager over the subjective and consensual, a gendered statement is made. It is within this gendered and political space that women managers have to negotiate their entry and continued presence with outsiders, that is, where their locus of control is necessary to assist them to solve different kinds of problems in managerial positions; marginalization is in part facilitated by the notion that women have a different voice (Ozga and Walker, 1995).

Locus of control is for and supports an account of the self which stresses the contingent and uncertain character of everyday life; a self grounded only in the multiplicity of subject positions across discursive formations (Robbins 1998:57).

Yet despite the absence of any biological anchor, the sense that subjects have of being concrete and grounded in their identity is strong. It would appear that a given of identity work is to achieve such a sense of core self; in the process of minimizing existential anxiety arising from being in a social environment characterized by risk, disruption and lack of trust (Robbins 1998:57). Robbins (1998:57) claims that the search for personal stability cannot be understood as smoothing unique to the late or post-modern age, though the demise of more traditional forms of social contract (marriage, nuclear families)



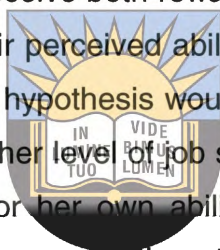
It is important to note that locus of control is not about a specific reinforcement, but instead is a problem-solving (that is , cognitive), generalized expectancy that addresses the issue of whether behaviors are perceived to be directly related to the attainment of needs, no matter what the goal or reinforcement. It should also be noted that in some particular situation or environments, individuals of an external orientation can (and do) exhibit internal behavior; this occurs because they have learned from earlier situations that they have control of the reinforcement.

Therefore locus of control and job satisfaction, job stress and job performance are presented. In investigating the many faces of locus of control in working life, it is argued that the assumption that an individual's locus of control can be altered is of particular importance for the use of the concept. This assumption is empirically supported by a numbers of studies (Hansemark 1998), thus allowing empirical research not only to enquire into possible difference that may be found, but even to develop methods and models that are capable of enhancing workers' abilities, if indeed the ability of persons seeking to enter or re-enter the labour

market to deal successfully with obstacles encountered in working life, as well as designing work environments, work tasks and organizational learning.

3.6.1 Job Satisfaction

A widely used definition of job satisfaction is that of Lock, which conceptualizes as an employee's affective response to different facets of the job or organization, implying a personal evaluation of one's job. That is, employees experience job satisfaction if they perceive that their abilities, competence, and values are put to use in the organization and if they receive both rewards and further opportunities from the organization, based on their perceived abilities and performance. From the theory of locus control, a logical hypothesis would be that internals are more inclined than externals to seek a higher level of job satisfaction. For example, an employee with a low belief in his or her own ability to influence outcomes is unlikely to be always willing to engage with enthusiasm and dedication in achieving goals at the workplace, while the contrary is to be expected of a person who believes that outcomes are contingent upon their own efforts and skills.



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This assumption is supported by (Hansemark 1998) statement that one can probably see locus of control as more of a diagnostic indicator of a person's likelihood to seek to accomplish their goals in life. This should lead to internals being more active than externals in seeking ways of creating situations where their actions will be rewarded, and if not, they may be expected to pursue other forms of action. Spector (1982) suggests that internals will more readily than leave a dissatisfying job. Spector (1982) also suggests reasons why internals should have a higher level of job satisfaction than externals in that internals performing better are likely to receive the benefits of better performance, such as faster promotion and better pay, so increasing their job satisfaction.

Brown (1997) indicates that, locus of control is an important factor for understanding human behavior in work organizations and an individual's

responsibility to learn. As a personality characteristic locus of control is an important variable influencing the individual. To achieve a high level of work motivation or satisfaction, women as managers must develop and build up generalized expectancies that their own actions or behavior may be the course of either a positive or negative reinforcement. Otherwise they may will not see opportunities in everyday response; nor are they receptive to learning if they believe that only chance, luck, fate, or powerful others control the reinforcement they receive unrelated to their behavior (Brown 1997)

The variable of learning is a consistently valuable contributes to job satisfaction. Learning is positively correlated to job satisfaction in at least two different ways (Senge 1990). Senge (1990), points out that the enhancement of the learning environment can lead to higher levels of job satisfaction. Locus of control may have a direct effect on learning and also moderate a relationship between job satisfaction and learning.



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Institutes of higher learning are currently in state of flux. They must be able to adjust to rapid changes, widespread uncertainty, and increased competitiveness innovative models must be employed to adjust to such changes (Senge (1990)). Successful institutions will have empowered workers who have learned critical skills to create and expand their own capabilities. Senge (1990) asserted that organizations which will excel in the future will those that can tap commitment and capacity to learn at all the levels of the organization. These learning organizations will emphasize generative learning rather than adaptive learning, which is traditional learning mode and geared toward coping with the environment (Senge, 1990).

Bell (1995) stated that the single greatest challenge facing current managers is to raise the productivity of knowledge and service workers. This challenge will determine the quality of life in every country. He proposed that the solution will not be working harder or longer but rather in working smarter. Tasks must be

defined. Who does them and how they are measured must also be depicted as a function of speed of learning. Locus of control as one of the personality characteristics that play a crucial role on the behavior or actions of an individual, lead to learning new behaviors that may be expected in maintaining a knowledgeable, creative, competent and empowered and satisfied workforce. Those workers who are satisfied about their jobs and hold more internal beliefs and personal control are likely to be the leaders in their respective organizations.

3.6.2 Job Performance

Job performance can and should be judged from the point of view of the role employees see themselves as having skills and abilities the job. These roles are seen as being either of a compliant nature or of an initiatory nature, whereof the terms compliant performance and initiative performance. These two roles are the point of the departure for the discussion below. There is quite a lot of empirical evidence that connects cognitive ability with job performance (Bell 1995). The proposal here is the locus of control can be expected to play an important role in work performance. Some empirical evidence would seem to support this assumption.

Bell (1995) notes that externals seem to have a greater need for task structure before and during the performance of tasks; that they do not readily question the need or reason for carrying out tasks, and that as a result they may not take part in the performance of tasks with enthusiasm until they receive information on the benefits of their task. They are generally therefore more dogmatic in carrying out tasks, that is to say, give a more compliant performance. They also tend to show less interest in the entrepreneurial skills that might enable them to take greater control of situations or to produce new structure organizations that might enable them to gain better results from efforts.

Internals, on the other hand, tend to show much more curiosity in the reasons for task performance and to spend more time seeking information about the various tasks they are required to perform. Here one can indeed speak about initiative performance (Bell 1995), for having acquired information, internals are inclined to use that information in a more advantageous way than externals. Internals also tend to have greater interest in entrepreneurial skills; and seem to be quicker and more willing in the extraction of cues from information and the different situations that they find themselves in, which make it possible for them to produce new structures or organizations that might enable them to gain better results from their efforts.



They even tend to show greater variability and are more deliberate and confident when making decisions than externals. Research shows that internal are more verbally fluent than externals and use verbal abilities to greater advantage. The general conclusion that can be drawn from the research into locus of control and cognitive ability is that there is clear tendency for internals to show a higher level of cognitive alertness than externals. They also seem more willing to search for and find information that they will interpret as helpful for controlling and coping with different situations and in the performance of tasks (Bell, 1995).

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The proposed relationship between locus of control and job performance has received empirical support; for example in the results found by Blau (1993) after reviewing research pertaining to job performance and its relation to locus of control, concludes that there is scientific evidence that internals tends to produce better job performance than externals. Blau (1993), using a sample of 146 bank employees, found support for the suggestion that an internal locus of control is related to higher initiative performance and those externals exhibited a more compliant performance.

An important dimension of job performance is motivation, or as (Blau 1993), puts it, motivated action, defined as “international goal-directed behavior” This consist

of three components, behavior, orientation and emotion. Blau argues that perceived control influences motivation and . Spector (1982, 1986) supports this proposed relationship of locus control-motivation-job performance in organizational setting, arguing that persons of internal orientation will show more job motivation, since they are more task and goal orientated. Other empirical support can be found in studies looking into the relation between locus of control and achievement motivation (Rotter, 1966).

Psychology and organizational behavior indicates that characteristics of the work environment may, in turn, interact with employees' personal characteristics, and thereby individual performance. This suggests that as institutions of higher learning restructure their managerial approaches, they should consider how women in senior managerial positions are affected job performance by interactions with their personal characteristics



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Locus of control plays an important role in human performance in institutions of higher learning settings. Locus of control influences job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. It is one of the most frequently investigated personality constructs in the psychology and social sciences.

(Rotter 1966), depicts that locus of control theory classified individuals as their internal as shown earlier. Hence internals tend to believe that their actions influence outcomes, they adapt better and perform more effectively in environments that allow them a greater degree of control in their own actions. By contrasts, externals tend to believe that outcomes are more a function of outside forces than their own actions; so they adapt better and perform more effectively when a greater degree of control is imposed on them (Brownell 1981).

Externals generally do not perceive a strong link between personal efforts and outcomes. They tend to believe that outcomes are determined by outside forces.

Such individuals exhibit relatively ineffective task oriented coping behavior in ambiguous task settings (Anderson 1977). Thus, they may perform better when control is imposed on them and when they can carry out tasks or procedures decided upon by others (Brownell 1981). Structured organizations prescribe more rules and step by step guidance, impose a relatively high degree of control, and allow less discretion over specific decisions; hence we expect structured organizations' work environments to be more congruent with the characteristics of individuals with an external locus of control.

On the other hand, individuals classified as internals generally perceive a relatively strong link between personal efforts and outcomes, and believe that their actions make a difference. Such individuals are more effective at manipulating ambiguous work environments, finding the information they need to perform better in situations that allow them to exercise control and to take action they believe is appropriate to the circumstances (Brownell 1981). Because individuals at unstructured organizations experience a relatively high degree of control and can exercise more discretion over their choices in managerial issues, unstructured organizations tend to be more congruent with an internal locus of control.



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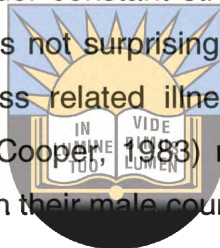
3.6.3 Job Stress

Jobs stress, defined in the present study as work attributes that pose threats or risks to an employee, results from a poor person environment fit. Stress is affected by certain personality attributes and by the availability of social support. These and other moderating variables are commonly referred to as stress-buffering resources because they are presumed to protect people from the harmful outcomes of stress (Rahim & Psenicka, 1996).

Occupational stress has increasingly become the subject of research in the behavioral and clinical sciences. Stress has been termed a 'Millennium Malady'

and has been recognized as the cause of several stress-related diseases. In South Africa the economic burden of funding stress-related illnesses and disorders could run into billions of rand per annum (Bisseker, 1998). The costs of stress are thus estimated to have a major impact on organization bottom line profits and the nation's economic status as a whole. Awareness of the consequences of occupational stress is also reflected in South African Labour legislation.

Several stress theorists (for example Schlebusch, 2000) indicate that middle managers and executives work under constant stress and pressure. With more women in managerial positions, it is not surprising that a greater percentage of women are also exposed to stress-related illnesses and diseases. Various authors (for example Davidson & Cooper, 1983) report that women managers may cope differently with stress than their male counterparts.



Past research on work related stress and coping has focused mainly on males (Kobasa, 1979, 1982) and has neglected gender as a variable. Kobasa (1982) state that findings from: "male only" occupational stress studies are often incorrectly generalized to women. It is surprising that even with the increasing number of women entering managerial positions; most studies of managerial work stress have either omitted women from the studies or have not examined gender differences in this area (McDonald & Rosin, 1993). Failure to include gender as a variable in stress-related research that examined only male subjects or only female subjects has thus resulted in gaps, contradictions and biases in the study of stress and coping.

- **Role overload**

Rahim & Psenicka (1996) define role overload a degree to which job demands exceed personal and workplace resources and the extent to which an employee is able to effectively complete work assignments. Role overload measures the extent to which job demand exceed resources (personal or workplace) and the extent to which the individual is able to accomplish workloads. An employee could experience anger and frustration toward persons believed responsible for work overload.

- **Role Insufficiency**



Role insufficiently measures the extent to which the individual's training, education and experience are appropriate to job requirements (). This variable indicates the degree to which an employee's education, skills, training and experience are congruent with his or her job requirements (Rahim & Psenicka 1996).

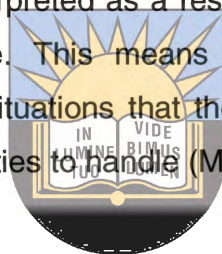
- **Role ambiguity**

This variable indicates the degree to which priorities, expectations and evaluation criteria are clear to an employee (Rahim & Psenicka 1996). Role ambiguity measures the extent to which priorities, expectations, and evaluation criteria are clear to the individual. Decker & Borgen (1993) found that control, a tendency to feel and act as if one can exert influence in the workplace, was negatively correlated to role ambiguity. This suggests that if an individual believes that he can exert influence over the circumstances, the ambiguity may not be experienced. Decker & Borgen (1993:476) also found that ambiguous or unchallenging work is likely to evoke the adverse outcomes of strain and job dissatisfaction.

- **Role conflict**

Role conflict is when an individual experience incongruous job expectations and may occur when the individual is required to fulfill several different roles. Role conflict also measures the degree to which an employee experiences conflicting role demands and loyalties at work (Rahim & Psenicka 1996).

Thus, locus of control is a moderator of life stress and a common symptom of stress and external control specifically is positively correlated with stress and depression. Job stress can be interpreted as a result of the interaction between the individual and the workplace. This means that workplace, demands, constraints, and change present situations that the individual may perceive as threatening beyond his/her capabilities to handle (McGrath, 1976).



Another way of understanding job stress is by looking at the level of work pressure in the workplace, where work pressure is defined as a constant perceived high level of work load .Much research has been done in the area of work stress, and findings seem to support the hypothesis that a lack of control in the workplace plays an important part in the employees' perceived levels of stress. That is, gaining a control over the job situation is a way to reduce job stress (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). This emphasizes the general importance that perception of control is assumed to play within the area of work stress.

Job stress and locus of control support are related (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). The studies presented above all found that externals seem not only to have higher perceived levels of stress than internals but also appear to be more negatively affected. Using two studies , one cross-sectional and one longitudinal, looked at stress from a demand-discretion perspective, and found a relationship between work demands and locus of control, such that externals in situations where work demands and discretion were not in balance experience high, stress levels, while this was not the case for internals.

These results suggest that externals tend to have greater difficulties than internals in dealing with the imbalances between demands and control in a variety of work related situations. This supports the idea that the construct has its place in this area of life. Thus the notion of locus of control as personality characteristic moderates the adverse results or effects of job stress (Cummins, 1988). One way of conceptualizing these effects or results would be to compare the correlations between job stress and job strain for internals and externals. A significant difference between the two correlations would indicate a moderating effect of personality characteristics; in this case, the correlation of the internals should be lower than that for the externals (Rahim & Psenicka 1996).

3.6.4 Turnover and Locus of control



Internal external locus of control is an individual difference which, it has been suggested proposed, affects turnover. Blau (1987:21) states that locus of control moderates the relationships between two facets of satisfaction, promotion and pay, both to withdrawal cognitions and turnover. In addition, locus of control moderates the relationship between withdrawal cognition and turnover. Internals showed significantly stronger negative relationships than externals between these satisfaction facets and withdrawal cognition and turnover. Internals showed a stronger positive relationship than externals between withdrawal cognition and turnover (Blau 1987).

Employee turnover is an of the important element in this research, in order to find out why women still occupy the positions they do, and why they are still under-represented. One research approach has emphasized understanding the causes or antecedents of turnover. Initial research on predicting turnover prediction concentrated on investigating simple job attitude turnover relationship (Porter & Steers, 1973). The dominant job attitude variable investigated was satisfaction, which was often broken down into various satisfaction facets, for instance work, pay, promotion, co-workers and supervision. Cumulative research results show

that work satisfaction is significantly negatively related to turnover on a consistent basis. Although the evidence is not as consistent as it is for work satisfaction, other satisfaction facets such as pay, promotion, and co-worker and supervision satisfaction have also been found to be significantly negatively related to turnover. In recent meta-analysis of the turnover literature, Cotton & Tuttle (1986) concluded that these are strong predictors of turnover, while there was moderate confidence that pay, promotion, and co-worker satisfaction variables typically accounted for 3-10 per cent of the variance in turnover, depending on the satisfaction facets bring used.

Recent models of turnover have linked job attitudes such as satisfaction with turnover by various intermediate withdrawal considerations, such as thoughts of quitting, intention to search, and intention to quit. Studies have found support for including such withdrawal cognitions in predicting turnover. In an effort to uncover this thus far unexplained part of turnover, (Porter & Steers, 1973) have suggested employing longitudinal research designs with repeated measures, exploration of non-linear relationship among variables using interaction terms, and further examination of individual differences, including personality characteristics to gain clear insight on the issues..

Most previous turnover research using individual difference variables has concentrated upon such demographic characteristics as age, tenure, sex, education level and family size (Porter & Steers, 1973). The results generally show a consistent negative relationship for age and tenure with turnover, and mixed results for sex, educational level and family size with turnover. Research on personality characteristics as direct predictors of turnover has generally been inconclusive, although need for achievement has been found to be positively related to turnover in several instances. Several investigators (Mobley, 1982) have recently hinted that personality variables may be useful for better understand the turnover process.

Internal-external locus of control (Rotter, 1966) is a concept which seeks to determine whether individuals attribute the cause of events to themselves (internal) or to their environment (external). The tendency for internals to believe that they can control events and externals to believe that they cannot has implications for their attitudes, perceptions and behaviors in work settings. For instance, internals demonstrate more job satisfaction than externals (Mobley, 1982). Concerning work perception, (Mobley, 1982) found internals to be more inclined to attribute to their own actions the holding of their present jobs, while Hammer & Vardi (1980) found that internals were more likely than externals to attribute past job changes to their own initiatives. Hammer & Vardi (1980) found evidence that locus of control was related to turnover. Keller discussed this result in terms of internals being more likely to take it upon themselves to leave unhealthy job situations.



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Spector (1982) speculated that locus of control would moderate the relationship between satisfaction and turnover such that the negative relationship between satisfaction and turnover would be stronger for internals than externals. According to Spector (1982), this relationship so exist because externals are not as likely as internals to take action personally if they are dissatisfied. If, according to Spector (1982), locus of control moderates the relationship between satisfaction and turnover, then drawing form recent turnover, the drawing form recent turnover models (Mobley, 1982) locus of control may also moderate the relationship between satisfaction and withdrawal cognition and withdrawal cognitions and turnover, since withdrawal cognitions are an important intermediate link between satisfaction and turnover. The hallmark of this chapter is to explain and distinguish whether locus of control has an impact on women under-representation in management positions.

3.7 Summary

It is important for managers or decision makers to elaborate strategies on the basis of causal models like that of locus of control. Managers therefore must identify one or several causes for success and build a causal model that they modify in the course of their careers (Spector 1982). Thus women are still under-represented in management positions because they are not able to identify these causal models. Using their past experience becomes meaningful when translated into management results. In this chapter locus of control is explained in detail to assess the degree to which the causal model of women as decision makers depend on locus of control. If in management locus of control has a significant influence on the way decision makers elaborate management and forecast and identify causes of the present and future states of their organizations, then this personality variable must be taken into account when institutions of higher learning elaborate their strategies, analyze their environment, and recruit senior managers.



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Every individual learns to elaborate a causal model relating to his behavior and its consequences. Beliefs about locus of control (Rotter, 1966) develop into general expectations that individuals may have about the control they may exercise over various situations. These general expectations influence individual behavior in many specific situations. Several major psychosocial studies (Rotter 1966) show that the individuals learning process is negatively affected if it thought they believe that they have no control over reinforcements they have received: They do not establish a relationship between their actions and the consequences of their actions

CHAPTER 4

LEADERSHIP AND DECISION MAKING

4.1 Introduction

Women are marginalized in decision making and leadership by a variety of processes that begin in infancy. In most societies, women lack experience of decision making and leadership in the public arena because girls, in contrast to boys, are socialized to play passive roles and are given little opportunity to make decisions or develop leadership skills outside the family context (Corner, 1996). In most traditional societies girls are kept largely within the confines of the household and family where they are protected and taught to accept the decisions that others, parents, teachers, brothers make on their behalf (Corner, 1996).



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As a result of this lack of experience in a public context, girls tend to lack the self-confidence and skills needed to function effectively in positions of formal leadership. An added handicap for many is their lack of capacity due to discrimination in access to education and training: in most countries, women have higher levels of illiteracy and fewer years of schooling than men (Corner, 1996). Even when women succeed in gaining education and enter the decision-making mainstream, they are often marginalized by an institutional setting that reflects men's needs and ignores women's different needs and experience.

Modern work patterns and practices are designed for men who have a supportive wife to take care of their essential domestic needs and family responsibilities at home; hence the saying that every career woman needs a good wife! Because it is designed to fit the needs and expectations of men, the modern work environment is not family friendly (Corner, 1996). The hours and inflexibility of the working day, overtime, the location of work and commuting

times make it difficult for working women to meet the dual expectations of their family and work roles, giving rise to role conflict(Corner , 1996)..

Most men do not face such role conflict because society regards their family and personal roles as discretionary, meaning that they are subsidiary to and have to be fitted in with the primary work role. Thus, although men play important roles as husbands and fathers, these generally do not interfere with their primary work role as family breadwinner. For example, if a man's wife or child falls ill or is otherwise in need of his assistance, he is not expected (nor, in most cases, permitted) to leave his work in order to attend to them(Corner , 1996).



Nor will he be considered a "bad" father or husband as a consequence. By contrast, women's primary roles as wife and mother require their attention 24 hours a day and thus, for working women, must be carried out simultaneously with the work role. Even where a working woman has domestic assistance, she is still held responsible for managing her family. If her child or husband is ill, she is expected (and grudgingly permitted) to interrupt her work in order to ensure that their needs are met. If she fails to do so, society tends to judge her as a "bad" wife or mother (Corner, 1996).

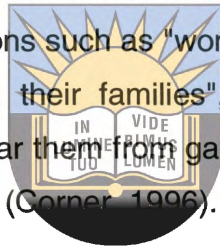
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In addition to role conflict, women often find themselves isolated and marginalized in unfriendly, if not hostile, male-dominated institutional cultures. A colleague recently described the situation of women in her office in the following terms: women must continually prove themselves to be capable, but the men are assumed to be competent even when they are demonstrably not. Women must provide strong arguments to support their views; men are simply believed on the basis of their professional qualifications and personal relationships (Corner, 1996).

In the work place, women are often judged by two quite different and conflicting standards, as women and as workers, placing them in a classic no-win situation.

For example, good employees at the management level are usually expected to be decisive, articulate, assertive and clear about their goals and objectives. However, in most cultures women *as women* are expected to be submissive, passive and demure (Corner, 1996).

Thus a woman who displays the characteristics of a good manager may find that her supervisors are not appreciative because they are actually and probably unconsciously judging her as a woman, as well as a worker. Some women also find that there is no "space" for them to perform effectively as decision makers because men dominate debate, male networks determine promotions and sexist stereotypes (for example, assumptions such as "women cannot work in the field", "will not take transfers away from their families", are made without actually consulting the women concerned) bar them from gaining the experience required for senior decision-making positions (Corner, 1996).



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The purpose of this chapter is to explore the principles of leadership and decision making. There are talks about the decline of the work ethic. In reality, it is not the work ethic which has declined, and trust of the women. Managers have failed to empower women regardless of whether people look at organizations, or institutions, the key pivotal factor needed to enhance human resources in the organizations, including the institutions to higher learning is leadership and decision making (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

4.2 Leadership versus management

It is commonly thought that men and women differ in the extent or frequency with which each exhibits various traits, especially those that are frequently perceived to be more genetic and stereotypical of males (for example, aggressive and forceful) or more communal and stereotypical of females (for example, interpersonally sensitive and sympathetic). Further, stereotypes frequently influence behaviors, with many real-world consequences, not the least of which

are those often manifested in the disparate behavior of men and women in the workplace (Crawford, 2006).

Stereotypes are organized sets of beliefs about the traits, attributes, and behavioral tendencies thought to distinguish one group from another. Many people exhibit strong stereotypes about gender-based trait differences. Many people expect men to be more genetic than women. That is, men are viewed as being more aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-sufficient, and self-confident. By contrast, many people expect women to be more communal than men. That is, women are viewed as being more affectionate, compassionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, and gentle (Bakan, 1996; Eagly, 1987; Schein, Mueller, & Jacobsen, 1989).

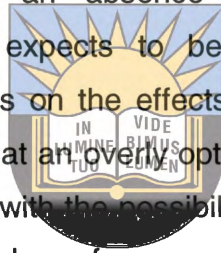


One important reason for studying leadership in management is that beliefs regarding how men and women differ are often translated into action. Indeed, considerable evidence reveals that men and women are perceived and treated differently in a variety of contexts (Heilman, Martell, 1995; Jackson, Sullivan, & Hodge, 1993; Schein, 1973). As women began to enter previously male-dominated occupations, researchers developed an interest in how female managers would be perceived and treated in the workplace and found them stereotyped, often characterized as lacking what it takes to succeed in management (Crawford, 1996).

Schein (1989) stated that male managers “still adhere to the male managerial stereotype and perceive that successful middle managers possess characteristics.... more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. Research provides abundant evidence that compared to their male counterparts; female managers are judged less favorably on a range of personnel assessments, including hiring, placements, performance assessment, and promotion (Bartol, 1999; & Jacobs, 2000). If unchecked, differential

treatment based on gender stereotypes will continue to pose significant obstacles to women in management.

Surprisingly, despite an enormous body of research on how female managers are perceived and treated, little attention has been devoted to an issue of critical importance: how aware are women of the stereotypically negative light in which they are viewed in organizational settings? That is, are women aware of the extent to which they are viewed as less well suited for management positions by their male counterparts? Consider for example, a woman who assumes a management position expecting an absence of negative, gender-based stereotyping and, consequently, expects to be perceived and treated no differently than a man. Researches on the effects of job expectations that are inaccurate or unrealistic suggest that an overly optimistic outlook may be setting hirees up for disappointment later, with the possibility of lowered job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance (Wanous, Poland, & Davis, 1992). It would be unrealistic if women underestimated men's beliefs in male – manager superiority in the workplace.



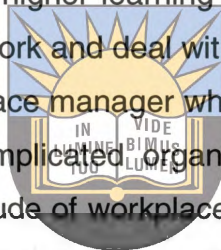
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Whereas leaders are seen as charismatic and often admired and held in high esteem, managers frequently are thought of as the organizations' taskmasters with a whip in one hand and a bullhorn for screaming out orders in the other hand. Is there really a difference between these two terms, or are the perceived differences simply a matter of style? Even if there is a difference, does that difference truly affect the day-to-day workplace? Is it important to differentiate between leadership and management? Many people think it is, as evidenced by academic debates and Internet searches (Zaleznik, 1998).

Virtually all organizations, including large corporations, military branches, government agencies, and academic institutions, as well as MBA programmes, organizational development consultants, industrial psychologists, leadership theorists, and human resources professionals are concerned about the difference

and believe it is important. Therefore the difference between leadership and management will be discussed, how are they the same, and why are those differences and similarities important in the workplace (Kotterma, 2006). To conceptualize and define leadership and management has always been difficult. The two terms are often used interchangeably in the workplace, creating confusion. There are many who have noted these differences (Bass, 1990; Kotter, 1990, 1999; Terry, 1993, Zaleznik, 1998).

Management is a fairly new phenomenon. The emergence of large, complex organizations such as institutes of higher learning in the 20th century generated the need for a system to regulate work and deal with authority and control issues. This resulted in the modern workplace manager who was expected to reduce the internal chaos of those more complicated organizations. Managers brought order and consistency to the multitude of workplace processes. Since then time, the duties of workplace management, and its associated processes have been researched, refined, and improved significantly (Kotter, 1990, 1999).



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On the other hand, leadership is one of the world's oldest preoccupations, has been a hot topic and an important driver of innovation for thousands of years (Bass, 1990). Effective leadership remains one of the most misunderstood human phenomena and comprises of the most fundamental aspects of the human condition (Wren, 1995). Why do the experts believe it is important to differentiate between leadership and management? Fundamentally, if one can't define leadership or management, you can't measure, test, make assessment, or consistently hire for or promote them. Yet, they are both important to a successful workplace. The ongoing debate as to whether or not a clear distinction exists between leadership and management generally remains unresolved (Gardner, 1990; Gordon and Yukl, 2004).

Theories of workplace leadership and management continue to emerge and to be refined, but lack of a parsimonious taxonomy and a unifying theory of

leadership have made progress slow and fraught with conflicting empirical results. Zaleznik (1998) asserts, as does Kotter (1990), that although leadership and management may be similar in some ways, they show many very distinct differences. Managers have a narrow purpose and try to maintain order, stabilize work, and organize resources. Leaders seek to develop new goals and to align them with organizations (Kotter, 1990; Zaleznik, 1998). Manager's control and problem solve while leaders motivate and inspire. Finally, managers produce standards, consistency, predictability, and order. Leaders produce the potential for dramatic change, chaos, and even failure (Kotter, 1990). Gardner (1990) wrote that the term manager often suggests an individual who holds a directive post in an organization, a person who organizes functions, allocates resources, and makes the best use of people.

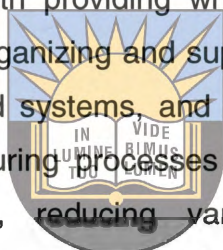


Unfortunately, when compared to a leader, the workplace manager is often generalized as an “unimaginative clod”. Gardner (1990) noted that every time he encountered a first-class manager, the manager turned out to possess a lot of leadership ability. The difference was that the manager's focus was different from that of the leader. For Gardner, the differences between a workplace leader and a workplace manager are not as distinct as they are for Kotter and Zaleznik (Bass, 1990; Kotter, 1990 Zaleznit, 1998). Gardner, the differences between what he calls the leader-manager and the routine manager are that the leader-manager is concerned with thinking longer term, developing an organizational vision, reaching longer-term goals and values, and motivating others. The routine manager is more strongly associated with the organizational structure; he/she thinks and acts in the shorter term, accepting and maintaining the status quo (Bass, 1990; Gardner, 1990).

An abundance of taxonomies have been developed to identify and differentiate the role differences between leaders and managers. The conclusion reached by Bass (1990) is that the vast amount of research into leadership versus management indicates that sometimes leaders manage and sometimes

managers lead. The research resulting from diaries, observations, interviews, questionnaires, and surveys suggests that both leadership and management exhibit considerable variation but little co-variation (where the hypothesized cause must correlate with the observed effect), in other words, the demands of each vary considerably, exhibit some overlap, but they are much more different than they are the same.

Nebeker and Tatum (2002) suggest that management is continually planning, organizing, supervising, and controlling resources to achieve organizational goals. Planning is associated with providing what the customer wants and developing a way to provide it. Organizing and supervising involves developing an organizational structure, reward systems, and a performance management system. Controlling involves ensuring processes and product characteristics, sustaining production processes, reducing variation, providing customer satisfaction, and anticipating short-term needs. Managers take responsibility for those processes and are constantly seeking to improve them.



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Leaders, on the other hand, look into the future from 50,000 feet in anticipation of the organization's global needs and long-term future. There is obviously more to leadership than managing and more to managing than just planning, controlling, and supervising. Leaders and managers may be differentiated by competencies, attitudes, and values, but that's not all. Leaders and managers who occupy the same position in the same organization may differ in the models and techniques they use to perform the requirements of the position and in the styles they use (Bass, 1990). Terry (1993) noted that when voted on at leadership panel discussions, one third of the group usually voted in favor of distinct differences and two-thirds in favor of an overlap.

Terry believes Kotter (1990) argues persuasively for distinct differences, but even Kotter (1990) states that when the two are compared side by side they clearly exhibit many similarities. To this end, Kotter (1990) developed a management

versus leadership summary illustrating how leaders and managers differ. Zalesnick (1998) developed a similar list of leader versus manager differences. There is a general acceptance that the functions of leaders and managers are conceptually different, but no universal acceptance of what those functional differences is apparent. Gordon and Yukl (2004) along with Zaccaro and Horn (2003) believe one common misconception that divides academics from practitioners is that workplace leadership and management are mutually exclusive, when, in fact, they are complementary.

For his research, Yukl (1989) prefers not to separate management from leadership and uses the term managerial leadership. Kotter (1990, 1995, and 1990) and Zalesnick (1998), however, see the two functions as occasionally blended, complementary, but definitely as two different functions. Kotter (1995) sees management as dealing with procedures, practices, and complexity and leadership as dealing with change. In a nutshell, management is tactical and all about coping with the here and now while leadership is strategic and primarily about coping with the future.

Thus, it is unusual for one person to have the skills to serve as both an inspiring leader and a professional manager. In large, complex organizations, these two distinct roles are even more difficult to assimilate in one person, and the tendency is to set leadership skills aside in favor of managing the workplace. Too often, senior managers believe they are leading when in fact they are managing. Kotter (1995) points out that most U.S. corporations are typically over-managed and under-led. Although organizations must have a mix of leaders and managers to succeed, there is little understanding of the differences between the two roles and what their optimal relation is. Since management and leadership are so misunderstood, most companies believe they need many leaders when in fact what they really need is a few great leaders and many first-class managers. In reality, managers in most organizations are rarely in a position to lead.

Companies often hire expensive leadership consultants to teach leadership development classes and develop leadership assessment. When the newly trained leaders attempt to lead, they quickly discover they aren't allowed to do so; they actually are expected to manage. This creates frustration, apathy, and discontent. In fact, as the old saying goes, too many cooks spoil the broth. In the case of modern organizations, too many leaders will spoil their effectiveness. Multiple leaders with different visions not only can be confused in leading, to the point where no one is managing the processes or doing the work. This does not mean that managers cannot demonstrate leadership qualities.


Managers may lead by example or lead a project or team, but they still end up performing the functions of management. Successful management is a really tough, challenging, and very important job. It should be given its due respect. Real leadership is tough, too, but it should not be confused with management. Agreeing to a relatively simple taxonomy of what a leader is and what a manager does will save corporations some resources, improve both leadership and management performance, and will help academics and practitioners to come to a consensus that could benefit everyone. In the final analysis, it appears that the debate will continue in academic circles, corporations will continue to ask for leaders when they need managers, and consultants will continue to supply leadership development and assessment. For practical purposes in the workplace, managers supervise nearly everything (Kotterma, 2006)

Rarely will a plant manager, production manager, quality manager, or training manager actually lead. He/she will manage the processes and the people to produce the status quo or an improved version of it. That, however, is a good thing because the status quo is what companies make and what they sell. A deviation from the status quo is usually called nonconforming; it can produce unhappy customers and create loss of revenue. On the other hand, virtually every employee has the opportunity to show leadership at some point. When given the opportunity to lead, it is essential to lead well. Understanding the

differences between leadership and management can ensure that employees know when and how to apply each set of characteristics for given processes (Kotterma, 2006).

4.2.1 The management route model

The under-representation of women in management is now considered to be a complex issue involving interacting factors of a personal, organizational and social nature. In the past analyses of the position of women focused almost exclusively on personal factors, such as gender specific socialization and the division of work in and outside the home. Explanations for the position held by men, however, were sought in organizational factors with emphasis on the job or working conditions. Already at the beginning of the last decade, Kanter (1977), Wheatly (1981) and Ortiz (1981) were arguing that in favor of the integration of these elements in the analysis of the problem.



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The management route model differentiates between the factors influencing the career path to a management position and distinguishes three phases. They are; the phase of anticipation or preparation for a management function, the phase in which such a function is sought and acquired and the phase in which it is performed. Women encounter more obstacles than men in all three. These three factors can therefore be referred to as influencing factors.

- **Anticipation phase**

In the anticipation or preparatory phase, the development and presentation of the knowledge and skills needed for a management position are crucial (anticipatory socialization). Training can play an important role at the personal level. Women seem to have fewer opportunities than men to prepare themselves for senior positions (Ortiz, 1981; Wheatly, 1981). Organizational factors play a role here. Traditionally, educational institutions have a horizontal structure with very few

people at the top and large numbers of practitioners –men and women teachers officially having the same status (Mintzberg, 1979). Despite this theoretical equality in hierarchy and pay, there are differences in power and esteem. These are caused and sustained by opportunities and rewards which are distributed semi-informally, such as attending conferences and courses, running a department, representing the institutions in projects and non teaching hours.

Those who allocate these rewards are usually male employees who tend reward those who are like themselves, that is to say other men (Adkinson, 1981). Moreover, far more women than men work only part time. A part time job offers less scope for taking on additional, time-consuming responsibilities, such as running a department or chairing a project group, yet it is this type of activity which enables any employee to qualify for management and acquire a higher profile within an organization.



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Participation in informal networks and the support of a sponsor are also extremely important in this phase. They too enable employees to acquire a higher profile and provide the support and opportunities that are essential for promotion to important positions. Women have greater problems than men to access such networks and to find a sponsor (Adkinson, 1981; Ortiz, 1981; Wheatly, 1981). The anticipation phase includes the acquisition of qualifications and making others aware of these qualifications and of ones ambition. Personal and organizational factors play an important part here. Both are influenced by social factors, such as how the traditional division of work and the management qualities of men and women are perceived.

- **Acquisition Phase**

The acquisition phase involves looking for and being appointed to a management position. Several personal factors play a role here. First, qualification, where the ratio of experience to formal qualifications is important, Job application skills are

crucial, as are ambition and the readiness to apply for a job. The latter is closely linked to a candidate's expectation of success. Women employees rarely believe they have a chance of being appointed to a management position. This can be attributed to stereotyped ideas and the expectations women have of themselves, as well as of those who recruit and within institutions in generally.

There are also organizational and social factors. Management is generally considered to be a male activity and, as management positions are predominantly held by men, the masculine image of the manager is the norm. It is assumed that women do not possess the qualities associated with this normative model. This plays an important role in the assessment of candidate's suitability for management posts (Biklen & Brannigan, 1980; Hall, 1993; Schein, 1994)



The less clearly the selection criteria are defined, the greater role of this mechanism. Lack of information on the candidates' employees has the same effect (Hall, 1993). Some national policies and regulations, such as maternity leaves and child care facilities (social), can also have an important effect on women obtaining management positions. In addition, the informal networks and sponsoring mentioned in the anticipation phase are equally important here.

- **Performance Phase**

In the performance phase too personal, organizational and social factors have an impact on how women carry out management positions in education. Much research has been devoted in the personal domain to men and female employees having different priorities for task selection or has different managerial styles; while other studies do not (Coleman, 1996; Kruger, 1994, Shakeshaft, 1987) consider these to be important.

At the organizational level, the under- representation of women in management positions is also a problem for women who do hold such functions. They face as by Kanter (1977) observed treatment of their position as and as one of ascribed power. A woman is seen to represent all women in the token position; ascribed power refers to the widely held conviction that men are more suited for management positions. Ely (1994) describes the perception of men and women's suitability for management positions with the help of research carried out in the UK. According to some researchers, women are better suited to a management positions in primary education and men to a management position in secondary education. Informal networking is just as important in this phase as in the anticipation and acquisition phases and can be a problem for women.

4.2.2 Gendered Leadership experience



Being a woman is not a particular barrier upon first entering the management ranks if she performs well as a regular employee and demonstrates a strong aspiration towards career development. The barrier rises when she tries to enter senior management positions, defined as leader positions. The barrier consists in the belief that normally only men possess the necessary qualities of being leaders. And this belief is reinforced by the preference for men when senior managers make promotion decisions. In obtaining management positions being a woman has a significant impact on carrying out leadership responsibilities. Three of the four characteristics of women's leadership styles reflect such impact:

- **Hierarchical but not authoritarian**

Even though the cultural norm determines that leadership is hierarchical- managers are supposed to possess better technical skills and more acumen in business and the world in general, and are expected to protect their employees – a woman's leadership style does not have an authoritarian element, as defined in paternal leadership studies of male leaders (Jacob & Jacques, 1987). The

participants explained that if women applied a more authoritarian style to great effect they would do better.

- **Transactional with care**

Given the limitations that enterprises impose on middle managers, women managers display a transactional leadership style, in the sense that they offer desirable rewards in exchange for an employee's good performance. However, these women managers expressed particular interest in caring for employees. In addition to providing tangible rewards, most made an effort to get to know their employees and to pay attention to their emotional needs. They also saw the development of the employee skills to be an important part of their job as managers, as their male counterparts did not.



- **Valuing relationship**

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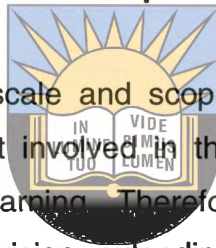
In South Africa, particular attention is paid to relationships in all social contexts. Establishing relations with superior managers, peer managers, and external business partners is an indispensable part of a manager's work. Here the women managers encounter problems because most of the people they need to build relationships with are men. The women managers felt that they could not have a close relationship with their male counterparts, because this would raise the suspicion that they could obtain favors by using their sexuality. However, close relationships with upper managers are very important in order to secure the resources to achieve the team goals. In this sense, employees preferred to work with male managers. Maintaining quality communications with male peer managers was difficult because men preferred to interact with other men, and made no effort to include women managers in their informal structures.

While men and women managers have different ways of communicating, women managers are expected to adapt to the male style. The relationship women

managers have with each other was problematic too. Due to negative stereotypes about women, the women managers generally regard other women managers as less competent and as less valuable allies. Furthermore “Under conditions where resources and opportunities are perceived to be scarce for women, relationships between women may also be more competitive” (Ely, 1994:137). Since the higher education demands more lateral cooperation and building relationships with peer managers is an important aspect of leadership responsibilities, the women managers are at a disadvantage.

4.3 Strategic decision making and leadership

The term strategic implies broad scale and scope. Thus the present study indicates that most women are not involved in the key decision making and leadership in institutions of higher learning. Therefore strategic decision making and leadership requires forward vision extending over a long time span. Strategic leadership is a process wherein those responsible for large scale organizations like institutions of higher learning set long term directions and obtain, through consensus building, the energetic support of key constituencies for the commitment of the resources.

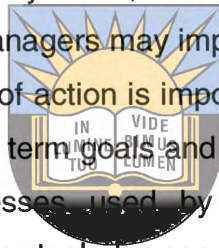


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The decision making process at the top level is similar to that at lower levels, but there are important differences. First, most decisions are shaped and made by small groups involving diverse personalities, ideologies, and organizations. Second, because of the small group process, negotiation and compromise are the norm. Third, decisions are rarely final; rather the dynamic environment requires a continuous reassessment. Fourth, the large amount of relevant data from diverse disciplines at the top level necessitates the use of sophisticated techniques to integrate quantitative and qualitative factors in a manner not found in lower levels of decision making (Zaccaro, 1994).

In the decision making process at top level, performance requirements are critical to strategic vision. Thus strategic leadership performance requirements come from three sources, namely, stratified systems theory which outlines how complexity – handling skills requirements increase at higher organizational levels; a research programme on senior managers and general literature on executive leadership.

Thus leaders at the lower levels are responsible for getting things done, they are therefore action oriented. Compared with leaders at the topmost levels, they have little say about the decisions they make, and the degree of innovation they may implement. These low level managers may improvise but they rarely invent, because, at their level, consistency of action is important. The middle levels are responsible for setting near and mid term goals and direction, and for developing the plans, procedures and processes used by the lower levels. Plans, procedures, and processes are major tools for coordinating effort, particularly in large organizations with many interdependent parts that must act in a coordinated way (Zaccaro 1994).



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The middle levels are also responsible for prioritizing missions and allocating major resources to tailor capability at the lower levels. This includes formulating intermediate range resources allocation plans that implement concepts developed at higher levels, of planning, programming, and budgeting. Top levels are responsible for the strategic direction of the organization within the context of the strategic environment that is now increasingly global (Zaccaro 1994).

4.3.1 Strategic leadership

According to Zaccarro (1996:4) the main body of literature refers to the level of leadership as “senior”, “executive”, or strategic” leadership. Thus strategic leadership is that set of activities directed toward the development and management of an organizations as a whole, including all of its components, to

reflect long range policies and purposes that have emerged from the executive leader's interactions within and interpretations of the organizations' external environment (Zaccarro, 1996).

The nature of leadership at the lower, middle and the top levels of the organization differs (Jacob & Jacques, 1987). It follows that leadership performance requirements change over time as one's career advances. Requirements at the top level call for progressive collegial leadership, ability to understand and deal with complexity, long time horizon, integrative skills, system design skills, and conceptual ability (Jacob & Jacques, 1987). Zaccarro (1996) found that a survey of leadership literature from the disciplines of psychology, public administration, and strategic management suggest four major conceptual perspectives of strategic leadership namely, conceptual complexity, behavioral complexity, strategic decision making and visionary/ inspirational models.



4.3.2 Conceptual Complexity

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Zaccarro (2001) is of opinion that the conceptual perspective, senior executives must possess higher order cognitive abilities and skills to effectively deal with multiple stakeholder groups and their competing interests. These groups, within and outside of the organization, request information related to their interest and pursue their individual agendas, which intend to increase the complexity of decision making. Often, the problems executives face are not well defined or easily solved. Conceptual complexity is based in stratified system theory explained earlier (Jacobs & Jacques 1987), and the interactive complexity theory as it applies to organizational leadership (Strufert & Driver, 1997).

Stratified system theory differentiates leadership performance requirements by organizational levels; lower or production level, mid or organizational levels, and top or strategic levels. Strategic leaders are responsible not only for setting the course of direction for the organization but for coordinating the effort to get there

(Lewis & Jacobs 1992) .A focus on the nature of work, and how it changes as one moves up the hierarchy, is a key component of this theory. The structure, rather than content, of information processing is the main focus of interactive complexity theory. Two variables, individual differences and environmental conditions, impact significantly on leadership effectiveness. At the higher levels of the organization, a manager must be capable of dealing with heavier information load; dealing with a more organizational units, each with multiple goals, as well as the external environment (Lewis & Jacobs 1992).

How then does one evolve from being a “good to a great leader?” Lewis & Jacobs (1992) suggest that a development of the leader happens in progressive stages overtime. Merriam and Caffarella (1999) point to disagreement as to what causes the movement between stages and whether movement occurs only in an upward fashion rather than back and forth between stages.



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Collins (2001) describes leadership development as a process of moving through five stages. Collins (2001) characterizes the level 5 leader as one who puts the organization’s interests above his own, and is ambitious for the institution. This type of individual manifest a paradoxical blend of personal humility and a professional, almost maniacal will. Each of these perspectives has implications for education and leadership development. It may be that what happens between activities, in the quiet time, when one can reflect on experience, is as important as the experience itself. Fischer & Bidell (1997) indicate that in the field of cognitive development researchers have examined how “high-support” conditions can lead to development of critical thinking skills. Understanding how one makes meaning of experience, how perception is changed, is a basis for learning. Examining how these changes occur is a critical aspect of designing appropriate developmental experiences.

4.3.3 Behavioral Complexity

According to Zaccarro (1996:171) this perspective's central focus is on the social demands that must be considered by the executive when formulating action, and the resulting need for the executive to have the capacity to display behavioral complexity" Zaccarro (1996) shows that executive work is action oriented and filled with many different, brief, and discontinuous tasks. Zaccarro further mentions that executives make quick decisions, often based more on trust than analysis. Mintzberg (1979) developed an integrated managerial role set that incorporates ten leader behaviors under the categories of interpersonal, informational, and decision roles.



On an interpersonal level, a manager serves as a figurehead, leader, and liaison officer. In informational roles, the manager monitors effectiveness within the internal and external environment, disseminates information throughout the organization, and acts as spokesperson. Decision roles include those of entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator. Mintzberg emphasizes on the need for all roles to be performed by a strategic leader, so as to form an integrated whole. Tsui (1984) incorporates Mintzberg's roles in his multiple constituency frameworks.

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However, Tsui see the leader's effectiveness as a function of his or her reputation. For each role, Tsui contends, there are role senders, people who have expectations of the leader that must be satisfied. Meeting as many expectations as possible and maintaining a balance between competing expectations are viewed as measures of successful leadership. Quinn's (2002) competing values framework focuses on the conflict created between the various roles. Quinn suggests that a leader must master and display the appropriate behaviors of each role to achieve a balance with opposing roles. Mastery in this ability to balance these requirements is seen as critical to leadership effectiveness.

4.3.4 Strategic Decision-making Perspective

Zaccarro (1996) states that the focus here is primarily on “executive decision-making processes and the characteristics that facilitate these processes”. Zaccarro goes on to say that research on this perspective is lacking. Empirical evidence is scarce; these models place a heavy emphasis on environmental impact and the culture of the organization and see the executive role as a major factor in organizational performance.

4.3.5 Visionary/Inspirational Models

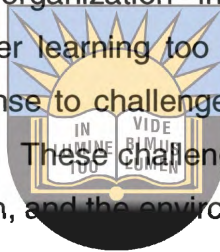
These models are developed based on the work of House (1997), Conger and Kanungo (1987), Sashkin (1988), and Nanus (1992). Visionary/inspirational models incorporate transformational and charismatic theories. Both charismatic and transformational forms of leadership are commonly discussed in terms of the effects that the leader has on followers and in terms of the relationship that exists between them. The charismatic leader is described as someone who by sheer force of personality is capable of having profound effects upon followers. Followers unquestionably and enthusiastically heed the requests of such leaders. They generate extremely intense loyalty, passion, and devotion. The relationship between the leader and follower is emotionally based, and psychological in nature. Charismatic leaders characteristically have a strong sense of self-confidence, a strong conviction of the rightness of their own beliefs and ideals, and dominance. They tend to model or demonstrate a set of values and set high goals and expectations for meeting them. They show confidence in their followers' ability to attain goals and articulate exciting visions of the future.

Transformational leaders make large changes in organizations in their attempt to improve them. Their personal values, vision, passion, and commitment to a mission energize and move others. According to Bass (1990), the transformational leader may exhibit many of the behaviors and attributes of the

charismatic leader. They achieve their results by inspiring others by personal example; they may meet the emotional needs of their followers through individualized consideration, and/or intellectually stimulate them by stirring within them an awareness of problems, insights into solutions, and the passion to bring about the resolution.

4.4 Guidelines for women as strategic leaders and decision makers

Women as strategic managers should spend a lot of time working with other managers at all levels of the organization in order to prove that their organizations, institutions of higher learning too are valuable and productive; often, these efforts come in response to challenges from the organization itself and from the outside environment . These challenges may include the culture of the organization, the strategic vision, and the environment.



4.4.1 Organizational Culture

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One of the primary responsibilities of women as strategic leaders is to create and maintain the organizational characteristics that reward and encourage collective effort. Perhaps the most fundamental of these is organizational culture. Nanus (1992) notes that the study of organizational culture evolved from the work on organizational climate conducted in the 1970's where beliefs and attitudes held by employees of their organizations were studied. Early attempt to define the broader concept of culture upon which the concept of organizational culture is based, are associated with the development of the academic disciplines of sociology and anthropology (Nanus 1992). Broadly the concept of culture represent an interdependent set of values and way of behaving that are common in a community and that tend to perpetuate themselves, sometimes over long periods of time .

The definitions of organizational culture that have been advanced in the literature over the years (Jaques, 1952; Pettigrew, 1979; Siehl & Martin, 1984) generally referred to shared understanding of patterns of meaning between groups of people in an organization , Hofstede (1997:180) defines organization culture as the “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of an organizational culture is one of a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered to be valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems.

Harrison and Stokes (1992:1) define organizational culture as “the pattern of beliefs, values, rituals, myths, and sentiments shared by members of an organization, which influences the behavior of all individuals and groups within the organization brings with them values and beliefs that govern attitudes, behavior and identity.



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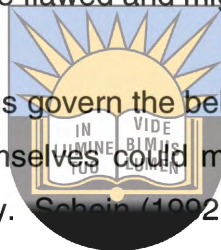
Where a person is a leader, these beliefs, values and assumptions become the main influence on the culture of the organization (Blanchard & O'Connor, 1997; Hofstede, 1997). As strategic direction generally emanates from the leader, it will inevitably be affected by the personal culture orientation that becomes absorbed into the broader organization. Eventually these strategic norms become embedded at the level of basic assumptions to which employees unconsciously adhere and so the culture becomes self-perpetuating (Schein, 1992).

For institutions of higher learning that have managed to adapt successfully to changing environments , Beer and Nohria (2000) notes that leaders have often initiated incremental changes in both strategies and practices and that these changes have tended to address the needs of all stakeholder groups equitably . Beer and Nohria (2000) believe that for successful change to occur, leaders must balance the focus of improving value to the shareholder with that of developing

the organizational capability that would include addressing of organizational culture.

They assert that an over-emphasis on the former could result in short-lived benefits, as organizational inertia would eventually counteract the gains. On the other hand, an over-emphasis on organizational capability could undermine the achievement of the economic objective, at the process would lose momentum and become immersed in the process and procedures. Schein (1992) highlights the importance of recognizing within organizations that the basic assumptions held by influential members could be flawed and might need to be challenged.

Not only do these basic assumptions govern the behavior of employees but there is also a risk that the leaders themselves could make decisions in accord with their assumptions rather than reality. Schein (1992:5) suggest that this danger is particularly inherent in high power cultures where senior managers can be isolated from valuable feedback as employees are reluctant to take an unpopular stance or to challenge the authority of the leader.



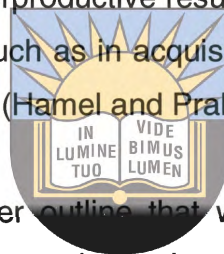
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4.4.2 The Strategic Vision

Vision is the key part of both the concept and practice of leadership (Domm, 2001). Many managers successfully create it and present it to employees. However, they are often less good at retaining employee's long term commitment to the vision, which results in lost opportunities (Domm, 2001). Without visionary leadership, a great deal of activity creates a sense of momentum while masking the reality that vision has become a static and separate thing removed from the organizations daily activities (Domm, 2001). Vision leadership requires that senior management engage employees in thinking about how their work and performance is related to the corporate vision (Domm, 2001). Domm, 2001 further indicates that "my company reminds us constantly to think like we are our costumer and that tie in to our overall vision for success". Vision leadership

focuses on making certain that the employees know in what ways they are part of the organization's vision from both the performance and the reward perspective.

Of course, successful striving toward a strategic vision requires a broader definition of an organization's goal than purely monetary reward for stakeholders and employees. Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) indicate that to focus exclusively on maximizing profit can lead to disaster. "The problem lies in the reduction of multiple interdependent signs of organizational health, to one be all and end all" (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 1993). When profits are not supplemented with a vision, counterproductive results can develop as employees pursue the quick and expedient, such as in acquisitions that add little real value beyond a short term boost to sales (Hamel and Prahalad, 1994).



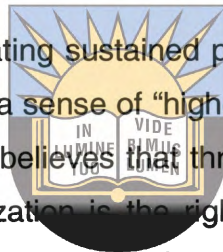
Hamel and Prahalad (1994) further outline that while the quest for growth is intrinsic to almost any strategic intent; the real emotional *umph* comes when it can articulate what it is growing toward. Quite simply, a vision is a realistic, credible, attractive future for the organization. Not sharing a clear statement of strategic vision can create a vacuum at the core of an organization.

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A vision's believability does not lie only in the fact that it has been presented clearly. It also requires that management win or earn employees confidence for the plan of action laid out for the organization for future success (Domm, 2001). Domm shows that a leader should have a vision for the organization that is believable and that the leader can communicate to employees. Moreover it is not enough to talk about volume, and profit value. Rather, to be proud of the organization, employees must see some corporate purpose beyond performance figures. And of course there is a difference between a grand vision and grandiose vision. This difference can affect employees' perception of management credibility (Domm, 2001).

It is very important to tie the strategic process to tangible sign posts that mark and measure progress in the organization. The linkages connecting management's vision should be clearly set out in a concise statement of measurable objectives and should answer the question; what are the specifics of what is to be implemented? According to Domm (2001), educating and focusing teams on the factors that are most critical to the organization are the most important factors for success. Assuming that the connections between performance and vision have been clearly established then should be discussion that properly focuses on the nature of the rewards (Domm 2001).

Managers who do succeed in creating sustained passion about a vision tend to find ways to engage employees in a sense of "higher purpose". John Chambers, chief executive of Cisco Systems, believes that three elements attract and keep good people. A particular organization is the right place to be because other good players are there, the team is strong; there exists a cult of leaders that people like; and people work for higher purposes than a paycheck. Motivated people want to think they are part of something that changes the way the world works, lives and plays (Domm 2001)



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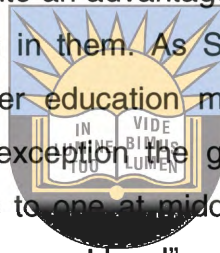
Sometimes, just the simple matter of how one discusses vision conveys, or destroys, this idea of a higher purpose. The tone of vision discussion must reinforce the very nature of what it means to own a dream for the organization's destiny. Leaders may create positive corporate stories, or company legends, achievement stories. Great leaders throughout history, within many different organizations, have learned the value of storytelling to motivate and clarify (Domm, 2001).

Sometimes a manager incorrectly believes that the employees share the organization's sharply focused view, and assumes that his or her vision can easily be linked to operational action. In reality, everything must be explained in meaningful detail to each organizational layer of employees (Domm, 2001). A

conscious and planned effort must be made to ensure that managers see the connections between vision and goals and operational performance, and performance reward. Successfully articulating a vision requires managers to involve employees in discussing progress and needs in the working environment.

4.5 Summary

Yet the correlation between women's leadership styles and characteristics and those which organizations need to face the challenges of the new globalised context has not to date translated into an advantage either for our universities or in terms of the position of women in them. As Singh points out "women are grossly under-represented in higher education management", citing a report which found that 'with hardly an exception the global picture is one of men outnumbering women at about five to one at middle management level and at about twenty to one at senior management level'.



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Although the number of women employed in higher education is generally relatively high, they are extremely poorly represented in education management in African countries, including South Africa. The management route model of this chapter reviews theories as to why women are under represented in management positions in higher education. Both anticipation and acquisition phases present obstacles for women and problems encountered in the performance of a management position (in which those positions are associated with leadership and decision making) may lead to their quickly leaving such positions. Problems encountered in the three phases can be related to the women (personal) and or the way in which educational institutions function (organizational). Broader social factors may also have influence (social). The latter affect leadership and decision making associated with women.

The glass ceiling is firmly in place in academies at the start of the twenty-first century. Because the academy perceives itself as an institution that emphasizes

objectivity, fairness, and merit as the basis for evaluation, discrimination may be particularly hard to recognize in academic institutions. The many facets of academic culture make it difficult to address gender equity in academic leadership. Decentralized decision-making, with academic hiring, promotion, tenure, and workload decisions occurring at the department level, further impede the ability of university administrators to affect equity issues.

Finally, current times of increasing financial constraint can make gender equity appear to be an unaffordable luxury. Kearney (2000) sums up the current state of gender equity in the academy: Universities have the dubious privilege of likely remaining the most male-dominated establishments in the world in relation to career advancement. This lack of concordance between universities and other major social institutions is a serious matter for reflection and redress.



An examination of data on women's status as academic administrators coupled with an understanding of the typical academic culture shows the enormous challenge in creating gender equity in university leadership. In academe women's presence is scarce at decanal levels and higher. Women hold 27 percent of all deanships, with their leadership of professional colleges being especially unlikely. Only 8 percent of all law school deanships and 3 percent of medical school deanships are held by women (Glazer-Raymo 1999).

Not only are women concentrated at lower administrative levels in and universities, but they are disproportionately represented at the lower academic tanks as well. Further research shows that in USA Women hold 13.7 percent of full professorships and 55.6 percent of lecturer positions (Firestone 1999). The situation is even bleaker for minority women who occupy less than 5 percent of all faculty positions and 7 percent of all administrative positions (Rai & Critzer 2000).

Additional gender disparity exists in the area of university governance. Women spend more time in service than men, but they still form a minority voice on important decision-making committees and are less likely than their male counterparts to chair decision-making or policy-formulating committees in the institutions of higher learning.



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CHAPTER 5

INTERNATIONAL BACKGROUND OF WOMEN AND THEIR ACCESS TO HIGHER EDUCATION

5.1 Introduction

The work in the higher education carried out by international agencies has brought many positive outcomes for women participation in higher education. The commonwealth has similarly been able to use its presence in world bodies to influence the agenda of agencies such as UNESCO as well as the governments they represent. UNESCO's actions in the field of higher education are able to stress the importance of gender dimension in the resolution of global issues.



Little evidence can be deduced about women's ability to perform on the job. A study from India by the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) and SNDT women's university, Bombay, of principals of women's colleagues indicates that women principals function as confidently as their male counterparts (Singh 1998). Men and women identified many similar problems and needs for training. A few problems were gender specific mobility, the ability to visit government offices, and the capital city for administrative matters, inability to socialize as much as men and therefore to be less informed on relevant issues than men, some problems with exercising authority over sexiest males and over females who expect greater sympathy, political pressures, balancing responsibilities as college principals and home-makers (Chitnis, 1993).

5.2 Access to higher education

Women's access to higher education is critical at all levels of the higher education sector. Over the last few decades, national policies and practices have considerably improved the participation of women in higher education. The table below reflects the percentages of women in tertiary education.

Table 1: Percentages of women in tertiary education (1985 and 1995)

Region	1985	1995
World total	44	47
More developed regions:		
North America	52	55
Asia/Oceania	37	46
Europe	47	51
Countries in transition	54	54
Less developed regions		
Sub-Saharan Africa	25	35
Arab State	33	41
Latin America/Caribbean	45	49
Southern Asia	30	36
Least developed countries	26	27

UNESCO, World Education Report 1998; 108

The Case of India illustrates the progress women have made in higher education attainment. In 1950 only 12.3% of students in higher education were women; in

1960 women's enrolment had increased to 18.7%; by 1970 to 21.9%; by 1980 to 27.5%; by 1991 to 32.9% and by 1996 women's share of higher education had increased to 34.2% (SNDT, 1997).

Despite the improvements during the last two or three decades, access to higher education remains a problem for women in many countries in the more developed regions where they comprise 52% of tertiary students, in the regions in transition there are only 37.7% women in tertiary education. Women's share of tertiary education in the less developed regions ranges from 33% in China to 49% in Latin America and the Caribbean. In the least developed countries, only 27% of women reach the tertiary level (Singh, 1998).

The regional picture is reinforced by 1996 selected country data (Table 2). Developed countries reveal more than 50% female enrolment at tertiary level: Australia (51%), Canada (53%), and United Kingdom (50%). Some of the newly emerging economies also enjoy high female enrolment: Botswana (47%) and Malaysia (51%). However, there are very significant inequalities of access in the very populous countries, especially those in the Indian subcontinent: India (38%), Sri Lanka (41%), and in many of the countries in Africa: Malawi (30%), Uganda (32%) and Zimbabwe (29%) (Singh 1998).

The situation in some of the small Caribbean countries and the Philippines provide an example where women have greater access to higher education than men, and concerns are seriously raised about persuading more men to seek admission into these institutions: Bahaman (66%), Dominica (65%), Grenada (60%), and Jamaica (66%). However, in small South Pacific island countries, girls are outnumbered by boys three to one all courses and four to one in degree programmes (Singh, 1998). In the Philippines enrolment in higher education is also female-dominant, reaching around 62% in 1997/98 (UNESCO Bangkok, 1999).

Poor access to higher education is accompanied by under- representation of women in science and technology and a clustering of women in the traditional female studies of arts, humanities, languages, education, nursing and medicine. Table 2 demonstrates that in nearly all countries the proportion of women in science-based studies ranges between 25% and 30%. In 1996, in Sri Lanka female enrolment in the arts were 61%, law 59.6%, science 39% and engineering 15% (UNESCO Bangkok, 1999). In Australia in 1996, 74% of medical and nursing students, 68% of arts students and 62% of veterinary science student were women. Conversely 56% of business, 49% of science and 87% of engineering students were men (UNESCO Bangkok, 1999).

In some of the developed countries, for instance in Australia, women have made strong inroads into traditionally male-dominated fields like law and business, but even there they continue to lag in traditionally male dominated areas, including agriculture, architecture, and engineering (Singh, 1998). Singh (1998) indicates that in some of the developed countries the picture is one of women continuing to dominate the arts, humanities, social sciences and educational fields:

- In China, although the national government does try to ensure equality in female access to higher education (in certain fields such as medicine, language and teacher training, where the share of females tends to be high) for higher admission requirements. That bias is accentuated by a tendency of selection by female to select the vocational and teacher training tracks at the secondary level, resulting in fewer females attaining higher education candidature (Singh, 1998).

Table 2: Place of women in higher education

Country	Women in higher education	In science
High human development		
Australia	51	25
Canada	53	24
France	54	30
Germany	44	21
United Kingdom	50	24
Medium-human development		
Botswana	47	25
China	35	26
India	38	34
Indonesia	35	23
Malaysia	51	51
Philippines	57	66
Sri Lanka	41	39
Trinidad and Tobago	29	14
Zimbabwe		
Low human development		
Bangladesh	32	23
Malawi	30	15
Uganda	32	17



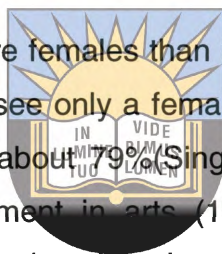
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UNDP, Human Development Report 1999:229-232. A Report of Expert Group Meeting on Training of Women Graduates in the Development Process, Kanchanaburi, Thailand, 22-24 February 1999

In India, of the disciplines, arts, science and commerce account for 88% of women in higher education. Education and law account for 94% of women students, while engineering accounts for only 1 % (Singh, 1998).

In Malaysia, some 61% of female students are in arts and the humanities, including the professional arts .At the same time, female enrolment in science has increased to a majority. Still, female enrolments in engineering are only around 41 % (Singh, 1998).

Even in the Philippines, where more females than males enter higher education, the science and technology fields see only a female enrolment is of about 35%, while in the health sciences it is about 79% (Singh, 1997; UNESCO Bangkok, 1998). In Sri Lanka, female enrolment in arts (1995/96) is 59.7%, law 59%, science 37.1%, agriculture 42.8% and engineering 11.7% (Gunawardena, 1999)



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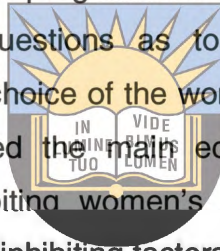
In South Africa (1997), 68% of education, 60% of arts and social science students and 57% of medical students were women. Conversely, 86% of engineering, 67% of architecture and environmental design and 56% of law students were men (De la Rey, 1998).

In many countries, women's enrolment also decreases as they move up in the higher education system (Singh, 1998). With few exceptions women enjoy good representation in non-degree courses but their numbers decline in degree courses and further diminish in postgraduate courses. This was very clearly the pattern in African and Asian countries; for instance, in Malawi (1995) women constituted 37% of non-degree level enrolments, but only 21% of enrolment at degree and 18% at postgraduate level.

In Japan, while women made up 68% of enrolment in non-degree courses, only 32% of the first degree course students were women and a mere 19% of

postgraduate students. In the developed European countries women constitute a fairly high proportion of enrolments at all levels but were still disadvantaged at the postgraduate level. In, Australia and New Zealand, women's enrolment is higher than men's at all levels. In South Africa women account for 49% of all honours degrees awarded in 1993, but only 34% of masters and 29% of all doctoral degrees (Budlender and Sutherland, 1997.).

As UNESCO report (Women and management in higher education, 1998) indicates that it would appear that even in countries where equity policies are well developed and special support programmes are in place, women are still under-represented. This raises questions as to whether there are certain socializing traits that influence the choice of the women to enter academic fields. UNESCO Bangkok, 1999 identified the main economic-demographic, socio-cultural and delivery factors inhibiting women's entry into higher education. Among the economic-demographic inhibiting factors were poverty (gender bias in education is sharper under poverty conditions), family size (gender discrimination in education is sharper in larger households), regional, class and caste differentials in economic and demographic conditions.



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Socio-cultural factors inhibiting women from entering management positions included conflict between women's immediate and delayed (career training) productive value; early marriage and child-bearing; absence of positive role models; lack of appreciation of overall education, including higher education; and fear of deterioration of social structure. Delivery-system inhibiting factors were general male orientation/ preference at the primary and secondary levels; male oriented curriculum biases; male mentors and staff; lack of female education and career counseling; lack of gender-specific facilities (toilets, domicile, transport); distance of educational facilities from home; lack of women's safety in the education environment (Singh, 1998).

This indicates that women's access to higher education needs to be much improved in many developing countries before women can achieve equal access to higher education. Opportunities of women to participate in senior managerial positions education could then increase. Women under-representation is not only relevant to why women enter the field of higher learning, "it is also integral to the different management styles exhibited by men and women, providing a lens through which to critically examine the discrepancy between the high number of women in the institutions of higher learning and the under-representation of women in management positions" (Bird, 2006). Despite the fact that most employees in institutes of higher learning are women, women do not hold the majority of management positions in either administration or academia. Women hold only 32.3 percent of managerial and professional positions in Canada, and they occupy less than five percent of senior management positions (Appelbaum and Shapiro, 1993:28)



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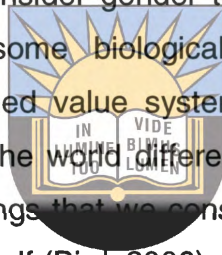
5.3 Women in higher education management in the commonwealth countries

In the area of management, both in teaching/lecturing and management, women are still far from participating on the same footing with men. Women have made some progress in achieving parity in teaching /lecturing but are grossly under-represented in higher education management. Gold (1998) outlines that there is a snail's pace at which women's academic career prospects are improving in the United Kingdom. (Dines, 1993) observes that the pyramid and the glass ceiling are found everywhere. With hardly an exception, the global picture is one of men outnumbering women at about five to one at middle management level and at about twenty to one at senior management level (Dines, 1993).

In relation to this, gender resistance feminism offers some interesting notions as to why this may be the case (Bird 2006) .Gender resistance feminism celebrates the differences between men and women instead of advocating for their

dismissal: “women have specific experiences and interests that essentially differ from those of the majority of men, at least with regard to how these experiences are formed and enacted under the existing patriarchal conditions” (Kark, 2004: 165-166). Because of these patriarchal conditions, Kark (2004) continues, “women’s difficulties in getting promoted to leadership positions cannot be understood in individual terms only, but rather as part of a wider social system of gender...” .

This gendered social system affects the ways in which women receive, process, and evaluate information. If we consider gender to be an essentialist ideology (gender differences based on some biological frameworks, but primarily perpetuated through socially learned value systems that place women below men), then women must process the world differently than men do. Everything becomes political – even those things that we consider to be private, like family dynamics, sexuality, and sense of self (Bird, 2006).



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If the physical differences between men and women are directly correlated with learned gender differences, then learning too must be a distinct experience for both men and women. Connected to this is the manner in which men and women disseminate what they have learned, especially when considering *what* they have learned and *why* they have learned it (Bird, 2006). Women’s unique experiences and perspectives can only enhance the dissemination of information, especially in the production of knowledge. It is not only women’s distinct experiences that contribute and add to the production of knowledge, it is also the ways in which they communicate, teach, and disseminate that information. It is the processing of this information that leads to a unique knowledge and an epistemology that cannot be understood by men (Bird, 2006).

Lund (1998) provides a comprehensive picture of the participation of women in commonwealth universities. The report reveals that across the commonwealth the percentage of women employed as full time academic staff ranges from 9.5%

in Ghana to just over 50% in Jamaica. The commonwealth average was 24%. The study found no discernible differences between the developed countries of the commonwealth and their income countries. Those that employed the smallest number of women were developing countries (Ghana, Nigeria, United Republic of Tanzania, and Zambia) and the three with the highest numbers (after Jamaica) were Mauritius (31.8%), Malaysia (31.5%) and Sri Lanka (30.5%). Australia had the highest percentage among the developed countries (29.6%) while the rest hovered around the commonwealth average of (24%).

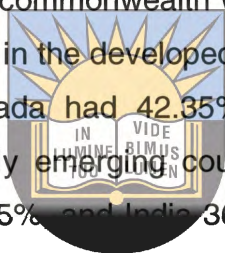
The survey also draws attention to the positions that women hold within the academic hierarchy and their consequent ability to influence the policy and direction of their institution, both at departmental and at institutional level as indicated in the table below. In the administrative management positions, women were increasingly disadvantaged as they moved up the occupational ladder (Singh, 1997). At the very top women comprised only 6.9% of the executive heads (vice-chancellors). The most encouraging statistics were for Canada (15.7%) and for Australia (15%), while many countries had no women in top positions (Lund, 1998, 36-7).

In other senior management positions women comprised only 13.9% of registrars /secretaries, 8.4% of deputy vice chancellors/ Deputy presidents/ vice rectors, 3.2% of pro-vice-chancellors/pro-rectors/vice presidents, 8.5% of deans of faculties, 15.2% heads of departments, and 7.8% of finance directors; but among chief/senior librarians 29.3% were women and of personnel directors/officers 28% were women (Lund, 1998, 34—48). The low percentage of women in these positions reflects the fact that positions are awarded to fairly senior staff, of which women form a small percentage (Singh, 1997).

Singh (1997) points out that the proportion of women also decreases significantly along the academic ladder. At the top of the academic scale only 9.9% were women professors. Some country differences are discernible. Uganda had 16.7%

female professors while Sri Lanka and Canada had 12.2 % and 11.8% women professors respectively. Thirteen countries surveyed had between 5% and 10% women professors while Malta and the south Pacific trailed with less than 20% of posts held by women, suggesting that large numbers of women were not clustering in the wings waiting to step up. At the senior lecturer/assistant professor level women comprised just over 25% (Singh, 1997).


Singh (1997) is of the opinion that only at lecturer level do women begin to be represented in numbers that equal or come close to those of their male colleagues, but the average for the commonwealth was only 33.8%. At this level, their presentation is more favorable in the developed countries (UNESCO, 1998). Australia, New Zealand and Canada had 42.35%, 44% and 50.5% women lecturers respectively. Of the newly emerging countries Malaysia had 34.5%, South Pacific 33.9%, Sri Lanka 35.5% and India 36.8% women lectures. Of the less developed with low proportion of women lecturers were Uganda (18%), Nigeria (17%), Pakistan (16%), Zimbabwe (10.8%), Tanzania (10.7%) and Zambia (10.2%) as indicated in the Table below.



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Table 5: Distribution of men and women by occupational category in commonwealth Universities

Level	Women %	Men %
Unspecified %		
ADMINISTRATIVE		
Vice-chancellors	6.9	76.1
17		
Deputy vice-chancellors,etc	8.4	59.7
31.9		
Pro-vice chancellor	13.2	61.5
25.3		
Registrars, etc	13.9	60.1

26.0		
Deans of faculties	8.5	56.8
34.7		
Heads of departments	15.2	84.8
Finance directors	7.8	69.2
23.0		
Chief/Senior librarians	29.3	51.1
19.6		
ACADEMIC		
Professors	9.9	90.3
Associate professors	19.4	80.6
Assistant professors/ Senior lecturers	25.7	74.1
Lectures	33.8	66.2
		
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Helen Lund (1998), a single Sex Profession? Female Staff Numbers in Commonwealth Universities. London, Commonwealth Higher Education Management Service.

5.4 Where do Inequalities Exist?

In spite of the fact that women and men enjoy similar opportunities for access to and continuance in the education system, gender inequalities are still being conveyed through cultural concepts passed on either openly or covertly through the formal or 'hidden' curriculum. In many cases, these advances have not led to more and better integration of women into the social, political and economic life of the country, and still less to a major impact on women's living conditions and quality of life (Stein and Morales , 2003:7).

Stein and Morales (2003) indicate that these gaps and inequalities must be overcome in order to go the rest of the way, and until this unfinished task is complete, real equality between men and women cannot be guaranteed. It means sweeping away complex obstacles deeply rooted in a patriarchal culture which still relegates women to the sphere of social reproduction, and which denigrates women's knowledge, know-how and skills and undervalues their work. The first step in eliminating these obstacles is to recognize them.

5.4.1 Gender social relations in the domestic and community sphere

Socio-cultural gender patterns reproduce prejudice and sexist practices both inside and outside the classroom, since gender inequalities cannot be eliminated merely by giving women equal access to educational institutions. A 'hidden curriculum' still persists, which reproduces gender stereotypes, gender roles and social relations that foster female subordination and discrimination against women (Stein and Morales, 2003).



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- **Housework: a feminized task**

Ramos (2001) found a marked gender gap between 12 to 17-year-olds engaged exclusively in family tasks. Independently of their socio-economic level, it was women who assumed family tasks, even where they were teenagers, a finding also confirmed by the 2000 Population Census (Singh, 1997). The widest gender gap occurred in lower-income homes, where 22% of women carried out only domestic tasks, compared with 2% of men.

In addition, this group is the one with the least schooling. By contrast, the differences were not as great in the top quintile (Stein and Morales, 2003). Working solely on housework in the home damages the personal development and self-image of girls, because it keeps them out of the education system. Since

housework might not be valued socially, such girls might run the risk of getting married and having babies at an early age.

- **Choice of Trade and professions**

Teaching practices persist which reproduce the prevailing gender domination system. They encourage gender segregation in the choice of careers, professions and trades, including public and private universities (Stein and Morales, 2003). Segregation has been moderate in universities, although it is more pronounced in out-of-school technical specializations. In feminized specializations, female enrolment is 200% greater than male enrolment, whereas female enrolment in masculinised specialities is barely 60%. In spite of changes in segregation processes, in many careers considered “male”, women are still poorly represented (Stein and Morales, 2003).



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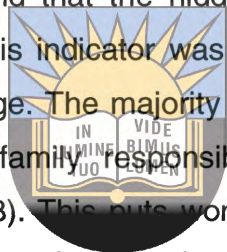
5.4.2 Occupational segregation, wage gaps and the invisibility of housework

The occupational structure is very far from being equal, since women continue to work in feminized activities with lower salaries. Men gained more ground in “female” occupations than women did in “male” occupations. Whereas 19% of men performed “female” activities, only 12.7% of women made inroads into masculinised areas in Costa Rica (State of the Nation Project, 2001). These inequalities were reflected in wider wage and income gaps between women and men in virtually all occupational groups and levels of education, especially in occupations with concentrations of women workers of up to 70% (personal service workers, shopkeepers and shop assistants) - all poorly paid jobs with less protection in terms of workers’ rights (Singh, 1997).

Even though these gaps have narrowed, the improvement in women’s education failed to result in average hourly pay rates equal to those of men with similar

levels of education. The persistence of the belief that women are responsible for housework prevents them from becoming fully involved in the labour market, causes gender segregation in employment, widens gender-based wage gaps, and makes women's economic contribution to national production invisible (Stein and Morales, 2003). The National Accounts System fails to take family work into consideration because it is not considered to be a primary activity for own consumption.

The State of the Nation Project estimated it at 14.07% of the gross domestic product (1997). In addition, it found that the hidden employment rates reflect gender disparity since, in 2000; this indicator was 2.3% for men as compared with 5.1% for women of working age. The majority of women do not succeed in securing jobs because of their family responsibilities and are classed as "inactive" (Stein and Morales, 2003). This puts women at a disadvantage when they enter the labour market, since they continue to be burdened with their reproductive role and the gender-based limitations imposed upon them, and their participation in the occupational structure is lower.



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5.4.3 Top management Segregation

This trend is not unique to public recreation. Historically, since women started entering the work force, men have worked to safeguard their positions in the upper echelons of management. One of the greatest influxes of women into the work force occurred during WWII; however, as soon as the war ended those women who chose to go on working were put "back in their place." In fact, management did everything it could to remove women from high-paying, nontraditional jobs (Gini, 1998).

In today's society women continue to struggle with this issue. Arnold and Shinew (1997) study of Illinois park districts in United States of America found that women occupied 54% of all middle management positions, but only 11% of

senior management positions. These figures are in line with other professions. As of 1997, women made up 46% of the work force, although most held lower and middle-level positions. In 1995 the Department of Labor reported that in the corporate environment, 40% of the middle management positions were filled by women, compared to 27.6% of the executive-level positions.

At the state and local levels of government, 41% of the workers are women, yet only 27% are officials or administrators (Ahn & Saint-Germain, 1988). At the federal level, women occupy 46% of white collar jobs, but only 15% are in GM-13 to GM-15 positions (highest levels of management) and only 12% are in Senior Executive Service (SES) positions (Ahn & Saint-Germain, 1988, Mani, 1997; Newman, 1995). When *Fortune* magazine examined the top 799 public companies in the United States, they found that only 19 of 4,012 people (.47%) designated as the highest-paid directors in their company were women (Wending, 1992). Thus, while the trend is not unique to the field of public recreation, it is disturbing nonetheless, particularly given the number of women entering the field, that the majority of recreation and leisure studies college majors are women. This raises the question of why women in public recreation agencies seem to lose representation at each increasingly higher level of management.

Frederickson (1990) refers to "block equality" and "segmented equality" as two definers of the progress that an agency can make with regard to gender representation. Block equality is found in agencies in which the overall demographics suggest a representative work force; it looks at the composite numbers for the agency. On the other hand, segmented equality is concerned with the various levels within an organization: that is, whether men and women are represented equally at each level of management (Newman, 1994; Frederickson, 1990; Wise, 1990; Kelly, Guy, Bayes, Duerst-Lahti, Duke, Hale, Johnson, Kavar, & Stanley 1991).

Block equality and segmented equality are issues within the broader framework of social equity. Social equity within organizations that serve the public refers to enabling all groups to be represented through an agency's goals and actions. The management teams of a public agency serve as representatives for different social groups. Thus, if the managerial team within an organization does not reflect block and segmented equality, equal opportunities for different groups may be undermined.

5.5 Summary

Despite the widespread rhetoric that organizations seeking competitive advantage in increasingly unstable external environments require radical and new solutions (Aburdene and Naisbitt, 1992; Handy, 1991; Naisbitt and Aburdene, 1990) women in senior management are seriously under-represented (Morrison 1992; Still, 1994). The relative failure of women to move to senior managerial positions in both the public and private sector in all developed countries has been well documented (Adler and Izrael, 1994). Commenting on the global under-representation of women in the higher education sector, a recent UNESCO Report on Higher Education (1993), bluntly concluded that: "One of the barriers facing women is the fact that they are not men".

Problems facing women are complex. No single reason can explain the poor participation and performance of women in academic institutions and no single strategy or initiative can adequately help women address the problem or remedy the situation. Leadership programs thus attempt to address the problem of women's poor participation from several perspectives – policy changes, raising awareness of the problem, improved skills and competencies for women, changing university structures and procedures, changing attitudes of men and women, and creating a more enabling friendly environment. It would appear that even in countries where equity policies are well developed, and special support programmes are in place, women are still under-represented. This raises

questions as to whether there are certain socializing traits which influence the choices of women to enter academic and administrative positions in institutes of higher learning.



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CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

6.1 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 procedure, as well as the data collection instruments. The reliability and validity of instruments and data analysis techniques are also described.

6.2 Scientific methodology



Science can be referred to as a methodical approach to the acquisition of knowledge (Riessman, 1993). Thus knowledge can be gained through a variety of ways, but science acquires knowledge methodologically, that is, knowledge is gained through the use of a particular technique. Riessman (1993) points out that the scientific methodology approach distinguishes how a scientist works from how other people learn about the world.

The method of science is a pathway that involves several steps. Scientists themselves might organize the pathway in slightly different ways, but scientists would agree that what is presented here is a format of the scientific method. A scientist is suitably skeptical of anything but good evidence. That is not to say that scientists lack faith, it is just that faith for them operates in a different sphere of their lives. In scientific work there is little room for faith; in life there is plenty of room for faith and good evidence (Riessman, 1993).

In relation to the scientific methodology, a positivist approach will be used in this study. It provides a general framework for the method of data collection for this study. Positivism has been called "the invisible philosophy of science" because

its adherents regard it as the solely scientific approach which tends to avoid or ignore philosophical problems (Becker, 1998). Thus positivism attempts to establish a set of rules for science that can verify the truthfulness of statements about 'reality' in an objective, value-free, unbiased manner (Becker, 1998).

Positivism or scientific method still holds that the goal of knowledge is simply to describe the phenomena that people experience. Thus the purpose of science is simply to stick to what is observable and measurable. Positivism believes in empiricism, which indicates the idea, that observation and measurement is the core of scientific endeavor. The key element of scientific method is experiment, the attempt to discern natural laws through direct manipulation and observation (Trochim, 2005).



6.3 Research approach

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In this study, the use of empirical research methods are recognized as two fold, namely quantitative and quantitative research methods, which is known as triangulation. Triangulation indicates that the research aims to elicit possible trends in the ways in which the respondents feel, thus it makes room for a combined qualitative and quantitative designs (Creswell, 1994:174). Triangulation is simply to use different methods to research the same issue with the same unit of analysis (i.e. an in-depth structured interview with each member of faculty or administration in a top position in the Institutions of higher learning in the Eastern Cape Province). It cross-checks one result against another, and increases the reliability of the findings.

The purpose of this study is to discover and describe the experience of women in as far as gender equity policy is concerned and how it affects their lives in terms of decision-making and leadership roles in institutions of higher learning. Quantitative research is an inquiry into an identified problem, testing a theory,

measuring by quantity, and analyzing with the aid of statistical techniques. The goal of quantitative methods is to determine the predictive generalization of a theory (Creswell, 1994).

By contrast, a study based upon a qualitative process of inquiry aims to understand a social or human problem from multiple perspectives. Thus a qualitative approach is deemed appropriate for analyzing participant's feelings, beliefs, ideas, thoughts, and actions (Creswell, 1994). The use of a qualitative approach (interviews) would complement the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires. Interviews aim to refine understanding of possible issues from the questionnaires through the use of considered questions and careful assessment of responses. An emergent research design allows for multiple realities to be represented (Eloff, Engelbrecht, Swart & Oswald, 2002). The written response format of questionnaires is seen as complementary to the spoken format of interviews.



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Thus, triangulation is a process of building theory from multiple paradigms and layers. Laying the groundwork for triangulation requires defining the subject phenomenon. This initial phase delineates boundaries that both constrain and enable theory building (Eisenhardt, 1989). The triangulation process is considered an extension of traditional strategies aimed at enhancing the potential insights available from existing data (Lewis & Grimes, 1990).

In this study, to solicit adequate information the triangulation thinking model comprises three sides with three sets of lines denoting that three layers of triangulation can take place along three sides. The image appears to twist and turn when viewed from various perspectives. This convolution represents the versatility of the model and the triangulation thinking design. Three major applications of my triangulation approach are in the areas of decision making, tool development, and research validity.

- **Decision making**

To apply a triangulation approach to decision-making in the institutions of higher learning, the focus group will comprise team leaders (top management positions both in academic and administrative positions). This is to determine the representativity of women managers in leadership positions. Triangulation is the suitable method for it.

- **Tool development**

Triangulation is used to discover and deal with a problematic situation as a tool lets with the outline of the constraints that lead women to remain under-represented by means of interviews and questionnaires distributed to people occupying top positions in institutions of higher learning in the Eastern Cape Province in South Africa.



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- **Research Validity**

Triangulation is used as an interpretive analysis device to achieve research validity. Interpretation of the data collected from people occupying top management positions is open to bias if not triangulated. This objective of triangulation is perhaps its most common use. In research, triangulation enables overcoming lack of validity (Bender, 2005). It reflects the interconnectivity of two kinds of data allowing for valid interpretation.

6.4 Research design

Trochim (2005) indicates that research design provides the glue that holds the research project together. A design is used to structure the research, to show how all of the major parts of the research project, the samples or groups,

measures, treatment or programmes and methods of assignment work together to try to address the central research questions.

The study uses an exploratory descriptive design (Bless & Higson –Smith 2000:41). The exploratory method usually starts with data preparation which may involve cleaning data, data transformation, selecting subsets of records and in the case of data sets with large numbers of variables, that is, performing some preliminary feature selection operations to bring the number of variables to within a manageable range (depending on the statistical methods which are being considered) (Haykin, 1994). An exploratory descriptive design is used in this study in order to explore and describe the factors that militate against women's access to and participation in educational leadership in institutions of higher learning in the Eastern Cape.



6.5 Sample and sampling procedure

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6.5.1 Sample

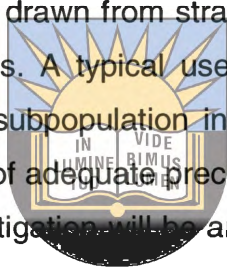
In order to solicit an adequate amount of data, the population that will be investigated in this study will be made up of top management in the administration and faculty members from all the faculties and administrations in the institutions of higher learning, that is, Fort Hare University and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in the Eastern Cape Province in South Africa. This implies that each member in the population would have a chance of being selected and that the probability of being selected is known.

6.5.2 Sampling Procedure

Babbie (1998), points out that sampling procedure is the process of selecting a sample from the population to conduct the study upon. The ultimate goal of any sampling procedure is to ensure that the sample is the best representation of the

population, avoiding any bias or negative influence on the findings of the research. A sampling is a distribution of statistics obtained by selecting all the possible samples of a specific size from a population (Gravetter & Wallnau, 1992). The key reason for being concerned with sampling is that of validity--the extent to which the interpretations of the results of the study follow from the study itself and the extent to which results may be generalized to other situations with other people (Hinds, Vogel and Clarke-Steffen 1997).

Disproportionate stratified sampling will be used in this study. A disproportionate number of males and females are drawn from strata of all employees, male and female, occupying senior positions. A typical use of disproportionate stratified sampling is oversampling of the subpopulation in this investigation in order to allow separate statistical analysis of adequate precision. Therefore the significant and confidence levels of the investigation will be analyzed and discussed for the entire sample under disproportionate stratified sampling.



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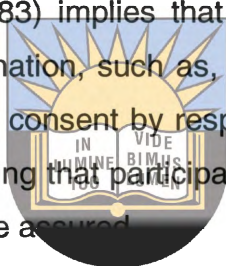
6.6 Data Collection Instruments

The research techniques of this study will involve both primary and secondary data. Adelman, Jenkins, Kemmis (1983) indicate that human-centered user research may include both primary and secondary research. Primary research is carried out by collecting data "in the field" from real people and analyzing that data for patterns and themes. Conducting interviews and formulating recommendations from the findings is an example of primary, or field, research. Primary Research Methods in this study involve in-depth structured interviewing (also sometimes called 'contextual inquiry').

In-depth, structured interviews capture women and men experiences of work practice in relation to the under representation of women in top positions in the institutions of higher learning. They will be conducted in an open-ended manner that allows the participant to share what he/she feels is most significant. Adelman

et al (1983) postulates that interviews are conducted on-site whenever possible as environmental context often provides important additional data. Interviews conducted "in the field" are often much more informative and richer than research that takes place outside the user's normal environment.

Secondary analysis in this study involves the use of existing data, collected for the purposes of prior study, in order to pursue a research interest which is distinct from that of the original work; this is a new research question or an alternative perspective on the original question (Hinds et al 1997, Szabo and Strang 1997). Adelman *et al* (1983) implies that secondary research involves analyzing existing data and information, such as, books, articles, past research findings, and web sites. Individual consent by respondents will also be obtained through an introductory letter, stating that participation is voluntary. Anonymity in data collection and reporting will be assured.



6.6.1 The questionnaire

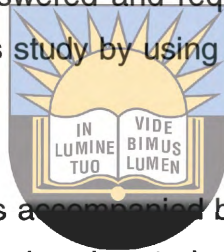
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A good questionnaire is one which helps directly to achieve the research objectives, provides complete and accurate information, is easy for both interviewers and respondents to complete, is so designed as to make sound analysis and interpretation possible and is brief (Crawford, 1996). The way the questionnaire of this study is designed involves at least nine distinct steps: decision on the information, definition of the target respondents, selection methods of reaching the respondents, determination of question content, wording of the questions, sequence of the questions, checking questionnaire length, pre-testing of the questionnaire and development of the final questionnaire.

According to Crawford (1996), if the data to be collected is qualitative, it may be that no formal questionnaire is needed. However, as already mentioned this study uses both qualitative and quantitative methods of investigation. Therefore for interviewing the respondents of this study the researcher prepared a brief

guide, listing a number of open-ended questions, with appropriate probes/prompts listed under each. The nature of the questionnaire of this study is formally standardized, the aim being to enable the researcher to also test and quantify hypotheses and to allow data to be analyzed statistically.

Furthermore, a well designed questionnaire enables the researcher to meet the research objectives. The aim is to not to omit important aspects due to inadequate preparatory work and to avoid poor understanding of the questions that may lead to particular issues not being addressed. However the fact is that some questions may remain unanswered and require further research, but the objective of the investigation of this study by using a good questionnaire design, is to minimize these problems.



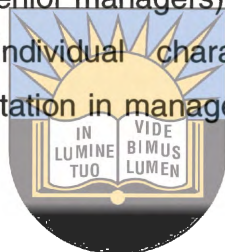
The questionnaire of this study was accompanied by an executive summary that provides a general background of what the study entails in order to inform the respondents about the aims and objectives of the study. Section A of the questionnaire solicits demographic data such as sex, age, marital status, number of children, highest qualification and so on. Section B will contain close ended items on institutional or organizational factors affecting under- representation of women in senior management positions. Section C will solicit information relating to barriers women must overcome to achieve leadership positions; these barriers include factors centered in the person and cultural factors that curb access and participation of women in management positions.

Close ended questions were constructed using the Likert scale. Responses were recorded on a four point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Agree) to 4 (Strongly Disagree). The same scale was used for both men and women. Responses to each item were averaged to determine the involvement of women in higher education management, including decision making and personal involvement. The internal consistency of the scale, as measured by the Cronbach alpha is 0.958 for both males and females. Section D will contain open-ended questions

allowing participants freedom to express themselves as they wish (Bless and Higson-smith, 2000:118).

6.6.2 The interview

Interviews were also used to collect data. The assumption that females and males doings and their actions can be understood from the vantage point of individuals living them. The interview method is central to this research and will provide an understanding of the opinions, actions, and values individual member of both groups (male and female senior managers) will convey and can give an understanding of the unique individual characteristics and preferences concerning women under-representation in management positions (Charles Lee Cole:2005).



In analyzing the findings of the study, natural documents will also provide further information with regard to the perceptions of the respondents interviewed. Natural documents will be records reflecting the representation of women in management positions. The ultimate meaning of these documents will be determined in the women under-representation context in which they are produced and discovered.

Interviews using a structured interview schedule are considered the appropriate form of interview. Such guides provide an outline of themes to be covered and they 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). The themes will include social, cultural, attitudinal and structural barriers that hinder women from participation in top positions. The interviewees will identify numerous constraints, including whether there is exclusion from formal and informal networks (mentorship), the presence or absence of relevant benefits that are used against female managers exclusively for senior leadership in institutions of higher learning. The interviews

will also find out whether institutions of higher learning have strong masculine cultures, which translate more concretely into structural arrangements that isolate and alienate women.

6.7 Reliability and validity of Instruments

Babbie (1998:119) states that, in the abstract, reliability is a matter of whether a particular technique applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same results each time. Babbie (1998:119) states that in conventional usage, the term validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept.



To ensure internal reliability and random error reduction, this study will form part of a wider triangulation, where both questionnaires and interviews are used. To make sure that this study is reliable and valid, and to have a clear view of women under-representation, women will be included in order to see the major cause of them being denied chances of being promoted and offered access to managerial positions.

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6.7.1 Reliability of the questionnaire

Internal consistency estimates are employed whenever a researcher wishes to assess the degree to which the items in a measure are homogeneous indices of a common construct (Pattem, 2001). This will be appropriately used in this study, where multiple-item questionnaires will include items which purportedly measure only a single dimension. Thus Cronbach alpha co-efficient correlation will be applied to calculate the reliability of the main data collection instrument, the questionnaire. In this study the Cronbach alpha co-efficient ranged from 0.82 to 0.90 indicating acceptable levels of reliability for assessing factors affecting women under-representation in institutions of higher learning.

6.7.2 Reliability and validity of the interview

Measures taken to enhance the reliability and validity of the data will include knowledge of the researcher in eliciting good answers, hence allowing the researcher to decide what type of responses will constitute a good answer at the time when the question is asked. The aim is therefore to decrease the possibility of subjectivity and interpreter unreliability.

6.8 Data analysis


Data analysis involves two aspects namely, tagging data, and grouping tagged data. Tagging refers to the process of selecting from an amorphous body of material, bits and pieces that satisfy the researcher's curiosity, and help support the purpose of the study, unless everything one "collects" and records is considered relevant and important (Babbie, 1998). Other synonyms in the literature for categories are *constructs, concepts, variables, and themes*. A category is an idea (a word or phrase) that stands for a set of objects or events with similar characteristics—a class (Babbie, 1998). Categories may be mutually exclusive or overlapping; exhaustive or incomplete

Data analysis of this study will be both qualitative and quantitative. The qualitative approach in this study is deemed appropriate for analyzing top management 's 'feelings, beliefs, ideas, thoughts, and actions in the institutions of higher learning in the Eastern Cape Province in South Africa , through structured interviews as well as open ended questionnaires. The goal of quantitative methods is to determine the predictive generalizability of a study through the use of statistical methods. The department of statistics at the university of Fort Hare will statistically analyze the data.

6.9 Summary

Females represent about half of South African's human resources. For optimal utilization of human resources, women under-representation and equity, it is hypothesized that women are under-represented in senior management positions in institutions of higher learning. A survey is therefore conducted to find out the level of participation of women in the decision making positions in the institutions of higher learning

The research was designed to generate quantitative data and qualitative data on women participation in institutions of higher learning in the Eastern Cape of South Africa. Data will therefore be collected from the top management positions both in academic and administration on the psycho-social, structural and cultural factors affecting the participation of women in top management positions and the reasons why women are still under-represented in top management positions.

The logo of the University of Fort Hare, featuring a shield with a sunburst at the top, an open book in the center, and the motto 'IN VIDE ALIUM BONUS TUUS' on a banner below. The shield is set against a blue background with a white border.

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CHAPTER 7

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter described methodology and study design. Population and sampling were described. Data collection instruments and their reliability and validity were also discussed. Questionnaires and interviews were identified as data collection methods. This chapter presents the data, analyses it and interprets it for results, in terms of critical question 1, 2 and 3 respectively which concern the three factors that curb participation of women in management positions, namely psycho-social, structural and cultural factors.

7.2 Section A: Demographic questionnaire data

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The following demographic data was obtained from the 102 respondents who completed the questionnaire:

Table 7.2.1: Sex of respondents

n=102

Respondents	Men	Women	Total	%
Male	63	-	63	61.8
Female	-	39	39	38.2
Total	63	39	102	100

The highest percentage (61.8 %) of the respondents was male and 38.2 % of the respondents were female. This reflects the fact that there are more males than females occupying management positions.

Table 7.2.2: Age of the respondents

n=102

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total
18 to 26 yrs	4	6.4	4	10.3	8
27 to 35 yrs	9	14.3	14	35.9	23
36 to 45 yrs	23	36.5	7	18	30
46 to 55 yrs	19	30.2	10	25.6	29
56 -65	6	9.5	3	7.7	9
65 + yrs	2	3.2	1	2.6	3
Total	63	100	39	100	102

The highest percentage of respondents in this investigation i.e. 55.8% was in the age group between 46 and 55 years. In this group 30.2 % of the respondents were male and 25.6% of the respondents were female. In the childbearing age group from 27 to 35 years were 14.3% and 35.9% of female respondents. These women were likely to experience role conflict as a result of childbearing and child-rearing responsibility. 10.3% of the female respondents were in the age group between 18 to 26 years; and this shows an increasing entry of young females into management positions, that is, against 6.4% of the male respondents in management positions in this group.

Table 7.2.3: Marital status of the respondents

n=102

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total
Single	21	33.3	15	38.5	36
Married	36	57.1	19	48.7	55
Divorced	4	6.4	3	7.7	7
Widowed	2	3.2	2	5.1	4
Total	63	100	39	100	102

The highest percentage (57%) of the male respondents was married, as were nearly half of the females respondents (48%). It is likely that for the majority of female respondents in marital relationships role conflict would arise to impede their prospects. Of the male respondents 33.3% were single as compared with

38.5% of the female respondents. It may be assumed that most of the single respondents were still very young and probably had less family and child rearing responsibilities.

Table 7.2.4: Number of children of the respondents

n=102

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total
1-2 children	22	34.5	20	51.3	42
3-4 children	25	39.7	11	28.2	36
5 + children	3	4.8	4	10.3	7
None	13	20.6	4	10.3	17
Total	63	100	39	100	102

The highest percentage of respondents in this investigation had 3 or 4 children, 39.7% of the males and 28.2% of the female. It may be assumed that for females with children advancement to educational management positions could be affected by childcare responsibilities, role conflict, guilt associated with abdication from childcare. Only in favor of career advancement, 10.3 % of the female respondents did not have children, while 4.8% of the male respondents had 5 or more children.

Table 7.2.5: Highest professional qualification of the respondents

n=102

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total
Degree	13	20.6	12	30.8	25
Honors Degree	12	19.1	9	23.1	21
Masters Degree	24	38.1	11	28.2	35
Doctoral Degree	12	19.1	6	15.4	18
Other	2	3.2	1	2.6	3
Total	63	100	39	100	102

The majority of female respondents i.e. 30.8% held Bachelor degrees, as compared to only 20.6 % of male the respondents. Also interesting is the growing number of women holding Doctoral Degrees making advancement to education

management positions for such female respondents more likely. The majority of male respondents on the other hand held Masters Degrees i.e. 38.1%. The growing number of female respondents having Masters Degrees, i.e. 28.2% indicates the general premise that institutions of higher learning are under-utilizing the full range of skills and talents of their employees because of continuing unequal opportunities afforded to women.

Table 7.2.6: Tenure of the respondents

n=102

Respondents	Men	%	Women	%	Total
1-5 yrs	33	52.4	21	53.9	54
6-10 yrs	10	15.9	11	28.2	21
11-15 yrs	6	9.5	3	7.7	8
16-20 yrs	5	7.9	1	2.6	6
21-25 yrs	6	9.5	2	5.1	8
Over 25 yrs	3	4.8	1	2.6	4
Total	63	100	49	100	102

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The female respondents 53.9 % had between 1 and 5 years of experience. This indicates that in the past, institutions of higher learning preferred to recruit men, whom they saw as being more compatible with their own work ethics, and who would reinforce existing cultures within the institutions. However women are slowly making progress in entering institutions of higher learning management positions.

It suggests that women are facing less rigorous and discriminatory actions against them, such as informality in recruitment and procedures. This is supported by the findings of this investigation that shows representation of women by 28% in the 6 to 10 years experience bracket. Problems experienced by women in subsequent moves between institutions of higher learning was particularly apparent during the ages of over 25 years, it may assumed that men makes stereotyped assumptions of women's work commitment and women's

likelihood of leaving to take care of their children, and as a result a possibility of women not being effective for top management positions.

7.3 Section B: Demographic questionnaire data and core variables

The following demographic data was obtained from the 102 respondents who completed the questionnaire:

The chi-square test for independence was used to investigate whether there was an association between key demographic variables (Sex, age, marital status, family size, professional status, tenure/experience, race and category of work) and whether they had an impact on training, mentoring, rotation to other jobs, and employee (women) satisfaction on the job. To find this relationship, demographics were used as dependent variables, while the key variables were used as independent variables (covariate). The results of the test are shown in table 6.1 and only significant relationships are discussed.

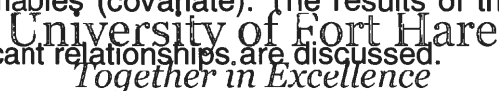


Table 7.3.1: Relationship between demographic variables and training, mentor rotation, and job satisfaction.

Demographic variable	key variable	Chi-square	df	p-value
Sex	-Training	2.9787	1	0.0844
	-Mentor	1.0458	1	0.3065
	-Rotation	0.4677	1	0.4940
	-Job satisfaction	0.6005	1	0.4384
Age	-Training		5	
	-Mentor	5.1080	5	0.4028
	-Rotation	3.5756	5	0.6120
	-Job satisfaction	2.2866	5	0.8082
		11.3079		0.0456

Marital status	-Training	2.4923	3	
	-Mentor	2.5401	3	0.4767
	-Rotation	3.6413	3	0.4681
	-Job satisfaction	2.3154	3	0.3029
				0.5096
No. of children	-Training	0.7688	3	0.8569
	-Mentor	2.1787	3	0.5362
	-Rotation	1.3919	3	0.7074
	-Job satisfaction	2.9360	3	0.4016
Professional status	-Training	11.4566	4	0.0219
	-Mentor	3.8191	4	0.4310
	-Rotation	4.9877	4	0.2886
	-Job satisfaction	2.8096	4	0.5902
Tenure/Experience	-Training	4.5507	5	0.4731
	-Mentor	6.3624	5	0.2725
	-Rotation	9.6137	5	0.0870
	-Job satisfaction	7.2579	5	0.2022
Race	-Training	3.0619	3	0.3822
	-Mentor	0.1257	3	0.9886
	-Rotation	0.6489	3	0.8852
	-Job satisfaction	3.7773	3	0.2865
Category of work	Training	0.5538	1	0.4568
	-Mentor	0.1315	1	0.7169
	-Rotation	0.0106	1	0.9180
	-Job satisfaction	0.2307	1	0.6310

7.3.1.1: Perception of the respondents on the relationship between sex, training, mentorship, rotation and job satisfaction.

Table 7.3.1 shows that there was a significant relationship between training , mentoring, rotation and job satisfaction and the above mentioned demographic variables as shown in the p-value column of the table (sex and training, $p < 0.0844$; < 0.05 ,sex and mentor, $p < 0.3065$; < 0.05 , sex and rotate < 0.4940 ; < 0.05 , sex and job satisfaction, $P < 0.4384$, < 0.05).

The results presented in Table 7.3.1 show a significant relationship between sex and the key variables point to the gender equity problem that result in women's under-representation. The extent of the problem is further confirmed by the odds

ratios and their 95% confidence intervals. According to this table all confidence intervals do not contain one; this means there is a significant association at a 5% level of significance. These are used as confirmation of the p-values that are less than one.

These results synchronize with available statistics depicting women under-representation in institutions of higher learning in South Africa. The findings are also consistent with research on women under-representation elsewhere. For example, Tichy (1986:6) 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.

Clearly, women are associated with lower-clustered positions; they are likely to encounter job related stress. Increased paperwork, service, committee responsibilities, and low professional recognition contributed to the lower satisfaction levels of women. Women in this sample reported even greater levels of job dissatisfaction. The institutions of higher learning may have experienced such high levels of distress for members of higher echelons, as like other men and women who work outside the home they take on multiple careers, professional, marital and family roles (Fisher, 1994)

In general, women tend to hold less respected positions, often being assistants rather than directors or administrator. In academia, women are concentrated in the lower ranking and untenured positions, such as assistant professor, lecturer, or adjunct professor (Benjamin, 1998; Buckley 2000; Joesting, 1974 and Valian, 1998). Women are likely to experience involuntary unemployment or underemployment even when they have high credential experience. The results of this investigation indicate that women neither receive mentorships, nor are they rotated to other posts and suddenly they become dissatisfied with their current positions.

7.3.1.2: Perception of the respondents on the relationship between experience, training, mentorship, rotation and job satisfaction.

Tenure/experience and training, $p < 0.4731$; < 0.05 , Tenure/experience and mentor, $p < 0.2725$; < 0.05 , Tenure/experience and rotation $p < 0.0870$; < 0.05 , Tenure/experience and job satisfaction, $p < 0.2022$; < 0.05 . The under-representation of female faculty persists despite the increase of women entering college, earning their Ph.D., and obtaining academic positions (Bickel, Croft, Johnson, & Marshall, 1998; Valian, 1998).

Women are even scarcer at more elite positions, in this study the results reveal that the higher the rating of the department, the fewer the number of female hired either in administration or faculties. Members of minority groups, especially women, are disproportionately under-represented in all ranks of faculty and administration. Thus even though many institutions state that a commitment to diversity in hiring with the blanket statement “women and minorities are particularly encouraged to apply”, the same institutions create an atmosphere where women and minorities are at risk to fail.



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7.3.1.3: Perception of the respondents on the relationship between professional, training, mentorship, rotation and job satisfaction.

This is supported by the results in this investigation that reveal that Professional status and training, $p < 0.0219$; < 0.05 , Professional status and mentor, $p < 0.4310$; < 0.05 , Professional status, $p < 0.2886$; < 0.05 , Professional status and job satisfaction, $p < 0.5902$; < 0.05 . Thus the academic tenure and reward systems is biased towards males as duties traditionally conducted by men (for instance, publishing, research, and administration are recognized and valued at a greater level than duties completed by women (for example teaching and service).

When women achieve tenure, they generally do so at a later age. These remain a widely held attitude in the institutions of higher learning that women are not really serious or even legitimate contenders in the academic enterprise (Hill, 1984:180). Even after entering the academic system, male networks keep women from significant participation in the administrative and decision making affairs of the institution, which effectively push women into marginalized roles.

7.3.1.4: Perception of the respondents on the relationship between number of children, training, mentorship, rotation and job satisfaction

The findings of this research indicates that, number of children and training, $p < 0.8569$; < 0.05 , number of children and mentor, $p < 0.5362$; < 0.05 , number of children and rotation, $p < 0.7074$; < 0.05 , number of children and job satisfaction, $p < 0.4016$; < 0.05 . Further, institutions of higher learning deny women positions due to interruptions in employment by reason of child rearing or other family responsibilities. McElrath (1992) found that women career interruptions were less likely to achieve tenure and promotion than males with similar careers or females without interruptions even if they were found to be as productive. Women with families, therefore, appeared to be penalized for taking time out for childbearing and child rearing.

It is clear from the research that women in academia and administration have traditionally earned less than men for similar performance, credentials, and achievement. One reason for this is that women are still occupying lower-ranked positions associated with lower pay. This is due to variable criteria used to award tenure and promotion saos not to be standardized across or even within the institutions. Individual variables, such as productivity, ability to secure grants, teaching effectiveness, rank, and years of service are used to justify the pay rates for faculty and administration.

Some researchers suggest that differences in institutional type, discipline, experience, and rank justify differences in salary. As summarized above, this research is supported even elsewhere as it is indicated that women tend to enter with fewer resources and opportunities for grants in United States of America (Blackburn & Holbert, 1987; Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995; Robbins & Kahn, 1985) and tend to teach at smaller community colleges, institutions that generally offer lower salaries to faculty members (Astin & Davis, 1985) .

7.3.1.5: Perception of the respondents on the relationship between marital status, training, mentorship, rotation and job satisfaction

Although there are now more married women in faculties and administration than previously, they tend to face different internal and external pressures than do single female or married male employees. From the results obtained in this research marital status and training, $P < 0.4767$; < 0.05 , marital status and mentor, $P < 0.4681$; < 0.05 , marital status and rotation, $P < 0.3029$; < 0.05 , marital status and job satisfaction, $P < 0.5096$; < 0.05 . In support of the results on the wellbeing of married men and women, married academic men were likely to describe their marital status as an asset, whereas women saw marriage as a hindrance for promotion. Astin & Milem (1997) suggested that to have a wife frees men from household responsibilities and allows for more for scholarly and administrative activity, whereas, because women are traditionally responsible for household work, these family responsibilities impede women's progress and productivity.

Married professional women have been more likely to change their career plans or relocate for their partners' career than men (Astin & Milem, 1997). This creates the disadvantage that women enter the work force later, which may result in lower lifetime salaries and decreased retirement benefits. While married women tend to have many home pressures, several researchers have suggested that women married to faculty men or administrative men tend to fare better than

single women in their career in terms of rank, employment patterns and productivity (Astin & Davis, 1985).

Results indicate marital status to be significant factor for training, mentoring, rotation and job satisfaction. The odds ratio for this association is that while males in either category of marital status were equally likely to receive training, mentoring, rotation and job satisfaction, females differed significantly. Marital status and training, $p < 0.4767$; < 0.05 , marital status and mentor, $p < 0.4681$; < 0.05 , marital status and Rotation $P < 0.3029$; < 0.05 , marital status and job satisfaction, $p < 0.5096$; < 0.05 . Although women, and particularly women of color, have long been part of the paid workforce, primarily due to economic need (Goldin, 1990), combining a well paid and satisfying job with marriage and family in South Africa was until recently limited to men only.



Institutional factors, such as a preference for single females and restrictions against hiring family members (Ferber & Loeb, 1997), and the societal separation of home as the domain of the women and paid work as the domain of males (Goldner, 1985) kept women with families from careers in academic and administrative management positions. Married professional women have been more likely to change their career plans or relocate for their partners' career interests than have married men. Although traditionally society has dictated that women should relocate for their partners' career ends, this paradoxically, created the image that women were not as serious about their own careers and contributed to negativity about these women (Buckley 2000).

Women are unlikely to take time off from their career for childbearing or rearing and therefore often have had to work with the competing demands of childcare, home care, and their career (Astin & Milem, 1997). Although mentoring has been associated with a number of positive career and personal outcomes for both male and female protégés (Kram, 1983), women have been more likely than males to have a mentor for a number of reasons. This is supported by the results

of this study, sex and mentor, $p < 0.03065$; < 0.05 . First, as there are fewer women in academia and administration, women are forced to seek cross-sex or cross-cultural relationships.

This could lead to a variety of problems such as rumors of or actual sexual involvement, harassment, or ignorance of the discrimination faced by women (Moore & Amey, 1988). Second, women often lack visibility and access to informal settings to create mentorship opportunities, which allows them to be overlooked (Brown, 1999 & Ragins, 1989). Finally, men may not have chosen females due to sex-role socialization, negative attitudes towards women, comfort level, or the idea that sponsoring a female was a greater risk. Moore and Amey (1988: 47) states that male mentors are more likely to choose other males as protégés due to the “assumption that males are more determined or more natural leaders and that women are less serious, less dedicated, and less likely to last over the long haul”.

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Further, senior women have been less likely to serve as mentors than senior men. Women seeking mentors are often challenged by the small numbers of female managers/ mentors and the time constraints placed on these mentors due to personal work-load and large demand for same sex mentors (Buckley 2000). Thus, while the benefits have long been recognized, women have been less likely to be mentored due to personal institutional, and societal factors. Further, there appear to be supposed power differentials between male and female mentors that have influenced how protégés view the relationship.

Gender difference are likely to be more problematic for female protégés; even if they want to be mentored, they may not have access to a mentor or, alternatively, may believe certain mentors to be more beneficial than others. Researchers have been unable to conclude whether the sex of the respondents correlates with career satisfaction. Several authors (Black & Holden, 1998; Hammond, 1987; Hemmasi, Graf & Lust 1992) suggest that males are more

satisfied than their female counterparts. This is especially true in institutions of higher learning which indicates that sex and job satisfaction, $P < 0.4384$, < 0.05).

Hammond (1987) also found that to be the case for satisfaction predictors for males and females. The use of individual coping strategies and greater hardiness levels (defined by having an internal locus of control, involvement and commitment in life activities, and perceiving change as a means of development) predicted sources of satisfaction for men. Also, for women, but not men, social support from friends and family predict higher satisfaction. Thus the individual and interpersonal variables predict satisfaction for men whereas relational and social support variables influenced the perception of satisfaction for females.

Women in academia and administration face a number of stressors. Akin to other women who work outside the home, females there have been burdened with balancing work and family life, personal and professional time constraints, financial concerns, a lack of supportive work environment, and managing household work. These pressures are often internal or situational and appear to be influenced by others' expectations and socialization factors (Moyer, 1999; Reiss, 1983) and increased psychological distress (Arber, Gilbert & Dale 1985). This study found that males reported greater satisfaction than females on the balance in their work and personal life. A typical response from one female:

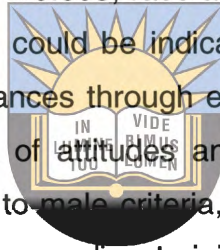
Of course I am not willing to sacrifice the life of my children and most of the time it is even difficult to travel, because my children are still young. (Female respondent)

Females generally felt that they had a poor balance or indifferent balance between career and home life. Both males and females felt that males had an easier time balancing home and family due to the inequitable division of household labor between men and women. This research confirms the work of

Hochschild (1997) and others who suggested that professional women experience an unpaid second shift of housework and childcare.

7.3.1.6: Perception of the respondents on the relationship between race, training, mentorship, rotation and job satisfaction

While women experienced the same success and strains as did men, they, in addition, faced racism and discrimination, factors that negatively affect career satisfaction. Race and training, $p < 0.3822$, < 0.005 , race and mentor, $p < 0.9886$, < 0.005 , race and rotation, $p < 0.8852$, < 0.005 , race and job satisfaction, $p < 0.2865$, < 0.005 . Respondents' perception could be indicative of the fact that, despite attempts to redress the past imbalances through the policies of affirmative action and gender equity, the framework of attitudes and ideas which causes most people to judge females according to male criteria, still lingers and continues to impose restrictions on perceptions regarding training, mentorship, rotation and job satisfaction.



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Race appeared to correlate with training, mentorship, rotation and job satisfaction as black females were more likely than their male counterparts to rate themselves as unsatisfied with their academic and administrative careers. These findings suggest racial groups face hardships due to the added strain of discrimination.

7.3.1.7: Perception of the respondents on the relationship between category of work, training, mentorship, rotation and job satisfaction

Category of work and training, $p < 0.4568$; < 0.05 , Category of work and mentor, $p < 0.7169$; < 0.05 , Category of work and rotation, $p < 0.9180$; < 0.05 , Category of work and job satisfaction, $p < 0.6310$; < 0.05 . Satisfaction levels seem to be associated with discipline and the category of work that employees are engaged in, for example administrative and academic areas. Gmelch (1984) speculated

that faculty in the physical sciences were more satisfied because they had more clearly defined research programmes and greater resources than those in the social and behavioral sciences and humanities.

Several researchers have suggested that those in higher ranks were more satisfied with their careers, professors having the highest satisfaction levels. In addition to lower satisfaction levels, males and females at lower ranks reported more life stress. Further those in tenured or tenure track positions are often considered as more satisfied (Richard and Krieshok 1989). As professors are at the top of the academic and administrative ladder; these findings seemed to equate promotion with satisfaction and thus, success. However, in contrast to these findings, Richard and Krieshok (1989) found that employees experience similar role stressors regardless of sex and rank.



This indicates that more variables may influence career satisfaction and stress levels than rank only. In addition to the under-representation of women in certain fields (academic), women are more often excluded from research-oriented activities and assigned to lower power positions with little autonomy and decision making ability. Women are more likely to teach in positions with fewer resources, as research assistants and lack access to educational and research oriented materials.

7.4 Section C: Data on structural factors affecting women participation.

The following data was obtained from the 102 respondents who completed the Lickert scale items in the questionnaire:

Table 7.4.1 Structural factors affecting women participation

Variables	key variable	Chi-square	df	p-value
Enhance learning	-Training	5.0384	1	0.0248
	-Mentor	0.3289	1	0.5663
	-Rotation	0.1058	1	0.7427
	-Job satisfaction	0.2773	1	0.5985
Implement policies	-Training	1.3465	1	
	-Mentor	0.0414	1	0.2459
	-Rotation	0.2788	1	0.8387
	-Job satisfaction	0.1133	1	0.5975 0.7364
Promotes success	-Training	11.0769	1	
	-Mentor	1.6087	1	0.0009
	-Rotation	0.0031	1	0.2087
	-Job satisfaction	12.9874	1	0.9557 0.0839
Manage budget	-Training	1.2725	1	0.2593
	-Mentor	4.6009	1	0.0434
	-Rotation	4.5182	1	0.0335
	-Job satisfaction	18.0631	1	<0.001
Enhance professional capabilities	-Training	12.2126	1	0.0005
	-Mentor	3.2621	1	0.0709
	-Rotation	4.4220	1	0.0355
	-Job satisfaction	4.1265	1	0.0422
Communication	-Training	0.0233	1	0.8787
	-Mentor	0.8780	1	0.3488
	-Rotation	0.3771	1	0.5392
	-Job satisfaction	1.0269	1	0.3109
Apply laws	-Training	6.9769	1	0.0083
	-Mentor	0.2845	1	0.5938
	-Rotation	2.2021	1	0.1378
	-Job satisfaction	2.0749	1	0.1497
Promote multicultural awareness	-Training	5.5255	1	0.0187
	-Mentor	1.2475	1	0.2640
	-Rotation	0.9570	1	0.3279
	-Job satisfaction	0.8283	1	0.3628

7.4.1.1 Perception of respondents on whether their institutions offer a learning environment.

A better gender balance in institutions of higher learning management may be achieved through measures to overcome the shortage of women postgraduate students fit for employment in higher education institutions. The allocation of special awards and scholarships to women is one concrete way to create a larger pool of women academic and senior administrators or managers. However, the results of this study reveal that enhance learning and training $p < 5.0384$; < 0.0248 , enhance learning and rotation, $p < 1058$; < 0.7427 , enhance learning and job satisfaction, $p < 0.2773$; < 0.5985 .



In spite of much talk about a “knowledge-based economy” and the extent of worker education and training activities in current paid workplaces, less consideration has been given to which the institutions of higher learning influence participation in such learning activities (Ball, 2003). The study indicates that institutions of higher learning have had relatively low levels of training investment. Typical responses of male respondents:

There are no explicit attempts in my knowledge that the university has done to encourage women, and not only women, to go for enough training and skills development (male respondent)

Another respondent pointed out:

I believe it is left in the hands of individuals to make sure they make their own training and skills advancement, for their own self development, but the university does not enter anywhere (male respondent)

In many fields and practices women are still under-represented and inexperienced. Inexperienced persons learn from older, more experienced ones. So the process of mentorship in institutions of higher learning does not operate. Enhance learning and mentor, $p < 0.3289$; < 0.5663 . “An accumulating body of

knowledge suggests that it is the unusual senior manager who, early in his or her career, did not have an older, more experienced mentor higher up in the organization” (Kram, 1983). Mentoring of course is not limited to the managerial ranks. Research on the nature of such relationships suggests that mentors do many things for their protégées, and as far as this study is concerned those relationships do not exist.

Further, women have increasingly been hired into leadership and administrative positions and have been included on committees and special councils; this is indicated by the proportion of women against the men in top management positions. Blackburn and Holbert (1987:296) stated, “When one compares the inroads made by women into various male dominated professions, their progress in the professorate may appear to be the success story of the past twenty years”.



Nevertheless, women in academia and administrative positions continue to experience notable structural hurdles inside the workplace. Although the inclusion of women in top positions now was likely due to the pragmatics of enforcing gender and anti-discrimination measures, the reversal effectively marginalizes gender issues and could serve to promote discrimination in training and mentorship. The results of this study reveal that 81.37% agree that institutions of higher learning enhance learning, but of these only 30% of females agree.

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7.4.1.2 Perception of respondents on whether the institution implements policies and procedures that should comply with the gender legislation.

Policies and procedures in institutions of higher learning serve as a guideline for women issues. The results of this study suggest that implement policies and training, $p < 0.2459$, < 0.05 , implement policies and mentor, $p < 0.8387$, < 0.05 , implement policies and rotation, $p < 0.5975$, < 0.05 . It suggests that institutional leadership programmes and policies are not focused on skills development, on

recognition of existing strengths and capacities, on increasing numbers of women in leadership roles, on visibility and support networks. As the results of this investigation reveal equality in employment within the institutions of higher learning of men and women is not yet advanced. Training is now significant and shows that better trained workers will experience an increase over less- trained workers in the likelihood of promotion, which may result from the influences of existing laws and policies.

The results show that (implement policies and job satisfaction, $p < 0.7364$, < 0.05), the institutions do not work towards transforming women and gaining organizational support. The results point to a significant relationship between the implementation of policies and procedures that comply with the law, such as affirmative action and gender equity policies and women's satisfaction with the positions they occupy. This means that if they exist, the policies and procedures do not enhance women's skills and experience/ professional development/ leadership potential and do not build a culture in the organization that encourages women's full participation either.



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The policies, strategies, mechanisms and practices described in chapter 2 of this study indicate some concrete ways in which to redress the gender imbalance in higher education and to enable women to improve their status and career prospects in these institutions. However, the findings prove that these mechanisms are not effective in institutions of higher learning (apply laws and training, $p < 0.0083$, < 0.05 , apply laws and mentor, $p < 0.5938$, < 0.05 , apply laws and rotation, $p < 0.1378$, < 0.05 , apply laws and Job satisfaction, $p < 0.1497$, < 0.05). The provision of legislative support is a tangible recognition for the need to create enabling environment for women. Gender equity policies and programmes merely represent good intentions (Singh, 1998) which institutions of higher learning seem not realize in practice.

Key factors that would help the cause of women include: commitment and support from top management; development of legislative framework such as international conventional and governmental legislation; establishment of support structures; Indigenization of programmes to suit the needs not only of men but also of women, improved supply of women into higher education and postgraduate studies; and adoption of an overall gender management system (Singh, 1998).

The results of this study reveal that at national and local levels, legal regimes do not favor gender issues; some studies even indicate a recent decline in women's access to decision-making posts. It is important to remember that the same regimes that failed to redress gender imbalances in participation are those charged with protecting the fundamental individual rights outlined in the Constitution. Therefore, independent of short and medium term educational efforts, it is necessary for government to take immediate action. Actions to this end may include the establishment of quotas or the earmarking of government funds for the promotion of women's participation.

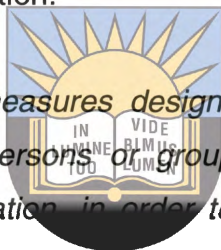


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Clearly women and men do not enjoy equal employment and civil rights. Hence there is a significant relationship between the application of laws and training, mentoring, rotation and job satisfaction. Notwithstanding the above, some important advances in national legislation have been made to address the issue of discrimination and unequal representation in the employment process.

These include, in some cases, the establishment of independent national mechanisms to promote gender concerns in all spheres of society. In South Africa, various policies such as Employment Equity, Affirmative Action and Gender Equity were introduced as a governmental measure for defining, co-ordinating and supervising public policies for promoting gender equality.

South Africa has always stood at the international cross-roads in its quest for freedom and racial equality. The multiracial composition of South African society and the long history of struggle against apartheid make urgent the need to redress historical inequality and to foster the development of different groups urgent. The new South African government recognizes the need to incorporate affirmative action in its Interim Constitution. Subsection 8(1) guarantees equal right before the law and equal protection of the law. Subsection 8(2) provides that no person shall be unfairly discriminated against. This section also provides that not all unequal treatment will be unconstitutional while subsection 8(3) allows for the legal protection of affirmative action:



This section shall not preclude measures designed to achieve the adequate protection and advancement of persons or groups or categories of persons disadvantaged by unfair discrimination in order to enable their full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms.

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7.4.1.3: Perception of respondents on communication

While the duties that male and female academics and managers have engaged in are the same, there are sex differences in time spent in decision making in these duties and level of respect afforded to men and women in academia and administration. Females are likely to spend more time in teaching and service duties, resulting in less time for actual communication which leads to important decision making. The results of this study depict that communication and training, $p < 0.08787$, < 0.05 ; communication and mentor, $p < 0.3488$, < 0.05 ; communication and rotation, $p < 0.5392$, < 0.05 ; communication and job satisfaction, $p < 0.3109$, < 0.05 ;

Regarding men and females, the universities investigated in this study evidence under-representation of senior women academics and managers and the low number of women as chairs of decision making meetings. It may be asked

whether women are encouraged to participate in the discussions. Gendered power communications were emphasized by the respondents as follows:

Women are at their most participative when the subject for discussion was gender, but with regard to other matters a disaster (male respondent)

Men dominate speech interactions by monopolizing turn taking, by speaking longer and thereby maintaining the floor, and by turning up the vocal volume in order to assert dominance and minimize the potential for disruption. (female respondent)

As indicated by these responses, observation shows how women's contributions are ignored, but taken seriously when recycled by male participants and skewed towards their interests. For example the one respondent said:

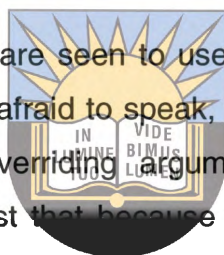


When a woman raised the issue of age as a factor precluding women from securing funding for research, the issue was not carried forward for discussion. However, when a man raised the issue of registration fees for postgraduate studies being a factor delaying the completion of programmes by males, a motion was immediately raised, discussed and adopted to exempt PhD students in the teaching staff from paying registration and examination fees. (Female respondent)

The gendering of authority is a recurrent theme. Males made their experiences and understandings the condition of universal knowledge, while females mark their specificity through experience (Morley, 2006). However, the low representation of women, that is, lack of critical mass, was seen as a cause of women's silence. Women are under-represented in most of the decision making arenas, such as training and mentoring as this study shows and this has negative implications for negotiating the redistribution of power both in academic and administrative positions.

Thus decision making affects what the management of the institutions of higher learning produce and how they organize production and interact with society. As the results show, the existing systems of management in institutions of higher learning negatively affect and continue traditional systems of gender relations. This problem of communication of women in management positions may be caused by a range of factors that disable women in taking a full and active role in communicating. In particular women are excluded from certain sources of information for a range of reasons, the primary ones being connected to language and the informal networks that exist within the universities.

Turning to the first of these, men are seen to use words and diction with such skilled effect that women become afraid to speak, being intimidated by powerful use of sarcasm, interruption and overriding arguments (Handley, 1994:13). The results of this investigation suggest that because women often do not take an active part in debates, they run the risk of not being taken seriously by their male colleagues.



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In addition women may experience marginalization through the written as well as the spoken word. Handley (1994) refers to the closed world of publishing, arguing that male gatekeepers often debate and review submissions in a language that is alien to the experience of many women. West and Lyon (1995) argue that academic objectivity is profoundly masculinist; this has profound implications for female academics. For example research by Earl-Novell (2001) finds gender differentiation between styles of writing and corresponding academic achievement at universities.

7.5 Section D: Questionnaire data on psycho-social and cultural factors relating to women under-representation.

The following data was obtained from the 102 respondents who completed scale items on the questionnaire:

Table 7.5.1: Perception of respondents on work load/time

n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 27	25	24.5	33	32.4	27	26.5	17	16.7	102	100

In total 56.9 % of the respondents in this investigation had the perception that women experience work overload and do not have enough time to perform their day to day duties. 43.2 % rejected the perception that women are loaded with work, and have less time to perform their daily work routines.

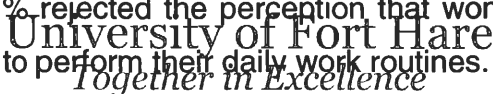


Table 7.5.2: Perception of the respondents on family commitment and lack of child care

n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 28.1	13	12.6	37	36.3	35	34.3	17	16.7	102	100
Item 28.2	13	12.6	29	28.4	36	35.3	24	23.5	102	100

The highest percentage of the respondents in this study, i.e. 51% (item 28.1) and 58.8 % (item 28.2) rejected the perception that women are not prepared to sacrifice their family life any further than their current position demands, and further rejected that having children is primary barrier to making headway for publication and promotion. Thus 49 % of the respondents held the perception

that women are not prepared to sacrifice their family life any further than their current position demands. Only 41% of the respondents viewed having children as a primary barrier to making headway with publication and promotion.

Table 7.5.3 Perception of the respondents on unfriendly management culture

n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 29.1	14	13.7	38	37.3	31	30.2	19	18.6	102	100
Item 29.2	10	9.8	36	35.3	35	34.3	21	20.6	102	100
Item 29.3	8	7.8	24	23.5	47	46.1	23	22.6	102	100

The highest percentage of the respondents in this study, i.e. a total of 51% (item 29.1), accepted the view that the management of the university is not supportive towards women and that the university's culture is very frustrating. Thus 49% rejected this as they indicated that management culture in the university is not frustrating. The majority of respondents in this study, i.e. 54.9 % (item 29.2), held the perception that there is co-operation in the top management and 45.1 agreed that there is no co-operation in the top management towards managing cultural differences. Thus 68.7 % of the respondents rejected the view that top management consists of males, and only 31.3 agree to this view.

Table 7.5.4: Perception of the respondents on lack of career path

n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 30.1	11	10.8	38	37.3	35	34.3	18	17.7	102	100
Item 30.2	15	14.7	32	31.2	35	34.3	20	19.6	102	100

Of the respondents 52 % (item 30.1) rejected the view that there are no expectations of promotion because of the way positions have been classified. The majority of the respondents i.e. 53.9 % (item 30.2), think that other current employees are eager to move on to higher positions. However, only 46.1% (item 30.2) held the view that current employees in senior positions do not want to move to experience higher positions.

Table 7.5.5: Perception of the respondents on emphasis on research and undervaluing of teaching

n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 31	10	9.8	49	48.0	22	21.6	21	20.6	102	100

The majority of the respondents in this study, i.e. 57.8% (item 31) hold the view that being committed to good teaching takes time and effort to emphasize much on research but they also agree that this is seriously devaluated in promotion. It is, however, interesting to note however that 42.2% reject the view that being committed to good teaching takes much time and effort.

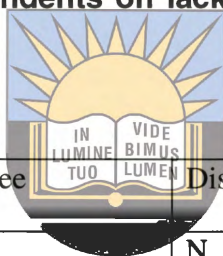
Table 7.5.6: Perception of the respondents on ineffective leaders /lack of mentoring

n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 32.1	18	17.7	28	27.5	34	33.3	22	21.6	102	100
Item 32.2	6	5.9	22	21.6	48	47.0	26	25.5	102	100
Item 32.3	14	37.2	35	34.3	38	13.7	15	14.7	102	100

Of the respondents 54.9 % (item 32.1) reject the view that there are ineffective supervisors who do not know how to mentor staff while 45.1% accept it. It is interesting to note that 72.5 % (item 32.2) of the respondents acknowledge the view that supervisors do not see women as threats to their positions. Only 27.5% of the respondents think that their supervisors see them as threats. However it is also interesting to note that 71.5 % (item 32.3) accept the view that there is lack of mentoring in institutions of higher learning, and only 28.5% of the respondents reject this view.

Table 7.5.7: Perception of respondents on lack of opportunities for career advancement



n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 33	13	12.8	32	31.4	39	38.2	18	17.7	102	100

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The highest percentage of the respondents in this study, i.e. 55.9% (item 33) rejects the idea that there are no vacancies for senior positions women could hold. However, 44.1% of the respondents think so.

Table 7.5.8: Perception of respondents on temperament/personality

n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 34	13	12.8	36	35.3	35	34.3	18	17.7	102	100

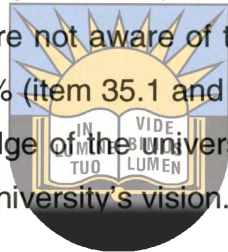
Of the respondents 52% (item 34) reject the idea that women prefer their personality, and then seeking agreement is a bit too much for them. Thus, it is interesting to note that 48% of the respondents believe women prefer their own personalities, and do not like to seek agreement.

Table 7.5.9: Perception of the respondents on lack of local or sector knowledge

n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 35.1	7	6.9	40	39.2	34	33.3	21	20.6	102	100
Item 35.2	10	9.8	36	35.3	34	33.3	22	21.6	102	100

The majority of the respondents i.e. 53.9% (item 35.1) reject the view that women lack knowledge of the university's system of operation, and 54.9% (item 35.2) do not accept the idea that women are not aware of the university's vision. This is an indication that 46.1% and 45.1% (item 35.1 and item 35.2 respectively) accept the view that women lack knowledge of the university's system of operation and that women are not aware of the university's vision.



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Table 7.5.10: Perception of respondents on cultural /linguistic factors

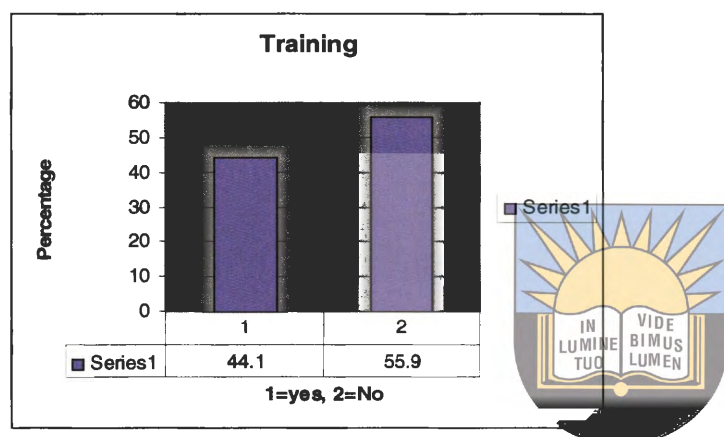
n=102

Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Item 36	18	17.7	28	27.5	38	37.3	18	17.7	102	100

The highest percentage of the respondents, i.e. 55% (item 36), hold the perception that there is no lack of cultural differences at the university. This indicates that only 45% accept the view that cultural differences are not acknowledged in the universities.

7.6: Section E: Questionnaire data on the achievement of women's leadership aspirations.

Figure 7.6.1: Perceptions of respondents on training and skills development



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Although both male and female academicians and administrators engage in training and skills development activities, there is greater variability in engagement between the sexes as women have been given less priority than men. The results of this study reveals that 55.9 % of the respondents thought that women do not receive enough training and skills development, and only 44.1 % thought that the skills of women are sufficiently developed and that they receive enough training. Practices considered discriminatory in academia and administrative higher positions include the under-representation of females in training and inequitable funding for male and female training programmes Richard and Krieshok (1989).

In this study, the respondents reported that women are not provided appropriate training to qualify them for seniority. Women perceived fewer opportunities to develop professional and intellectual capital and often felt that the capital that they possess was devaluated and not recognized in the institution of higher learning and development opportunities are not communicated. Overt

discrimination was reported in relation to resource allocation- particularly for professional development. Three respondents discussed the favoritism of men:

There should be some allowance made for women to be sent on training programmes, development, staff development and all that, women should be considered, because here... the men are given upper hand (Male respondent).

When there are conferences to be attended, they should make it 50–50, if they need four people, two female, two male, two female members of staff, two ladies, two women (female respondent).

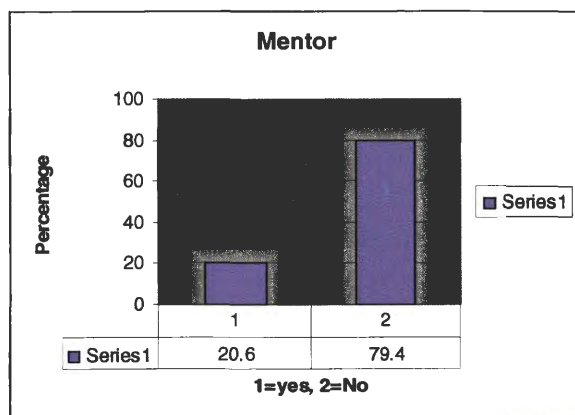
Some proactive, affirmative action programmes to ensure that women teaching staff acquire research and training opportunities may be necessary to balance the current 'gender neutral' policies where scholarships and advanced training may be based on disciplines or fields. These policies do not intentionally discriminate against women but women staff not having access to training and research opportunities. This can impede their opportunities for career advancement in competition with male staff (female respondents).



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The above suggestion of a quota system is invariably seen as controversial as there is a strong belief that higher education is gender neutral (Deem & Morley, 2005). An argument is that there are dangers that gender neutrality can mean “gender blind”, rather than gender conscious (EOC, 2000). This can be an indication that gender neutral policies and practices towards training and skills development are not specifically aimed at men or women and are assumed to affect men directly.

Figure 7.6.2: Perception of the respondents on mentorship



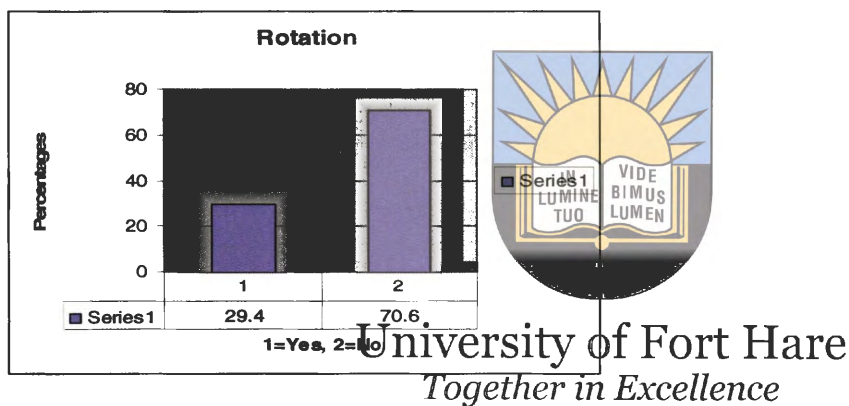
Although mentoring has been associated with a number of positive career and personal outcomes for both male and female employees (Kram, 1983) women in institutions of higher learning have been less likely to be mentored than their male counterparts. The results of this study shows that 79.4 % of the respondents do not get formal, informal or continuing mentoring, and only 20.6 % of the respondents believe that women do get formal, informal and continuing mentoring. This might indicate that women often lack visibility and access to informal settings to create mentorship opportunities; these women are overlooked by mentors (Brown, 1999). The respondents on this study indicate that:

Even though we would wish to be mentored we do not get any formal or informal mentoring, I do not even have a picture of formal mentoring. (Female respondent)

It depends on who one happens to meet when they get here, I believe a mentor is somebody that one can refer to, either with personal or work related issues, but no !not in this institutions. (Female respondent)

From these findings it is clear that gender differences are more likely to be problematic for female employees as even if they want to be mentored, they may not have access to a mentor or, alternatively, may believe certain mentors to be more beneficial than others. The gender in mentoring opportunities could limit the potential career, relational and personal satisfaction levels of women.

Figure 7.6.3: Perception of respondents on rotation and movement of women to higher positions.



Today, some policies in higher educational institutions include action plans to promote women representation. Several initiatives have been taken to ensure a more equal distribution of academic and administrative positions between the sexes and to bring more women into leading positions. Nevertheless, the higher up one gets in the academic and administrative hierarchy, the fewer the number of women. This is also revealed by the results of this investigation which shows that 70.6 % of the respondents indicate that women do not rotate to other positions in order to widen their experience.

It follows that women are primarily holding the lowest positions in the academic and administrative systems, are not particularly connected to career promotion, considerably fewer of them rotate to higher positions as the results of the study show that only 29.4% of the respondents believe women are given a chance to

rotate to higher positions in order to gain more exposure and to widen their experience. One of the respondents observes:

The problem is how to go through the barriers. They say the doors are open, but we are still tied. They tie your hands and blind fold you then they say 'the door is open'. So how do you move or rotate, we are still very far (female respondent).

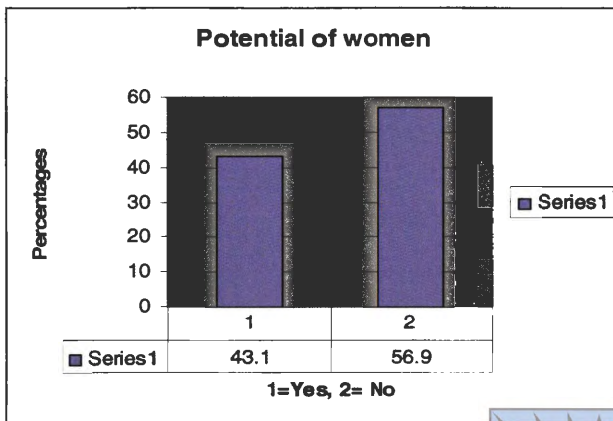
West and Lyon (1995) observe that differential expectation is acquired in women under-representation. Somewhat controversially they argue that gender role expectations for women inhibit ambition and competitiveness and sometimes even intellectual activity. Indeed, research into female academics in a British University found that conflicts were instrumental in the under-representation of women particularly at higher levels within universities. Forster (1999) identifies the following factors as pertinent:



- Widely held views that women should stay at home during their children's formative years
- Effect of the arrival of children on women's academic careers (maternity leave)
- Little empathy for non-work responsibilities of women
- Women are often expected to give family assistance to elderly or ill relatives

Thus from this finding it can be assumed that because women often give priority to their family and domestic commitments they are perceived as half hearted and this restricted view of commitment is posited as a highly individualized understanding of success so women are not given a chance to rotate or move to higher positions.

Figure 7.6.5: Perception of the respondents on the recognition of the potential of women

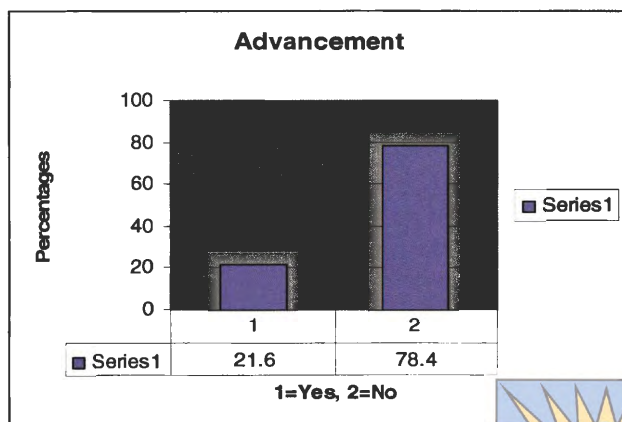


The majority of the respondents, 56.9% do not think that the potential of women is recognized in institutions of higher learning. Hence, sound personnel management policies needed to increase the number of women employees as academics or administrators in higher education institutions are not effective, if they exist. This is a contested issue that could lead to the taken appointments of women. One respondent stated:

...there's a policy framework and we live in a wonderful democratic country which supports women representation in so many ways but in practice we don't experience that in our daily lives.

The findings give no cause to expect that the numbers of women in senior management will increase, as so few are employed in academic and administrative positions as compared to men. Thus in spite of the difficulties that women face in gaining access to education, there are women well qualified for academic and administrative positions who nevertheless fail to be selected. As Richard and Krieshok (1989) observed that a man is preferred because he is a man. Thus discriminatory appointment and promotion practices constitute barriers in institutions and prevent equal opportunity practices.

Figure 7.6.6: Perception of the respondents on the strategies to advance women



While there is an increase of women in the sphere of higher education management, women remain concentrated in positions of less responsibility and on average receive less pay than their counterparts. The findings reflected in figure 7.6.6 shows 78.4% of respondents to be of the opinion that there are no strategies to advance women capabilities in institutions of higher learning.

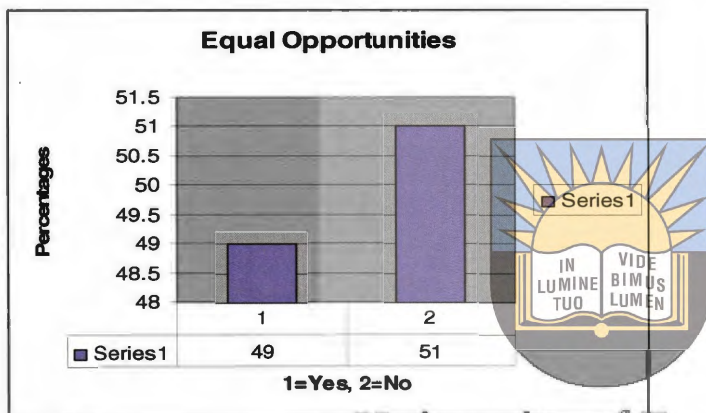
It follows that women have less opportunity for advancement. Women researchers publish less than men. Their networking is not as good and effective as that of men. However one of the respondents observes;

The thing is, there is no discrimination as per 'women must not enter this profession, woman must not do this, and women must not do that'. There is no written code or unwritten code. That's why I say the problem is the women themselves. If you feel you are up to a thing, you should go ahead and pursue it, not allowing any cultural barrier or whatever.

Only 21.6% of the respondents believe there are strategies to advance women. This is a clear indication that the institutions of higher learning do not fully participate in the advancement of women. This might be because women often give priority to their family and domestic commitments, so they might be

perceived as half hearted in their commitment to academic and administrative career advancement. Doyle and Hind (1998) find that women are disadvantaged by the greater likelihood of career breaks at an age when men are consolidating their records and gaining promotion.

Figure 7.6.7 Perception of the respondents on equal opportunities



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Many of the respondents in this study, i.e. 51%, discursively located equal opportunities in opposition to promotion and indeed as form of unfairness, believing that promotion was not achieved according to a just system. Equal opportunity is frequently constructed as a challenge to quality (Morley, 2004). One respondent remarked:

...generally people believe that there is equity. But I don't think so. What now operates is done in a subtle way, so that if one complains, one looks stupid because it is so subtle. It is there, but you can't pin-point it (female respondent).

Another observes:

...academia ... people hang around forever. So that is where the culture of old, white male, old boys club is probably sitting. It is not to say they are bad people, it is just that they are there (male respondent).

It appears that policies to work and change top management do not publicly and actively support an equal opportunities work culture. In addition these findings show that such initiatives are not working in tandem through an overall gender management system, an integrated and holistic approach.

Yet even where such policies are in place women have not been entirely successful, as the above data indicate. One view is that the absence of women in top positions is only for the time required for equal opportunity policies to take effect at those positions before a cadre of suitable women develops: 21.6 % of the respondents in this study feel that women did not get opportunities for promotion equaling opportunities for men.

7.7 Summary



This chapter presented the results and discussion using the analysis of the numerical data of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to test the perception of the respondents in relation to a combination of various factors affecting the representation of women in top positions, including social attitudes towards women, women's attitudes towards themselves and lack of clear guidelines and/or strategies for preparing women for participation in management positions. The results were presented by graphs and tables.

The chi-square test for independence was used to test the relationship between demographic variables and the key variables (training, mentorship, rotation, and job satisfaction) and it was used to test the structural factor variables affecting the above mentioned key variables.

The results show that:

- Few women hold senior management positions in the institutions of higher learning
- There are no policies relating specifically to prepare women for senior positions

- The universities charter precludes any form of discrimination on bases of sex, ethnicity and religion, the assumption being that everyone is treated equally and that everyone who joins the staff has an equal chance of developing skills and training.
- The findings from the empirical data in the two universities , backed up by literature, suggest that for many women, entry into higher education can be a means of mitigating gender oppression *e.g.* via social mobility, financial independence, professional identity and academic authority. However, this is accompanied by contradictions and tensions as women experience a range of discriminatory practices, gendered processes and exclusions within higher education management itself. Women report male privilege in pedagogical processes, assessment, promotion and research opportunities and management.



The next chapter will summarize the study, draw conclusions and make some recommendations

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CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 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.

8.2 Summary



The study addressed the continuing under-representation of women in higher education management. The data presented in these study shows that in spite of advances which women have made in many areas of public life in the past decades, in the area of higher education management they are still a long way from participating on the same footing as men. Thus the study provides an authentic response to the question of why women are still under-represented in management positions. The respondents gave their personal perspective of senior managers, who by virtue of their positions are well placed to reflect on the role of women in higher education management in institutions of higher learning.

These male and female respondents were part of the systems and cultures they describe, not external observers. Men occupying management positions in both academia and administration, and women who have succeeded in rising to the most senior positions in the institutes of higher learning , often against the odds. Their perception of the barriers to the fuller participation of women in higher education management and the strategies they propose for improving this situation warrant attention. The position of women in higher education management could not be treated in isolation in this study, and are considered

from the perceptions in social, cultural and organisational behaviours affecting the representation of women.

Chapter 1 proposed to explore four main themes:

- Psycho-social attributes (personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women themselves) factors that curb the participation of women in senior management positions in institutions of higher learning.
- Structural factors (disadvantageous position of women in the organizational structure (small numbers, little power, limited access to resources) that hinders women's access to senior management positions in institutes of higher learning.
- Cultural (social roles) factors that disable women's participation in the senior management positions.
- Assessment of current employment policy in relation to gender stereotype/discrimination in South Africa.



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Whilst it is commendable that institutions of higher learning have recently begun to address its historical women under-representation, it has been in a somewhat hit and miss fashion considering the lack of support offer to women once they have made a decision to enter the sector. The findings suggest that once women have entered higher education management they progress more slowly than their male colleagues, and confront a greater number of obstacles in doing so.

Clearly, a wide range of interrelated structural and cultural factors have contributed to this disparity, including women's own active strategies in coping with career constraints. Nevertheless, the organizations studied were arenas for

the enactment of discriminatory behavior, where women were viewed by male colleagues as added competition for limited career opportunities, and as threats to the maintenance of the male dominated and oriented environment. The result of such attitudes and behavior towards women was that they were unable to progress on with their male peers, and soon became frustrated with the opportunities open to them.

To investigate the socio-cultural and organizational process factors affecting the inequitable representation of women in institutes of higher learning in Eastern Cape in South Africa, the research design as discussed in chapter 5 was put to work.



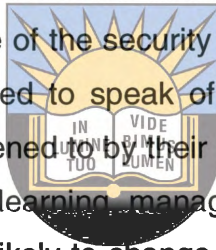
8.3 Conclusions

As confirmed by the findings of this study, women under-representation in institutes of higher learning results from the fact that society is male dominated and through socialization, sex stereotyping and sex discrimination, women often have low self esteem, low confidence and lack motivation. One of the main limitations of career advancement of women however is that married professional women have been likely to change their career plans because married women tend to have many home pressures.

The majority of the respondents in this study believe women often give priority to their family and domestic commitments, and are perceived, as a result, not to be fully committed to academic and administrative roles. This makes women to be at a disadvantage and as result the career paths of women are often delayed by marriage, family life and career breaks. Communication and authority to speak is also a recurrent theme. Males made their experiences and understanding the condition of universal knowledge, while females mark their specificity through experience.

Work experience is seen as pre-requisite for rapid progression to senior positions. This is because significant level of responsibility is needed which calls for more exposure and experience to those positions. Men are seen therefore, as occupying the more senior positions, where responsibility is maximized. Women however, sought to experience smaller operational responsibilities within institutions of higher learning. Thus women felt males were skeptical about their ability and commitment, and working in this condition does not secure the stability necessary for them to cope with their personal and family commitments

The findings show male members tended to contribute to general as well as their specific area of interest. They spoke of the security of faculty, administration and finances. By contrast females tended to speak of lack of training and lack of funds for training, and not being listened to by their male counterparts. For better or worse, many areas of higher learning management today are still male dominated, and this inequity is not likely to change soon. Although women have made many inroads into male dominated areas in higher education management, many believe that it has been too few and too slow, and problems such as wage disparities and glass ceiling will probably remain for the long-term and difficult to end.



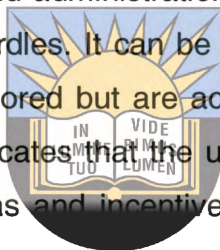
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The majority of the respondents saw inter-organizational mobility or rotation as necessary to circumvent the barriers obstructing their development; however, this does not seem to be true in fact. Respondents indicated that both men and women preferred to remain in positions where they understand the structure and culture that could let them excel in their positions. Thus, while women are forced to expend their efforts on keeping their positions or in coping with discriminatory behavior by their male colleagues, men can actively develop their careers.

This study further shows lack of tenure to be among the factors which contribute to the clustering of female academic and administrative staff at lower levels in the

hierarchy. However as the literature in this study shows the situation is improving as universities in South Africa increase their own research capacities and as affirmative action programmes assist women are slowly put in place.

There is also little practical enforcement of women representation in institutions of higher learning, hence cultural and women representation issues are marginalized and discrimination is promoted in many areas, among them training. Institutions of higher learning have not placed appropriate emphasis on women representation and the experiences of women. Based on the available literature on women in academia and administration, it is clear that women face notable institutional and societal hurdles. It can be a hostile environment where not only is women's experience ignored but are actually kept from training and skills development. This clearly indicates that the universities do not encourage diversity and do not create programs and incentives necessary to keep female staff successful and satisfied.



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Evidence from the study indicates that while the benefits of mentoring have long been recognized, women have been less likely to be mentored due to personal, institutional and social factors. They may not have access to a mentor or, alternatively, they may believe the emphasis on mentorship in the institutions of higher education is not taken into consideration. Recognition of the important role of mentors in the careers of successful people has led an increasing number of organizations and corporations to establish formalized mentor programmes; however, the institutes of higher education seem not to realize this importance. Mentor programmes/connections have not been created to orient both females and males, foster employee turnover, assist in advancement, improve job performance, lower turnover, and enhance creativity and increase leadership potential.

As a result, the situation of women in institutions of higher learning outlined above, explains a fortiori why women play such a limited role in the management

of the university. One who holds a post in arts discipline has little chance of being heard in the university. There are a number of reasons why that may be. Such as the place held by women in professional ranks prevents them from becoming candidates for posts carrying high responsibility. Aspiring candidates for such posts must already have acquired a sufficient status and prominence.

8.4 Recommendations

8.4.1 More research is needed to investigate to what extent women managers are aware of the stereotyping negative light in which they are viewed in the organizational setting; that is, are women aware of the extent to which they are viewed as not well suited for management positions by their male counterparts?



8.4.2 Leadership is central to success in management and women are often seen as lacking in what it takes to excel as leaders. Accordingly, further research should be conducted as to the extent to which women are accurate in their perception of male managers' beliefs about the leadership abilities of female managers.

8.4.3 Women frequently progress haltingly in their careers because of breaks for child bearing and child-rearing. It should be the responsibility of institutions of higher learning to provide adequate child-care facilities and parental leave. These matters have been of less concern in the past, in traditional societies; however with a growing need for female managers, there should be awareness of new needs for the care of their children while simultaneously reducing the need for women to concentrate only on their families so that they are freed to full commitment to organizational duties.

8.4.4 The universities should ensure an increased participation of women in high education management through the following organized main area: focusing on recruitment and promotion, establishing mentors and networks, implementing friendly initiatives, and controlling sexist language and behavior.

8.4.5 The institutions of higher learning should provide resources to enable women to obtain more research grants and publish more prolifically, which translates to greater opportunities for tenure and promotion. However, this assumption may have been overly simplistic as having resources and grants does not necessarily equate publishing rates. Instead if the grants could be offered there can be a greater difference in satisfaction of women which may lead to a better climate in both academic and administration, hence this will indicated support and respect for women in higher education.



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8.4.6 The position of women can be enhanced in higher education which has legislation and regulation in place to provide organizational support structures for women. To inhibit barriers to the advancement of women the institutes of higher learning should establish structures and policies to deal with discrimination or to support women in their multiple roles of wife/mother/professional women.

8.4.7 Women will not be able to take their full participation in their in administration and academic until they are given full role in the university. The universities should increase teaching research in women, thus several decades will be needed to achieve parity between men and women. More realistically, the increase in the number of professors will certainly enhance the role of women in administrative functions.

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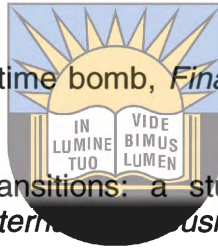
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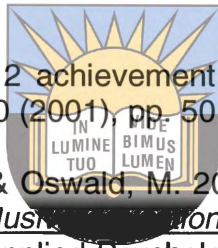
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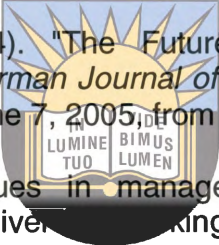
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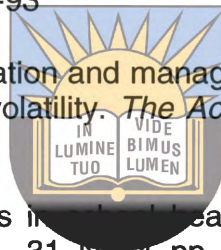
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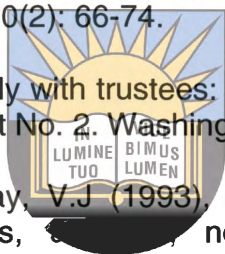
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APPENDICES



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APPENDIX A


Statistics on demographic variables

GENDER 1

AGE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	4	6.35	4	6.35
2	9	14.29	13	20.63
3	23	36.51	36	57.14
4	19	30.16	55	87.30
5	6	9.52	61	96.83
6	2	3.17	63	100.00

MSTATUS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	21	33.33	21	33.33
2	36	57.14	57	90.48
3	4	6.35	61	96.83
5	2	3.17	63	100.00

CHILDREN	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	22	34.92	22	34.92
2	25	39.68	47	74.60
3	7	11.13	54	85.73
4	3	4.76	57	90.48
			63	100.00


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QUALIFICATION	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	13	20.63	13	20.63
2	12	19.05	25	39.68
3	24	38.10	49	77.78
4	12	19.05	61	96.83
5	2	3.17	63	100.00

TENURE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	33	52.38	33	52.38
2	10	15.87	43	68.25
3	6	9.52	49	77.78
4	5	7.94	54	85.71
5	6	9.52	60	95.24
6	3	4.76	63	100.00

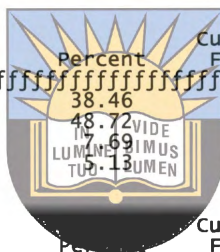
CATOFWORK	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	33	52.38	33	52.38
2	30	47.62	63	100.00

GENDER 2

The FREQ Procedure

AGE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	4	10.26	4	10.26
2	14	35.90	18	46.15
3	7	17.95	25	64.10
4	10	25.64	35	89.74
5	3	7.69	38	97.44
6	1	2.56	39	100.00

MSTATUS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	15	38.46	15	38.46
2	19	48.72	34	87.18
3	3	7.69	37	94.87
5	2	5.13	39	100.00



CHILDREN	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	20	51.28	20	51.28
2	9	23.08	29	74.49
3	4	10.26	33	84.75
4	1	2.56	34	87.18
5	1	2.56	35	89.74
6	1	2.56	36	92.31
7	1	2.56	37	94.87
8	1	2.56	38	97.44
9	1	2.56	39	100.00

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QUALIFICATION	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	12	30.77	12	30.77
2	9	23.08	21	53.85
3	11	28.21	32	82.05
4	6	15.38	38	97.44
5	1	2.56	39	100.00

TENURE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	21	53.85	21	53.85
2	11	28.21	32	82.05
3	3	7.69	35	89.74
4	1	2.56	36	92.31
5	2	5.13	38	97.44
6	1	2.56	39	100.00

----- GENDER=2 -----

The FREQ Procedure

CATOFWORK	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	24	61.54	24	61.54
2	15	38.46	39	100.00



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APPENDIX B

The chi-square test for independence used to test for associations between pairs of variables

The initial analysis was based on assessing the reliability of the measurement instrument and this showed very high levels of reliability as reflected by Cronbach's alpha values for the whole questionnaire and for the individual sections of the questionnaire. A Cronbach alpha value of at least 0.60 is considered to be reflective of a reliable measurement instrument. In this study the whole questionnaire had a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.84. Highest reliability was detected in Section B of the questionnaire with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.91, followed by Section C with 0.79 and the least reliable was Section D with a value of 0.588, which is equal to 0.60 correct to two decimal places. This makes the whole questionnaire and its subsections acceptably reliable.

The results are presented in the form of one way and two way frequency tables. The chisquare test for independence was used to test for associations between pairs of variables. In the event of an association being detected, the strength and direction were determined using the odds ratios (OR). With the objectives of the project in mind the only associations considered were those between the variables TRAINING, MENTOR, ROTATE and ENXIETY in one group against each of the other variables. Shown in the tables below are those variables that had statistically significant associations with the above mentioned variables. Note that these test are based on a single degree of freedom chisquare since all variables were collapsed to binary after it had been discovered that uncollapsed variables resulted in very small cell frequencies which might render the chisquare test inapplicable.

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TRAINING

VARIABLE	CHISQUARE	P-VALUE	OR	95%CI of OR
ENHANCELEARNING	5.0384	0.0248	3.66	(1.12;11.96)
PRMOTESUCCESS	11.0769	0.0009	5.08	(1.86;13.90)
FACANDENSURE	6.0252	0.0141	2.94	(1.22;7.04)
ABILITYPROMOTE	5.5255	0.0187	2.64	(1.66;5.98)
IMPLEMENTSTRAT	12.2126	0.0005	4.37	(1.87;10.23)
EFFECTIVELYORGANISE	19.0488	<0.0001	6.47	(2.71;15.46)
PROTECT	6.9767	0.0083	2.96	(1.31;6.68)
LAWS	6.9767	0.0083	2.96	(1.31;6.68)
UTILISE	10.9322	0.0009	3.93	(1.72;8.98)
DEMONSTRATE	5.6167	0.0178	2.62	(1.17;5.86)
RESOLVE	5.6167	0.0178	2.62	(1.17;5.86)
STUDENTS	4.125	0.0423	2.29	(1.02;5.11)
UNFRIENDLYMGT2	4.5015	0.0339	0.42	(0.19;0.94)
UNFRIENDLYMGT3	9.357	0.0022	0.24	(0.09;0.62)
LACKCAREER1	6.9767	0.0083	0.34	(0.15;0.76)
LACKCAREER2	5.2646	0.0218	0.39	(0.17;0.88)
COMMUNICATION	12.7212	0.0004	4.43	(1.92;10.23)
POTENTIAL	25.6899	<0.0001	9.23	(3.73;22.84)
ADVANCE	6.5885	0.0103	3.57	(1.32;9.75)
EQUALOPPT	5.6167	0.0178	2.62	(1.17;5.86)

For most of the variables those who **agree** with the issues raised in those questions are more likely to give response **yes** than **no** to the question on training as reflected by odds ratios greater than one except those in italics whose odds ratios are less than one. In the case of odds ratios less than one those who agree are less likely to say **yes** than **no** on the training question.

MENTOR

VARIABLE	CHISQUARE	P-VALUE	OR	95%CI of OR
MANAGEBUDGET	4.0809	0.0434	2.78	(1.01;7.58)
EFFECTIVELYORGANISE	5.3138	0.0212	3.28	(1.16;9.33)
UTILISE	4.5114	0.0337	2.91	(1.06;7.98)
DEMONSTRATE	7.8121	0.0052	4.42	(1.48;13.25)
OVERALMGT	4.8571	0.0275	3.12	(1.10;8.87)
<i>UNFRIENDLYMGT3</i>	<i>5.8633</i>	<i>0.0155</i>	<i>0.17</i>	<i>(0.39;0.82)</i>
<i>LACKCAREER1</i>	<i>8.9045</i>	<i>0.0028</i>	<i>0.19</i>	<i>(0.06;0.61)</i>
COMMUNICATION	7.8121	0.0052	4.42	(1.48;13.25)
POTENTIAL	8.629	0.0033	4.48	(1.57;12.81)
ADVANCE	4.2696	0.0388	2.94	(1.03;8.44)

The interpretation is the same as above except that these associations refer to the question on mentoring.

ROTATE

VARIABLE	CHISQUARE	P-VALUE	OR	95%CI of OR
MANAGEBUDGET	4.5182	0.0385	2.56	(1.06;6.17)
IMPLEMENTSTRAT	4.422	0.0355	2.61	(1.05;6.46)
PROTECT	5.5405	0.018	1.18	(1.18;7.24)
RESOLVE	5.2962	0.0214	2.8	(1.15;6.83)
<i>UNFRIENDLYMGT1</i>	<i>7.4859</i>	<i>0.0062</i>	<i>0.29</i>	<i>(0.12;0.72)</i>
<i>UNFRIENDLYMGT2</i>	<i>13.8752</i>	<i>0.0002</i>	<i>0.15</i>	<i>(0.05;0.44)</i>
<i>UNFRIENDLYMGT3</i>	<i>6.4236</i>	<i>0.0113</i>	<i>0.24</i>	<i>(0.08;0.77)</i>
<i>LACKCAREER1</i>	<i>5.5405</i>	<i>0.0186</i>	<i>0.34</i>	<i>(0.14;0.85)</i>
<i>LACKCAREER2</i>	<i>8.8492</i>	<i>0.0029</i>	<i>0.24</i>	<i>(0.09;0.64)</i>
COMMUNICATION	10.0535	0.0015	4.32	(1.69;11.04)
ADVANCE	8.5348	0.0035	4.13	(1.54;11.12)
EQUALOPPT	7.4859	0.0062	3.46	(1.39;8.61)

The interpretation is the same as above except that these associations refer to the question on rotating.

ENXIETY

VARIABLE	CHISQUARE	P-VALUE	OR	95%CI of OR
FACANDENSURE	5.5885	0.0181	3.25	(1.19;8.89)
MANAGEBUDGET	18.0631	<0.0001	7.3	(2.75;19.35)
IMPLEMENTSTRAT	4.1265	0.0422	2.47	(1.02;5.96)
EFFECTIVELYORGANISE	5.1449	0.0233	2.7	(1.13;6.45)
UTILISE	5.0608	0.0245	2.65	(1.12;6.29)
<i>UNFRIENDLYMGT1</i>	<i>9.4767</i>	<i>0.0018</i>	<i>0.25</i>	<i>(0.10;0.61)</i>
<i>UNFRIENDLYMGT2</i>	<i>5.4253</i>	<i>0.0198</i>	<i>0.35</i>	<i>(0.14;0.86)</i>
<i>LACKCAREER2</i>	<i>4.1265</i>	<i>0.0422</i>	<i>0.41</i>	<i>(0.17;0.98)</i>
COMMUNICATION	7.2636	0.007	3.3	(1.36;8.02)

ADVANCE	10.0097	0.0016	4.64	(1.72;12.53)
EQUALOPPT	7.2636	0.007	3.3	(1.36;8.02)

The interpretation is the same as above except that these associations refer to the question on anxiety.

These tables show the value of the chisquared statistic together with the p-values and odds ratios together with their 95% confidence intervals. Note that all confidence intervals do not contain the number one, this means there is a significant association at a 5% level of significance. These are used as confirmation of the p-values that are less than 0.05. Those association which are not statistically significant are not listed in the above tables but can always be found in the two way frequency tables.

The logistic regression modeling procedure in SAS was used to estimate the odds ratios. With all the other variables as potential predictors of responses to questions on TRAINING, MENTORSHIP, ROTATION and ANXIETY stepwise automatic variable selection procedure was used in the logistic regression analysis. Although quite a good number of variables seem to individually have statistically significant associations with the responses, in all the cases most of the variables were thrown out of the model except two for all the other responses and three variables for training as a response. This happens when the predictors seem to be measuring the same construct, or rather, predictors have high associations and therefore may not be included in the same model. The resultant estimated logistic regression models from the modeling of each response on all potential predictors are given below.

TRAINING AS RESPONSE VARIABLE

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	-0.2246	0.2647	0.7200	0.3962
IMPLEMENTSTRAT	0.7360	0.2714	7.3535	0.0088
EFFECTIVELYORGANISE POTENTIAL	0.6606	0.2492	18.9964	0.0067
				<.0001

MENTOR AS RESPONSE VARIABLE

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	-1.6243	0.3157	26.4682	<.0001
LACKCAREER1	-0.7740	0.3073	6.3421	0.0118
POTENTIAL	0.6869	0.2772	6.1375	0.0132

ROTATE AS RESPONSE VARIABLE

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	-0.8425	0.3047	7.6437	0.0057
UNFRIENDLYMG2	-0.8854	0.2780	10.1415	0.0014
ADVANCE	0.6098	0.2704	5.0852	0.0241

ENXIETY AS RESPONSE VARIABLE

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	-0.4928	0.2895	2.8979	0.0887
MANAGEBUDGET	1.0519	0.2692	15.2651	<.0001
ADVANCE	0.8564	0.2941	8.4822	0.0036

Positive values of the parameter estimates indicate that agreement in the predictors goes with a **yes** response and negative ones indicate that agreement in the predictors goes with a **no** response.

APPENDIX C

One way frequency tables for variables

ENHANCELEARNING	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	24	23.53	24	23.53
2	59	57.84	83	81.37
3	11	10.78	94	92.16
4	8	7.84	102	100.00

MAINTAINANCE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	14	13.73	14	13.73
2	48	47.06	62	60.78
3	22	21.57	84	82.35
4	18	17.65	102	100.00

IMPLEMENTATION	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	18	17.65	18	17.65
2	53	51.96	71	69.61
3	15	14.71	86	84.31
4	16	15.69	102	100.00

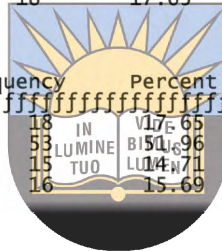
PRMOTESUCCESS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	28	27.45	28	27.45
2	43	42.16	71	69.61
3	19	18.63	90	88.24
4	8	7.84	102	100.00

FACANDENSURE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	22	21.57	22	21.57
2	44	43.14	66	64.71
3	30	29.41	96	94.12
4	6	5.88	102	100.00

MANAGEBUDGET	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	14	13.73	14	13.73
2	34	33.33	48	47.06
3	31	30.39	79	77.45
4	23	22.55	102	100.00

ABILITYPROMOTE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	14	13.73	14	13.73
2	43	42.16	57	55.88
3	27	26.47	84	82.35
4	18	17.65	102	100.00

SUPERVISION	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	12	11.76	12	11.76
2	27	26.47	39	38.24
3	39	38.24	78	76.47
4	24	23.53	102	100.00



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IMPLEMENTSTRAT	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	16	15.69	16	15.69
2	39	38.24	55	53.92
3	39	38.24	94	92.16
4	8	7.84	102	100.00

EFFECTIVELYORGANISE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	16	15.69	16	15.69
2	34	33.33	50	49.02
3	33	32.35	83	81.37
4	19	18.63	102	100.00

COMMUNICATE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	7	6.86	7	6.86
2	46	45.10	53	51.96
3	33	32.35	86	84.31
4	16	15.69	102	100.00

PROTECT	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	9	8.82	9	8.82
2	44	43.14	53	51.96
3	25	24.51	78	76.47
4	24	23.55	102	100.00

LAWS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	10	9.80	10	9.80
2	47	46.08	57	55.88
3	26	25.49	83	81.37
4	19	18.63	102	100.00

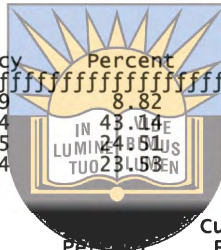
PARTNERSHIPS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	13	12.75	13	12.75
2	52	50.98	65	63.73
3	22	21.57	87	85.29
4	15	14.71	102	100.00

UTILISE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	6	5.88	6	5.88
2	41	40.20	47	46.08
3	41	40.20	88	86.27
4	14	13.73	102	100.00

DEMONSTRATE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	10	9.80	10	9.80
2	40	39.22	50	49.02
3	34	33.33	84	82.35
4	18	17.65	102	100.00

RESOLVE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	9	8.82	9	8.82
2	41	40.20	50	49.02
3	35	34.31	85	83.33
4	17	16.67	102	100.00

STUDENTS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
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	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	8	7.84	8	7.84
2	35	34.31	43	42.16
3	33	32.35	76	74.51
4	26	25.49	102	100.00

OVERALMGT	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	11	10.78	11	10.78
2	40	39.22	51	50.00
3	32	31.37	83	81.37
4	19	18.63	102	100.00

WORKLOAD	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	25	24.51	25	24.51
2	33	32.35	58	56.86
3	27	26.47	85	83.33
4	17	16.67	102	100.00

FAMILYCOMITMENTS1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	13	12.75	13	12.75
2	37	36.27	50	49.02
3	35	34.31	85	83.33
4	17	16.67	102	100.00

FAMILYCOMITMENTS2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	13	12.75	13	12.75
2	29	28.43	42	41.18
3	36	35.29	78	76.47
4	24	23.55	102	100.00



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FAMILYCOMITMENTS3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	11	10.78	11	10.78
2	33	32.35	44	43.14
3	33	32.35	77	75.49
4	25	24.51	102	100.00

UNFRIENDLYMGT1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	14	13.73	14	13.73
2	38	37.25	52	50.98
3	31	30.39	83	81.37
4	19	18.63	102	100.00

UNFRIENDLYMGT2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	10	9.80	10	9.80
2	36	35.29	46	45.10
3	35	34.31	81	79.41
4	21	20.59	102	100.00

UNFRIENDLYMGT3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	8	7.84	8	7.84
2	24	23.53	32	31.37
3	47	46.08	79	77.45
4	23	22.55	102	100.00

LACKCAREER1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	11	10.78	11	10.78

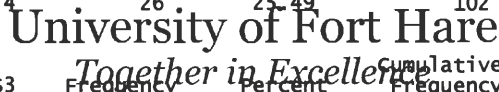
2	38	37.25	49	48.04
3	35	34.31	84	82.35
4	18	17.65	102	100.00

LACKCAREER2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	15	14.71	15	14.71
2	32	31.37	47	46.08
3	35	34.31	82	80.39
4	20	19.61	102	100.00

RESEARCH	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	10	9.80	10	9.80
2	49	48.04	59	57.84
3	22	21.57	81	79.41
4	21	20.59	102	100.00

INEFLDRS1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	18	17.65	18	17.65
2	28	27.45	46	45.10
3	34	33.33	80	78.43
4	22	21.57	102	100.00

INEFLDRS2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	6	5.88	6	5.88
2	22	21.57	28	27.45
3	48	47.06	76	74.51
4	26	25.49	102	100.00



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INEFLDRS3	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	14	13.73	14	13.73
2	35	34.31	49	48.04
3	38	37.25	87	85.29
4	15	14.71	102	100.00

LACKOPPORTUNITIES	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	13	12.75	13	12.75
2	32	31.37	45	44.12
3	39	38.24	84	82.35
4	18	17.65	102	100.00

TEMPERAMENT	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	13	12.75	13	12.75
2	36	35.29	49	48.04
3	35	34.31	84	82.35
4	18	17.65	102	100.00

LACKLOCALSECTOR1	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	7	6.86	7	6.86
2	40	39.22	47	46.08
3	34	33.33	81	79.41
4	21	20.59	102	100.00

LACKLOCALSECTOR2	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	10	9.80	10	9.80
2	36	35.29	46	45.10
3	34	33.33	80	78.43
4	22	21.57	102	100.00

CULTURAL	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	18	17.65	18	17.65
2	28	27.45	46	45.10
3	38	37.25	84	82.35
4	18	17.65	102	100.00

COMMUNICATION	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	50	49.02	50	49.02
2	52	50.98	102	100.00

POTENTIAL	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	44	43.14	44	43.14
2	58	56.86	102	100.00

ADVANCE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	22	21.57	22	21.57
2	80	78.43	102	100.00

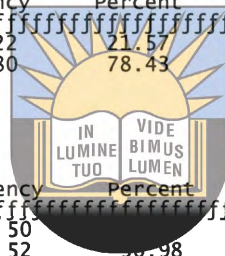
EQUALOPPT	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	50	49.02	50	49.02
2	52	50.98	102	100.00

TRAINING	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	45	44.12	45	44.12
2	57	55.88	102	100.00

MENTOR	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	21	20.59	21	20.59
2	81	79.41	102	100.00

ROTATE	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	30	29.41	30	29.41
2	72	70.59	102	100.00

ENXIETY	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	32	31.37	32	31.37
2	70	68.63	102	100.00



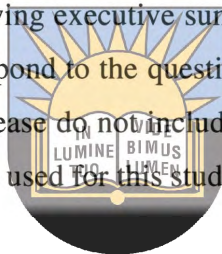
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APPENDIX D

Executive summary and questionnaire

I am a Masters of Administration student at the University of Fort Hare, and I am carrying out a study to identify Factors leading to women under-representation in senior managerial positions among institutes of higher learning in South Africa, a case study of the Eastern Cape Province.

I kindly request you to read the following executive summary in order to gain an insight of what my study is based on, and respond to the questions below. Your Co-operation in this exercise is greatly appreciated. Please do not include your name. Your response will be held in strict confidence and will be used for this study only.



Introduction

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Despite improvements during this era of democracy in South Africa, poor access to higher education management is accompanied by under-representation of women in senior positions. This is despite the increasing enrolment of female student in tertiary institutions. Subotzy (2003) outlines that absolute gender parity in overall enrolments was reached by 1997. By 1999, women students were in the majority. At universities, women were already the majority in 1995. While still in the majority technikons, there has been a very rapid increase in female enrolment, more than doubling from 42,000 to 86,000 from 1993-99. This signals a strong entry into vocational fields by women.

Factors affecting women under-representation in senior managerial positions are recognized by the problems facing women in their institutions: no single reason can explain the poor participation and performance of women in academic institutions, and no single strategy or initiative can adequately help women address the problem or remedy the situation.

The account on factors disabling women from making career advances comparable to

men highlighted a range of person-centered factors attributing the blame to women's psycho-social attributes, structure-centered reasons in which the organizational structure of institutions of higher education molded the behavior of women, and culture-centered factors which argue that irrelevant workplace values are carried into the workplace. Burdened with dual roles of home and work, women are unable to devote time to updating their knowledge, improving their pedagogical skills and keeping abreast of the latest developments in the university and higher education. Women also lack support networks and platforms from which their voices can be heard to advocate for changes in the structures and organization of universities which are often male dominated and patriarchal. The societal norms, which determine gender relations, further mitigate against women's career advancement.



Methodology

To find answers to the research questions in this study, a literature study was carried out, which also provided theoretical background information on women under-representation in institute of higher learning in South Africa. Therefore a case study of the four universities in the Eastern cape namely, University of Fort Hare, University of Transkei, Rhodes University, and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University is carried out to offer general results of women under-representation in South Africa.

Questionnaires will therefore be distributed to these four universities top management positions in both Administrative and academic staff.

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: Biographical Information

1. Are you male or female?

Male	Female

2. What is your age?

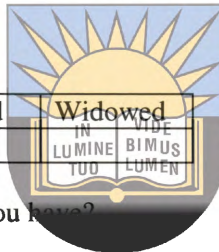
18-26	27-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	Over 65

3. What is your marital status?

Single	Married	Divorced	Separated	Widowed

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

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



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5. What is your highest professional qualification?

Degree	Honours Degree	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other (specify)

6. For how long have you been in your position?

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

7. Race

Black	Coloured	Indian	White

8. Are you a member of Administrative or Academic staff? Please indicate by a mark (X)

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF		ACADEMIC STAFF	
Vice Chancellor/CEC		Professor	
Deputy Vice Chancellor		Associate professor	
Registrar		Assistant Professor	
Dean of faculties		Senior Lecturer	
Head of department		Lecturer	

Finance director			
Chief librarian			
Other (specify)		Other (specify)	

SECTION B: Institutions' actions towards enhancing women (Structural Factors)

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

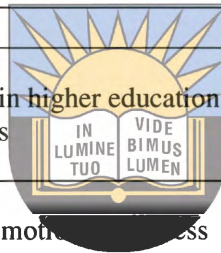
2. A; Agree

3. D; Disagree

4. SD; Strongly Disagree

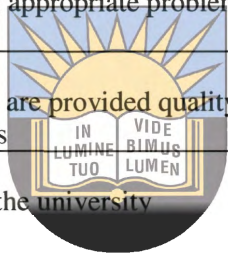
Does the institute

		SA	A	D	SD
8.	Enhance learning by participating in higher education professional development activities				
9.	Maintains personal, physical and emotional wellness				
10.	Implement policies and procedures that comply with the university				
11.	Promotes success for all students and staff				
12.	Facilitate and ensure the university environment is conducive for learning				
13.	Manage budgetary matters effectively				
14.	Ability to promote multicultural awareness				
15.	Supervise and evaluate staff effectively				
16.	Implement strategies to enhance professional capabilities				
17.	Effectively organising and facilitating professional development activities for the university				
18.	Effectively communicate verbally to a variety of groups				



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19.	Legally protect the rights of staff and students				
20.	Applying laws, policies, and procedures fairly, wisely, and consistently				
21.	Establish partnerships to support the universities` goals				
22.	Ability to utilise conflict management skills				
23.	Demonstrate effective writing skills through written correspondence				
24.	Effectively resolve problems using appropriate problem solving techniques				
25.	Ensure students with special needs are provided quality instructional services and programs				
26.	Maintains overall management of the university curricular process				



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SECTION C: Barriers to Achieving Aspirations (Person Centered and cultural factors)

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:

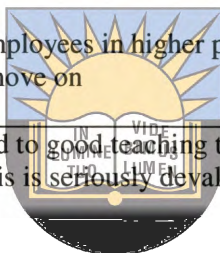
- 1. SA; Strongly Agree
- 2. A; Agree

- 3. D; Disagree
- 4. SD; Strongly Disagree

Do the following barriers hinder women form participating in educational management

	BARRIER	SELECTED COMMENTS	SA	A	D	SD
27.	Work load/time	There is too much work in teaching research and supervision				
28.	Family commitments and lack of child care	Not prepared to sacrifice my family life any further than my current position demands				
		Having children is primary barrier to making headway with publication				

		Young children and inability to travel much				
29.	Unfriendly management culture	Management culture in this university is frustrating				
		There is no co-operation in the top management				
		Top management consists of only males				
30.	Lack of career path	There are no expectations of promotion because of the way positions have been classified				
		Other current employees in higher positions do not want to move on				
31.	Emphasis on research and undervaluing of teaching	Being committed to good teaching takes time and effort but this is seriously devaluated in promotion				
32.	Ineffective leaders/lack of mentoring	Ineffective supervisors who does not know how to mentor staff				
		Supervisors sees me as a threat				
		Lack of a mentor				
33.	Lack of opportunities for career advancement	No vacancy for senior positions				
34.	Temperament /personality	I prefer my personality, seeking agreement is a bit too much				
35.	Lack of local or sector knowledge	Lack of knowledge of the university system of operation				
		I am not aware of the university's vision				
36.	Cultural /linguistic factors	There is lack of acknowledgement of cultural differences at this university				



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SECTION D: Strategies to achieve women leadership aspirations

This section is designed to give you the opportunity to express your self freely on issues pertaining to women under-representation in educational management. Please kindly respond by writing your responses in the spaces provided.

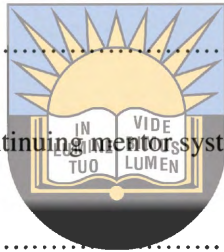
37. Do women receive enough training and skills development? If yes, explain.

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38. Do women get formal, informal or continuing mentor system in this institution? If yes, explain.

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39. Do women ever rotate to other positions in order to widen their experience? If yes, explain.

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40. In your own opinion, do you think women have more or less anxiety about the future and more stable environment for the university? If yes, explain.

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41. Are women able to communicate about goals expectation and key results required? If yes, explain.

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42. Is the potential of women recognised in senior managerial positions at this university? If yes, explain.



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43. Are there any strategies to advance women capabilities in this institution? If yes, explain.

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44. Do women get equal opportunities as men in as far as promotion is concerned? If yes, explain.

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Thank you very much for responding to this questionnaire.

APPENDIX E

Letters of Approval from the University of Fort Hare and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

File: N11/04/01

Dear Ms Domela

Your e-mail of 2007-03-09 refers.



I hereby grant you permission to conduct research at our University for the purposes set out in your correspondence, **on the understanding that –**

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- participation of the staff concerned in the project will be on a voluntary basis;
- any information provided by staff must be regarded as their personal views which do not represent the views of the University; and
- any information provided by staff can only be used for the purposes as requested.

You are kindly requested to submit this e-mail to all staff you would like to approach in connection with your research.

Attached a list of staff you could consider approaching with a view to their possible participation in the project.

Kindly acknowledge receipt of this communication.

Regards

MH Grimbeek

REGISTRAR



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Room 211, New Admin Building, North Campus

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University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

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