

UNDER-REPRESENTATION OF FEMALE TEACHERS IN  
MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN HIGH SCHOOLS

by

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## **Dedications**

This work is dedicated to my late parents, Fane and Mmaketi, and with love to my five brothers, Joe, Jackey, Sakariah, Dediricks and Ephraim, and my four sisters, Helen, Francinah, Rose and Pauline.

A special word of dedication goes to my father and mother-in-law,  
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This work is finally and most especially dedicated to my wife Mmapula  
and my daughter Tsholofelo.

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## SUMMARY

Under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools

This mini-dissertation is a study of under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools in Bophuthatswana.

The statement of the research problem and the aims and methods of research are discussed in chapter 1. This includes a discussion of the population used for the empirical research and an outline of the chapter division.

In chapter 2, terms such as under-representation and management positions are defined. Literature purports that female teachers are under-represented because they do not apply for promotion posts in high schools. Internal factors that are seen as barriers for female teachers to apply for promotion were examined in this chapter. These factors include, among others, lack of self-confidence, lower self-image, fear of success, lack of aspiration and the cinderella syndrome. The role played by traditional and stereotyped beliefs in female teachers' withdrawal from management activities was also considered.

Chapter 3 is devoted to a discussion of external factors that are seen to inhibit female teachers from applying for promotion posts. These factors include filtering techniques, tokenism and marginality, mentoring and role modelling, networking, sponsoring and family constraints.

Empirical research conducted is reported in chapter 4. The discussion includes the construction of a questionnaire, the population analysis and the interpretation of the data.

Finally, conclusions were drawn with regard to literature, as well as empirical research findings. A number of recommendations are made with regard to the research findings.

## OPSOMMING

### *Onderverteenwoordiging van vroue-onderwysers in bestuursposte in hoërskole*

Hierdie skripsie verteenwoordig 'n studie van die onderverteenwoordiging van vroue-onderwysers in bestuursposte in hoërskole in Bophuthatswana.

Die navorsingsprobleem en die doelstellings sowel as die navorsingsmetodes word in hoofstuk 1 bespreek. Dit sluit 'n bespreking in van die studiepopulasie wat in die empiriese navorsing gebruik is en ook 'n uiteensetting van die hoofstukverdeling.

In hoofstuk 2 word terme soos *onderverteenwoordiging* en *bestuursposte* gedefinieer. Uit die literatuur wil dit voorkom of vroue-onderwysers onderverteenwoordig is omdat hulle nie vir bevorderingsposte in hoërskole aansoek doen nie. Interne faktore wat as hindernisse vir vroue-onderwysers gesien kan word sluit onder andere in: gebrek aan selfvertroue, 'n lae selfbeeld, vrees vir sukses, 'n gebrek aan ambisie en die aspoestertjie-sindroom. Die rol van tradisionele en stereotipiese geloof in vroue-onderwysers se huiwering rondom bestuursposte is ook oorweeg.

Hoofstuk 3 is gewy aan 'n bespreking van eksterne faktore wat gesien kan word as inhererend wanneer vroue-onderwysers aansoek moet doen vir bevorderingsposte. Hierdie faktore sluit in filtertegnieke, "tokenism" en marginalisasie, mentoring en rolmodellering, netwerkbou, begunstiging ("sponsoring") en beperking vanuit gesinsverband.

Die empiriese werk word in hoofstuk 4 gerapporteer. Hierdie bespreking sluit in die opstel van die vraelys, die ontleding van die populasie en die interpretasie van die data.

In die laaste instansie word gevolgtrekkings gemaak met verwysing na die literatuur en die empiriese navorsingsbevindings. 'n Aantal aanbevelings word gemaak.

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## **CHAPTER 1**

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## CHAPTER 1

### Orientation

#### 1.1 Introduction

It is significant to note that research into the problems encountered by female teachers in educational management has increasingly involved the wider problems relating to women (female teachers) as members of the community.

The organisation of the community is based on a sharing of roles by its different members. Traditionally the roles of women (female teachers) in a society have been defined in terms of their home responsibilities, while the roles of men (male teachers) have traditionally been related to activities away from home.

Such traditional role differentiations have resulted in generally accepted attitudes, values and expectations in a range of typical gender behaviour differences. These differences in behaviour are also accepted as having work place implications.

‘Women (female teachers) are expected to occupy the back seat at the work-place (school). Certain job categories have, because of their very nature, thus been defined as belonging to the female domain (teaching). Male teachers’ work domain would, in contrast to what is expected of female teachers, involve jobs requiring competitive, assertive, independent behaviour (managerial) (Van Rooyen, 1984:21).

‘The status quo involving female teachers in education reveals that women teach and men manage in the schools. The reasons offered for the exclusion of female teachers often rest mainly on stereotyped presuppositions that women do not *aspire* to promotion positions (Greyvenstein, 1991:303). It is therefore important to investigate, through both literature study and empirical research, the factors that inhibit female teachers from acquiring management positions, particularly in high schools.

#### 1.2 Statement of the problem

In the USA, England and also the RSA, female teachers constitute two-thirds of the teaching force but are extremely under-represented in management positions in high schools (Lovely-Dawson, 1980:19; Greyvenstein, 1991:303). According to Nixon

(1987:13) there are few female teachers in management positions in proportion to their large numbers in the USA. This is also true in England and the RSA.

Lovely-Dawson suggests that a major barrier to the advancement of female teachers is the fact that those who wield power to recruit, place and to promote favour individuals most like themselves (Leonard & Papa-Lewis, 1987:192).

Shakeshaft (1987:84) states that it is not true that female teachers are excluded from management positions on the basis of a lack of self-confidence. She blames the system and not the victim. She argues that female teachers are *made to believe* that they lack self-confidence. The system separates female teachers from the experience that will help them to build the confidence they need.

According to Greyvenstein (1991:306) and De Witt (1991:245) female teachers internalise a lower self-image as they view themselves as incompetent and thus do not aspire to management positions. Andruskiw and Howes (1980:476), on the other hand, note that female teachers tend to view themselves within the framework of stereotypic roles, they have a lower self-esteem, they feel unfeminine if they achieve management positions, and they have doubts about their abilities and competence.

Under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools is seen as being directly linked to the traditional division of labour between the sexes, where the woman is fundamentally seen as being responsible for the home and the man as the representative of the home to the external world (Stansbury et al., 1984:106).

Certain internal and external factors that are seen as a cause of under-representation of female teachers in management positions have been identified (Shakeshaft, 1987:82). Shakeshaft states that internal factors can be overcome by individuals' changes of attitude whereas external factors need a change of the system and institutions. Research on under-representation of female teachers in management positions has been done in the USA, the UK and the RSA in white schools. From discussions with female teachers in black schools at post levels 1 and 2 about the factors stated it is clear that the above factors affect them as well.

To determine how internal and external factors cause(d) under-representation of female teachers in management positions, particularly in high schools, female teachers

at post levels 1 and 2 from black schools have been requested to supply information in a questionnaire compiled on a literature study.

The problem of this research revolves around the following question:

*Which internal and external factors play a role in the under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools?*

### **1.3 The aims of the research are:**

- 1.3.1 to determine from the literature which internal factors underlie the under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools;
- 1.3.2 to determine which external factors underlie under-representation of female teachers in management positions; and
- 1.3.3 to determine empirically which factors underlie under-representation of female teachers in management positions.

### **1.4 Method of research**

#### *1.4.1 Literature study*

Primary and secondary sources have been studied to determine factors that inhibit female teachers from assuming management positions in high schools.

A DIALOG-search was conducted with the help of the following key words:

woman, female, school administration, sex differences, sex bias, sex stereotype, sex discrimination, role conflict, role model and mentor.

The search produced enough material to be used fruitfully in this research.

### *1.4.2 Empirical research*

#### *1.4.2.1 The questionnaire*

On the basis of the literature study, a questionnaire was developed and sent to female teachers at post levels 1 and 2 in high schools in the Department of Education of the former Republic of Bophuthatswana - now part of the North West Province.

#### *1.4.2.2 Population*

A sample of the population was drawn from 17 circuits of the Department of Education (n=17). From the 17 circuits of high schools, the following (n=5) circuits were selected for random sampling: Mapobane, Garankuwa, Tlhabane, Mankwe, and Madikwe. There are 50 schools in these 5 circuits.

All female teachers at post levels 1 and 2 have been used (n=appr.380). The reason for choosing this population is to determine as accurately as possible which problems female teachers at post levels 1 and 2 experience in getting promotion and which problems female heads of departments experience in getting promotion.

Another reason for using all female teachers at post levels 1 and 2 in 50 high schools is to obtain enough information for it to be as relevant as possible to this research.

#### *1.4.2.3 Statistical technique*

A suitable technique was chosen with the help of the PU for CHE statistical consultant.

## **1.5 Chapter outline**

Chapter 1: Orientation

Chapter 2: Internal factors underlying under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools.

Chapter 3: External factors underlying under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools.

Chapter 4: Empirical research

Chapter 5: Summary, findings, and recommendations.

## **1.6 Summary**

Factors that inhibit female teachers are both of an internal and an external nature. External and internal factors are discussed separately for the purpose of this research but under normal circumstances the one cannot be divorced from the other, as they are inseparable. With the help of relevant literature, the internal factors have been examined and the findings are reported in chapter 2.

## Chapter 2

### *Internal factors underlying under-representation of female teachers in educational management positions in high schools*

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  - 2.2.3 Under-representation
  - 2.2.4 Educational management
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  - 2.7.7 Synthesis
- 2.8 Summary

## 2.1 Introduction

In this chapter internal factors identified by researchers as being the cause of under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools are discussed. The necessity for and the importance of discussing these factors is to determine their past and present role in the selection of high school managers and how they affect(ed) black female teachers in this regard.

The term *educational administrator* is generally used in the USA while *educational manager* is commonly used in the UK and RSA (Greyvenstein, 1989:15). Therefore the terms principal, educational manager, and educational administrator are used interchangeably to denote the role of a person in a high position of authority in a school situation.

## 2.2 Definition of terms

### 2.2.1 *Internal factors*

Shakeshaft (1987:82) defines internal factors as barriers that can be overcome by an individual, whereas Leonard and Papa-Lewis (1987:195) view internal factors as those factors that are psychological in nature, which are aspects of the personality, values and attitudes of an individual. Greyvenstein (1991:305), on the other hand, defines internal factors as personal barriers that are generally perceived as deficiencies or inadequacies which exist within women.

De Witt (1991:545) writes that internal factors are personal barriers. He further says that these factors are generally regarded as a so-called "lack" or inadequacies which exist in women because of their femaleness, and they influence their lives.

From what has been said above about internal factors, it can be concluded that internal factors are the individual's shortcomings that can be improved by an individual's change of self-perception, a change of traditional, societal stereo-typing and organisational beliefs.

### 2.2.2 *Under-representation*

According to Dawson (1980:18) a lack of equal access between male and female teachers to management positions constitutes under-representation. Thomas (1986:92)

writes that while new trends are helping women to obtain administrative positions, their percentage in these jobs remains low. Female teachers are in the majority in the teaching force, but they are in the minority in management positions compared to male teachers who are in the minority (Nixon, 1987:63). This tendency is true in the USA, UK, and RSA (Davies, 1986:62, Greyvenstein, 1991:303).

Van der Westhuizen and Hillebrand (1990:273) maintain that teaching seems to be a profession for women, but women are rarely found in the promotion posts. They state that the promotion posts held by female teachers are very few compared to their great numbers in the teaching force. They write that there is a discrepancy between the number of women in the teaching profession and the number of promotion posts they hold. They argue that a discrepancy of this nature seems to be a universal practice.

It is clear that few female teachers are employed in management positions. An element of discrimination against female teachers should not be ruled out, because the reasons advanced in the literature as the cause of under-representation of female teachers in the management position in high schools are highly debatable. Therefore empirical research will be conducted to test the validity of the reasons documented as the cause of under-representation of female teachers in the management positions, particularly in high schools.

According to the information provided above, under-representation of female teachers in management positions means that female teachers hold management posts which are unproportional to their big numbers in the teaching field. Statistically female teachers outnumber male teachers in the teaching force but male teachers by far outnumber them in managerial posts in education.

### *2.2.3 Educational Management*

Educational Management is a structural hierarchy (Makhololo,1989:11) of super-ordinate-subordinate relationships in an organisation. Educational management as defined by Van der Westhuizen (1991:55) is a specific type of work which consists of a number of tasks carried out by a person in authority in a specific area, so as to allow formative education to take place.

Management position as used in this research refers to a position involving the performance of major duties in planning, organising, controlling and guiding the duties

of other employees and calling for the carrying of certain responsibilities in the direction, control of educational activities (Pope, 1982:4).

In an organisation such as a school, management positions refer to principalship and deputy-principalship (Pope, 1982:25). The definitions do not specify which sex is to be associated with management, or which sex should manage. The implication is that management is open to both sexes.

From the definitions given in the literature, management means the execution of tasks such as planning, organising, guiding and controlling of organisational resources such as personnel or finance to realise the aims and objectives of that organisation.

An investigation of internal or personal factors commonly given as barriers to advancement of women to management positions is conducted in the following paragraphs.

### **2.3 Stereotypic and traditional beliefs**

The low percentage of female teachers in management positions is due to a traditional belief that women lack aggressiveness, are dependent, non-competitive, and lack the ability to solve problems (Androskiw & Howes, 1980:476, Prekel, 1982:74). Sex-role stereotyping causes the differential perception of male and female, and this perception results in sex-typed jobs (Stansbury et al., 1984:102). Women are perceived to be relatively less competent, less independent and less objective than men (Pope, 1982:13). She argues that sex-role stereotypes incorporated into the self-concepts of both men and women indicate how deeply ingrained these attitudes are in our societies. Baron (1986:167) maintains that women are excluded from leadership positions on the basis of these assumptions.

Pope (1982:12) writes that the institution of marriage, education, and religion influences men's view of women within their traditional roles which do not allow them to ascend to a man's world of management. Thomas (1986:91) points out that limits are placed on females by stereotypes held by females as much as by males. Because of stereotyped socialisation, the following characteristics are seen as typical of lack of self-assertiveness, lack of self-confidence, lower self-image, dependency, emotionalism (Greyvenstein, 1991:305-306).

The nomothetic expectations of the patriarchal public school system have been that females are suited to the more maternal, nurturing teaching roles (Peters, 1980:16) while the more dominant, authoritative administrative roles are more suitable to male teachers. Peters says that women have been traditionally orientated from childhood to accept a rather passive, secondary stance towards men in occupational roles. She also argues that because of this conditioning, women have tended to take their assigned place in schools willingly.

Sex-role stereotyping inhibits upward occupational aspiration because of fear of a failure, fear of success, role conflict, low self-esteem, and the perceived results of occupational achievement which is not as positive for women as for men (Pope, 1982:10). Research on women is largely confined to stereotyped areas of women's work, even when research is in comparative fields, male characteristics are more highly valued than female characteristics (Blackmore, 1989:103).

Society's stereotyping suggests that women should not be competent, at least not in traditionally male fields, and negative sanction may be applied to the woman who does in fact succeed in a traditionally male environment

It is quite evident that traditional stereotyped beliefs and socialisation of women contribute to the limitations placed on female teachers in as far as their employment in administrative jobs is concerned. The following paragraphs are devoted to the discussions of some of the traditional and stereotyped beliefs, such as : low self-image, lack of confidence, fear of success, lack of motivation, low aspiration, and role conflict.

## **2.4 Lower self-image and lack of self-confidence**

### *2.4.1 Women do not apply for promotion posts*

How does a woman think and feel about herself? The image of herself that the individual holds, may not be a fully accurate representation. Nevertheless, she will tend to behave in accordance with her own self-image. Her actions are a function of how she views herself (Beach, 1985:293). Because of how women view themselves, even women with the qualifications, expertise and aptitude do not apply for leadership positions in schools such as principalship (Blackmore, 1989:95). Single women who seem not to be career women also exhibit little confidence and a negative self image (Wessels, 1982:30). Because of the little confidence and negative self-image exhibited

by female, Watson (1989:8) maintains that 90 percent of male teachers apply for promotion posts and would want to be principals by the age of 40 whereas female teachers seldom apply.

The source of most career barriers for women in the professional world lies in a lower internalised self-image which is associated with women (De Witt, 1991:547). A lower self-image and lack of self-confidence influence women not to lead, to command or to give instructions, but rather to be led and to receive commands (Van der Westhuizen & Hillebrand, 1990:273). Women avoid demanding occupations especially in the male, dominant area that is why they prefer not to lead, but rather to be led (King, 1981:41).

Women with non-assertive attitudes and behaviours (Townsend, 1991:26) have in common a lack of self-confidence and a low self-image. Non-assertiveness is a characteristic of women which detracts them from applying for promotion posts (Greyvenstein, 1991:305). The lack of self-confidence (Van der Westhuizen & Hillebrand, 1990:274) is a possible reason for female teachers not to apply for promotion post. Metzger (1985:292) indicates that female teachers do not apply for promotion posts because they lack self-confidence and self-worth.

Sampson (1987:30) does not cite a lack of self-confidence as a possible reason for women not applying for promotion posts, but she attributes the failure to apply for promotion posts to internalised commitment to classroom teaching and concern with family ties. She argues that, because of these commitments, they do not have time to apply for promotion posts. For the fact that most women end up in a marriage, they do not plan to utilise their careers in full, marital status interferes with the continuity of their careers, it results in repeated interruptions for child-bearing (Coetzee, 1979). These interruptions rob them of the experience needed when applying for promotion posts.

Women's realistic assessment of their chances for advancement deter them from applying (Lyman & Speizer, 1980:27). Female teachers are faced with sexist obstacles, from society, institutions, and from within themselves which they must deal with in order to develop self-confidence and improve their image (Stiegemeier, 1980:34). Women's internalised lower self-image leaves them with no choice but to view themselves as incompetent and unsuitable for management positions. As a result they do not apply for promotion posts (Greyvenstein, 1991:306). Women have a very serious problem in that society acknowledges that lack self-confidence and exhibit a

lower self-image on the one side, while on the other perpetuating its beliefs that a woman should not encroach on the male domain.

Lower self-image and a lack of confidence, in actual fact, are external barriers to women's advancement, because society instils in women the belief that they lack self-confidence and ability, which is reinforced by organisational systems that prevent women from developing self-confidence that will in turn improve their self-image (Shakeshaft, 1987:85). Shakeshaft further writes that lack of self-confidence is a product of traditional stereotyping and organisational systems that limit the opportunities for female teachers to acquire experience that will help them to build self-confidence. For one to have a positive self-image and self confidence, one needs to have experience that confirms this (Shakeshaft, 1987:84). Apparently experience boosts one's self-confidence and improves one's image.

The lack of confidence in a woman teacher regarding her career, might be associated with her excessive concern with family matters which are viewed by males to be incompatible with administrative work (Bennet, 1987:19). Female teachers have been measured by universal male standards of self-confidence (Shakeshaft, 1987:84) they are expected to exhibit male traits or behaviour to express their confidence. The exhibition of male traits or behaviour, however, results in their rejection both by other female and by male teachers (Greyvenstein, 1991:305). There is no way in which women can have confidence in their careers if it appears to result in disruptions caused by family matters. In some cases women are appointed temporarily, and as a result their confidence about their careers is shaky. For that matter, they do not have a position from which to apply for promotion posts.

Stiegemeier (1980:34) indicates that in developing self-confidence, it is important to realise that the responsibility and the privilege of controlling your professional life ultimately belongs to the individual. Swiderski (1988:26) writes that women are their worst enemies because they simply do not apply for promotion posts. According to King (1981:163) female teachers do not apply for promotion posts because they do not want to experience social rejection on the basis of sex role inappropriateness. Davies (1986:67) also gives fear of social rejection as a possible reason for women not applying for promotion posts.

Shakeshaft (1987:84) argues that it is not correct to label female teachers as exhibiting low self-confidence because the field where this short-coming appears is never stated. She argues further that men have confidence in areas in which they have been allowed

to participate and women have self-confidence in areas in which they have experience. Low self-confidence can affect the aspirational level of an individual. A person with a low self-confidence is much less likely to attempt an action (applying for a promotion post) than a person with high self-confidence (Shakeshaft, 1987:85). She agrees that self-confidence affects the ways in which women are perceived as well as the ways they perceive themselves. Sampson (1987:32) asserts that the reason why women do not apply for promotion posts is the belief that they lack experience in educational management. A lack of experience in managerial tasks should therefore be seen as a factor that prevents women from applying for promotion posts.

Leonard and Papa-Lewis (1987:204) write that while intrinsic variables such as lack of self-confidence limit the advancement of female teachers to management positions, it is gender discrimination, both personal and institutional, that is a major inhibiting factor to the access of female teachers to acquire management positions. Gender discrimination results in women lacking self-confidence and feeling that it is easier for a man to gain access to administrative positions, as a result they are hesitant to apply for promotion posts (Swiderski, 1988:27).

Gender discrimination tends to be more prevalent in fields or disciplines traditionally dominated by men (Pounder, 1989:187), therefore fewer female teachers can be expected to have fewer or no administrative roles and responsibilities in educational management. Sampson (1987:29) asserts that female teachers who are not appointed permanently are less likely to be considered for promotion, even though many female teachers are appointed temporarily.

As a result of a series of failed attempts to obtain managerial positions female teachers stop applying for promotion posts (Greyvenstein, 1991:307). Management is traditionally viewed as a male-dominated area, and any woman who encroaches on the area is likely to be rejected by both females and male teachers (Van der Westhuizen & Hillebrand, 1990:274). Because of sex-typed positions, capable women are not prepared to apply for these positions, for fear of being stigmatised as deviants. Women are aware of sex-typed positions and their repeated failed attempts to secure these posts, do not come as a surprise for them, and that is why they stop applying for promotion posts.

Shakeshaft (1987:97) suggests that competent female teachers may be at a greater disadvantage than female teachers of less ability when seeking a promotion post, and this can deter competent women from applying for promotion posts. Lipman-Bluman

(1984:146) maintains that capable women experience anxiety about achievement, which they fear may make them unattractive to men. This negative feeling causes competent women to refrain from applying for promotion posts.

#### *2.4.2 Women do not believe in themselves*

The factors that influence women not to believe in themselves are attributed to childhood experiences, cultural background and societal negative stereotyping (Palladino, 1989:3). Women have a lower self-esteem, that is, they do not believe in themselves, they doubt their abilities, and they do not have respect for themselves (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980:476). A person who believes in herself or her abilities is willing to take responsibilities, and the opposite is the truth (Palladino, 1989:1).

Researchers have documented that women are emotional (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980:480). Women who do not believe in themselves exhibit negative emotional reactions that impede them from accepting higher responsibilities (Palladini, 1989:3). According to Weber et al. (1981:320) women tend to perceive themselves as less competent than men. Watson (1989:8) therefore suggests that women have such perceptions that it is an exception for a woman to seek promotion.

Women are perceived to be dependent, noncompetitive, non-assertive, and submissive (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980:477). These characteristics are associated with persons who do not believe in themselves. Nixon (1987:65) claims that women who do not believe in themselves, are influenced by their negative stereotyping which implies that they need to be super-women to successfully take up promotion posts. Swiderski (1988:26) suggests that women's low expectations of success create genuine psychological barriers, and because they do not believe in themselves, they avoid taking risks and few set out to consciously win an administrative position. Biklen (1980:8) claims that people's perceptions regarding their ability influence their achievement more than their real ability. In other words, the belief that one has in herself or himself influences one's level of performance in one way or another.

Other researchers such as Blackmore (1989:100) explain that women are in a double bind because when they display their culturally defined traits of femininity (being emotional, passive, dependent, nurturing, submissive) they are perceived to be poor candidates for promotion. If they act according to male role definitions of a leader (being aggressive, achievement-orientated, self-confident, competitive) they are

condemned as being unfeminine. This double bind in which women find themselves, prevents them from believing in themselves. }

#### *2.4.3 Lack of positive self-image and self-confidence*

Culture defines images of womanhood as those who nurture, who provide sensual pleasure, who convey social wisdom, and are closely identified with organic life and its perpetuation (Lightfoot, 1980:140). Lightfoot further states that women's special role is to provide a connection between the past and the future. The fact that women are perceived as providers of sensual pleasure and a connection between the past and future, results in the tendency to show a lack confidence and a low self-image outside their area of operation-management. Shakeshaft (1987:85) points out that women have confessed that a lower self-image and a lack of confidence are internal barriers that impede them from considering taking on promotion posts. Shakeshaft confirms that women report that they do not see themselves as school administrators because of their negative self-image and self-confidence.

Boys learn to be rational, logical, objective and to suppress their feelings; they are encouraged to be aggressive and dominant in social situations (Blackmore, 1989:102). Girls on the other hand are encouraged to cultivate their emotions at the expense of their rationality. Shakeshaft (1987:85) says that a lower self-image and lack of self-confidence in women are due to a lack of positive feedback from society. The different message received by boys and girls from their parents, influences women to have a low self-image which bars them from being assertive. Lack of positive self-image and lack of self-confidence in women are learned traits (Nixon, 1987:64-65). Children learn their positions in society, first at home and later at school. According to Clement (1980:134) women seldom receive feedback that is related to the performance of a task. Rather, they receive comments about their looks or their personality.

#### *2.4.4 Cinderella syndrome*

Maden (1993:43) writes that women have difficulties, even if they are good at a job, they are not going around giving the impression of being good at it. They are more likely to express reservations about their capacities in a self-critical way, which men house who wield powers tend not to do. Davies (1986:65) maintains that willingness to appoint a woman exists, but is not fulfilled because " they do not come forward ". Women teachers are interested in social amenities and emotional warmth, they are

concerned with matters that are basically affective and less material (Stansbury et al., 1984:101). For this reason even competent female teachers do not come forward to apply and occupy promotion posts (De Witt, 1991:548).

Women teachers do not apply for promotion posts unless their competency is discovered by someone and unless they are being persuaded to apply (Greyvenstein, 1991:307). According to Gous (1989:6) and Watson (1989:8) women wait until they are on average 37 years old before they apply for promotion. At this age they have less opportunities which are being taken by young people. Socialisation of women and role entrapment inhibit women so that they do not apply for promotion posts outside the women's world. Cinderella syndrome should therefore be seen as form of conformity to stereotypes and traditional expectations.

#### 2.4.5 *Synthesis*

Due to the fact that culture defines women's images, society tends to assign special roles to women. These special roles are seen by society as the boundaries within which women should operate. Any woman who operates outside these boundaries is seen as deviant and is liable to social rejection.

Women are denied opportunities to acquire experience in a male dominated area. As a result, women seem to lack self-confidence in educational management. In actual fact, women do not lack confidence, but rather, experience in educational management.

An assumed low self-image and lack of confidence in educational management is used by those who wield the powers to recruit and hire, as a reason for the visible under-representation of female teachers in educational management positions in high schools.

## 2.5 **Fear of success**

### 2.51 *Fear of negative results*

Kline (1987:199) explains that Matina Horner says that fear of success, just like the need to achieve, is learned early in life. Boys learn at an early age to achieve success, while girls are taught to avoid success in a male dominated field. That is why they avoid any attempt that may bring them success in a male sex-typed occupation. Biklen (1980:17) states that women who exhibit a fear of success syndrome are to be found in male-dominated professions, perhaps their fears are manifestations of tokenism, the

lack of substantial representation in that field. Women do not avoid success in general, but they avoid it in the male sex-typed jobs.

Greyvenstein (1991:306) maintains that female teachers do not fear success itself, but the negative results of their success from society. Yeakey et al. (1986:28) confirm that women teachers do not fear success itself, but the social consequences of success in an unfeminine field. Wiechers (1990:18) maintains that society holds the belief that it is not ladylike to be too intellectual. Because of this belief women avoid success, they fear that success can make them unpopular, unfit for marriage, and lonely.

As indicated above, society does not evaluate the performance of women in the same way as it evaluates that of males. Women's success is related to luck or efforts while the success of male teachers is related to ability (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980:477; Blackmore, 1989:103). Society's negative attitude towards the success achieved by female teachers, necessitates female teachers' avoidance of success in male dominated occupations (De Witt, 1991:548).

Peters (1980:17) explains that as a result of childhood training and various negative social pressures of home and families, many women teachers experience a fear of success. Female teachers who enter male dominated positions and succeed are stigmatized as deviants (Blackmore, 1989:103). The female teachers' success which is viewed as negative is linked with the fear of social rejection, doubts about one's femininity and jealousy from others. Women do not fear success but fear consequences of defying traditional beliefs.

Some researchers give contradictory information about women's fear to compete with men. According to Condry and Dyer (1976:7) found that women did better in competition with men. Girls who competed with boys suppressed their performance deliberately so as not to beat boys, not because they fear success as a result of traditional role expectations and stereotypes (Condry & Dyer 1976; Prekel, 1982:73). In some studies (Johnson, 1980:176) men have shown greater fear of success than have women and in other studies men and women were identical in fear of success.

Researchers who found that men exhibited more fear of success than women attribute men's fear of success to a positive social change which made women optimistic about attempting important future achievements (Condry & Dryer, 1976:178). Men's fear of success results from their rejection of women's achievement. Kline (1987:56) says that a large body of literature provided little evidence that women possess a motive to

avoid success. Kline suggests that women and men differ in their reaction to success. Women's success is seemingly regarded as a threat to men and a deviation in a society. One could conclude therefore that women do not fear success but rather avoid success so that they can be accepted by society.

Biklen (1980:17) argues that when women attempt to achieve or succeed in fields traditionally reserved for men, they do not only face the difficulties associated with competence and talent but also have to contend with being perceived as violating sex-role and norms. Kline (1987:56) suggests that another motive may be a fear of deviance and rather than of success.

The investigations conducted by Yeakey et al. (1986:131) of women's fear of success have produced inconclusive results with some findings showing no relationship between fear of success and other factors, and other findings indicating that men express fear of success equal to or greater than women.

### *2.5.3 Women fear to compete against men*

Lipman-Bluman (1984:21) maintains that women are groomed at an early age to compete for success not against men but with one another for men. Lemmer (1989:50) on the other hand says women fear to compete against men, because they fear losing femininity, and experiencing social rejection resulting from their win over men. Condry and Dryer (1976:66) note that women with extreme fear of success perform far better when they work alone and poorly when they compete with men.

According to Kline (1987:199) a fear of success is mostly evident in women in the presence of men, especially when they are in direct competition. Wiechers (1990:18) maintains that women block any possibility of achievement even more if they compete against men. Females are traditionally taught that competition, particularly with males, is unfeminine and may result in social rejection (Kline, 1987:84).

Only women with excessive fear of success (Johnson, 1980:176) were found to be performing poorly when in competition with men. Women with less fear of success were found not affected in their performance by the presence of men. Women who adopt a traditional sex-role orientation experience a greater fear of success than those with a more liberated self-concept (Kline, 1987:55). Non-traditional women on the other hand (Lemmer, 1989:51) tend to be more direct and less relational than men in their profession.

#### 2.5.4 *Synthesis*

According to the information from literature, fear of success is exhibited by both male and females, but the exhibition of fear of success becomes more apparent on the female side because of the limitations placed on the women by traditional beliefs and stereotyping. For women to overcome the alleged fear of success they need to be highly motivated and should also possess a strong desire to take up promotion posts.

### 2.6 **Lack of motivation and low aspiration**

#### 2.6.1 *Personality traits*

There is a common assumption that women possess certain innate personality traits which make them suitable for some occupations and unsuitable for the others (Lemmer, 1989:46). These innate personality traits are affiliative needs, personality attributes and level of aspiration (Kline, 1987:83, 85, 89).

Beach (1985:303) alleges that both sexes possess achievement and affiliation orientation, but there is one that leans much more to one direction than the other. Johnson (1980:175) claims that women act to obtain affection and closeness with others, rather than to obtain academic or occupational success. Kline (1987:83) observes that female teachers display achievement motivation in social skills, which she attributes to the affiliative needs exhibited by women. Kline states that women experience a conflict between affiliation and achievement, but they may allow their needs for affective relationships to interfere with the full use of their cognitive capacities. It seems that women are more human-orientated than task-orientated. management positions need to be filled with human and task orientated persons (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:74-76).

Stansbury et al. (1984:101) write that women are seen as being interested in social amenities and emotional warmth, and are concerned with matters that are basically affective and less material. Solomon (1985:194-5) maintains that a diamond ring on the fourth finger is valued a sign of success by women. She says if women had to make a choice between career and marriage, the majority would choose marriage unquestioningly. The choice of marriage over career by women is motivated by affiliative needs.

Schmuck (1980:243) points out that many women in society experience conflict between affiliation and achievement which serves as an important deterrent to women in educational management. Van Rooyen (1981:98-99) and Van der Westhuizen et al. (1992:44) indicate that women have a great need for affiliation. Neil and De Wet (1981:41) suggest that because of their great need of affiliation, women's careers are more often in the human sciences, whereas the majority promotion posts are in the natural sciences.

Personality attributes generally defined as feminine, such as non-assertiveness, avoidance of competition and dependency are in conflict with achievement motivation as usually manifested in intellectual and occupational context (Kline, 1987:85). As far as Lipman-Blumen (1984:21) is concerned, women's upbringing, aggression and competition are perceived territories already claimed by men, and therefore socially inappropriate resources and unfeminine. She says women have been taught to interact more gently, to help, nurture, and charm. Leonard and Papa-Lewis (1987:195) suggests that personal qualities such as lack of aggressiveness, and others, attribute to the lack of achievement motivation. Weber et al. (1981:320) state that traits such as emotionalism, passivity, timidity, deference, and self-abasement define the adult female role.

Beach (1985:303) claims that the degree to which a person will strive to achieve and accomplish is determined by one's level of aspiration. He further states that failure tends to lower what one feels one can do and success raises one's sights. According to Kline (1987:89) female teachers typically set themselves lower levels of aspiration than males. Female teachers believe that their opportunities to obtain management positions are limited, that is why their level of aspiration for promotion posts is low (Leonard & Papa-Lewis, 1987:192). The level of aspiration of women for management positions is low (Sampson, 1987:29) because in her research findings 46 percent males and 24 percent females of her study population, aspired to management positions. A lack of success in obtaining management positions by women can be found in their lower aspiration (Shakeshaft, 1987:86). Due to their lower aspiration (Greyvenstein, 1991:307), female teachers aspire to obtain promotions ranked on the lower level of management.

### 2.6.2 *Vicarious prestige*

Van der Westhuizen et al. (1992:45) explain the fact that women attach less status to their profession due to the concept of vicarious status. A married woman takes the

status of her husband. Women usually choose to attain prestige indirectly through their children and husbands (Hillebrand, 1989:74). Women's prestige through their husbands and children (Kline, 1987:73) makes them feel that their femininity is not affected and they are easily accepted by society. Lipman-Blumen (1972:19) confirms that the husband in a family has direct access to resources of income and occupation, and the wife and children gain their status through their relationship with him. She calls this a homosocial world of men, where all access to resources is controlled by men.

The pressure from society encourages women to achieve through the members of their families to avoid social rejection and stigmatisation (Shakeshaft, 1987:90). The assumption that every woman will marry and stay married and that her husband's income will be sufficient to support the family and provide in their consumption needs underlies the theorising about women's relative indifference to preparing for and pursuing a career (Laws, 1976:34-35). Laws further attributes to women's vicarious prestige in the myth of a male bread-winner. The issue of the husband's income to support the family and to provide in its needs is no longer thinkable in the modern life where consumption is so expensive.

Research confirms that women have a high prestige motivation in occupations that are traditionally occupied by women (Kline, 1987:87). Possibly, women's vicarious prestige is influenced by the development of modern technology which has limited an area in which women stake their prestige (Van der Walt, 1984:28). It can be argued that the development of modern technology found women not prepared to leave the kitchen and establish themselves in other occupations. So, they have no other option but to satisfy their quest of prestige indirectly through the prestige of the family members.

### *2.6.3 Different ambitions*

The ambitions of female teachers to enter the teaching field differ from those of male teachers because female teachers want to keep a close contact with students. for that reason, and the love they have for the pupils, they avoid management positions which would deprive them of that close contact with the students (Shakeshaft, 1987:88). Female teachers enter the teaching field to teach while male teachers on the other hand enter a teaching career to administrate (Gous, 1989:6). This behavioural pattern of female teachers is wrongly interpreted as lack of aspiration on the part of women (Shakeshaft, 1987:87).

Female teachers' entrance in the teaching (Hillebrand, 1989:71) is in general intrinsically orientated while that of male teachers is extrinsically motivated. Van der Westhuizen et al. (1997:41) allege that female teachers in general are exceptionally devoted to teaching profession. They are motivated for the teaching task. They join teaching to satisfy their needs such as self-fulfilment, and the opportunity to share their talents and abilities with their students. Male teachers on the other hand enter the teaching career to receive a high income, opportunities to further their studies, a good opportunity for promotions and high status attached to promotion posts. Kline (1987:83) states that the different ambitions of female and male teachers should not be seen in terms of a lack of aspiration because a woman does not interpret prestige in the same way as her male colleague.

#### *2.6.4 Lack of interest*

Because of the different ambitions of female and male teachers in terms of the teaching field, their interest in management positions is influenced in a different manner (cf.2.6.3). Women teachers' interest will be less when compared to that of male teachers.

Greyvenstein (1991:307) states that the interest of female teachers in management positions is lowered by a sequence of failed attempts to secure administrative positions. For this reason, female teachers develop strong classroom teaching abilities (Sampson, 1987:30). According to Thomas (1986:91), the interest of female teachers to apply for promotion posts is lowered by societal and organisational limitations placed on women. There is also the possibility that women are more easily discouraged by a sequence of failed promotion attempts and cease to apply (Davies, 1986:67).

According to Wessels (1982:30), women who never marry are not interested in advancing to the managerial positions because they prefer clinical work, lecturing or teaching over administration. They prefer to be creatively occupied with the work itself. As a result, they seem to resist, avoid, or even reject promotions.

#### *2.6.5 Synthesis*

It became clear that certain factors in the personality of a woman, her inclination, interests and needs, as well as the expectations of the community, influence her aspirations and motivation (Hillebrand, 1989:94).

## 2.7 Role conflict

### 2.7.1 *Role entrapment*

Female teachers experience role conflict because of role entrapment (Toren, 1988:528). She says that in areas which are male sex-typed (administration) women's participations tends to be restricted to specialities considered to be appropriate to their sex status and in harmony with their traditional roles. Swanepoel (1982:55) on the other hand claims that females are brought up with the idea of family and home being a refuge and sanitary but to many women the way in which their brought up becomes a trap because they do not find fulfillment, they cannot develop their talents and potentials in mothering and homemaking.

### 2.7.2 *Lack of identification*

A woman experiences role conflict when she does not identify herself with her occupation because her personal characteristics and her self image do not meet the demands of her role in her occupation (Van der Walt, 1987:11). A married woman experiences role conflict because of her responsibilities as a homemaker and a career woman (Hillebrand, 1989:93).

### 2.7.3 *Feeling of guilt*

A married woman experiences feelings of guilt when things go wrong either at home or at work, and they usually take the full blame on themselves (Prekel, 1982:74; Hillebrand, 1989:94). A woman feels guilt for pursuing a career because she knows that society regards it as second to her true vocation which is that of a homemaker (Laws, 1976:35).

### 2.7.4 *Dual or double role*

Prekel (1982:74) suggests that another problem is the overload of dual family and work (career) responsibility that most working mothers carry and the lack of a support system both at home and at work. Woo (1985:288) states that a woman can have double roles but not at the same time. Newel (1978:155) on the other hand says that an individual can perform two roles simultaneously. He explains that a person can spend the morning in the role of principal, and be in the role of a club member at

noon, going home after work to the role of spouse and parent. He argues that these roles of an individual occurs in some kind of sequence.

According to Claesson and Brice (1989:3) men are viewed as capable of integrating all their roles successfully, whereas working mothers have been perceived as having problems with assuming multiple roles. A career woman should not be seen as an exception in her dual role because a man too, has more than one role (Greyvenstein, 1989:100-101). A woman may have many roles to carry because of her co-existence (Van der Walt et al., 1985:140-149, Swanepoel, 1982:46).

The findings of Claesson and Brice (1989:8-15) show that dual roles have advantages and problems. The advantages are: children are viewed as multifaceted individuals both at home and at school - the establishment of a relationship is influenced by motherhood - the experience and knowledge of child development help the mother to cope with child rearing.

- \* teacher/mothers become aware that it is important to spend time with a child and to support a child;
- \* teacher/mothers are able to help their husbands to understand a child's behaviour because of their knowledge about child development theory;
- \* teacher/mothers prefer to have children of their own because this would give them opportunity to spend holidays with them and to provide their children with better education facilities;
- \* the community accepts mothers/teachers to teach its children because they themselves have children;

The problems are:

- \* mother/teachers are able recognise neglected pupils and attending to this problem takes much of their time of instruction;
- \* the desire to do everything for their pupils, such as addressing social and emotional problems, as well as attending to their academic needs may cause teacher/mothers to neglect the needs of their families;
- \* mother/teachers are over-reacting to their pupils and children because of expectations placed on the pupils at school and at home;
- \* poor performance of the pupils reflects on the mother/teachers;
- \* mother/teachers cannot disapprove of what another teacher does in her class because she has to deal with the teacher on a professional basis;

- \* the children of mother/teachers expect her to spend time with them when they come home from work;
- \* high expectations placed by mother/teachers on their pupils both at school and home present problems because of mother/teachers' failure to balance expectations and reality;
- \* mother/teachers have little time at their disposal to attend to their children and families;
- \* mother/teachers are expected by the community to be supermoms and superwomen in everything they do, the community does not expect them to have problems.

Prekel (1982:77) claims that the dual role creates an additional burden on black women who do not have modern appliances or even electricity to help them with their household chores, while living in a culture in which men seldom give any support with domestic responsibilities. Van Rooyen (1984:22) points out that values held by both men and women regarding traditional female role behaviour have been inherited from the past and can cause conflict, guilt and barriers which may keep women from effective adjusting to meet the present economic demands made on them.

### *2.7.5 A super-woman*

Toren (1988:531) claims that expectations regarding women are different; a woman has to be super-good. Swanepoel (1982:54) maintains that working mothers work harder than their male counterparts. Kline (1987:59-60) points out that a woman who works full-time feels that she has to double her efforts in order to succeed in her occupation. Prekel (1989:75) believes that the strain that a black woman faces when she enters a job that has been traditionally sex-typed results from her having to prove herself. Nixon (1987:65) suggests that women teachers feel that the price of an administrative position is too high. Brandt (1990:458-459) because of this belief that a woman has to be super-good, a queen-bee syndrome develops in women already in management positions.

### *2.7.6 Traditional views of a woman*

Van der Walt (1986:52) explains that the traditional view of a career woman was negatively influenced during the industrial revolution as a result of long working hours and night shifts which resulted in women leaving children alone at home. She says that protective laws were promulgated which limited women from working. The

enforcement of these laws introduced discrimination against women in the workplace. De Witt (1991:570) and Greyvenstein (1989:100) state that the community is not yet ready to accept that a woman can pursue a career besides homemaking. Traditionally a woman should be non-assertive, non-competitive, non-aggressive, lacking in self-worth, and dependent (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980:475). According to Woo (1985:286) it is difficult for people to understand that a woman can pursue a career and support a family. Women's major role is still seen as motherhood and homemaking (Swanepoel, 1982:53). Van Rooyen (1984:22) says that there is no reason to believe that women's employment is a temporary phenomenon when the labour requirements of South Africa is for women to develop as managers.

## **2.8 Summary**

This chapter was devoted to a discussion of intrinsic or internal factors that are cited by researchers as barriers to the advancement of female teachers to promotion posts in high schools. It was indicated that certain factors such as inclination, needs, and interests play an important role in the level of woman's aspirations, motivation and ambition. It has also been stated that traditional stereo-typing, belief and organisational systems have had a profound impact on female teachers' views of promotion posts. Rees (1991:11) suggests, on the other hand, that the woman herself, who is a product of society, the educational system, and her own unique characteristics, may be reluctant to apply for school leadership. Greyvenstein and Van der Westhuizen (1992:270) conclude that under-representation of women in educational management is underscored by complex and diverse variables functioning on individual, organisational, and societal levels.

## CHAPTER 3

### *External factors underlying under-representation of female teachers in educational management positions in high schools*

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Filtering techniques
  - 3.2.1 Recruitment
  - 3.2.2 Application filters
  - 3.2.3 Selection filters
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- 3.3 Tokenism and marginality
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- 3.6 Sponsors
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  - 3.7.1 Age
  - 3.7.2 Commitment to the family
  - 3.7.3 Re-entry
- 3.8 Qualifications
- 3.9 Summary

### **3.1 Introduction**

Although psychological and internal obstacles may hinder career mobility, there is clear evidence that formidable, well-defined external factors inhibit development of female school administrators (Shapiro, 1987:172). Researchers have documented the following with regard to external factors.

De Witt (1991:571) writes that external barriers refer to environmental variables that exercise an influence on the advancement of female teachers into educational management positions. Greyvenstein (1991:308) indicates that extrinsic barriers are inextricably interwoven with the intrinsic barriers. Thus it is difficult to determine whether the absence of female teachers in educational management is due to either internal or external factors.

According to Leonard and Papa-Lewis (1987:195), external barriers include lack of sponsorship and role models, family responsibilities, resentment by other teachers and perception of an incongruence between female characteristics and job demands. Shapiro (1987:171-2) says that women in teaching have been blamed for their own apparent career stagnation, whereas research has confirmed that women's achievement in educational management is inhibited by existing external factors.

The subsequent paragraphs will be devoted to an examination and discussion of the role of the extrinsic or external factors playing a role in the promotion of female teachers into management positions. The extrinsic barriers to be discussed include filtering techniques, tokenism, mentors and role models, family constraints and qualifications.

### **3.2 Filtering techniques**

The supply of labour that is available to the organization is another critical influence on hiring practices (Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991:144). The hiring authorities in education examine the pool of applicants available for each job opening. This is where filtering techniques come into play.

The "Old boy network" system underlies the secret barrier referred to as filtering (Weber et al., 1981:322). In this instance, men refer male associates to jobs. Men are given preference over women when decisions are made about who is to fill a

vacant post in educational management (De Witt, 1991:552). Men are subsequently effectively gatekeepers to educational management (Leonard & Papa-Lewis, 1987:193). They hire males to maintain homogeneity in educational management.

Shakeshaft (1987:98) asserts that given the lack of applicable criteria with regard to the hiring of educational administrators it is easy for hiring committees to use their discretionary powers. For that matter, administrative positions are filled after subjective decisions have been made (Dawson, 1980:22). A number of filters in the education system have been found to lower the number of female teaching representatives at all levels of educational management (Biklen, 1980:12).

The following filters are cited (Dawson, 1980:23 Shakeshaft, 1987:98-100; Davies, 1986:65-67): recruiting filters, interview filters, application filters, selection filters and selection decision filters. These filters place female teachers at a disadvantage with regard to appointment to educational management positions. They form the major barrier in female teachers' advancement as educational administrators.

### *3.2.1 Recruitment*

Employee practices which facilitate leadership mobility for men and discourage leadership mobility for women are continuously used by men who not only dominate education in terms of administrative capacity but also dominate decision-making processes (Weber et al., 1981:21). Their domination of decision-making processes enables them to recruit men to fill management positions in education (Greyvenstein, 1991:309).

Administrators often rely on verbal communication to recruit, train and fill vacant posts in education (Erickson & Pitner, 1980:8). Vacancies are advertised long after men have received verbal information from male administrators. Therefore women are robbed of information about available vacancies. Formal recruitment does not solve this problem either, for female teachers are denied the opportunity of moving up the management ladder due to favouritism. Men favour men; they appoint them to senior posts (Leonard & Papa-Lewis, 1987:194).

Female teachers are restricted within their territory, they are not expected to contest promotion posts outside their districts (Shakeshaft, 1987:99). Different interviewing styles restrict or confine female teachers within one district (Edson, 1988:43-44). It has been noted that no specific efforts are made to extend the application pool beyond

the borders of the circuit (Legotlo, 1994:22). Because of this restriction, female teachers have to compete against men for the few promotion posts available within the district. The possibility of female teachers then obtaining these posts is limited because of the informal recruitment and also because of limited exposure of female teachers to managerial activities. The negligibly small number of women who context these posts is seen by recruiters as a reason for the under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools.

Shakeshaft (1987:99) notes that women are notified of certain vacancies such as those of matron of a girls' school or supervisor of the kitchen staff in a catering department. In other words, vacancies that are regarded as appropriate to their traditional roles. McGrath (1992:62) indicates that women who hold central office positions as specialists, supervisors or elementary school principals remain in these positions without further promotion until retirement.

Another problem is that women teachers lack information about vacancies in education because vacancies are advertised in newspapers that are not read by women (Shakeshaft, 1987:99).

### 3.2.2 *Application filters*

According to Davies (1986:67) one of the favourite justifications given by selection committees for not appointing women to senior posts is that female teachers do not apply. Parot (1985:289), on the other hand, argues that it is not true that female teachers do not apply, but they are discouraged from applying by biased practices applied in the hiring system. A perception that women are soft and unpredictable leaders also discourages them from applying. According to Shakeshaft (1987:99), female teachers are easily discouraged by irrelevant questions appearing on the application forms with regard to number of children, their ages and the marital status of the applicant. Greyvenstein (1989:104) asserts that questions regarding biographical and demographic information which may place teachers at a disadvantage are included on application forms.

Shakeshaft (1987:99) believes that questions regarding biographical and demographic information in the interview could a difference in pay between a man and a woman. Konrad and Pfeffer (1991:144) state that men move into women's jobs when the salaries of those jobs are higher than other jobs available in the labour market.

Questions asked discourage women from applying for jobs, and this is exacerbated by the lower salary offered to them compared to what is offered to men.

A belief that women be hired to teach at a lower salary is used by those in authority to perpetuate sexual inequality in educational management (Biklen, 1980:4). Shakeshaft (1987:100) points out that applications are sorted according to gender, obviously to enable committees to disadvantage female teachers when it comes to shortlisting. Few or no female teachers are invited for an interview because male teachers are given preference over female teachers.

### *3.2.3 Selection filters*

The selection committees use vague criteria, which prevent them from focussing on the specific behaviour demanded by the post (Shakeshaft, 1987:100). These criteria are unstructured and invalid (Greyvenstein, 1989:104). As a result, women teachers are given a raw and unfair deal. Parot (1985:289) indicates that discriminatory practices and procedures in hiring account for the scarcity of women in educational administration and management.

Andruskiw and Howes (1980:479) assert that women do not receive the necessary experience for higher positions of seniority and as a result they spend a disproportionately longer period of time in the ranks before they can think of advancing to the administrative positions.

Men, on the other hand, rapidly move up the career ladder to the administrative positions, because they have fewer career interruptions and acquire a variety of administrative skills in a shorter time. Shapiro (1987:172) states that one common mechanism that has been used to exclude women from promotion posts is to withhold tenure from the, thus depriving them of a secure base from which to apply. As a result, women do not easily and rapidly move to top level positions in educational management (Weber et al., 1981:321-322; Toren, 1988:537).

The aspect of interviewing female teachers for selection and appointment to management positions also warrants serious attention.

### *3.2.4 Interviewing filters*

Ambitious female teachers' lack of success in pursuing promotion appears to be due to a lack of structured criteria for hiring educational managers. This also applies to interviews. Shakeshaft (1987:100) says that a panel of interviewers comprises men, and as a result, women teachers feel uncomfortable and intimidated throughout the interview. Irrelevant questions not pertaining to the job description are asked (Greyvenstein, 1989:104). Interviewers should ask job-related questions (Wendover, 1991:64), but they are inclined to ask questions about the candidate's spouse and children. Generally, such questions are construed by the interviewee as being aimed at seeking discriminatory information.

Edson (1988:43) says that interviewees are asked questions about their spouses and whether they are planning pregnancies and babies. They are also asked about how they would handle big boys and male teachers. According to research findings, such irrelevant questions discourage female teachers from applying for promotion posts (Greyvenstein, 1991:309).

Another stumbling block for female teachers applying for promotion posts is women's lack of confidence regarding interview skills. Whenever they think of this exercise, they become discouraged (Edson, 1988:45). Once women make it to the final list of candidates, they fail to present themselves optimally, as men do, due to their lack of interview skills (Parot, 1985:289). With no interview skills, female teachers stand no chance of performing well, whereas good performance during the interview is rated very highly (Greyvenstein, 1989:104).

### *3.2.5 Selection decision filters*

The selection of school principals is traditionally based on experience, interviews, inspection reports, testimonials and teaching achievement. Empirically it has been found that educational organizations do not use fixed methods and procedures of identifying and selecting of managers (Van der Westhuizen, 1988:379). Selection is done according to stereotypical attributes and not according to qualifications and competency level. Women are consequently placed in the lower ranks of the educational hierarchy with low decision-making status (Greyvenstein, 1989:104). According to Shapiro (1987:173) selection decisions are often influenced by diverse, hidden and often illegal criteria which are used in the selection process.

These filters indicate that women are at a disadvantage in the hiring system. The filters constitute a major barrier to women's desire to occupy promotion posts in high schools (Greyvenstein, 1989:105; De Witt, 1991:552). The impact of women on hiring decisions is limited (Adkinson, 1981:315) because screening committees rarely include more than one or two women - mostly they have none.

### 3.2.6 *Synthesis*

Women teachers clearly face a challenge if they are to aspire to move from the classroom into administrative positions. Men are the gatekeepers to the profession of educational administration, and women are not gaining ground in this field. The representation of women in management is constantly declining. The decreasing number of women in educational management is complex. Psychological and sociological factors, compounded by institutionalized barriers, deter women from advancing into management positions (Weber et al., 1981:322). These filters put women teachers at a disadvantage in the hiring system. They form a major barrier to entrance by women into promotion positions (Greyvenstein, 1979:105).

Female teachers are not seen as individuals in the teaching field. They are seen as being representative of a weak and non-achieving group. They find themselves in token and marginal positions. Tokenism and marginality receive attention in the following paragraph.

### 3.3 **Tokenism and marginality**

Female teachers who have persevered are survivors who have gone against the grain of occupational stereotyping to enter the management hierarchy (Clark & Corcoran, 1986:21). Their survival and accomplishment are minimal in scope because they experience further barriers due to being in token or marginal positions (Greyvenstein, 1991:309).

Through frequent references to their presence in the management hierarchy, they are reminded that they are outsiders, exceptions, that they represent their gender. They are not seen as part of a managerial group, they are not judged as individuals (Stansbury et al., 1984:105). Women are not judged or evaluated according to their own ability (Kline, 1987:39). This is due to the discriminatory practices based on male perceptions and the stereotyped views based on a culturally accepted myth

regarding women. Because of the low proportional representation of female teachers in the top management teams of schools (De Witt, 1991), female teachers who are in management posts are shifted into lowly portfolios where they have a very limited say regarding educational management issues.

Greyvenstein (1991:309) says that tokenism and marginality place further negative pressure on female teachers in top management positions or those aspiring to management positions in the following ways: isolation, representativeness, visibility.

### *3.3.1 Isolation*

Swiderski (188:28) feels that women administrators are seen as always being at fault - if they are strong, they are regarded as aggressive and tough, if they are jovial, they are labelled as being too permissive. Mistakes, rather than being attributed to common human error, often prompt remarks such as: "What can you expect from a woman?" Parot (1985:300) reports that schools which are largely female and often very traditional are reluctant to accept a woman as a leader. Women administrators therefore feel isolated, lonely and unaccepted because of partial rejection by both colleagues and subordinates.

Women administrators talk about the loneliness of their positions. They want to feel part of the administration team, and wish for greater support from women principals (Parot, 1985:300). The most important factors contributing to accomplishment and success would seem to be interaction and exchange of ideas and views with other colleagues. Individuals who are excluded from such interaction perform less well and are not productive.

### *3.3.2 Representativeness*

The activities of women administrators are evaluated as being representative of the way all women work, especially when their actions are negative. Their positive actions are viewed as normal and undeserving of any praise (De Witt, 1991:553; Greyvenstein, 1989:105). For this reason, women administrators are less likely to receive credit for their success (Yeakey et al., 1986:135). The perception that the employment of women jeopardises the institution of the family, and that women require inordinate amounts of sick leave due to menstruation and pregnancy, is an indication that women are seen as being representative of their gender and not as individuals in educational management terms (Kline, 1987:37-38).

### *3.3.3 High visibility*

Token women who progress in administration are likely to be exceptional and are subject to constant public scrutiny (Yeakey et al., 1986:135). Female administrators are subject to public scrutiny because of the attitudinal belief that women are less able to cope with crises, and are therefore not as capable of holding leadership positions as men (Kline, 1987:37; Weber et al., 1981:320). De Witt (1991:553) reports that when women hold positions of leadership, all eyes are turned on them very critically and comments are made about the smallest error of judgment. Their differences of approach to work are totally distorted. Women administrators' high visibility increases the attention paid to their actions, and differences are thus often exaggerated (Greyvenstein, 1989:105).

Lyman and Speizer (1980:28) report that female administrators play their visibility down by being quiet at meetings and not demanding recognition for their ideas and their work. Visibility of female administrators, or the phenomenon of women who try to use their visibility to become leaders is typically viewed as a threat by men in the administrative group.

### *3.3.4 Androgyny*

Frieze (1980:108) writes that the traits associated with general competence in dealing with objective situations and tasks comprise a masculine dimension. Being able to express emotions and showing concern for other people involve a feminine dimension. A stereotypical man is high on the masculine and low on the feminine dimension. A stereotypical woman is the reverse. Androgyny refers to people, both males and females, who are high on both male and female dimensions (De Wine & Casbolt, 1983:59).

Androgynous behaviour is described by the administrators as a means to withstand sex-role stereotyping of women in administration, and as a technique which enables female administrators to readily adapt to various situations (Kline, 1987:304). For women administrators to succeed in a traditionally male-dominated field, they are often required to adopt masculine behaviour (Greyvenstein, 1989:105; De Witt, 1991:553; Adkison, 1981:316). If female administrators understand the concept of androgyny, are able to practise it, they will function more effectively (Erickson, 1985:288). Androgynous behaviour, according to Kline (1987:305) facilitates the

professional growth of the administrators by increasing their self-confidence, thus enabling them to succeed at more difficult tasks.

The adoption of masculine behaviour by women administrators seems to produce good results. The problem is that the good results produced do not prevent them from being accused of violating the gender role norms (De Witt, 1990:573). Adkison (1981:318) notes that women administrators may be evaluated negatively (1981:318) if their behaviour diverges from the expected behaviour norms of their sex. Kline (1987:308), on the other hand, sees androgynous behaviour as the flexibility of sex-roles when deemed appropriate to the situation. Kline notes that women who behave androgynously are more likely to escape the expectation of traditional male/female behaviour, and will be treated as administrators, not as *female* administrators.

### 3.3.5 *Synthesis*

The token status and associated marginality of women who do enter the management hierarchy are therefore seen as a barrier to the advancement of women in educational management. Women aspiring to management positions become aware of the difficulties experienced by those who have been awarded management status, and via stereotyping this becomes a pertinent barrier to advancement (Greyvenstein, 1991:310).

Female teachers need managerial and professional development so that they see themselves as capable of taking on promotion posts. Managerial and professional development of aspirant women principals can be realized through mentoring and role modelling.

## 3.4 **Mentoring and role models**

Mentoring is an intense relationship in which an older, more experienced person sponsors a younger promising candidate to promote both the professional and the personal development of this young person (Fleming, 1991:27). According to Dodgson (1986:29) a mentor is a trusted and experienced counsellor who influences the career development of an associate in a warm, caring and helping relationship. The protégé sees what he or she wants to become as embodied in the mentor (Bowen, 1985:31), therefore role modelling is crucial to the concept of mentoring.

The lack of opportunities for women to see other women in a variety of administrative positions, to hear how these women describe their lives, and to compare themselves to women just one step higher up in the hierarchy has been cited as a reason why women have not moved into administrative positions in larger numbers (Shakeshaft, 1985:128).

Mentoring occurs when a senior person in terms of age and experience undertakes to provide information, advice and emotional support to a junior person in a relationship stretching over an extended period of time and marked by a substantial commitment by both parties (Bowen, 1985:31). The mentor-protégé relationship provides the participants with the necessary training and experience to enable them to develop effective leadership skills and confidence in their work (Kline, 1987:325). Female teachers are strongly deprived in the area of mentoring because traditional male mentors promote and help male protégés and leave out women because of their minority position and status (Dawson, 1980:21).

According to Erasmus (1993:102) mentoring occurs in two phases of one's career, namely during the preparation of the aspirant school principals and the induction of newly-appointed school principals. For the purpose of this research, emphasis is placed on mentoring during the preparation of aspirant school principals.

The system of mentoring occurs informally and formally.

#### *3.4.1 Informal mentoring*

Historically and traditionally a mentoring relationship has been an informal process. It is usually a chance relationship based on common goals and interests (Fleming, 1991:28). The relationship is established in one of two ways: mentor-seeking and protégé-seeking (Dodgson, 1986:31). Dodgson explains that a mentor-seeking relationship, on the one hand, occurs when the mentor identifies a protégé who is a potential manager, while protégé-seeking occurs when a protégé approaches a mentor for help. These relationships are informal.

Informal mentoring helps people to achieve professional and personal success. The problem of informal mentoring, however, is that many talented people are not identified by a mentor, or lucky enough to find a person who takes a special interest in promoting their careers (Fleming, 1991:29). Because of its homogeneity, informal

mentoring tends to promote and maintain the "old boys network", decreasing the chances of female teachers to become mentees (Fleming, 1991:29).

Informal mentoring puts female teachers at a disadvantage because their upward mobility within the organization is not guaranteed. Most often, mentors are available only to potential high managers, who are traditionally males (Kram, 1985:40).

### 3.4.2 *Formal mentoring*

Formal mentoring's advantage over informal mentoring is that it provides readily accessible opportunities for capable people to be mentored and for more experienced people to be mentors.

Formal mentoring does not rely on luck or chance for finding a mentor. It ensures that female teachers who are normally least likely to be involved in informal mentoring will have mentors (Fleming, 1991:29). Fleming prefers formalized mentoring programmes to informal mentoring programmes - in informal programmes mentors are assigned to mentees. Mentoring programmes give female teachers important learning opportunities in skills and knowledge development.

Kram (1985:40), on the other hand, sees the problem of formal interaction between juniors and seniors through formal mentoring programmes as residing in the fact that those who do not co-operate become resentful and increasingly pessimistic about their career prospects. Those who are matched can feel burdened by the new responsibilities. Kram therefore recommends informal mentoring, but agrees that lack of mentoring remains a major barrier to female teachers who aspire to promotional positions in educational management.

According to Erkut and Mokros (1984:400) both informal and formal mentoring programmes have advantages and disadvantages, but the importance of mentoring as a concept cannot be over-emphasized. Fleming (1991:30) notes that women seldom enjoy either formal or informal mentoring, because, in the first place, there are few women in educational management who can serve as role models, and secondly, men prefer to mentor men.

### 3.4.3 *Mixed mentoring*

Bowen (1985:31) ascribes the few women in senior positions in most organisations to lack of mentoring. Bowen therefore suggests that if mentoring of women were to be available, it would have to come from men. He does, however, anticipate the possibility of sexual attraction entering into and seriously complicating any close male/female relationship.

The sexual connotation that is always attached to mixed mentoring relationships pressurises men into not choosing women as mentees (Fleming, 1991:30-31). The problem of mixed mentoring (Busch, 1985:263) does not affect women alone, because female mentors do not have male mentees. Busch also states that apart from sexual attraction, men do not perceive women as influential with regard to careers and therefore actively avoid female mentors.

Mixed mentoring is problematic because psychologists maintain that people identify only with persons they see as similar to themselves (Bowen, 1985:31). Because of this argument, Erkut and Mokros (1984:400) report that researchers commonly acknowledge that women do not receive the same amount of mentoring as men. The most frequent reason given for this is the scarcity of role models or mentors. Fleming (1991:31) says that women receive less mentoring and experience gender difficulty in attracting mentors.

Researchers acknowledge the problems that can be caused by cross-mentoring, such as sexual attraction, jealousy from spouses and colleagues and gender role conflict based on identification with the mentor as a role model. However, they also acknowledge that mixed mentoring is highly successful (Bowen, 1985:33; Dodgson, 1986:33; Greyvenstein, 1989:107; Kline, 1987:326).

Fleming (1991:32) emphasises that women need mentors if more of them are to move into administrative positions. The lack of suitable female role models to act as mentors is not an insurmountable barrier, in that successful cross-mentoring does occur. However, same-sex mentoring is advocated as being more effective (Greyvenstein, 1989:108). According to Erasmus (1993:119) the mentoring system is applied in the USA to develop women educational managers, but a great stumbling block is the lack of availability of suitable women to serve as mentors. Cross-mentoring is therefore inevitable.

From the above discussion it is apparent that women teachers are denied access to the benefits of the mentoring system. As a result, they do not aspire (so readily) to managerial positions.

#### 3.4.4 *Benefits of mentoring*

The benefits of the mentoring relationship which need to be mentioned to emphasise the importance of mentoring are (Fleming, 1991:27-33; Dodgson, 1986:28-33; Bowen, 1985:30-34):

- \* protégés see what they want to be embodied in their mentors;
- \* mentees are provided with direction, career decisions and recommendations on what additional courses are to be taken to enhance their career mobility;
- \* protégés are helped to establish contact within the networks;
- \* younger aspiring workers move up the career ladder more quickly;
- \* mentees enjoy greater happiness on the job, are more productive and are more likely to experience greater success;
- \* visibility of the mentees is increased and they become known to the top administrative officials;
- \* protégés are taught the technical and unwritten rules of an organisation, for example, working habits, mannerisms, acceptable behaviour, and how to conduct oneself in interviews;
- \* mentees could in time become mentors.

If women are not exposed to these benefits of the mentoring relationships, their advancement in educational management will not improve. Mentoring should therefore be viewed as an important system for the development of women for educational management positions (Greyvenstein, 1989:108). The scarcity of women in educational management is (also) attributable to a lack of mentoring, role modelling or sponsorship (Clark & Corcoran, 1986:26).

The following issues concerning mentoring and role modelling are barriers to women's advancement in educational management (Greyvenstein, 1989:109):

- \* women are unaware of the mentoring process, and if aware, they are hesitant to seek mentors;

- \* the school principal is often the ideal mentor for women staff, but is often unaware of the need in women for mentoring;
- \* male mentors are more powerful than female mentors due to their gender status within their management position(s);
- \* some male mentors may have lower aspiration for mentees if based on stereotyped assumptions;
- \* male mentors are not willing to act as mentors to women;
- \* there is a lack of training for both mentors and mentees in the mentoring system.

According to Erasmus (1993:88), the demand placed on leadership is going to be complicated especially for newly-appointed school principals. For aspirant female school principals to be successful in acquiring promotion posts, they should have access to professional networks. The role played by the inaccessibility of a networking system in the teaching profession is discussed in the next paragraph.

### **3.5 Networking**

Closely related to the barrier of mentoring is the need to have access to a network which provides support, information, visibility and credibility (Greyvenstein, 1989:109). The acquisition of information in a network system is either formal or informal (Johnson, 1990:70). He states that the information gained through formal structures is reliable but it is ineffective if it comes to the workers too late.

#### *3.5.1 Formal networking*

Formal networking dispenses information through such media as newsletters, circulars, staff meetings or radio and television advertisements. Because of sex discrimination, however, information reaches women very late, and as a result, women are deprived of information related to promotion posts (Johnson, 1990:70).

Networks are groups of influential persons who control or influence access to management positions, providing visibility, information, support and continual upward mobility services (Clement, 1980:133). The fact of the matter is that women are excluded from informal male networks, and as a result do not have access to informal information about vacancies to the same extent as men.

Networking is seen as a barrier to women's advancement in that informal networks are traditionally part of the male culture, and developed mainly as a by-product of membership in male clubs, civic organisations and participation in sporting activities (De Wine & Casbolt, 1983:58).

### *3.5.2 Informal networking*

Informal networking is a means of passing on highly accurate information unofficially or off the record. Information comes from a cultivated network of mentors, sponsors, challengers, role models, and extended network hubs, as well as the extended networks of other people (Johnson, 1990:71).

According to Schmuck (1986:61), networking is a system that has worked very well for men in an unconscious informal and private form. In this system men receive information about who is getting promoted, who has fallen out of favour with the management and what new positions are opening up. For years, women have been excluded from an informal, unconscious and private male system of communication (Schmuck, 1986:60). The exclusion of women from the male network system makes the problem of under-representation even more serious.

With regard to highly unproportional under-representation of female teachers in educational management, Schmuck (1986:61) states that female teachers should not network only with other women because men still hold the positions of power in educational management. The exclusion of women from informal and formal networks in education constitutes a major barrier to women's advancement in educational management positions (Greyvenstein, 1991:311).

Where women have limited access to the informal system, they are less likely to have formal training opportunities such as committee work, quasi-administrative duties, and temporary assignments (Adkison, 1981:324). Informal networking is therefore of crucial importance to women who aspire to management positions.

Three important issues to be considered in networking are mentors, sponsors and mentoring of others. Research has shown that there are few women who can serve as mentors in educational management because women do not receive as much mentoring as men (cf.3.4). Shapiro (1987:172) writes that factors that inhibit the development

of female school administrators include a low level of encouragement, a limited number of role models and a lack of networks.

Johnson (1990:74) says that another popular informal way to keep in touch with organisational events is by getting a mentor. A mentor passes vital information down the grapevine. Mentors do not only help women protégés by increasing their professional visibility and clarifying their career aspirations, but also improve their extended networking (Hampel, 1987:45). Through extended networking, mentors open many doors that would otherwise have been closed to women protégés (Fleming, 1991:32). Fleming states that many promotions have been achieved through the informal communication networks and it is essential that women have access to these informal network communications.

Female teachers who are already in the management hierarchy seem not to be in favour of mentoring other women. They are thus depriving themselves of a means of networking and they are a barrier to women who aspire to managerial positions in educational management (Johnson, 1990:76). The attitude of women who do not wish to assist other women is referred to as "the queen bee syndrome" (Greyvenstein, 1989:107). In contrast to the mainly informal male networks which often do not have professional development as their goal, women are establishing overt, free-standing networks with the deliberate goal of linking women with other women to expand contacts, provide role models for each other, generate solutions to problems, and disseminate information (De Wine & Casbolt, 1983:58). These networks are, however, mainly single sex groups which in themselves are barriers to women who aspire to entering the male-dominated field of educational management (Greyvenstein, 1991:311).

The under-representation of women in educational management positions will not end as long as women are not mentored, sponsored and their networking is not improved. Lack of access of female teachers to networking systems and a lack of sponsorship in the teaching profession remain a barrier to their advancement to promotion posts.

### 3.6 Sponsors

Sponsors are people who serve as public relations officers for an aspirant principal. They are a person's "door openers. "Sponsors wield power and influence in recommending one for opportunities. They say positive things about an individual to others" (Johnson, 1990:30; Clawson, 1985:36). The principal is the immediate

sponsor of his or her staff members. It is therefore important for the aspirant woman manager to get along well with the principal. But if sponsorship is based on sex discrimination, women are at a disadvantage because there are few female principals (Dodgson, 1986:33; Bowen, 1985:31).

Women have not enjoyed the benefits of the sponsorship process because of discriminatory attitudes of traditional male principals (Ortiz & Marshall, 1988:126). For that reason, sex-discriminating sponsorship has contributed to the perpetuation of school-based professions divided by gender into separate instructional and management camps. To normalise the situation, women should be equally sponsored.

The sponsor may appoint the protégé to committees, to quasi-administrative assignments and to temporary administrative positions. He/she should provide access to administrators in other parts of the districts (Adkison, 1981:322). The sponsor makes the mentee known to high officials in educational administration, thus facilitating her chances of being promoted (Fleming, 1990:30).

Because sponsorship is so necessary and important for career mobility, for men as well as women (Ortiz & Marshall, 1988:133), full involvement of women in a truly gender-unrelated sponsorship process remains crucial.

Although the lack of mentoring, networking, and sponsorship forms barriers to female teachers' advancement to promotion posts, family constraints also play a major role in this regard.

### **3.7 Family constraints**

The family unit is regarded by many as being the cornerstone of contemporary western society. Marriage remains one of the legal foundations of the nuclear family and the act of marriage appears to confer specific responsibilities upon the woman in the partnership. She is mainly held responsible for the maintenance of daily domestic duties and rearing of offspring (Cooper, 1989:viii). Van der Westhuizen and Hillebrand (1990:269) suggest that the modern married woman is obliged by economic necessity to seek employment outside the home, thus assuming a dual role, that of paid employee and homemaker. Family and home responsibilities form a major barrier to women's achievement in educational management (Greyvenstein, 1991:311).

In the following paragraphs, the disadvantages in relation to the age, commitment to family and re-entry into the teaching field of female teachers will be considered.

### *3.7.1 Age*

Cooper (1989:89) maintains that age is of prime importance because it is used as a yardstick by which to assess the appointment of old and young educational managers. There is an age at which employers look unfavourably upon promotion to senior management. By the time married women reach middle-management, they are faced with the problem of an age barrier.

Cooper (1989:92) feels that the discontinuity of service produced by career-breaks places married women at a disadvantage when compared to male teachers who have experienced an uninterrupted career. Greyvenstein (1989:110) states that career-breaks due to childbearing cause women to have fewer years of work experience. Cooper (1989:91) says that by the age of forty, married women appear to have lost interest in applying for promotion, both internally and externally. Age therefore seems to have an effect upon the possibility of promotion.

Androskiw and Howes (1980:479) argue that married women frequently interrupt their careers for child-rearing, and as a result do not obtain the necessary prerequisite experience for many upper echelon positions. Cooper (1989:34) questions the validity of length of service and experience as major factors in gaining promotion. He poses the question as to why single or married women who have not taken a career-break are still discriminated against when they seek promotions. He concludes that gender, and not length of service, is the factor that determines who is to be promoted.

Weber et al. (1981:321) subscribe to the idea that other variables such as age and length of experience, have little effect on promotions. That is why Prekel (1982:73) refers to under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools as conscious and deliberate discrimination against women. Prekel says that men discriminate against women because men feel threatened by the progress and the perceived power bid of the women.

### *3.7.2 Commitment to the family*

Family and home responsibilities form a major barrier to women's achievement in educational management (Greyvenstein, 1991:311; De Witt, 1991:556). Notions of

patriarchy are evident in the division of labour within the home. Married women are responsible for more than half the domestic tasks in their households. With the advent of working women therefore, home has become a refuge for men and a site of pressure and hard work for women (Cooper, 1989:39; Prekel, 1982:77).

Greyvenstein's argument (1989:111) that marriage and family life are seen as an asset for men, but a liability for women who aspire to educational management positions is well articulated. Because of commitment to the family, married women cannot easily accept a management post in a neighbouring town. A married woman cannot cause her family to move from one area to another because of employment. Her geographical mobility is totally under the control of her husband (De Witt, 1991:558).

Women not only give birth to children, but they are also committed to shoulder, single-handedly, the bulk of child-rearing duties. As long as married women are committed to household and child-rearing tasks, combining teaching with the care of children will create a work-load that will discourage women from assuming further responsibilities, thus having a negative effect on women's intention to seek and to secure promotion (Cooper, 1989:40).

Commitment to the family starts at an early age, and young women appear to have no choice. They are involved in housework whatever their opinions. The long-term benefits for them are greater knowledge of household management and realistic assessment of their ability to look after themselves and others. The cost entails dramatic curtailment of time and subsequent inequalities in the division of labour between adult men and women (Banks et al., 1992:57).

Commitment to the family seems to form a major barrier to women's advancement in educational management. According to Adkison (1981:322) women are not committed to a career or concerned with upward mobility. She attributes this "careerless" attitude of women to insufficient career socialisation.

### *3.7.3 Re-entry*

A career break is defined as the period of absence of a woman from an established career - a period that exceeds the time limits of an employer's maternity leave policy in order to bear and/or care for offspring, followed by a return to either part-time or full-time employment when family responsibilities permit (Lemmer, 1989:95). How do career breaks affect women teachers on their return to the teaching field? Adkison

(1981:322) argues that women move in and out of the teaching profession with few penalties. She argues that the in and out movement of female teachers in the teaching profession should be controlled. Lemmer (1989:95), on the other hand, says that women exit the labour market to begin family formation. If a woman works full-time, her pregnancy acts as her boundary to the first phase of her career. The decision as to whether the woman will take maternity leave or give up her work is taken by the couple as they approach parenthood.

Adkison (1981:322) attributes women's exit from and re-entry to the teaching profession to the structure of education which is attractive to women who expect to quit work for a few years to care for their children or to accompany a spouse in frequent moves, but who anticipate re-entry into the work force in the future. Adkison does not indicate that women experience problems in returning to work after a career-break. Greyvenstein (1991:312), on the other hand, indicates that women teachers do experience problems in returning to the profession after a break in career. Their first problem relates to a lack of reliable childcare facilities, which forces them to give up their work.

Women teachers who re-enter the profession are faced with the problem of changes effected during their absence from work. Such changes might cause them to question their capabilities and they then suffer a lack of confidence in their professional abilities (Cooper, 1989:97). The longer a woman remains out of employment, the greater her loss in terms of earnings and professional status. Her chances of regaining a job at the same level are poor. A long career break, moreover, increases the probability that a woman will lose self-confidence and that her knowledge and her skills might be outdated and stale upon her return to the teaching profession (Lemmer, 1989:97). Returners might have to wait through a succession of temporary posts until a full-time position with no status within the school becomes available. Temporary employment reduces the prospects of re-entrants to be considered for promotion (Cooper, 1989:97).

According to Lemmer (1989:97) the length of a career break is related to the level of education and the kind of training a woman has undergone. Lemmer states that highly qualified women tend to return to work more quickly after giving birth than those who are less qualified. Therefore one is inclined to support Cooper's argument that women teachers are excluded from or denied occupying managerial positions in high schools due to a lack of years of service and experience (Cooper, 1989:34). The majority of female teachers take maternity leave. Very few give up their work. The question of

a career break is therefore incorrectly applied to explain the exclusion of women teachers from the management hierarchy of high schools.

Davies (1986:71) states that a requirement exists in African states demanding women to resign from public service upon marriage. Should they wish to return to the teaching profession, they are appointed at a lower rank. This is surely an unfair and discriminatory practice against women teachers.

Education is often associated with qualifications. This is also true of the teaching profession. Mentoring, networking, sponsoring, role modelling may not satisfy the requirements of employers if the employees (female teachers) do not have good qualifications.

### **3.8 Qualifications**

Shapiro (1987:172) states that the under-representation of female teachers in educational management is often blamed on the fact that female teachers do not have the necessary management credentials and academic qualifications. Ortiz and Marshall (1988:128) say that women doctoral students in educational administration, unlike their male counterparts, typically do not use their degrees to further careers in public school administration. Instead they find employment as consultants or researchers. There has been a dramatic increase in women who improve or acquire qualifications in educational management. The improvement of qualifications in educational management by women teachers has little effect on the appointment of women teachers in management positions in high schools.

According to Greyvenstein (1991:313), research in the USA and the UK has shown that women do not lack the qualifications necessary for promotion. The present situation is different in the RSA; women are not improving their qualifications in educational management; they rather gain extra diplomas for improving their categories. This attitude is commonly used by those in the hiring committees to explain why women teachers are not appointed in managerial positions.

The position of the qualifications of black female teachers in the RSA is not mentioned by Greyvenstein or Zaaïman or Lane. In its annual report (1990:19), the Department of Education in Bophuthatswana says that it is upgrading teachers to prepare for and to pass the National Senior Certificate. One is inclined to say that teachers in

Bophuthatswana are not an exception, as they also gain diplomas to improve their categories rather than improving their expertise in educational management.

### **3.9 Summary**

The emphasis in this chapter was on the external factors inhibiting female teachers' advancement in educational management. It is clear that gender discrimination is a major barrier for women who aspire to educational management positions. Not only married female teachers who experience career breaks are discriminated against, even unmarried female teachers who have never experienced career breaks or disruptions are seldom considered for promotions. The proportion of female teachers in the teaching force is not decreasing, but increasing. The increase gives the impression that female teachers accept the status quo that male teachers will manage the schools and female teachers will manage the classrooms.

## CHAPTER 4

### *Empirical research*

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## 4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the research design; the discussion of the measuring instrument; the choice of the instrument; the pilot study and the construction of the questionnaire. Administrative procedures, study population, and the statistical techniques are also discussed. The chapter ends with the main focus, that is the interpretation of the data.

## 4.2 Research design

### 4.2.1 *The questionnaire as research instrument*

The literature studies revealed that female teachers are in the majority in high schools, but it seems that they are relatively under-represented in management positions (cf. 2.2.2). The reason for the apparent under-representation is attributed to external and internal barriers. The aim with the questionnaire was to establish from respondents to what extent external or internal factors have played a role in their applying for a promotion.

After considering the advantages and the disadvantages of the questionnaire (Ary et al., 1990:241; Sax, 1968:214; Borg, 1981:87; Anderson, 1990:207; Van der Westhuizen, 1992:56; Smith, 1988:62) a structured postal questionnaire was chosen as the measuring instrument for the following reasons:

- \* The questionnaire can be sent anywhere in diverse locations.
- \* Each respondent receives the same set of questions framed in exactly the same way.
- \* A large number of subjects can be covered with minimal cost implications.
- \* The questionnaire does not require a trained staff of field workers
- \* The motivation of respondents cannot be checked - this makes the validity of their responses difficult to judge.
- \* Persons selected for the sample do not all return the questionnaires. Each questionnaire that is not returned may result in a biased sampling.
- \* The assumption that respondents can both write and read is false.
- \* There is a possibility of misinterpretation of questions by the respondents.
- \* People who receive the questionnaire put it aside and simply forget to complete and return it.

- \* The questionnaire cannot hope to cover people of low intelligence or of very limited educational background.
- \* The questionnaires are shallow, they fail to dig deeply enough to provide a true picture of opinions and feelings.

#### 4.2.2 Pilot study

A pilot study involving five female teachers who are heads of departments and ten teachers in the Mankwe Circuit of the North West Province was undertaken. These teachers were requested to answer the questions carefully. They were also requested to note and advise about questions that might be ambiguous, confusing or unclear. The draft questionnaire was handed to them through their principals' agency and with their permission.

Respondents made verbal remarks. They stated that section A was simple and straightforward. Respondents experienced no problems with regard to this section. Respondents said that section B was also simple except that the usage of the terms *management positions* and *administrative positions* " was confusing. "Management positions" is therefore used in the place of "administrative positions".

#### 4.2.3 Final questionnaire

A final questionnaire approved by the Department of Education in Bophuthatswana was sent out.

#### 4.2.4 Construction of the questionnaire

The questionnaire is arranged into two sections:

- \* Section A: Biographical particulars (questions 1.1-1.9).
- \* Section B:
  - Lower self-image and lack of self-confidence (items 1-6)
  - Fear of success (items 7-9).
  - Lack of motivation and lower aspiration (items 10-13).
  - Role conflict (items 14-17).
  - Filtering techniques (items 18-21).

- Tokenism and marginality (items 22-27).
- Mentoring and role models (items 28-34).
- Networking and sponsors (items 35-40).
- Family constraints (items 41-47).

Only closed questions were used to construct the questionnaire to avoid long descriptive responses.

#### 4.2.5 Administration procedures

Permission to administer the approved questionnaire was obtained from the Department of Education of Bophuthatswana.

#### 4.2.6 Population

Questionnaires were sent out to 380 female teachers at post levels 1 and 2. Respondents from 50 randomly selected high schools in five Education circuits in Bophuthatswana were used. The questionnaires were sent out at the end of April 1994.

Within four weeks, 260 questionnaires were returned. With the help of contact persons follow-ups were made. At the end of sixth week, an additional 66 questionnaires were returned.

**Table 4.1**

No. of questionnaires sent out	No. of questionnaires received back	%
380	326	85,8%

As can be seen from Table 4.1, 85,8% of responses were returned.

Van der Westhuizen (1992:61) suggests that reliable and valid derivations can be done only if 70% responses are received.

#### 4.2.7 Statistical techniques

A computer at the PU for CHE was used to analyse and to process the data. The SAS (Statistical Analysis System) computer programme was used to compute the results of the study (SAS Institute, 1985). Each question is provided with frequencies and percentages according to frequency procedures of the SAS.

### 4.3 Interpretation of data

In order to interpret the accumulated data correctly, the biographical information of respondents was analysed. The conclusions arrived at in this section are only valid for studied population.

#### 4.3.1 Biographical background

The questions in section A dealt with the profile of female teachers at post levels 1 and 2 in high schools.

**Table 4.2 Biographical background**

		Questions	F	%
1.1	Head of Department	No response	1	0,3
		Yes	101	31,0
		No	224	68,7
		Total	326	100,
1.2	Category	No response	3	0,9
		A	2	0,6
		B	17	5,2
		C	152	46,6
		D	120	36,9
		E	30	9,2
		Others	2	0,6
		Total	326	100
1.3	Experience	0-3	53	16,3

		4-6	37	11,3
		7-9	100	30,7
		10-15	109	33,4
		16+	27	8,3
		Total	326	100
1.4	Appointment	Temporary	12	3,7
		Permanent	314	96,3
		Total	326	100
1.5	Home language	English	4	1,2
		Setswana	282	86,5
		Afrikaans	1	0,3
		Others	39	12,0
		Total	326	100
1.6	Marital status	No response	8	2,4
		Unmarried	130	39,9
		Widowed/divorced	14	4,3
		Married	174	53,4
		Total	326	100
1.7	Age	No response	22	6,7
		20-29	123	37,7
		30-39	143	43,9
		40-49	36	11,1
		50+	2	0,6
		Total	326	100
1.8	No of children			
1.8.1	Pre-school (0-5)	No response	12	3,7
		None	199	61
		One	100	30,7
		Two	14	4,3

		Three or more	1	0,3
		Total	326	100
1.8.2	Primary	No response	2	0,6
		None	151	46,3
		One	92	28,3
		Two	80	24,5
		Three or more	1	0,3
		Total	326	100
1.8.3	Secondary	No response	5	1,5
		None	175	53,7
		One	79	24,2
		Two	57	17,5
		Three or more	10	3,1
		Total	326	100
1.9	Applied	Yes	40	12,3
		No	286	87,7
		Total	326	100

From Table 4.2 it is clear that the majority of respondents, viz. 68,7% (224) were not heads of department. According to qualifications, 83,5% (272) were in categories C and D of which the majority, especially category C, did not qualify for promotion in high schools.

The experience that is normally required by various departments of education for promotion in high schools ranges from 5 years upward. Many respondents (72,4%) had experience of 7-16 years and thus satisfied this requirement. Permanent employment in the Department of Education is one of the prerequisites for promotion. The majority 86,3% of respondents were permanently employed, and therefore satisfied this requirement. The issue of home language is not that much a requirement for promotion but in some cases it is. 86,5% speak Setswana. More than half 57,7% (184) were either divorced/widowed or married. The question of marriage is also taken into account when promotions are done for accommodation purposes. The majority of respondents (81,6%) were 20-39 years old. They thus featured in the

correct age group that is normally accepted for promotion in high schools. The question of having children in various categories of schools should be linked with the question of accommodation. The majority of respondents 87,7% had never applied for promotion. This behaviour might be one of the reasons for under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools. In the discussions in the following paragraphs, reasons for female teachers not to apply for promotions in high schools are examined.

#### *4.3.2 Lower self-image and lack of self-confidence*

Items 1-6 were aimed at finding out to what extent lower self-image and lack of self-confidence have played a role in female teachers' decision about applying for promotion.

I	Questions	Responses									
		Nil		None		Slight		Fair		Great	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	A fear to apply for a promotion post	0	0	152	46,6	34	10,4	51	15,6	89	27,4
2	A lack of self-confidence	3	0,9	143	43,9	61	18,7	52	16,0	67	20,5
3	A lack of positive self-image to be a leader	4	1,2	148	45,4	36	11,1	57	17,5	81	24,8
4	A lack of confidence in your career	6	1,8	161	49,4	41	12,6	39	12,0	79	24,2
5	A lack of belief in yourself	4	1,2	156	47,8	52	16,0	41	12,6	73	22,4
6	Persuasion by other people to apply for a promotion post	3	0,9	125	38,3	72	22,2	64	19,5	62	19,1

TABLE 4.3 Lower self-image and lack of self-confidence

For the purposes of this study the positive frequencies of column 1 and 2 are grouped and the negative frequencies of column 3 and 4 are also grouped together. According to statistics in Table 4.3 the following factors played no role or a slight role in the respondents' reasons for applying for promotion.

- \* A lack of belief in oneself: 63,8%
- \* A lack of self-confidence: 62,6%
- \* A lack of confidence in one's career: 62,0%
- \* Persuasion by other people to apply: 60,5%
- \* A fear to apply for promotion posts: 57,0%
- \* A lack of positive self-image to be a leader: 56,5%

The responses in Table 4.3 are inconsistent with the literature studies because literature studies reveal that the source of most career barriers for female teachers in the teaching field lies in a lower internalised self-image, a lack of self-confidence, a lack of belief in oneself, a fear to apply for promotion and the fact that females are persuaded by other people to apply for promotion (cf.2.4.1). The fact of the matter is that the alleged withdrawal behaviour of female teachers in managerial positions in high schools is attributable to traditional and societal stereotyped beliefs.

#### *4.3.3 Fear of success*

The aim with items 7-9 was to find out to what extent a fear of success played a role in a decision to apply for promotion.

TABLE 4.4 Fear of success

I	Questions	Responses									
		Nil		None		Slight		Fair		Great	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
7	A fear to be opposed by the community	1	0,3	115	35,3	52	16,0	92	28,2	66	20,2
8	A fear to compete against men	4	1,2	124	38,0	34	10,5	84	25,8	80	24,5
9	A fear to be rejected by the society	6	1,8	135	41,4	66	20,3	63	19,3	56	17,2

- 9: The majority of respondents (61,6%) did not fear to be rejected by society. According to respondents, to be rejected by the society is not a reason for not applying for promotion as revealed in the literature study (cf.2.5.1).
- 8: Slightly more than a half of respondents (50,3%), however, felt that they feared to compete against male teachers for promotion and this might be a reason for not applying for promotion posts in high schools.
- 7: More than a half of respondents 51,3% feared to be opposed by the community. This response might be based on the experience of respondents in the communities they serve because it is a common practice in rural areas that principals are opposed for the simple reason that they are viewed by the community as not being sons and daughters of the soil.

It seems that female teachers do not regard fear of success as stated in the literature study (cf.2.5.1) as a reason for not applying for promotion posts in high schools. The females actually fear losing their femininity because society would regard them as social deviants if they assume work in the traditional and stereotypic male-dominated field of educational management (cf.2.3).

#### *4.3.4 Lack of motivation and low aspiration.*

With items 10-13 it was aimed to assess to what extent lack of motivation and low aspiration played a role in decisions to apply for promotion.

TABLE 4.5 Lack of aspiration

I	Questions	Responses									
		Nil		None		Slight		Fair		Great	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
10	A lack of aspiration to be a principal	3	0,9	110	33,7	43	13,2	63	19,4	107	32,8
11	Achievements by members of your family	4	1,2	118	36,2	71	21,8	49	15,0	84	25,8
12	A different ambition from that of being a principal	3	0,9	130	39,9	59	18,1	55	16,9	79	24,2
13	Failed attempts to secure a principalship post	4	1,2	125	39,3	43	13,2	62	19,1	92	28,2

- 10: According to Table 4.5, 58,0% of respondents indicated that failure to apply for principalship posts in high school is not due to lack of aspiration to be a principal. It is alleged that female teachers do not lack aspiration to be principals, but set themselves lower levels of aspiration for promotion posts (cf.2.6.1).
- 11: It also became clear that 58,0% of respondents were not forced by the achievements of members of their families not to apply for promotion posts in high schools. The fact that female teachers aspire to obtain promotions ranked on the lower level of management might be seen as a reason for not applying for promotions in high schools (cf.2.6.1).
- 13: It is not surprising to note that 51,5% of respondents claim that failed attempts to secure principalship post played no role or only a slight role in decisions to apply for promotion because according to Table 4.2, the majority of respondents indicated that they did not apply for promotion (cf.1.9 of Table 4.2).
- 12: More than a half of the respondents (52,2%) felt that a lack of aspiration to be a principal played a fair or a great role to apply for promotion. It is not a lack of aspiration as such, but it is the factors such as childhood experiences, cultural background, and negative societal stereotyping that influence female teachers not to believe in themselves, resulting in the belief that they lack aspiration (2.4.2).

Another factor that makes female teachers tend to aspire less to promotions in the high schools is that they enter the teaching field with the ambition of maintaining close contact with pupils in the classroom, therefore their lower level of aspiration for promotion posts comes as no surprise (cf.2.6.3).

#### 4.3.5 *Role conflict*

With items 14-17 the respondents were requested to state to what extent role conflict played a role in decisions to apply for promotion.

I	Questions		Responses									
			Nil		None		Slight		Fair		Great	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
14	What you learned from home about leadership		7	2,1	72	22,1	43	13,2	68	20,9	136	41,7
15	Your responsibility as homemaker and leader		5	1,5	109	33,4	52	16,0	60	18,4	100	30,7
16	Working harder than your male counterpart		6	1,8	96	29,4	48	14,7	97	29,8	79	24,3
17	A traditional view of a career woman		4	1,2	90	27,6	45	13,8	50	15,4	137	42,0

TABLE 4.6 Role conflict

- 14: According to Table 4.6, 62,6% of respondents felt that what they learned from home about leadership played a fair or a great role in a decision to apply for promotion. Traditionally women learn to be non-assertive, non-competitive, non-aggressive, and dependent (cf.2.7.6). These learned characteristics impede female teachers when they want to infiltrate the male-dominated area of educational management.

With regard to Q16, 54,0% of respondents responded that a will to work harder than their counterparts played a fair or a great role in the decision to apply for promotion. Female teachers have to double their efforts at the workplace in order to be successful in their careers. They are expected to work harder to prove themselves (cf.2.7.5). Traditional managers in most cases do not recognise efforts of female teachers in the school setting and this might be the reason why managers do not recommend or encourage female teachers to apply for promotion.

In respect of Q17, more than a half of the respondents (57,3%) felt that a traditional view of career woman played a fair or a great role to them in a decision to apply for promotion. Traditionally society is not yet ready to accept that a woman (female teacher) can be a mother and a career woman. According to traditional stereotyping, a female teacher's career comes second to motherhood and homemaking (cf.2.7.6). Female teachers are negatively influenced by traditional beliefs and withdraw from applying for promotions in high schools. Those with good qualifications are also not prepared to come forward to take up managerial positions (cf.2.4.4).

#### **4.6 Filtering techniques**

The aim of items 18-25 was to find out from respondents whether filtering techniques played any role in their decisions about applying for promotion.

TABLE 4.7 Filtering techniques

I	Questions	Responses									
		Nil		None		Slight		Fair		Great	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
18	Recruitment to train as principal	0	0	140	42,9	56	17,2	46	14,1	84	25,8
19	Criteria for selecting principals	1	0,3	128	39,3	52	16,0	50	15,3	95	29,1
20	The composition of the panel of interviewers	2	0,6	133	40,8	55	16,9	51	15,6	85	26,1
21	Your presentation at an interview	4	1,2	133	40,8	54	16,6	55	16,9	80	24,5
22	Your teaching achievements	7	2,1	126	38,7	47	14,4	77	23,6	69	21,2

According to the grouped frequencies in columns 1 and 2 of Table 4.7, respondents indicated that the following factors played no role or a slight role in a decision to apply for promotion.

- \* Recruitment to train as principal: 60,1%
- \* The composition of the panel of interviewers: 57,7%
- \* Your presentation at an interview: 57,4%
- \* Criteria for selecting principals: 55,3%
- \* Your teaching achievements: 53,1%

Even if respondents indicated that the above-mentioned factors played no role or a slight role in a decision to apply for promotion, literature study reveals that filtering techniques (Table 4.7) are to a greater extent barriers to female teachers' acquisition of promotion (cf.3.2).

It should be borne in mind that the majority of respondents (87,7%) (cf.1.9 of Table 4.2) stated that they had never applied for promotion. This might be the reason that their responses are inconsistent with the literature study.

#### *4.3.7 Tokenism and marginality*

With items 23-27, respondents were requested to indicate to what extent tokenism and marginality played a role in their decision to apply for promotion.

TABLE 4.8 Tokenism and marginality

I	Questions	Responses									
		Nil		None		Slight		Fair		Great	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
23	Your visibility in the teaching field	4	1,2	140	42,9	44	13,5	69	21,2	69	22,2
24	The recognition that you demand	3	0,9	191	58,6	59	18,1	41	12,6	32	9,8
25	Your adopted masculine behaviour	3	0,9	182	55,8	56	17,2	52	16,0	33	10,1
26	Your marginalised position	8	2,5	93	28,5	56	16,3	47	14,4	125	38,3
27	A fear of being isolated by other teachers	3	0,9	134	41,1	63	19,3	103	31,6	23	7,1

- 26: According to Table 4.8, 52,7% of respondents felt that marginalised positions played a fair or a great role in a decision to apply for promotion. Traditionally women are usually placed backstage in so far as decision-making is concerned. Female teachers are marginalised and given token positions, they are seen as representatives of their gender, and they are not judged on their own abilities (cf.3.3).

With regard to Q23 (56,4%) respondents indicated that visibility in the teaching field played no role or a slight role in decisions to apply for promotion. The fact of the matter is that as soon as a female teacher assumes a managerial position, she is subjected to public scrutiny because of her visibility (cf.3.3.3). Female teachers are scrutinised to spot their shortcomings and no credit is given to their achievements.

- 24: In this question 76,7% of respondents answered that the recognition they demanded played no role or a slight role in decisions to apply for promotion.
- 25: Respondents (73,0%) felt that their adopted masculine behaviour played no role or a slight role in decisions about applying for promotion.
- 27: In respect of this question, 60,4% of respondents felt that a fear to be isolated by other teachers played no role or a slight role in decisions to apply for promotion. It became clear that even though respondents responded to Q24; Q25 and Q27 responses would have to be sought from female teachers already in management positions in high schools (cf.3.3.1 & 3.3.4).

#### 4.3.8 *Mentoring and role modelling*

Items 28-34 aimed at establishing to what extent mentoring and role modelling played a role in decisions to apply for promotion.

TABLE 4.9 Mentoring and role modelling

I	Questions	Responses									
		Nil		None		Slight		Fair		Great	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
28	Personal development under your mentor	5	1,5	84	25,8	51	15,6	63	19,4	123	37,7
29	Your opportunities to see other women in management positions	4	1,2	72	22,1	28	8,6	43	13,2	177	54,9
30	Encouragement by your principal	1	0,3	135	41,4	35	10,8	64	19,6	91	27,9
31	Your informal relationship with people in management positions	2	0,6	88	27,0	48	14,7	73	22,4	115	35,3
32	Your formal interaction with your seniors through mentoring programmes	3	0,9	116	35,6	48	14,7	69	21,2	90	27,6
33	Males who served as your mentors	6	1,8	120	36,8	40	12,3	53	16,3	107	32,8
34	Information with regard to vacancies that you received through formal structures	3	0,9	156	47,9	53	16,3	58	17,7	56	17,2

- 28: In this question respondents (57,1%) answered that development under a mentor played a fair or a great role in decisions to apply for promotion. It became clear (cf.3.4) that female teachers are not exposed to mentoring systems for various alleged reasons.
- 29: Respondents were requested to indicate to what extent the opportunities to see other women in management positions played a role in their decisions to apply for promotion. More than a half (68,1%) of respondents responded that it played a fair or a great role to them. The exposure of female teachers to mentoring and role modelling is very limited because educational management is purely dominated by male teachers. Female teachers lack role models (cf.3.4). The responses to questions 31 and 33 are similar to responses of questions 28 and 29 - they played a fair to a great role in decisions of respondents to apply for promotion posts. This confirms the lack of exposure of female teachers to mentoring and the role of this in the perpetuation of the exclusion of female teachers in educational management in high schools (cf.3.4.3).
- 30 Respondents were requested to indicate to what extent encouragement by the principal played a role in their decisions to apply for promotion. About 52,2% of respondents responded that it played a fair or a great role to them in their decisions to apply for promotion posts. This question was too open - it should possibly have stated the gender of the principal in question.
- 32 This question, just like question 30, did not specify the gender of the seniors. that is why 50,3% of respondents indicated that mentoring and role modelling played no role or a slight role in their decisions to apply for a promotion post. There might have been a hesitancy due to the openness of the questions.
- 34 Concerning this question, respondents were asked to show how they were affected by information relating to vacancies that was received through formal structures (circulars). The majority of respondents (64,2%) responded that it played no role or a slight role in their decision to apply for promotion. The issue of disseminating information quickly in the rural areas is a serious problem. It is a fact that information does reach teachers even in the rural areas, but how soon does it reach them? To make matters worse, on top of the poor postal services, circulars are allegedly kept in the principal's office for some time before they are released to the staff (cf.3.5 & 3.5.2).

#### *4.3.9 Networking and sponsoring*

The aim of items 35-40 was to find out to what extent played networking and sponsorship to respondents in applying for promotion

TABLE 4.10 Networking and sponsoring

I	Questions	Responses									
		Nil		None		Slight		Fair		Great	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
35	Information with regard to principalship posts that you received through informal contacts	0	0	168	51,5	56	17,2	52	16,0	50	15,3
36	Your role model who encouraged you to aspire for principalship	4	1,2	90	27,6	59	18,1	69	21,2	104	31,9
37	Your spokesperson	4	1,2	91	27,9	53	16,3	70	21,5	108	33,1
38	Your principal as your immediate sponsor	4	1,2	91	27,9	35	10,7	61	18,7	135	41,5
39	Sponsorship that is made on gender basis	3	0,6	94	28,8	53	16,3	35	10,7	141	43,6
40	Administrative activities delegated to you by your principal	2	0,6	121	37,1	62	19,1	77	23,6	64	19,6

#### 4.3.10 Family constraints

The aim with items 41-47 was to establish to what extent family constraints played a role in decisions to apply for promotion.

TABLE 4.11 Family constraints

I	Questions	Responses									
		Nil		None		Slight		Fair		Great	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
41	Your age	3	0,9	108	33,2	65	19,9	90	27,6	60	18,4
42	Your career breaks	1	0,3	126	38,7	62	19,0	69	21,2	68	20,8
43	Your teaching experience	3	0,9	87	26,7	55	16,9	66	20,2	115	35,3
44	Your marital status	12	3,7	114	35,0	40	12,3	48	14,6	112	34,4
45	Lack of modern appliances and electricity to help with household chores	1	0,3	142	43,6	51	15,6	58	17,8	74	22,7
46	The support from your spouse	0	0	128	39,3	56	17,2	47	14,4	95	29,1
47	Your qualifications	2	0,6	93	28,5	26	8,0	44	13,5	161	49,4

- 41 This question requested respondents to indicate to what extent age played a role in decisions to apply for promotion. The respondents (53,1%) felt that their age was not a problem in this regard. More than half of the respondents were 30 years and above (cf.1.7 of Table 4.2). Age plays an important role when education managers are appointed (cf.3.7.1). It is apparent that age or length of service is crucial in as far as female teachers are concerned because even married teachers who never married and who have uninterrupted long service are not promoted. It is alleged (cf.3.7.1) that under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools is conscious and deliberate discrimination against women.
- 42 According to this question, respondents were to show to what extent career-breaks played a role when they applied for promotion. Their (57,7%) response indicated that it played no role or a slight role as far as applying for promotion is concerned. The fact of the matter is that whether female teachers broke service or not, maintaining uninterrupted service would not be of any benefit to them (cf.3.7.1).
- 43 In this question respondents were requested to indicate to what extent their teaching experience played a role in decisions to apply for promotion posts. The (55,5%) respondents indicated that their teaching experience played a fair or great role on this regard. According to literature findings, experience and career breaks do not help female teacher to be considered for promotion because even female teachers who have never broken their careers are not considered for promotion (cf.3.7.1).
- 44 With regard to this question, respondents were asked to state to what extent their marital status played a role in decisions to apply for promotion posts. Less than half (49,0%) of respondents stated it played a fair or a great role to them. Because of family commitments female teachers experience problems should they accept promotion far away from home. They do not have the powers to cause their families to move. The powers lie with the husband. The issue of child-rearing remains a serious problem to female teachers who aspire for promotion (cf.3.7.2).
- 45 This question required respondents to indicate to what extent a lack of modern appliances and electricity to help with household chores played a role. Respondents (59,2%) indicated that it played no role or a slight role to them in

a decision to apply for promotion. Electricity and modern appliances in rural areas are so foreign that very few people would even think of their importance.

Teachers in rural areas do not reside at their homes. They either hire a room or stay at the school's cottages which are not as yet and may not be electrified in the near future (cf.3.7.2). A lack of electricity and home appliances adds more problems to the existing problems faced by female teachers.

46 According to this question respondents were requested to state to what extent the support of their spouse played a role in decisions about applying for promotion. Respondents (56,5%) felt that it played no role or a slight role. One fails to understand how their spouses could have supported them because it is said that husbands are not prepared to help with household responsibilities (cf.3.7.2).

47 This question requested respondents to indicate to what extent qualifications played a role in their decisions to apply for promotion. The response to this question (62,9%) indicates that qualifications played a fair or a great role in this regard. Female teachers are said to be improving qualifications for the sake of improving their categories rather than improving their management skills (cf.3.8). It should also be borne in mind that there are female teachers who are highly qualified, but they are still being excluded the educational management hierarchy.

Qualifications alone seem not to provide the solution to the problems faced by female teachers in acquiring management positions. Personal change in the individual and a change of education systems as well as a change of institutions might provide a meaningful solution to the problem (cf. 2.2.1).

#### **4.4 Summary**

This chapter enabled the researcher to obtain a general view with regard to the under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools.

The biographical background of the respondents gave the researcher the stand from which issues could be analysed and evaluated most objectively.

On analysing the responses of female teachers at post levels 1 and 2 in high schools, it became evident that there is a lot to be done to improve the discrimination to which female teachers are subjected.

The next chapter will be devoted to the summary of the previous chapters, findings, recommendations and conclusion.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### *Summary, findings and recommendations*

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Summary
- 5.3 Findings
  - 5.3.1 Findings with regard to the literature study
  - 5.3.2 Findings with regard to empirical research
- 5.4 Recommendations
  - 5.4.1 Recommendations
  - 5.4.2 Recommendations for further research
- 5.5 Summary

## 5.1 Introduction

The fact that female teachers are in the majority in the teaching force but are unproportionally represented in management positions has become a serious concern nationally and internationally. Factors that are seen as barriers for the advancement of female teachers into management positions should be addressed by all the stakeholders.

## 5.2 Summary

The statement of the problem which necessitated this research project is outlined in chapter 1. The problem question, namely under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools is also highlighted in this chapter.

Three aims of the research project which are discussed in the following chapters were formulated.

Chapter 1 of this study serves as the orientation of the research. The statement of the problem is clearly outlined.

The aims as well as the method of research are presented.

The demarcation of the field of study and the proposed chapters are presented.

In chapter 2 the theoretical basis of under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools is discussed. Many factors that are seen as internal barriers for upward mobility of female teachers in educational management were discussed from a theoretical perspective.

The definitions of educational management are presented. The concept of under-representation is described. What management positions in high schools entails is also explained.

Various factors that are seen as internal barriers for the advancement of female teachers in the educational management hierarchy are discussed. The role played by stereotyped and traditional beliefs of communities with regard to internal factors is also examined.

The external factors that form barriers to female teachers in applying for promotion posts are discussed in chapter 3.

The role played by institutions and the education system in relation to external factors that inhibit female teachers from applying for promotion posts was discussed.

Chapter 4 of this study deals with empirical research which includes the construction of the questionnaire based on the literature study. The interpretation of data which formed the main focus in this chapter was discussed. Findings and recommendations with regard to the aims of this research are discussed in chapter 5.

### 5.3 Findings

#### 5.3.1 Findings with regard to the literature study

Aim 1 The findings with regard to research aim 1 (cf.1.3.1) that is, internal factors underlying under-representation of female teachers in educational management in high schools, are that:

- \* Female teachers do not apply for promotion (cf.2.4.1).
- \* Female teachers exhibit lower self-image (cf.2.4.1).
- \* Female teachers lack self- confidence (cf. 2.4.1).
- \* Female teachers experience sexist obstacles from society and institutions (cf.2.4.1).
- \* Female teachers are discriminated against on the basis of gender (cf.4.2.1).
- \* Female teachers do not fear success itself (2.5.1).
- \* Female teachers do not believe in themselves (cf. 2.4.2).
- \* Female teachers suffer from a cinderella syndrome (2.4.4).
- \* Female teachers' careers are often in the human sciences whereas promotions are more in the social sciences (cf.2.4.5).
- \* Society does not evaluate female teachers in the same way as it evaluates male teachers (cf.2.5.1).
- \* Female teachers fear to compete against male teachers for promotion (cf.2.5.3).

Aim 2 The findings with regard to aim 2 (cf.1.3.2), that is, external factors underlying under-representation of female teachers in educational management positions in high schools, are:

- \* Psychological and sociological factors exacerbated by institutionalised barriers deter female teachers' advancement into management positions in high schools (cf.3.1).
- \* Female teachers are in token and marginal positions (cf.3.3.2).
- \* Women teachers are not exposed to mentoring and role modelling systems (cf.3.4).
- \* Female teachers are not networking with male teachers (cf.3.5.2).
- \* Sponsoring is gender-related and as a result, female teachers are denied the benefits of sponsoring by traditional male managers (cf.3.6).
- \* Gender discrimination is a major barrier for females who aspire to educational management positions in high schools (cf.3.9).
- \* Preferential hiring of educational managers is the order of the day in the teaching field (cf.2.3).

From these research findings it is clear that affirmative action should be taken to redress the problems faced by female teachers in their quest to acquire educational management positions.

### *5.3.3 Findings with regard to empirical research*

The findings with regard to empirical research (cf.1.3.3), that is, to determine which internal and external factors are underlying under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools, are:

- \* Respondents (87,7%) had not applied for promotion from the positions they occupied at the completion of the questionnaire (cf. Table 4.1 and 2.4.1).
- \* Respondents did not exhibit lower self-image and lack of self-confidence (cf. Table 4.3).
- \* Respondents did not fear success itself but feared the negative response to their success by the community (cf. Table 4.4 and 2.5.1).
- \* Contrary to literature findings, female teachers did not exhibit low aspiration (cf. Table 4.5 and 2.6.1).
- \* Filtering techniques put female teachers at a disadvantage in the hiring and appointment of educational managers (cf. Table 4.7 and 3.2.6).
- \* Respondents were given token status and were marginalised (cf. Table 4.8 and 3.3).
- \* Respondents were not exposed to the benefits of mentoring and a role modelling system (cf.4.6 and 3.4.4).

- \* More than half of the respondents (51.8% ) had matric as their highest academic qualifications (cf. Table 4.11 and 3.8).

## 5.4 Recommendations

### 5.4.1 Recommendations based on the literature study and empirical research findings

#### *Recommendation 1*

Traditional and stereotyped beliefs with regard to female teachers in relation to educational management should be removed.

#### *Motivation:*

Affirmative action should be implemented to redress the problems of disadvantaged female teachers in educational management. Traditional and stereotypic beliefs of the societies that inhibit the upward mobility of female teachers in the educational management hierarchy should be stopped.

#### *Recommendation 2*

Female teachers should be exposed to managerial activities in schools through delegation of duties.

#### *Motivation:*

For female teachers to be considered for promotions in high schools they should be encouraged to acquire experience in management activities. The experience acquired in managerial activities might boost their confidence to apply for promotions.

#### *Recommendation 3*

Preferential hiring of educational managers which has been perpetuated by the traditional male managers should be reduced and finally eliminated.

*Motivation:*

Preferential hiring is generally encouraged by the use of filtering techniques during the process of recruitment, application, selection, and the interview of prospective educational managers. The whole process is dominated by males who might feel threatened by a female teacher who might join their ranks. The inclusion of female teachers in the selection and appointment committees might reduce the effect of filtering techniques through which female teachers have been denied advancement into educational management positions in high schools.

**Recommendation 4**

Educational organisations should use fixed procedures of identifying and selecting educational managers.

*Motivation:*

If appropriate selection and evaluation procedures of identifying and selection of educational managers are developed and are transparent, the question of favouritism and bias might be eliminated.

**Recommendation 5**

In terms of the envisaged affirmative action, female teachers should be encouraged to improve their academic qualifications. They should include educational management in their studies

*Motivation:*

It became clear that the majority of respondents would not be considered for promotion because of low qualifications.

Normally when a post is advertised, the required qualifications are stated. Only candidates with the required qualifications are considered.

#### 5.4.2 *Recommendation for further research*

The following topics might be considered for further research:

- \* The evils of preferential treatment of candidates for educational management.
- \* Affirmative action as a form of reverse discrimination in educational management.
- \* Equality of treatment as a means to equal representation of men and women in the management hierarchy.

#### 5.5 **Summary**

An attempt has been made to summarise all relevant points discussed in the previous chapters. Findings and recommendations emanating from the whole research project have been made. It is hoped that recommendations made might help to reduce the problem of under-representation of female teachers in educational management positions. The suggested topics for further research might contribute to the finding of a solution for problems in educational management.

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Under- representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools

Questionnaire NO  
Card NO

	1	

(1-3)

(4)

Please complete the following questions

1. SECTION A: Biographic background

Make a cross ( x ) on the appropriate block

1.1 Head of department

Yes  
No

1
2

(5)

1.2 Category

A  
B  
C  
D  
E

1
2
3
4
5
6

(6)

Others

1.3 Number of years experience

0-3  
4-6  
7-9  
10-15  
16 and more

1
2
3
4
5

(7)

1.4 Appointment

Temporary  
Permanent

1
2

(8)

1.5 Home language	English	1	(9)
	Tswana	2	
	Afrikaans	3	
	others	4	
1.6 Marital status	Unmarried	1	(10)
	Widowed/Divorced	2	
	Married	3	
1.7 Age	20 - 29	1	(11)
	30 - 39	2	
	40 - 49	3	
	50 +	4	
1.8 Number of Children and age		1	
1.8.1 Pre - school (0 - 5)	None	2	(12)
	One	3	
	Two	4	
	Three or more		
1.8.2 Primary school (6 - 12)	None	1	(13)
	One	2	
	Two	3	
	Three or more	4	

- 1.8.3 Secondary school
- |  |       |   |      |
|--|-------|---|------|
|  | None  | 1 |      |
|  | One   | 2 | (14) |
|  | Two   | 3 |      |
|  | Three | 4 |      |
- 
- 1.9 In your present position, have you ever applied for next promotion post.
- |  |     |   |      |
|--|-----|---|------|
|  | Yes | 1 |      |
|  | No  | 2 | (15) |

**2. SECTION B: Questionnaire**

To what extent the following factors played a role in application for promotion. Indicate by a cross ( x ) on the appropriate number from the given numbers.

1 = none, 2 = slight, 3 = fair and 4 = great

- |  | N<br>O<br>N<br>E | S<br>L<br>I<br>G<br>H<br>T | F<br>A<br>I<br>R | G<br>R<br>E<br>A<br>T |      |
|--|------------------|----------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------|
| 1. A fear to apply for promotion posts                     | 1                | 2                          | 3                | 4                     | (16) |
| 2. A lack of self confidence                               | 1                | 2                          | 3                | 4                     | (17) |
| 3. A lack of positive self - image to be a leader          | 1                | 2                          | 3                | 4                     | (18) |
| 4. A lack of confidence in your career                     | 1                | 2                          | 3                | 4                     | (19) |
| 5. A lack of belief in yourself                            | 1                | 2                          | 3                | 4                     | (20) |
| 6. Persuasion by other people to apply for promotion posts | 1                | 2                          | 3                | 4                     | (21) |
| 7. A fear to be opposed by the community                   | 1                | 2                          | 3                | 4                     | (22) |
| 8. A fear to compete against men                           | 1                | 2                          | 3                | 4                     | (23) |
| 9. A fear to be rejected by a society                      | 1                | 2                          | 3                | 4                     | (24) |

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |      |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|------|
| 10. A fear of aspiration to be a principal                           | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (25) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 11. Achievements by members of your family                           | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (26) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 12. A different ambition from that of being a principal              | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (27) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 13. Failed attempts to secure principalship post                     | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (28) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 14. What you learned at home about leadership                        | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (29) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 15. Your responsibility as homemaker and a leader                    | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (30) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 16. Working harder than your male counterpart                        | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (31) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 17. A traditional view of a career woman                             | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (32) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 18. Recruitment to train as principal                                | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (33) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 19. Criteria of selecting principals                                 | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (34) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 20. The composition of panel of interviewers                         | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (35) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 21. Your presentation at an interview                                | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (36) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 22. Your teaching achievements                                       | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (37) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 23. Your visibility in the teaching field                            | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (38) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 24. The recognition that you demanded                                | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (39) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 25. Your adopted masculine behaviour                                 | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (40) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 26. Your marginalised position                                       | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (41) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 27. A fear of being isolated by other teachers                       | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (42) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 28. Personal development under your mentor                           | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (43) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 29. Your opportunities of seeing other women in management positions | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (44) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |
| 30. An encouragement by your principal                               | <table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (45) |
| 1  | 2   | 3 | 4 |   |   |      |

- 31. Your informal relationship with people in management positions 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (46)
  
- 32. Your formal interaction with your seniors through mentoring programmes 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (47)
  
- 33. Males who served as your mentors 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (48)
  
- 34. Information with regard to vacancies that you received through formal structures 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (49)
  
- 35. Information with regard to principalship post that you received through informal contacts 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (50)
  
- 36. Your role model who encouraged you to aspire for principalship 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (51)
  
- 37. Your spokespersons 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (52)
  
- 38. Your principal as your immediate sponsor 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (53)
  
- 39. Sponsorship that is made on gender 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (54)
  
- 40. Administrative activities delegated to you by your principal 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (55)
  
- 41. Your age 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (56)
  
- 42. Your career breaks 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (57)
  
- 43. Your teaching experience 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (58)
  
- 44. Your marital status 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (59)
  
- 45. Lack of modern appliances & electricity to help with household chores 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (60)
  
- 46. The support from your spouse 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (61)
  
- 47. Your qualifications 

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

 (62)
  
- 48. Others .....  
.....  
..... (63)

Ref. No.: 2006468  
Enquiries: N.A. Monau  
Tel.: (01465) 55602

P.O. Box 1700  
0302 MOGWASE  
29 April 1994

The Circuit Education Officer  
Mankwe Inspection Circuit  
Private Bag X1003  
0302 MOGWASE

Sir/Madam

### **INTERVIEW OF HIGH SCHOOL FEMALE TEACHERS THROUGH A QUESTIONNAIRE**

I hereby request for permission to use female teachers on post level 1 and 2 in high schools for questionnaire in research for M.Ed. degree in education management.

I am a principal of a middle school in Mankwe inspection Circuit.

I have registered with the University of Potchefstroom for Christian Higher Education. My research topic is: *"Under-representation of female teachers in management positions in high schools."*

The research proposal has already been accepted by the university. I am at the moment working on the fourth chapter which has to do with the questionnaire.

I am willing to submit the questionnaire and promise not to apply same to the subjects until I have received your approval.

Thank you in advance.

Yours

N.A. MONAU



REPUBLIEK VAN BOPHUTHATSWANA

KANTORO YA/OFFICE OF THE KANTOOR VAN DIE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

PRIVATE BAG X 2044

MMABATHO

8681

13 JUNE 1994

Nr. Tshup./Ref. No./Verw. Nr.

Botsa Go/Enquiries/Navrae

G.M. MOMPEI

(0140) 29-2363

Nr. Mog./Tel. No.

Mr N.A. Monau  
P.O. Box 1700  
MOGWASE  
0302


Sir

INTERVIEW OF TEACHERS THROUGH QUESTIONAIRE

Your letter dated 05 April 1994 has reference:

Your request for conducting an interview of female teachers for purpose of your research for M.Ed. degree has been accepted. You are therefore allowed to go on with your intention.

The Department wishes you success in your endeavour.

  
.....  
1 SECRETARY FOR EDUCATION

1994-06-13 DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA REPUBLIEK VAN BOPHUTHATSWANA
---

P.O. Box 1700  
0302 MOGWASE  
5 May 1994

Principals of High Schools

Sir/Madam

**INTERVIEW OF FEMALE TEACHER THROUGH A QUESTIONNAIRE**

You are hereby kindly requested to give the enclosed questionnaire to female teachers on post level 1 and 2 to complete.

The numbers that appear in brackets on the questionnaire should be ignored.

The teachers are not expected to give their identity.

Permission to interview teachers in this regard has been granted by the Department of Education.

Thank you.

N.A. MONAU