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TITLE PAGE

**PERCEPTIONS OF MALE TEACHERS ON UNDER-REPRESENTATION OF
FEMALE TEACHERS IN HIGH SCHOOL MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN THE
QUEENSTOWN EDUCATION DISTRICT**

BY

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**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR
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Declaration

I, NYIKANYIKA,KHAYA, student no: 201313441, declare that this dissertation which I hereby submit for the Master's Degree in the Faculty of Education at the University of Fort Hare is my own work and has not been submitted by me at this or any other tertiary institution.

I also declare that as far as I am aware, all sources used in this dissertation have been cited and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to find out the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management position in the Queenstown Education District and to find the barriers that cause this perception to determine the possible solutions for these problems. To carry out this study descriptive method was employed. Participants of the study were 60 male teachers, selected by using stratified random sampling techniques. The data were collected by using questionnaire and interview. Both qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods were employed in order to turn up at the results. The findings of the study revealed that, despite the male teachers perceptions on the under-representation of female school managers in high school management position has been changing, but not as expected still they believe that female teachers are reluctant to accept responsibilities of school management positions. Some of the challenges which could hinder female teachers representation in high school management positions were for instance; pressure of home responsibilities, men dominance of management position, political appointment, unclear promotion procedures or informal recruitment selection and discrimination.

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my wife Nomonde, my angels Lukhanyo, Achumile and Avuyile and the whole family. They gave me love, support and encouragement in my studies during difficulties and happy times.

May this work inspire you to persevere in your quests to excel and empower yourselves with knowledge even when circumstances challenge you.

Lastly this thesis is dedicated to the memory of my late mother Funeka Mandindi who taught me to reach for the stars but keep my feet rooted on the ground.

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Acronyms

CGE	Commission on Gender Equality
CPQ	Cultural Perspective Questionnaire
DoE	Department of Basic Education
ECED	Eastern Cape Education Department
ELRC	Education Labour Relations Council
EMIS	Education Management Information System
EWP	Employee Wellness Programme
GAAP	Gender Affirmative Action policy
GPF	Gender Policy Framework
GTT	Gender Task Team
HS	High Schools
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
ILO	International Labour Organisation
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NEPA	National Education Policy Act
PM	Performance Management
QED	Queenstown Education District
SASA	South African Schools Act
SMT	School Management Team
SGB	School Governing Body
STD	Senior Teachers' Diploma
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WCED	Western Cape Education Department
WAMS	Women as Managers Scales

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.1 Introduction

This study investigated the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions. The researcher believes that there is a need to study the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District because studies by Smith and Cioci (1993), Hudson and Rea (1996), Lee and Shum (1996) and Cheng (1997) conducted on the perceptions and attitudes of teachers towards female school managers, indicate that school managers' leadership is a crucial factor towards school performance.

The under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions has long received significant attention in terms of race, gender and equity throughout the world since the beginning of the twentieth century (Leathwood, 2005). Issues related with women in administration have mostly been continuously debated under controversial headings such as gender and culture (Leathwood, 2005; Blackmore, 2006); tradition and race (Saha, 2010), religion (Allen, 2010), modernization (Blackmore, 2006), globalization, marketization and new managerialism (Chan, 2004) and leadership in schools (Coleman, 2007). Drawing from an historical analysis of female school managers Blount (1999) voiced that the early decades of the twentieth century brought for female school managers a deprivation of an opportunity of being role models.

During the first half of the twentieth century, thousands of female teachers became school managers (Meron, 2003). Some thought that eventually female teachers would take over school management positions just as they had dominated teaching in the previous century. In fact, female teachers made impressive gains in school management until around World War II (Blount, 1999). Studies by Pheko

(2002), Barmao (2013) and by Parsaloi and Steyn (2013) in South Africa indicate that women under-representation is still a source of concern. Taking this information into account, the researcher in this study was interested in seeing perceptions and understanding of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. The researcher believes that there are more male teachers occupying management positions in high school; hence, there is a need to explore male teachers' perceptions on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District to see what they think about this issue.

The City Press (23 August 2013) argues that there is, however, a move amongst the schools to reverse the situation and that during the 2011/2012 financial year 8,5% women compared to 6,2% men were promoted to high school management positions. The findings of the above report reflect the situation in the education sector where women have in the past been excluded from management positions, especially those of running secondary schools and tertiary institutions. There are, for example, only seven high schools which are headed by females out of the forty-three secondary schools in the Queenstown Education District.

Current research in South Africa still reflects that there are many women in teaching although the adage that declares, "Women teach and manage", does not seem to apply in schools (Williams, 2011). Furthermore, Williams (2011) points out that even though women have been increasingly appointed since the 1990s, women are still under-represented in leadership positions. The latter is a point highlighted above. Moorosi (2007) also concurs when she contends that in the schooling system, women form only 30% of school principals although they constitute the majority (more than 70%) of the teaching population. Moorosi (2007) further argues that the reality of women principals' experiences suggests that women fight a constant battle against social and organizational discrimination.

Grant (2005) for example, has found that women in some communities in South Africa have little or no credibility as leaders. Grant posits that women leaders do not always get the necessary support from the communities and usually have to prove their capability as leaders under trying conditions in the patriarchal society. There is

much literature which shows that much mistrust in women leadership is caused by a number of factors and these include tradition and culture (Lumby 2003; Lumby, 2010; Mestry and Schmidt, 2012). Lumby (2003) also contends that communities do not trust women to be appointed as school managers because school management is an important job which demands the seriousness they think only men could provide. Although the majority of teachers are female teachers in most countries (Coleman, 2002), female teachers are still in the minority when it comes to being in positions of school manager. This tends to reinforce the stereotype that male teachers are best suited for school management positions and that male teachers are more logical, ambitious and assertive, and that female teachers are more emotional, sensitive and submissive (Pounder & Coleman, 2002).

1.2 Background to the study

This study sought to investigate perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. The researcher believes that female teachers are seen by male teachers as insufficiently forceful and hence unfit for the position of a school manager. Female teachers who want to occupy management positions are expected to imitate men in order to be successful. In South Africa, women have traditionally been disadvantaged in the workplace, regardless of their race (Mathur-Helm, 2005). Because men have been considered superior to women, they are advantaged with respect to employment opportunities and promotions, which has allowed them to occupy most leadership positions (Mathur-Helm, 2005). Women are often encouraged to pursue more domestic roles, while men are encouraged to move into leadership positions (Seidman, 1993).

Additionally, women who hold jobs are typically under-paid, under-appreciated, and placed in positions that do not fully utilize the skills they have to offer (Seidman, 1993). Currently, South Africa's Government is promoting gender equality aiming to achieve a 50/50 gender split in the labour force (Bathembu, 2010). Many different organizations such as the Commission on Gender Equality and the Gender Advocacy Program, have as their mandate, educating individuals about their human rights. The Commission on Gender Equality has the additional mandate of protecting

women who are experiencing discrimination (Shefer, 2008). Furthermore, the South African Department of Education is committed to training more women for leadership and management positions to promote gender equality (Mogadime, Mentz, Armstrong, & Holtam, 2010). In Africa, preparation and development of female school managers is not as pronounced and systematic as it is in the developed countries. In most cases, it is either lacking or not formal (Bush & Oduro, 2006).

Studies on school managers concentrate on problems facing female school managers in the performance of their duties, as has been indicated by studies done by Oduro and MacBeath (2003). However, there are efforts being made by some countries in coming up with programmes for preparation and development of female school managers. In South Africa for example, Moloi and Bush (2006) argue that apartheid affected both education and social infrastructure but efforts are being made to have effective leadership and management practices of public schools. New professional development initiatives for female school managers and aspiring school managers are now covered in the policy framework for Leadership Education and Management Development in South Africa. As a result, the Department of Education has developed the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) in collaboration with 14 universities, unions and the professionals to train aspirant female school managers and develop those in service already. The aim was to create a pool of trained school managers, so that by 2011, this course would be made a requirement for one being shortlisted for the post of the school manager. To the researcher's knowledge, this course has indeed been made a requirement.

Although the number of female teachers in the paid workforce has increased, many female teachers occupy very marginal positions at school. This has contributed to a large number of females, particularly Black females, in South Africa, living in poverty. The rate of unemployment for Black women is 41.2% in comparison to the 6.9% for White women (Statistics South Africa, 2012). The percentage of Blacks living in poverty was listed at 61.9% compared to the low 1.2% of Whites (Statistics South Africa, 2012). The World Bank (2012) defines poverty as the inability of a person to fulfil his or her basic needs. There is some indication that women in South Africa are beginning to move beyond stereotypes into more leadership positions. In her research examining traditional gender roles in South Africa, Shefer, (2008), interviewed 23 South African women. This researcher found that traditional gender

roles were still pervasive and that men were seen as dominant and women as submissive, especially in Black cultures.

Through gainful employment and increased economic self-sufficiency, these same 23 women noted that they were beginning to receive and be recognized as having an increased level of power in their households. The females reported that they were beginning to protect themselves and their individual rights by employing various legal services (Shefer, 2008). Shefer (2008), also reported that despite the benefits of having an extra income in the household, not all communities felt comfortable with women who were employed. A large number of participants reported that traditional gender roles continued to influence perceptions of females, especially in small rural communities in the villages in Queenstown. Male teachers frequently dominated school management positions in both the workplace and the home, even though female teachers were responsible for a large percentage of school as well as of home work. Although the research (Shefer, 2008) indicated that female teachers were increasingly assuming more school management positions, getting higher paying jobs, and gaining control over their household finances, participants were worried about the effects this would have on men (Shefer, 2008).

Shefer's (2008), participants expressed concern that putting females in control of the household would demoralize males and stated these concerns even though most males continued to hold management positions within the home and the community. Shefer's (2008) findings reflect the concerns of women in management positions across South Africa where attitudes are rooted in traditional cultural beliefs. For example, Glick et al., (2000) compared South African culture to cultures in 18 other countries. In their study, they define two different kinds of sexism; hostile sexism, which refers to men thinking that females are inferior, then benevolent sexism which refers to the belief that females need to be protected since they are the weaker sex, which restricts them in a way that appears to be 'out of affection' (Glick, 2000).

A study by Glick (2000) of 15000 males and females revealed that South Africans scored third highest in both hostile and benevolent sexism. Glick found that female participants also received high scores for hostile and benevolent sexism. Women tended to mirror the attitudes of the dominant group and assumed that they were the weaker gender, tending to reject jobs that did not fit traditional gender roles (Glick,

2000). Shefer (2008) and Glick (2007) concluded that a sexist, stereotypical view of women predominates in South Africa.

Despite the male teachers' domination in high school management positions, especially in the Queenstown Education District, it is not the same case in other two Districts such as Lady Frere and Cofimvaba Education Districts. In these two districts, which are almost 75 kilometres away from the Queenstown Education District, there is a high percentage of high school female managers. These districts are advantaged with respect to employment opportunities and promotions, which has allowed them to occupy most leadership positions. Some of the public schools in the Queenstown Education District do not have permanent school managers to fill the posts as some of the male teachers are acting school managers. The only thing that can curb this problem is when more female teachers could be encouraged to apply to take up the positions of school managers. Thus, special measures would be taken if there was to be an increase to the proportion of female school managers (Akao & Strachan, 2011).

Currently, the South African Government is promoting gender equality and is aiming to achieve a 50/50 gender split in the labour force (Bathembu, 2010). Many different organizations, such as the Commission on Gender Equality and the Gender Advocacy programme have been as their mandate teaching individuals about their human rights. Shefer (2008) says that the Commission on Gender Equality has the additional mandate of protecting women who are experiencing discrimination. This is what prompted the researcher to do this study. The researcher focused on the perceptions of male teachers on under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. Studies on female teachers in high school management positions in South Africa have centred around the experiences of women in leadership, and the fact that the cultural norms are the major barrier which results in the under-representation of women in South Africa (Kilavanwa, & Warsal, 2010; Vali, 2010).

The hurdles facing female teachers aspiring to high school management positions can be formidable; sometimes female teachers abandon efforts to apply for school management positions. Despite the persistent inequalities in these positions, the continuous entry of female teachers has been noted, although they remain under-

represented (Akao & Strachan, 2011). Studies in countries like Australia (Tessens, White & Web, 2011); Greece (Kyriakoussis & Saiti, 2006); California (Wickham, 2007) Uganda (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010) and Zimbabwe (Nani, 2011; Mapolisa & Madziyire, 2012) show an under-representation of women as school managers in high schools. This shows that the problem of women under-representation is widespread, hence, the need for the current study.

Despite the expansion of education, gender disparities in terms of access to school management positions have become pronounced for years in South Africa. Females in general are under-represented in high schools management positions. Although gender inequalities vary somewhat across national, cultural and occupational contexts, the studies by Kellerman and Rhode (2007), Chabaya (2009) and Nani (2011) show that there are common obstacles to women's leadership opportunities. Studies also refer to the fact that women's careers are influenced by gender stereotype, gender differences in family responsibilities and inadequate work structures and public policies (Vali, 2010, Tessens, 2011).

According to the feminist theory, female teachers are viewed as equal partners in any school environment and should be accorded an opportunity to tell their story. Although the researcher is of the opinion that male and female teachers are equal partners, there is generally a gender imbalance; hence, there is a need to investigate the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions. Aikman and Unterhalter (2009) and Rao (2010) say that obstacles causing gender gaps in education are influenced by social, cultural and historical contexts. This is also what encouraged the researcher to look at the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District.

1.3 Statement of the problem

There are few female school managers in high schools in the Queenstown Education District (Eastern Cape Educations Statistics, 2012). The reasons for this under-representation are not known, hence, the present study sought to unearth the reasons leading to this position. Despite female teachers occupying the majority of teaching positions, there are currently not enough female school managers in South

African schools. Males continue to be considered natural leaders while women continue to be re-directed into stereotypically feminine career positions (Littrell & Nkomo, 2005). Strong cultural beliefs create additional barriers women must overcome while attempting to secure and gain acceptance in leadership positions (Lumby & Azaola, 2011). Stereotypes and discrimination have hindered females in their pursuit to become school managers (Lumby & Azaola, 2011). Hence, the present study is significant in trying to find out why women have difficulty in getting top management positions.

1.4 Research questions

1.4.1 Main research question

1.4.1. What are the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of high school female managers?

1.4.2. Sub-research questions

1.4.2.1. How do male teachers perceive the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions?

1.4.2.2. What do high school male teachers perceive to be the challenges associated with having a female school manager?

1.4.2.3. What strategies can be used to prevent the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions?

1.5. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of male teachers on under-representation of high school female managers with the ultimate aim of finding possible strategies that may be applied to improve women's participation in high school management in the Queenstown Education District.

1.5 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to:

- find out the perceptions of male teachers on under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown education District.
- find out how high school male teachers perceive to be the challenges associated with having a school manager.
- find out what strategies would be used to prevent the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions.

1.6 Significance of the study

The results of this study may be useful for the Minister of Basic Education and educational institutions in the development of policies regarding promotions, recruitment and appointment strategies for women aspiring to school management positions in high schools. It may also contribute to the literature on perceptions of South African school managers. Currently, a large percentage of the research conducted on female school managers has been completed in developed countries; hence, the study focusing on developing countries is quite in order.

This study may also assist in identifying stereotypes by outlining the challenges and benefits associated with high school female managers seeing female teachers in management roles, especially when they are receiving the respect of their male teachers. It provides them with an alternate view from their home life as well as cultural beliefs that females can succeed in high school management roles. It is crucial to include young boys and men into helping promote gender equality, as they are often part of the problem (UNICEF, 2004).

Furthermore, it might also assist educational policy-makers to understand some of the causes of under-representation of women in the educational management in high schools. As pointed out by Mofolo (2011), investigating the factors which

contribute to women under-representation is important as under-representation leads to a vicious cycle of poverty, limited educational opportunities for girls, discrimination, abuse, stagnant social order with no promise of change, humiliation and degradation of women. Hence, the findings of this study may promote and advocate integration of women into the school management positions in South Africa in general and Queenstown Education District in particular. This study may also result in more literature on perceptions of male teachers on under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions. This study further contributes to literature on how to empower women for high school management positions.

1.7 Delimitation of the study

This study was conducted in eight high schools only in the Queenstown Education District. The focus was on the perceptions of male teachers on under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District only.

1.8 Definition of terms

- **Perception**

Perceptions refer to the form of judgements about other people, particularly those that concern us (Desmione, 2009). These judgements, according to Cook-Sather (2006) determine how people behave towards each other, that is, how they react and respond to others in thought, feeling and action. In the present study the term was used as defined above.

- **School manager**

The word School Manager refers to the heads of schools whose main responsibilities are the management of physical and personnel resources and the leadership of staff and pupils (Makhololo, 1989). The word School Manager was used in this study to refer to the heads of schools given the task to lead staff and pupils in such a way that good education is provided to the pupils.

- **Conflict**

The word conflict is derived from a Latin word *confligere* which means to strike together (Barash&Webel, 2002). Conflict must be viewed as a disequilibrium, a disturbance and a problem. It is a condition in which a minimum of two parties strive to acquire at the same moment in time an available set of scarce resources. It is also proper to perceive conflict as a form of competition over scarce resources. Conflict can be defined as opposition or antagonism towards other individuals or things (Hodgetts, 1993). Conflict occurs when the needs of individuals in the organization are at odds. In this study, the term was used as defined above.

Manager is often believed to be concerned about how things get done and managers they try to get people to perform better. Bertocci (2009) writes that managers deal with systems, processes, budgets, equipment and things. A manager in a formal organization is responsible for functions such as planning, organizing, controlling, budgeting and staffing problem. In the study, the term was used as defined above.

- **Management**

According to Brown and Ayalew (1991) management is basically marshalling both human and material resources towards common organizational goals. It reflects different functions in an organization, solving other fundamental tasks necessary to run the business. In the study, the term was used as defined above.

- **Members of the school community**

Members of the school community comprise the population that the school serves and those who deliver services to the school (Raubinger, Sumption& Richard, 1974). In this study it refers to all people or groups of people around the school who share almost the same qualities and live in a similar location. These people include School Management Team (SMT), School Governing Body (SGB), the Queenstown Education District, teachers, parents and learners.

- **Under-representation**

Under-representation refers to a lack of equal access between male and female teachers to management positions (Reynolds, 2002). In this study female teachers

are in the majority in the teaching force, but they are in the minority in high school management positions. The term was thus used in this sense.

- **High Schools (HS)**

These are public high schools that provide educational opportunities for under-served groups like the rural poor at a sustainable cost (Miller-Grandvaux & Yoder, 2002). In the context of this study, these are high schools that have been built by the government or by local communities (they are located in the communities) but fall under the government, which supplies teaching and learning materials and staff. The local community continues to be responsible for constructing and maintaining the basic structure of the school through the School Governing Body.

- **Socio-cultural factors**

Socio-cultural factor is the process of learning and acquiring practices and values in a culture through participation in that culture (Hofstede, 2010). In this study, the process involves acquisition of rules, roles, standards and values of the social group. It is an ongoing process in one's life time and occurs through interaction with the environment, parents, teachers, peers and siblings.

- **Gender Equality**

Gender equality in this study signifies a society in which men and women enjoy similar opportunities, outcomes, obligations and rights in every sphere of life. Equality between female and male teachers exists only when both sexes are capable of sharing mutually in the distribution of influence and power; have equal opportunities for school management position; enjoy equal and easy access to education and the prospects to develop own personal goals (Malkin, 2005). In this study, the term was used as defined above.

- **Discrimination**

Discrimination is the practice of letting a person's gender unfairly become a factor when deciding who receives a job, promotion or other employment. Gender discrimination is very serious and should not be taken lightly for it has severe consequences (Bennett-Alexander & Hartman., 2007). Discrimination in this study,

has been used to describe the treatment against or towards female teachers towards attaining school management positions.

1.9 Organisation of the study

Chapter one introduced the study with a brief glimpse into the background, which summed up the motivation for the study. It also indicated the research question, aims and objectives, theoretical framework, ethical considerations, the organization of the study and a brief summary.

Chapter two reviews related literature and involves an in-depth study of current literature on the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions.

Chapter three presents a detailed account of the research methodology and research design which have been used in the study. Specifically, it focuses on the research paradigm, research approach, research design and sample, population sample and sampling. The chapter also looks at the instruments, data collection, data analysis and ethical consideration.

Chapter four present analyses and discusses the collection of data.

Chapter five presents a summary of the study, draws conclusions and makes recommendations.

1.10 Summary

This study focused on the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. Chapter one introduced the problem and its setting, gave the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the objectives and research questions, the significance of the study, the delimitation of the study, the definition of key terms and the organisation of the study. The next chapter critically reviews related literature.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

.The purpose of this chapter is to review literature on the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions. The chapter also gives the theoretical framework in which this study was rooted. The chapter then reviews literature on the under-representation of women at global, regional and local levels. This chapter also presented and discussed empirical studies done in this area. The rationale for focusing on this literature was because it addresses the issue of the perceptions of male teachers in high school management in different contexts, as well as ascertains the participation of females in decision making in different countries. Therefore, the knowledge obtained from this literature sheds light on the study, which is the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. The chapter is organised in relation to the main research questions. It starts by reviewing the under-representation of women in management positions at the global and national levels, including a review of gender differences in management. It also discusses liberal feminist theory and the Gender Organisational Systems (GOS) approach. These theories and this approach complement each other in gaining an understanding of female under-representation in management positions. Finally, the research gap, conceptual framework and synthesis are presented.

2.2 Theoretical framework

This study sought to explore the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the

Queenstown Education District. The researcher in this study reviewed a number of theories based on women's under-representation in leadership in order to fully understand why some men think that leadership is their domain. Rappoport (2014) argues that theory informs practice, which is because theory offers insight into understanding and interpreting behaviour in relation to a particular context. Therefore, theories guide the way of viewing and thinking about the specific problem being studied. Theories are used as analytical tools to understand and explain the issues influencing female under-representation in leadership in the Queenstown Education District in Queenstown. In this case, theories are used as a conceptual frame and guide the study in the setting of the main research questions, instruments, data collection, analysis and interpretations (Priede, 2014). Theories in this study are used to explain and understand the findings. Therefore, this study is informed by liberal feminist theory and an approach to help explain why female teachers are under-represented in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District.

Researchers have used different theoretical approaches in order to study females under-representation in organisational roles associated with power or status (Fagenson, 1990). As Fagenson (1990) pointed out, to explain the lack of females in organisations' top corporate tiers, scholars have employed many theoretical frameworks such as the gender-centred perspective, the organisational structure perspective and the gender-organisation-system perspective. The gender-centred perspective attributes women's behaviour and limited representation in upper-level jobs to internal factors in women, such as their inappropriate traits, cognitions, attitudes and behaviours (Fagenson, 1990). Hall-Taylor (1997) pointed out that to explain the marginalisation of women in senior management, proponents of the gender-centred perception argue that gender influences men's and women's behaviours, attitudes, traits and so on. The image of a good leader in our society is a person who is aggressive, forceful, rational, competitive, decisive, strong, self-confident and independent, while women, according to the gender-centred perspective, have been personified as being comparatively submissive, passive and non-rational in conflict situations (Fagenson, 1990).

Furthermore, organisational structure is another perspective used to explain females' limited corporate progression and their behaviour in organisations. In this paradigm

scholars explain these limitations by emphasising the organisational structure within which women work (Fagenson, 1990). They assume that individuals' positions in organisational opportunity structures and the amount of power they exert in their jobs are the variables that are considered critical in explaining why women have not risen to the top of the management positions as men have. In other words, according to Fagenson (1990) in an organisation there are two types of positions: advantageous and disadvantageous. In advantageous positions managers have occupants' opportunity power, where they can make effective decisions in organisations. These positions are socially associated with males. Disadvantageous positions, on the other hand, provide to their occupants little power or opportunity, and they are socially linked with females. As a result, sex differences in attitudes, behaviours, and cognitions towards women in leadership positions, in this paradigm, are attributed to the differences in numbers and positions, and in the opportunity and power structures between males and females.

The gender-organisation-system perspective is the other theory that is influencing the thoughts of researchers to understand female's under-representation in school management positions. This framework is associated with power or status. According to Yukongdi and Benson (2005) referencing the gender-organisation-system framework, female under-representation and under-utilisation can be attributed to many factors. Females have been located in disadvantaged positions and are socialised to display traits, behaviour and attitudes which are incompatible with management positions. Fagenson (1990) also points out that females' behaviour and limited corporate progression in organisations can be attributed to their gender, the organisational context and the larger social and institutional systems in which they function. This approach adds a new factor to those which have previously been discussed in the gender-centred and the organisation structure paradigms to explain women's behaviour and limited corporate progression in organisations, which is the social and institutional systems in which organisations are situated. Many researchers have conducted studies to test their validity and to examine the reasons behind the under-representation of females in management positions.

2.3 Literature review

The under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions continues to be a matter of concern (Priola, 2007). Globally, women are under-represented in leadership (Stelter, 2002). Research done by the European Commission (2010) reports that today only one out of ten board members of the largest companies listed on the national stock exchange of European Union (EU) Member States is a woman and progress has been slow in recent years.

The disparity is widest at the very top where only 3% of such companies have a woman directing the highest decision-making body. In Asia, women who participate in the labour force comprised about 64% in 2000, but they still occupied only a few managerial positions, which means that they are invisible in leadership positions (Yukongdi & Benson, 2005).

Sector-wise, women are under-represented at the top of the judiciary in Europe, comprising only 31% of all judges in the supreme courts of all European countries, with men comprising the remaining 69% of judges (European Commission, 2010). Literature that focuses on attitudes towards women managers is now extensive and spans many countries including Greece, Turkey Hong Kong, Republic of China, Chile, the USA, Pakistan and the UAE and numerous studies have been conducted (Beutell, 1984; Chow, 1995; Yan Wu, Hwang, & Scherer, 2007; Cordano, Scherer, & Owen, 2002; Guney, Gohar, Akinci, & Akinci, 2006; Mihail, 2006a; Mihail, 2006b; Prime, Jonsen, Carten, & Maznevski, 2008; Sakalli-Ugurlu & Beydogan, 2002). Many of these studies reveal the relationship between gender and culture in attitudes towards women's management.

In Australia, although women are more educated and have more employment opportunities, they constituted only 39% compared with 61% of males in senior executive leadership in 2012, and constituted only 29% of all federal parliamentarians across Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012). In the education sector in Europe in 2006, about 46% of female graduates had obtained PhDs, but only 18% of women were senior researchers in 2006 (European Commission, 2010). Similarly, women who were university vice-chancellors in the UK in 2012 constituted 14.2%, while males constituted 85.8% (Holt, 2012). In

addition, only 20% of women held senior posts in universities in the UK in 2010, while males constituted 80% (Harrison, 2012). The data from higher education statistics in the UK show that there were 3500 (16.7%) female professors in 2010 and 17500 (83.3%) male professors (Harrison, 2012).

Similarly, male senior lecturers and researchers comprised 63.2%, while females comprised only 36.8% in the UK in 2008 (Lipsett, 2008). Coleman (2001) observed that, although women make up about half the number of teachers in secondary schools in New Zealand, Australia, the United States, the UK, Germany, Africa, Central America and India, their ratio in leadership positions does not correspond to the half they constitute. In other countries like Korea for instance, Kim and Kim (2005) reported that only 14% of school heads were women in 2005, despite the fact that the country had many female teachers. In Nepal, Bista and Carney (2004) found that female heads of schools comprised only 3.7% of all the leaders in 2004. In this regard, various empirical studies of female under-representation across a range of contexts outside of Africa have been undertaken.

Generally, there are significant negative attitudes towards women as managers. For example, Mihail's (2006) study used the Women as Managers Scales (WAMS) to investigate the attitudes of 323 undergraduate business students at the University of Macedonia in Greece towards women in management. The results show that gender is the most influential factor in shaping attitudes towards women in management; and male business students compared with female students have more negative stereotypical attitudes towards women as managers. There were no significant differences on other variables such as age, work experience and cooperation with female supervisors.

However, there are some reported positive attitudes towards women as managers. Although women comprise 37% of Hong Kong's total workforce, they only hold 20% of the managerial positions. Chow's (1995) study used the WAMS to investigate the attitudes of 82 middle managers of both sexes in Hong Kong. The study found that there were positive attitudes towards women in the workforce in Hong Kong. The study also found that there was no evidence of gender differences in terms of achievement, ability, performance, or other related skills. Furthermore, respondents believed that an equal opportunity should be given to both males and females and

women had the capability to obtain the essential skills to be successful managers. In order to be in top management positions, it is acceptable for women to compete with men. Women have the self-confidence which is required to be a good leader (Chow, 1995). Bowen, Yan-Wu, Hwang and Scherer (2007) made a comparison between students' and workers' attitudes towards women as managers in the Republic of China. WAMS was used to investigate the attitudes of 502 students from four different universities in Beijing and 385 employees from the People's Bank of China (PBC). WAMS was translated into Chinese using the back-translation procedure. The study found that although university students and workers shared the same culture, tradition, language, and were governed by the same laws, they had different attitudes. The over-arching impact on the global community regarding the issue of gender and management has been investigated intensely by many researchers. For example, Oplatka (2006) researched on females in management positions within developing countries. Smith (2011) used the life history interview of 40 female secondary school teachers to find out what influences women's career decisions. Shapira, Arar and Azaiza (2011) investigated the biographical, social, political and professional aspects of female school managers in the Arab education system. Most of these researchers share the sentiment that females are disproportionately under-represented in the leadership positions in organizations. This under-representation is attributed to some societal cultures that ascribe leadership roles as masculine and organizational cultures that give more advantages to males than females (Bolman & Deal, 2008). It has also been found that females are good managers in the sense that they are more democratic, caring listeners, among other things, good communicators (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Agezo, 2010).

Another study by Neidhart and Carlin (2003) in Australia addressed the pathways, incentives for and barriers to women aspiring to principal-ship in Australian Catholic schools using qualitative and quantitative methodology. They observed that women are seriously under-represented in leadership and are unwilling to apply for posts. Pirouznia (2013) undertook a study on the voices of Ohio women aspiring to principal-ship using interviews and concluded that women are under-represented in leadership because of gender role stereotypes and family responsibilities. Powell (1999) identified the barriers to women in leadership positions (e.g. stereotypes) and also addressed women and men in educational management. Another study by

Bullough (2008) which used questionnaires was based on global factors affecting women's involvement in leadership in the United States. It discovered that women remain under-represented in leadership. These studies concluded in general that, although women are under-represented in decision-making, their numbers are slowly increasing.

However, Grant and Thornton (2013) conducted a survey on women in senior management and reported that the number of women in top leadership positions in businesses increased globally by 3%, from 21% in 2012 to 24% in 2013. This increase is also seen in Parliaments. For instance, the percentage of female parliamentarians globally increased from 13.8% in 2000 to 20.9% in 2013, with the Nordic region leading with an average of 42% in 2013, followed by countries like America with 24.8%, those in Sub-Saharan Africa with 20.2%, and Arab States ranked the lowest, with 13.8% in 2013. The reason for the increasing number of women in parliaments may be due to different affirmative actions, such as the World Conference on Women in 1995, which was aimed purposely at removing gender inequality and increasing the number of women in leadership positions (Norris & Inglehart, 2000). Lastly, despite their lesser presence in administrative and managerial posts, some research shows high levels of satisfaction among employees where women are leaders in organisations (Yáñez & Moreno. 2008). Thus, it is possible to see how the field of management itself could be seen as male-gendered and imbued with the culture of masculine (Acker, 2009).

2.3.1 African perceptions on females in school management positions

A study by Brown and Ralph (1996) reports that most of the literature on women in educational leadership relates to research and observations made in the UK, Western Europe, Australia and the USA. It is noteworthy that the amount of research on women in leadership has increased compared to previous observations by Oplatka and Hertz-Lazarowitz (2006). Research has been conducted on women in leadership in Africa, focusing on issues of gender inequality and barriers to their being promoted to principal positions. The most notable studies from African States include Brown and Ralph's (1996) study in Uganda on barriers to women managers. These authors found that female participation in leadership is hindered by internal and external factors. In addition, Sperandio and Kagoda (2010) conducted a study

on female teachers' aspirations to school leadership by surveying female secondary school heads. They revealed that the majority of female teachers aspired to leadership posts in school but were hindered by a lack of confidence.

Furthermore, Kagoda and Sperandio (2009) did a qualitative study by moving beyond the history and culture of educational leadership and found that Ugandan women are hardworking, strong, cooperative and have leadership skills, and the only challenge is to encourage and support them to look for leadership posts. In South Africa, Mathipa and Tsoka's (2001) study on barriers to women's advancement in leadership discovered that women face challenges not only as individuals but also nationally and internationally. Another study by Moorosi (2007) investigated the challenges facing female principals in South Africa using feminist methodology and concluded that women still face challenges in the organisations in which they work, in the society in which they live and in their families. In Zimbabwe, Chabaya, Rembe and Wadesango (2009) investigated the factors that impede women advancing into leadership positions in primary schools through face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions. They discovered that the majority of the women interviewed were qualified to hold leadership posts but did not apply for them. Moreover, in Kenya, Onsongo (2004) based her study on factors affecting women's participation in university management using feminist theory. This researcher concluded that women are missing from top leadership posts in the university and that there is indirect gender discrimination when it comes to appointments, recruitment and promotion. In Nigeria, Ilo (2010) undertook a study on women's access to senior management positions at the University of Abuja by using qualitative and documentary methods and discovered that, although university culture supports female promotion to leadership, women are still few in number in higher posts. Overall, studies have shown that women generally are under-represented in top leadership positions in Africa. Higher Education Resource Services, South Africa, for instance, (2006) in their survey across ten African countries in 2007 (Kenya, Tanzania, Malawi, Uganda, Nigeria, Ghana, Zambia, Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe), found that even though women constitute over fifty percent of the higher education workforce, only eight percent were Vice-chancellors and twelve percent were registrars; while twenty one percent of women were appointed as Deputy Vice-chancellors and

executive directors (Ogunsanya, 2007). Moreover, Morley (2013) observed that only ten percent of professors in Ghanaian universities were women, while Uganda had twelve percent in 2008. In Kenya, Onsongo (2004) noted that there was no woman Vice-chancellor and only one female Deputy Vice chancellor in 2002.

In a different study in Uganda, in 2006, only twelve percent of women were deputy heads and heads of secondary schools. The situation was worse in private schools in Uganda, where only ten percent of heads of schools were women (Kagoda & Sperandio, 2009). Kagoda and Sperandio (2009) postulated that women were only well represented in lower-paid positions, such as secretaries and attendants. In fact, the under-representation of women in top leadership positions in these countries reflects the general situation in many African countries. Hence, reasons for female under-representation in leadership positions in the education sector have to some extent been documented in Africa. Kariuki (2006) asserts that Africa is largely a male-controlled society and hence, headship is the field of men. Ogunsanya (2007) goes on to say that most women in Africa do not acquire the needed experience to become leaders because of social positioning. She further observes that most women in Africa have been outside the leadership domain for a long time and thus are not equipped for leadership roles. However, some scholars are positive that the adoption of affirmative action by African states, such as the Millennium Development Goals of 2000, will increase the number of women in leadership positions previously dominated by men (Kariuki, 2006). However, these reasons do not necessarily address male perceptions on the under-representation female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District; hence, the present study.

2.3.2 South African perceptions on females in school management positions

In South Africa, women have always been in the second stratum of society, regardless of their race (Mathur-Helm, 2005). To counter this unfair practice, the government enacted the Affirmative Action legislation as part of the national strategy to redress the imbalances of the past. Thus, women concerns came to the fore both within government departments and the corporate sector. Matters like equality, human rights, empowerment and welfare got immense attention. With the help from the Gender Policy Framework (GPF), policies aimed at addressing imbalances of the

past were drafted and signed into laws. Included to this process was the drafting of procedures and practices aimed at ensuring that women are afforded equal opportunities in all sectors of the South African economy (Mathur-Helm, 2005). South Africa places the Bill of Rights at the centre of its democracy and all state institutions are subject to the Constitution and the human rights espoused in it.

The legislation passed by the Department of Education (2011) complies with the constitutional provisions and principles of non-discrimination and equality. The challenge is to take all the legislations and streamline them to get the desired result. Legislation that is relevant to this study and has a direct bearing on gender equality and access to education are the National Education Policy Act (Act No 27 of 1996), the South African Schools Act (Act No 84 OF 1996), and the Education Laws Amendment Act (Act No 50 of 2002). The National Education Policy Act (Act No 27 of 1996) attempts to redress the inequalities of the past in educational provision by promoting gender equality and advancing the status of women. According to Section 4 (c) of the Act, the implementation of the education policy by the Ministry of Education should be directed at achieving equitable education opportunities and the redress of past inequality in education provision, including the promotion of gender equality and the advancement of the status of women.

There is also a plethora of policies to promote women's equality, to mainstream gender to enable women to fulfil their potential and work effectively in South Africa. Though policies are in place, there is still lack of proper implementation of the Employment Equity Act. According to Williams, in Chisholm and Unterhalter (1994), before 1994 the prevailing situation militated against South African female teachers fulfilling their potential as subordinates. One of the most significant events in the post-apartheid era has been the acceptance of a Constitution that is based on democracy, equal citizenship and protection of fundamental human rights and freedom (HSRC, 1996).

The Commission on Gender Equity and Equality was established in 1994 in South Africa. The aim was to investigate all the imbalances of workplace in terms of employment and wages which were caused by the apartheid regime. Findings revealed by the Gender Task Team (1995) showed that there were disparities; in the education sector, in all levels, in terms of women occupation, and unequal salaries

among South Africans. These were corrected, with more women being employed in education and equal wages for all South Africans who are performing the same job, irrespective of gender, race, disabilities and others. Commission for Gender Equality seeks to promote a society free from gender oppression and inequality, but there are still some schools and socio-cultural factors which are Obstacles faced by women leaders as school managers.

The South African Government created an enabling environment to ensure that gender equality is promoted in all spheres of the lives of its citizens. The formation of policies is crystal clear and is enforced but still needs to be tabulated as it has some gaps because measures need to be taken against people who do not adhere to policies.

Furthermore, gender mainstreaming assumes a change of lifestyle and transformation of the society that cannot happen without some government authority. The Department of Education should develop a gender policy so that gender equality can be taken seriously and stop being treated in an ad hoc fashion. It should also formally train its Departmental Officials to advise teachers and parents to be able to incorporate gender in planning and programming. The South African Department of Education has created a clear policy environment that enhances gender equality. It subscribes to all the international education policies promoting gender equity. In addition, the government has promulgated a host of national policies and put in place various intervention strategies to eliminate gender bias. Chisholm (2003) says that researchers are focusing more on curricular constructions of male and female subjectivities and identities. Gender Affirmative Action policy of 1998 was established to correct the imbalances of gender in workplaces. It emphasized that the first preferences should be given to those who were previously disadvantaged, to fill the existing and future management positions. It left a gap because it was not specific in terms of gender but focused in terms of race.

Therefore, it led to more black men filling the management positions but excluding women. In 2004, National Gender Policy was also established as a turnaround plan which was aimed at revising what was limited in the affirmative action in the Education sector. The Directorate on Gender Equity (2006) effected changes with more women being employed in leadership but this has left a gap because the only

changes that were made were in provincial and district offices; the schools were neglected. The policies mentioned above exist in South Africa in blue print only but in terms of practical sense they do not exist. This practice has been limited for a long time.

2.4 Gender theory

2.4.1 Feminist theory

Meehan (1995) stated that the feminist theory is devoted to clarifying the nature of the social and political world and the way in which gender functions to produce male domination and female subordination. Feminism is a theoretical perspective which is used by different organizations when they demand the emancipation of women from oppression by the societal structures of the country. Feminism is not only composed of women who are seen as man-haters, it also is composed of men who demand that their counterparts be freed from all forms of discrimination. Problems faced by women managers who are operating in male-dominated organizations have recently attracted the attention of social scientists from a wide variety of academic disciplines. Feminists want to break the shackles of the patriarchal system.

A patriarchal system can be defined as a situation where men are regarded as the leaders and women as followers. Jeong (2000) has summarized this explanation by mentioning that patriarchy is the cultural concept that determines virtually all human enterprises while illustrating the historical and social dimensions of women's exploitation and oppression. Patriarchy is highly cultural and is totally in clash with the South African Constitution which purports that people are democratically free from all forms of oppression. Patriarchy is derived from the rule of fathers which reveals the prevalence of male domination over women. South African history has been characterised by patterns of domination-White over Black, rich over poor, men over women and human beings over nature (Ackerman & Joyner, 1996). This is what feminism perspective intends to address, the fair representation of women in all sectors of the society. Reynolds (2002) has noted this limitation when he mentioned that women continue to be under-represented globally in educational leadership and other areas of executive management. This form of discrimination prevented women

from competing fairly with their male-counterparts for the resources in the country. In South Africa, black women have suffered discrimination based on their racial and sexual affiliations. A doubly disadvantaged concept was coined to mean that South African women suffer more from both poverty and the racial discrimination.

Sullivan and Thompson (1994) write that a development that has been viewed with some alarm in recent years is what has been labelled the feminization of poverty, referring to the growing number of women among the poor. Indeed the feminization of poverty is a concept which is known by Peck and Dolch (2001) who contend that women are over-represented among the country's poor. The first reason behind the feminization of poverty is that women carry a burden of taking care of themselves, their own children, their parents and their husbands. The second reason behind the feminization of poverty is that the female-headed family is growing among the black population both in South Africa and abroad because black women are less likely to get married at an early age, more likely to get divorced and of those who do get divorced, fewer are inclined to remarry than their white counterparts (Kelso, 1994). Female managers are for a number of complex reasons generally denied access to the levels and kinds of power that are necessary for the successful performance of their roles.

This suggests that there are unnecessary criteria which are put in place for the sole purpose of denying women access to join the management in the organizations. The criteria must be removed so women can compete fairly with males in the occupation of the top-most positions. Liberal feminist theory's perspective maintains that women are stigmatized by certain unfounded labels, such as for example, subordinates, complaint, different from men, desiring pleasant social relations, and afraid of conflict. This myth has not been proved empirically and as such it must be regarded as senseless and baseless. A feminist perspective is intended to steer women to learn to demand the higher positions in the social, economic and political elements of the country. The feminist perspective encourages women to make noise so that they could be heard, acknowledged and attended to. Women need to mobilize themselves into groups and organizations. The exposition above defined that feminist perspective is the theory which is developed in order to show the injustices experienced by women with an aim to address this misfortune.

It is a theory which explains in part the impact which discrimination based on the sexual orientation of people could have upon women. Since this study is about the conflict management styles of women principals in the superior- subordinate relationships in schools, the researcher is of the opinion that the definition of feminism is not enough.

Feminism must be conceptualised in depth and also be related to the educational system. Feminism attacks the violation of human rights. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996, Section 7 (1)) warns that it enshrines the rights of all people in our country and affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom. Feminists are supported in this way, and the researcher is of the opinion that their fight against the discrimination of women shall soon be attained. It was indicated in the previous section that women were discouraged from occupying the top-most positions of the organizations by means of the invalid and unnecessary criteria. This is in violation of their human rights. The White Paper 6 on Human Resource Management in the Public Service as stipulated in the Government Gazette (No. 2011 of 1997, Section 4.7.1) details that selection on merit is fundamental to ensuring that the Public service recruits and promotes people of the highest calibre. People are not measured according to their sexual orientation but rather by the nature of their knowledge and skill-base. The feminist will then attack any job specification which defines people according to their sex.

2.4.2 Liberal Feminist Theory

This study is also informed by the liberal feminism theory which can be traced back to the struggles over job and wage differences between women and men in the USA in the 19th and 20th centuries (Lorber, 2001). The theory questions the damaging and discriminating of women and hence, demands equal opportunities through legal reforms and more women in decision-making (Mannathoko, 1992). The theory aims to involve women in leadership, overcome the glass ceiling to senior leadership positions and demonstrate how much society discriminates against women (Lorber, 2010). Hence, the theory demands equal opportunities for both men and women (Kanter, 1975; Mannathoko, 1992; Lorber, 2010). This theory also maintains that women are oppressed because of their sex (Lorber, 2001; Baehr, 2008). Liberal feminism claims that biological differences should be ignored in order to achieve

gender equality. People should be treated in accordance with their talents and determination, rather than basing on their biological differences (Mascarenhas, 2007). The theory holds that women's mental ability is equal to that of men, and hence they should have the same rights in the political, economic and social sphere (Lorber, 2001).

It points out that the socialisation of women and men supports patriarchy and keeps men in power, which leads to oppression, discrimination and inequality in society (Lorber, 2001). Although liberal feminism originated in the USA, it is also applicable to Africa. According to Mannathoko (1992), it is a misconception to view feminism as a Western ideology which reflects western culture. The researcher argues that feminism applies to African, as women in Africa have been aware of their prevailing oppressive gender relations and have challenged this situation throughout history. Therefore the assumptions of feminist theory are still applicable in South African society even at this very present moment.

The liberal feminist theory fits in this study because it helps to explain the issues that damage women and discriminate against them in terms of their participation in management positions especially in the Queenstown Education District. Studies conducted in different countries show that men dominate leadership positions (Coleman, 2002; Onsongo, 2004; Moorosi, 2007; Mwebi & Lazaridou, 2008) and that there is cultural dominance at school, which has resulted in the exclusion of women from the decision-making arena (Bhalalusesa & Mboya, 2003). The theory is used to analyse gender equality in high school management positions in different phases.

However, the theory fails to address the invisible or hidden gender discrimination emanating from societal values, norms, beliefs, attitudes and stereotypes, and those that are within the women themselves that discriminate against them in terms of their participation in different opportunities. Liberal feminist theory does not challenge patriarchy or any other fundamental structures of society, but rather looks for the removal of barriers that prevent women operating effectively in the public sphere on equal terms with men (Welch, 2001). Therefore, the liberal feminist theory lacks the internal and patriarchy-oriented factors that prevent women from becoming high school managers and thus this study is aimed at exploring the perceptions of male teachers. Despite these weaknesses inherent in liberal feminist theory, its strengths

identified above are important for gaining an understanding of male teachers on the female under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. Sharing this view, Lorber (2001) asserts that women are limited by the organisational glass ceiling, as appointment and promotion systems still produce workplaces where most of the top positions are held by men.

Blackmore (1999) adds that women are under-represented in high school management positions because of the bias against them in recruitment and promotion. Similarly, leadership positions with better pay, command and authority are given to men (Lorber, 2001). Liberal feminist theory therefore is used in this study to explain the influences of gender inequality in terms of females' participation in high school management positions. The theory provides an understanding of gender inequality and insists that all women should have equal opportunities in different aspects, including leadership (Lorber, 2001). Therefore, the theory helps to explain how women are undervalued despite their abilities. A lot of different reasons seem to contribute to this, as women are treated badly or unfairly and are thought to be less able than men. Although liberal feminist theory is strong in addressing gender inequality in society based on sex, Haralambos and Holborn (2000) argue that it fails to recognise the different levels of women's oppression. Therefore, this study opted to fill the gap to explain how male teachers, organisational and societal factors hinder women from participating in high school management positions (Fagenson, 1990). This approach believes that female under-representation in high school management positions is the result of interrelated individual, societal and organisational factors.

2.4.3 Cultural feminism theory

Cultural feminism theory was applied as a theoretical framework in the study. Cultural feminism can be traced back to Jane Addams in the 1890s. It later on emerged in the 1970s becoming a strong voice in the 1980s (Schemerhorn, 2001). Repeatedly, Addams advanced the argument that women were more humanitarian, caring and down to earth than men. By restricting women's freedom to the home, the larger society was corrupt and unjust. Cultural feminism argues that there are fundamental biological and personality differences between men and women and

those women differences should be celebrated as a source of personal strength and pride. Culturalists acknowledge the existence but not the inferiority of the difference and on this platform enunciation equality of quality, not of sameness to men. One such difference is that women raise children while men do not. This makes women connected and intimate beings.

The consequences of a woman's potential for connection makes women value intimacy and develop a capacity for nurturance and an ethic of care for the other with which they are connected, creating interdependence with and in the community (Schemerhorn, 2001). However, in educational management and leadership women have been noted to exhibit characteristics such as empathy, intuition, sensitivity, caring, supporting, compassion, patience, organization, attention to detail and ability to integrate people, to listen to them and to motivate them through non-monetary incentives (Cubillo, 1999; Funk, 2004; Growe and Montgomery, 1999). This is because, according to cultural feminism, women tend to value ideas such as interdependence, co-operation, relationship, community, sharing, joy, trust and peace, while men tend to value ideas such as independence, hierarchy and competition. According to cultural feminism society should facilitate, by its laws and respectful attitudes, the full participation of women in all sectors, while neither denying their distinct nature nor discriminating against them for their differences (Schemerhorn, 2001).

The social-cognitive theory was also used to examine gender and management issues in education. This theory as proposed by Albert Bandura (1996) stresses that behaviour is determined not only by its controlling environmental conditions but also by how thoughts modify the impact of environment on behaviour. In advancing the social cognitive theory in the study of female school managers, it is important to learn how the socialisation process shapes women's choices in entering management positions, and their experiences once they attain these positions. It is important to find out how women's perceptions of themselves and their perception shape their management aspirations. This theory also helps to explain, why, now men through their situation, do not seem to see anything wrong with them dominating leadership positions.

2.5 Empirical Studies

2.5.1 Perceptions of male teachers towards female school managers

The literature that focuses on the perceptions of male teachers towards female managers is now extensive and spans many countries including Greece, Turkey, Hong Kong, Republic of China, Chile, the USA, Pakistan, and the UAE and numerous studies have been conducted (Beutell, 1984; Chow, 1995; Yan Wu, Hwang, & Scherer, 2007; Cordano, Scherer, & Owen, 2002; Guney, Gohar, Akinci, & Akinci, 2006; Mihail, 2006a; Mihail, 2006b; Prime, Jonsen, Carten, & Maznevski, 2008; Sakalli-Ugurlu & Beydogan, 2002). Many of these studies reveal the relationship between gender and culture perceptions towards female leadership. Hence, there are significant negative perceptions towards women as managers. For example, Mihail's (2006) study used the Women as Managers Scales (WAMS) to investigate the attitudes of 323 undergraduate business students at the University of Macedonia in Greece towards women in management. The results show that gender is the most influential factor in shaping attitudes towards women in management; and male business students compared with female students have more negative stereotypical attitudes towards women as managers. There are no significant differences on other variables such as age, work experience and cooperation with female managers.

Comparative studies serve to examine the influence of many variables in perceptions towards women's work as managers in order to explore the impact of these perceptions and the strength of their effects. There is no doubt that the knowledge of the extent of this influence will assist the ability to change these perceptions and reformulate them in the community. Therefore, studying perceptions towards women as managers in different countries, which differ in language and culture, has been also addressed (Cordano, Scherer, & Owen, 2002; Guney, Gohar, Akinci, & Akinci, 2006). To learn more about the impact of differences between cultures on perceptions towards women as managers, Cordano, Scherer and Owen (2002) conducted a study in Chile and the USA, countries which use different languages (Spanish and English, respectively). Across both cultures, the study employed the WAMS to examine two different coherent measures acceptance and ability of women as managers. Participants in this study were 412 undergraduate business

administration students. One hundred ninety-four were selected from a large Midwestern university in the USA, while 218 were from a large university in the eight regions of Chile. The results of this study were that men regarded women as good managers.

Similarly, Prime, Jonsen, Carten and Maznevski (2008) examined the perceptions of 1165 managers (340 female and 747 male) from four Western European cultural groups about women's and men's leadership. These four cultural groups are Latin (which includes France, Italy, and Spain), Germanic (which includes Germany and the Netherlands), Anglo (which includes the United Kingdom and the United States), and finally Nordic (which includes Denmark, Norway and Sweden). The authors used the Cultural Perspective Questionnaire (CPQ) to examine managers' perceptions of male leaders, and the environment sub-scale to measure whether social behaviour is attributable to the internal characteristic of individuals or the social environment. The results show that stereotyping of women's leadership is widespread among managers and perceptions more often vary by the gender of respondents than by their culture. Across cultures, female respondents believed that women leaders were more effective than men in seven areas: consulting, providing intellectual stimulation, monitoring, planning, problem-solving, rewarding and role-modelling.

They were also in agreement about men's superior performance at networking and influencing upward. In contrast, male respondents showed more balance in their attributions of superior and inferior performance. They believed that women's performance is superior to men's in three areas of leader behaviour: consulting, monitoring, and rewarding while they attributed higher effectiveness to men leaders for four behaviours: influencing upward, problem-solving, providing intellectual stimulation and role-modelling. Perceptions of male teachers towards female school managers have not only been studied among employees and students, but they have also been explored among predominantly senior staff. Liff, Worrall and Cooper (1997) used data derived from the Price Waterhouse West Midlands Business Survey, which had been designed to elicit opinions at the senior management level (chairperson, chief executive, managing director, proprietor) of companies, to examine the attitudes of senior, predominantly male staff towards women managers

in the West Midlands region of the UK. The research sample was 100 male respondents from the West Midlands and another 100 male respondents from the Institute of Management. The results show that male samples share a broad consensus that women managers can bring positive skills to the workplace, although women participants were more assertive than men in this trend.

Furthermore, the results illustrate that the vast majority of males in both samples think it is acceptable for women to combine a management career and motherhood. Male participants also agreed that women should not combine the two activities (work as managers and motherhood). Men also believed that the period of maternity with women could influence the opportunities for women to seek managerial positions. The vast majority of the sample believed that females should receive equal treatment irrespective of family responsibilities. The majority of respondents thought that it is not difficult to work with female managers. Liff, Worrall and Cooper (1997) extended their data analysis to explore the characteristics of men who had negative perceptions towards women managers. This analysis showed that there is a correlation between an increase in age and negative views. Thirteen per cent of those over 50 years were in the negative core group, while only 5 per cent of those aged between 30 and 39 years old were in the negative core group, and respondents who were under 30 years old made up only a small part of negative core group.

However, the results also show a strong relationship between negative perceptions towards women managers and no or low-level qualifications. That is, members who had low qualifications tended to present more negative perceptions than members who had high qualifications such as postgraduates and professionals. Regarding the respondents' role within the organisation, chairmen made a high percentage of negative perceptions while sales and marketing directors made the lowest per cent all of negative perceptions. Finally, by industrial sector, members who worked in construction sectors showed more negative perceptions than those who work in manufacturing, retail and distribution, while the lowest score was recorded for the services sector (Cooper, Liff & Worrall, 1997).

Research has also investigated the changes in perceptions of women managers over time. Deal and Stevenson's (1998) study uses the Schein Descriptive Index

(SDI) to see if perceptions had changed since 1990. To examine the differences of male and female perceptions of male and female managers and managers in general, 702 male and female psychology students were chosen from a large Midwestern university, 86% of whom were reported as having work experience in subordinate positions.

The authors focused on the effect of sex of the participant on perceptions of different targets, and how male and female subjects viewed female managers, male managers, and prototypical (non-sex-specified) managers. The results showed that male subjects are more likely to have negative views of female managers than female subjects. The results also indicate that male subjects continue to have negative perceptions of female managers whereas female subjects do not view female managers negatively. Both male and female subjects agree on perceptions of male managers, which show little concern that male managers are potentially disadvantaged by the increase of women in the workplace. Male subjects are less likely to describe female managers as ambitious, authoritative, competent, direct, firm, intelligent, objective and sophisticated than female subjects, and they tend to describe female managers as bitter, likely to dawdle and procrastinate, deceitful, easily influenced, frivolous, hasty, nervous, passive, shy, and vulgar (Deal & Stevenson, 1998).

Grant (1988) argues that there are six important areas where women's values can influence organisations, for example: communication and cooperation, affiliation and attachment, power, physicality, emotionality, vulnerability and lack of self-confidence. First, in terms of communication competences, Grant (1988) believes that women have good communication abilities because they have had a lot of practice from an early age. Instead of getting involved in a confrontation, women can often find a means of conciliation with others, and women's communication networks in most societies have served as the foundation for social interaction. Women in their conversations tend to take turns in the group, whereas in the men groups there is competition and the winner is the one who will speak.

According to Grant (1988) in terms of consultation and democratic decision-making processes, the type of cooperative behaviour style is important to lead to higher morale and greater commitment from people in an organisation. Secondly, when

women are compared with focusing on productivity, competition, egocentricity, and success, dependent characteristics and greater ease with the relational world as it links with women, in general, women managers can help make organisations place in which affiliation, friendship, connection, and personhood are experienced in a more integrated manner.

Thirdly, women managers usually use power in organisations as an interdependent relationship and are more likely to acknowledge women's own interdependence. They also tend to use their power with giving and caring or with nurturance and strength, while men use it with aggression and assertion.

Finally, although women usually express their vulnerability, their lack of confidence, and their emotions, which are considered weaknesses, women can work productively with this feeling, and that puts them in a strong position. These situations enable women in organisations to rebuild new strengths on a sturdier basis and they can follow the models presented in management. This expression of emotionality, vulnerability and helplessness also provides a humanising dimension, which can develop the quality of life in organisations (Grant, 1988).

2.5.2 School environmental factors

Many employed females carry a double burden of responsibility; the consequent stress, fatigue and time pressure may well limit their capacity to take the steps necessary to move out of female-dominated occupations. However, research indicates that both females and males benefit when they take on a balance of occupational and family responsibilities.

A small but growing minority of two-career couples are dividing family tasks more equitably and trying to place equal priority on the careers of both partners. Under pressure from such people, some employers are beginning to make structural changes that acknowledge and allow for the family responsibilities of their employees (Giddens, 2001). Over the years studies have been showing that the society in general, expected effective school manager to be male. Graves & Powell (2003) cite Schein (2001) who hypothesized that because a huge number of managers have been males, the managerial position would be regarded as requiring attributes thought to be more characteristic of male than female teachers. Schein

(1985) observed that both male and female middle managers believed that a successful middle manager possessed traits of men rather than of women. Whilst many will argue that the status of women in the workplace is gradually changing, it is doing so at a sluggish pace: sometimes even women have internalised that they are not ready for management positions.

A study by Msila (2010) asked 70 male teachers and 70 female teachers whether they would take up high school management positions if they were offered. Fifty-three male teachers felt they would while only 29 females out of the 70 maintained that they would. This might have nothing to do with the female teachers' ability to be managers, but more to do with the way society views them. A study by Kanjere (2010) traces women's oppression from apartheid years in South Africa. This researcher argues that women experienced double oppression as they were oppressed by the apartheid policies and by their communities. According to this study it was then difficult for female teachers to be school managers. There was discrimination and prejudice with respect to the female teacher's ability to lead and to manage (Kanjere, 2010). Carrim (2006) also points out that management positions in high schools and the educational bureaucracy were in the hands of men. Generally, men still occupy high positions in the education system. The glass ceiling has also not changed much in other African countries.

Lumby (2010) in his study revealed that despite the compelling reasons for the equal representation of women in leadership the progress is very slow. The experience of leadership for the few women who assume leadership positions is full of challenges. In formal organisations female managers are expected to lead in a more interpersonal and less task-based and more democratic ways than men, by managing through consultative and mentoring approach (Martin 2004; Newby, 2005). Another study done by Greyvenstein (1990) found out that one of the reasons for this state of affairs was that many promotion positions were exclusively advertised for men. This sexism necessarily prevented the best candidates from being appointed as school leaders, which in turn impacted negatively on educational leadership in general. For example, the male principal who is incapable of managing the institution effectively, will be kept there as the principal for life whereas there is no progress in the school under his management style.

Women are there to teach the learners and men are there to run or manage the schools. The term teacher is associated with a woman and the term principal with a man (Greyvenstein, 2000). From the researcher point of view this is the traditional assumption that made men to be privileged in holding the position of a school manager undermining female teachers in school management position. If females are given the opportunity to be school managers they can manage the school effectively. Since men have traditionally dominated school management positions in all spheres it follows that research has been male-gendered (Enomoto, 2000). In this way organization research and theory became male-biased oriented to male ways of knowing. Acker (1989) further noted that the early work on teachers' careers either ignored gender differences or explained them in terms of women's deficiencies. Thus, it is possible to see how the field of management itself could be seen as male gendered and imbued with the culture of masculine (Acker, 1989).

Female school managers are subjected to a greater number of work-related problems and pressure compared to male school managers (Coopers & Davidson, 1980). The specific problems and pressure that have been isolated as being unique to female school managers include institutional structure and climax, sex segregation and discrimination in hiring leadership mentors and support unequal opportunity of education training and promotion (Coopers & Davidson, 1992). Lastly, an efficient educational manager has to stay updated with the changes in the field that is taking place in the education sector.

2.5.3 Female managers' under-representation in management positions

Female representation in management positions has been a subject of many studies (Deal & Stevenson, 1998; Huffman, 1999; Olsson & Walker, 2003; Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). Despite governments having passed positive legislation for the advancement of females to management positions around the globe, female teachers are still under-represented in management positions (Deal & Stevenson 1998; Huffman 1999; Olsson & Walker, 2003; Sartore & Cunningham 2007). For example, Crampton and Mishra (1999) pointed out that, in the United States, females filled only 15 percent of all managerial positions in 1970. This figure rose to more than 40 percent by 1989, and up to about 63 percent of the total work force.

However, only six percent females were classified as middle level managers represented. In 1999 only three of every one hundred management positions were held by females in the largest U.S. companies, which was similar to the number of the previous decade (Crampton & Mishra, 1999).

Australia and New Zealand are further examples of the under-representation of females in management positions. Hence, Still (2006) found out that very few women are attaining executive management or board positions in Australia's top 200 companies, which represent 90 per cent of the nation's market capitalisation. In 2004, they held only 10.2 percent of executive managerial positions, 8.6 percent of board directorships, and only four females held a chief executive officer position in the top 200 companies. From 708,600 governmental management positions, females held only 26 per cent of them compared with 74 per cent for men. In New Zealand, according to Olsson and Walker (2003), although females make up 47 percent of the working population, only 6.5 percent of them are in management positions compared with males, who comprise 15 percent in the top 500 of companies. Furthermore, in the New Zealand public sector, while females comprise 56 per cent of the labour force, only 7 per cent are in the management group (compared with 13 per cent of males), and they represent only one-third of the senior managers.

In Great Britain, according to McDonald (2004) females represent only 33 percent of managerial positions, while they constitute 45 percent of the workforce. They make up only 26 percent of department heads, 16 percent of function heads, and only 10 percent of directors. Further examination of managerial occupations shows that females are employed as managers in the private sector less often than in the public sector, there is a large gender pay gap in management positions (30 percent in favour of men), and females managers are less likely to be married and have dependent children than male managers (McDonald, 2004). Similarly, Asian economies are another example of under-representation of female managers. The rates of participation of females in the labour force are ranked among the world's highest. For example, in 2000 they represented around 64 percent of labour force in Yukongdi & Benson, 2005).

However, they still exist in low numbers in managerial positions, which renders them almost invisible in management positions (Adler, 1993; Benson & Yukongdi, 2005).

In the Middle East, although there are significant achievements in advancing females in management positions and political roles, there are still institutional and cultural obstacles in females' path in business systems (Metcalf, 2008). Metcalf (2008) argues that in the Arab region, female's current labour participation rate has seen a tremendous increase of 47 per cent between 1960 and 2000. In the last few years the development of women in the political arena has been significant. Females in ministerial positions in the sultanate of Oman, for example, currently number more than those in the UK and USA (Metcalf, 2008). Literature has also suggested different explanations for the under-representation of females in management positions. According to Claes (1999), under-representation of females in management positions is because of a lack of confidence and aspirations, and the additional pressures. Females in management positions are often faced with pressure and responsibilities from both work and home and also the social environment and are not experienced by male managers.

The way females act and react in organisations has been put forward as another reason for the relative absence of females in management positions. Females according to the study by Claes (1999) often do not tend to behave in an authoritarian way, and they do not use imperatives; therefore, tasks become requests. To avoid conflicts in organisations, females behave in an unaggressive way and they frequently say sorry because they always feel responsible. Females also tend to be available and their door is always open, and they value the relationship emanating therefrom. Finally, females want to be nice; as a result, they attribute their success to others, seek approval, fear abuse of power, smile, and are indirect and hesitant (Claes, 1999).

Huffman (1999) studied the organisational-level factors which facilitate or hinder the inclusion of women in management positions by examining 552 service sectors and manufacturing work establishments in the United States.

The author argues that macro level organisational variables impinge on personnel decisions about the staffing of managerial positions, thereby influencing women's representation in such jobs. The results show that firstly, factors such as the percentage of females who are not in the management positions and the institutional environment have a strongest effect on female representation in management. Secondly, the organisational age has a strong curvilinear effect. Thirdly, firm size and the presence of formalised human resource policies markedly differ by industrial sector. Finally, the results show that source policies do not have any influence on promoting equal opportunities in the workforce.

Although Huffman's (199) study shows the factors affecting the representation of females in management positions, it did not provide reasons or explanations how these effects could influence the females' representation in management positions. The females' abilities are other reasons for the under-representation of females in management positions. The under-representation of females in New Zealand has been attributed to their lack of training and experience in line management, to their family responsibilities, and a lack of the traits of leadership (Olsson & Walker, 2003). Therefore, they do not choose to be in management positions and they choose to be invisible when they are in management positions. Lawn-Day and Ballard (1996) added that it is possible to categorise the barriers that stand in the way of representation of females into three groups.

These groups are the lack of qualities required to advancement, organisational obstacles preventing the advancement of females, and societal factors disrupting the upward mobility of females. The educational level of females is another factor of under-representation. Although the number of female graduates has increased steadily their low educational qualification is still continuing (Gale & Cartwright, 1995; Lawn-Day & Ballard, 1996). According to Lawn-Day and Ballard (1996), most studies concerning the qualifications of females usually show their limited knowledge base or negative perception of their sense of professional commitment. Gale and Cartwright (1995) also pointed out that under-representation of females in the management positions has been attributed to a lack of education, skills and training; bias and discrimination.

Cultural and religious traditions are other explanations for females' under-representation and under-utilisation in management. Adler (1993) argues that because all Asian cultures are collective and familial, it is expected that females will give their utmost attention to their home and children. Religions such as Confucianism, which influenced Chinese and Japanese culture, socialise females to be shy, unassertive, and obedient to men. The Japanese have not perceived females as authority figures nor as decision makers (Adler, 1993). When females become managers in China, Chinese men tend to use the following folk saying to describe the situation a donkey taking the place of a horse, which can only lead to trouble (Croll, 1977).

Ross (2008) argues that females in the Middle East have made less progress towards gender equality than in any other region. The under-representation of females in the workforce and government has been attributed to the oil, gender work structure, and gender cultural practice (Metcalf, 2008; Ross, 2008). Ross (2008) asserts that oil production in the Middle East leads to reduced numbers of females in the labour force. Oil leads to social and political consequences. Socially, oil has led to higher fertility rates, less education for females, and less female influence within their families. The dependence of the oil sector on male workers is due to physical capacity needed by this sector, and the long periods spent working, are not commensurate with the nature of women. This situation led to many political consequences.

2.6 Socio-cultural factors

The current under-representation of females in top school management positions is reflected in several research studies conducted on females in educational leadership (Shakeshaft, 1989, Gupton & Slick 1996). The studies indicate that there are many factors which constrain females' ability to participate on an equal footing with men and to take up positions of school management positions. The problems that females face in school management positions are many and interlocking. These barriers are either internally or externally imposed (Shakeshaft et al. 2007). Some of the major barriers are social-cultural, institutional factors, lack of equal opportunities of education and training in the past.

Negative attitude towards female school managers by male teachers from informal networks is another barrier to female participation in management positions. Males see females as inferior to them. They do not think that females have equal ability to manage the institution. Patriarchal thinking ensures the decision-making power of males which in turn gives them greater opportunities for power and status over females.

Studies conducted by Dipboye cited in Abebayehu (1995); Shakeshaft (2007) and Ondigi (2011) indicate socio-cultural factors on the perceptions of male teachers on the under-presentation of female teachers in high school management positions. These perceptions include gender socialization, societal attitudes and perceptions, females' self-concept to school management positions and family influences. The attitude of individuals and the society towards females' ability in holding responsible leadership positions could influence the participation of women significantly. With regard to this, Hoare and Gell (2009) argued that mistrust of females' ability to lead and the stereotypes and prejudices about their role in society and their lack of suitability for school management roles and decision-making are also challenges for females. These challenges are usually aggravated by cultural factors. In light of this, Brandrett (2003) argues that management is a much gendered concept which is dominated by males. In a wide variety of cultures management continues to be identified with males. According to Rosen (1989) women are perceived as inadequate, incompetent and inefficient regarding a manager's activities by society.

2.6.1 School management factors affecting femaleschool managers

Studies conducted by Hoare and Gell (2009) pointed out that institutional gender bias represents a challenge to all females seeking equal participation and competing for management positions. Thus, it is imperative to ask whether educational institutions provide more opportunities for males than for females. Competent, committed, talented and qualified females look up through the glass-ceiling and can see what they are capable of achieving, but invisible barriers prevent them from breaking through. This is institutional resistance to females that presents in all areas of the work world, which is a reflection of social and economic gender inequality. Schools are social organizations which fulfil their organizational goals by assigning and delegating their employees.

However, their assignments are sex-segregated (Cubillo and Brown, 2003). Research findings indicate that female leaders are subjected to a greater number of work-related problems and pressures compared to male leaders (Coopers and Davidson, 1980). The specific problems and pressures that have been isolated as being unique to female managers include institutional structure and climate, sex segregation and discrimination in hiring, lack of management mentors and support system; unequal opportunity of education training and promotion (Coopers and Davidson, 1982).

2.7 Psychological /Personal factors

Psychological factors are related to how female school managers perceive themselves. Coetzer (2004) believes that all management behaviours start from within the individual's deepest self. The way the person behaves is influenced by the way that person views himself or herself. The manner in which female school managers view themselves is of paramount importance. Their self-perception determines their professional destiny.

The Department of Basic Education (Republic of South Africa, 2004) points out that the female school managers may be their own worst enemy. The feeling of inferiority makes female managers let everyone walk over them instead of taking charge. When a female does not approve herself, she must not expect others to value her. Low self-esteem affects one's performance at work. Coetzer (2004) states that if managers cannot live with themselves, they will not be able to get along with others as well. It is of paramount importance for a manager to first accept himself or herself.

Another study by Shakeshaft (1989) refers to internal or psychological barriers as those that can be overcome by individual change whereas external barriers require social and institutional change. Some of the internal barriers ascribed to women include the following: lack of confidence, motivation, aspirations, deficiencies in credentials and experience; and socialization and gender stereotyping. According to Weeks (1989), stereotypical beliefs such as women's inability to be competitive, inability to be decisive and inability to be emotionally stable continue to plague female school managers. Females are generally seen as being unable to control

their tempers, thus throwing temper tantrums. In a highly charged emotional situation, females are unable to manage the situation (Weeks, 1989).

They are also seen to be having attitudes, such as bearing grudges and not forgiving and forgetting when hurt. Literature has generally indicated that low self-esteem that leads to lack of confidence by female school managers in South Africa poses a challenge as they manage high schools. There is no available literature on the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. The researcher in this study attempted to unearth these perceptions from male teachers.

2.8 Summary

This chapter reviewed literature on the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions. The chapter presented the theoretical framework, examined literature on female under-representation at a global regional and local levels. The chapter also discussed empirical studies.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodological aspects of the study. Specifically, it discusses the research paradigm, research approach, research design, population and sample and sampling. The chapter also discusses research instruments and their validity and reliability/credibility and trustworthiness, data collection and data analysis as well as ethical norms.

3.2 Research paradigm

A paradigm is defined in relation to how research could be affected and guided by a certain pattern. Weaver and Olson (2006) state that paradigms are patterns of beliefs and practices that regulate inquiry within a discipline by providing lenses, frames and processes through which the investigation is accomplished. Therefore, to structure the investigation and state what methodology to adopt, an exploration of the paradigm adopted for this study is done.

This study used the interpretive paradigm because it is aimed at grasping the diversity of the participants' experiences, perceptions and meaning of the phenomenon under study. Thus, it is the objective of the researcher to develop subjective meaning out of the complexity of views from participants. Denzin and Lincoln (2003) see interpretive paradigms as involving researchers asking questions and creating interpretation from the data collected. A paradigm is a world view, a whole framework of beliefs, values and methods within which research takes place (Joubish, Khurram, Ahmen, Fatima & Haider 2011). Creswell (2009) explains that some researchers call it a world-view as it explains how researchers see their perspectives of the world and the nature of the research, while others perceive it as a set of beliefs that researchers hold about the world and how it should be

understood and studied (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). A simple definition is that it is a basic set of beliefs that guides action (Guba, 1990; Creswell, 2009).

A paradigm describes how a researcher understands the world; in viewing the world, their understanding of how it is and what they perceive as the purpose of understanding (Cohen, et al., 2009). The beliefs a researcher holds frame and guide him/her to embrace certain approaches and methodologies for their research. A paradigm gives the researcher the chance to understand and describe an event from the point of view of the participants (Patton, 2003). Gubrium and Holstein (2000) identify the interpretive paradigm as a qualitative research paradigm in which research takes as its point of departure the insider's perceptions of an issue. This paradigm was therefore relevant and appropriate since the current study aims to investigate the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions. The interpretive paradigm was thus relevant to the present study because the researcher was able to get an understanding of the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. This paradigm seeks to unravel the taken-for granted beliefs about women's under-representation in high school positions.

3.3 Research approach

The way people view and understand the world depends on what they use to observe the world. A study by Anderson and Arsenault (1998) state that how we see the world is largely a function of where you view it from, what you look at, what lens you use to help you see, what tools you use to clarify your image, what you reflect on and how you report your world to others.

The initial step in the research design involved feminist research as the research paradigm that would be most suitable for this study.

3.3.1 Feminist research

Feminist research is not only concerned with observing social reality but also with changing women's lives Westmarland (2001). Moreover, Maynard and Purvis (1994) argue that one of the driving forces of feminism was to challenge the passivity, subordination and silencing of females. This can be achieved by encouraging females to speak out about their own condition so as to confront the experts and dominant males with the limitations of their own knowledge and comprehension. One reason for using the feminist research methodology is to provide an explanation of the under-representation of women in leadership positions in the Sultanate of Oman by examining the attitudes towards and perceptions of women managers and their communication competencies. According to Kolmar and Bartkowski (2000) feminist theories try to examine and explain the reasons for and conditions of the domination of men and why men are more powerful, predictable, and active, and have been associated with greater value and higher status than women. Kolmar and Bartkowski (2000) also state that feminist theory is a body of writing that attempts to describe, explain and analyse the conditions of women's lives. Feminist research aims to end women's unequal social position through correcting both the invisibility and the distortion of female experience, and those who contribute to this field within a positivist paradigm see their work as creating standards to help to reduce sex-based inequality (Lather, 1988) and the domination of men.

Thus, the empirical work of feminists is multi-paradigmatic. According to Campbell and Wasco (2000) feminist approaches have been created and formed by different political ideologies that are liberal, radical, socialist feminism and womanism. Liberal feminism emphasises advocating equal access to resources in the society by building connections among women. This movement, which influenced many of the key issues that arose in the 1970s, focused on the equality between the sexes, equal pay for equal work, and equal employment opportunities. Socialist feminism was developed based on the belief that multiple forms of oppression have been caused by the problems of the economy and structure of society. This ideology gives more attention to classism rather than focus on racism and sexism. It focuses on the inequalities created by capitalism, while other forms of feminism locate men's privilege and power over women as centrally problematic. Therefore, it aims to build

combinations with other humanist groups which have the same critique of the capitalist system. The third ideology is radical feminism.

This ideology gives attention to gender oppression and calls for restructured social institutions. Radical feminists believe that the systematic marginalisation of women is the fundamental form of inequality, although it acknowledges that classism and racism intersect with sexism.

Historically, the oppression of women appeared before the social constructions of classism and racism, and inequalities towards women are widely spread across cultural and economic structures. This radical feminism ideology recognises sexism as the fundamental problem, while socialist feminists believe that capitalism is the primary source of oppression. Womanism is the last feminist ideology. It has been created by black feminists to examine the intersections of race, gender, and class oppression. The main difference between womanism and other ideologies is that it gives more attention to experiences among women of different classes and ethnic groups (Campbell & Wasco, 2000).

At an epistemological level, different feminist perspectives (liberal, radical, socialist, and womanism) have reflected a reinterpretation of epistemological models (positivism, realism, critical theory and constructivism). Women's lived experiences have been legitimated as sources of knowledge in the feminist social science. To inform our understanding of the social world, and because they are worthy of critical reflections, feminist research focuses on both the ordinary and extraordinary events of women's lives. These examinations of women's experiences must reflect an ethic of respect, collaboration and caring as the process of feminist research methodology (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). Cancian (1992) reviews five elements of feminist methodology.

The first element is gender and inequality. This methodology assumes that women are subjected to widespread oppression by men and by patriarchal social patterns. This oppression can be changed as it is not natural or inevitable. To decrease this inequality and oppression, these theoretical assumptions involve strong political and moral commitments. The second element of feminist methodology is Experience. Within this element, many feminist projects focus on the personal, everyday experiences of women, especially women on the margins, and men. In addition,

feminist standpoint is a unique philosophy of knowledge which challenges people to see and understand the world using the eyes and experiences of oppressed women, and provide the vision and knowledge of oppressed women to social activism and social changes. Feminist stand epistemology requires placing women at the centre of the research process in order to understand what life is like for women today (Brooks, 2007).

To understand the broader context of people's actions and to explore feelings and activities of those who have been ignored and devalued in traditional research, element accentuates giving voice to people's experience using a qualitative technique to support inequality just like quantitative data. The third element of feminist methodology is action. This element takes different forms such as policy recommendations which focus on politicians and social movement activists, and efforts to produce some social changes such as establishing a better women's shelter, including consciousness-raising groups for participants (Cancian, 1992). Critique of research is another element of feminist methodology. This element has been influenced by postmodernism and it focuses on critiquing conventional categories as a result of legitimate relations of domination. This also attempts to clarify the perspective of the middle-class which has been falsely universalised and privileges about women in general.

Participatory methods, which emphasise the relationship between researchers and researched, therefore, it recommends to use of two-way, interactive interviews instead of using the traditional method where all questions are asked by an interviewer (Cancian, 1992). This emphasis in using qualitative research leads to a debate about which research method can fit feminist values of challenging inequality and empowering women. According to Westmariand (2001) there is a debate between quantitative and qualitative research methods and their relevance to feminist research. Quantitative methods have generally been linked with words such as positivism, scientific, objectivity, statistics and masculinity. Qualitative methods, on the other hand, have traditionally been linked with interpretivism, non-scientific, subjectivity, and femininity. The quantitative approach, because of these linkages, has been criticised by some feminist researchers. They argue that because qualitative methods provide subjective knowledge and a more equal relationship between the researcher and the researched, it is more appropriate for feminist

research. Westmarland (2001) argues that the survey method could be the best way to find out the prevalence of problems; however, it does not provide an understanding of these problems. Interviews, in contrast, can provide a full understanding of women's experiences and theories.

For example, researchers using a qualitative method can find that women working outside the home generally get paid less than men; however, they cannot explain the feelings of those women and how this situation affects their lives.

Campbell and Wasco (2000) argued that the overarching goal of feminist research is to identify the ways in which multiple forms of oppression impact women's lives and empower women to tell their stories by providing a respectful and egalitarian research environment. This mission necessitates use of multiple methodologies, and there is broad acceptance of both qualitative and quantitative work in feminist scholarship. Furthermore, Beetham and Demetriades (2007) consider that while qualitative data is often based on opinions, statistics appear more concrete and may be advanced by busy mainstream practitioners without due recognition. To measure gender inequality and build a more accurate picture, we need both quantitative and qualitative indicators and methods of feminist research, and we have to ensure that they complement each other (Beetham & Demetriades, 2007).

3.3.2 Mixed methods approach

The mixed-methods approach aims to understand social phenomena from the participants' perspectives and their participation in life (Firestone, 1987). According to Creswell (2009) mixed methods research, which will be used in this study, combines both qualitative and quantitative forms and is based on philosophical assumptions which are used in quantitative and qualitative approaches. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) define mixed methods research as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study. The overall strength of a study using a mixed methods approach is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research alone (Creswell, 2009). A survey method has been widely used as a technique of gathering information from participants in quantitative studies. Thomas (2003) pointed out that survey methods involve gathering information about

the current status of some target variable within a particular collectivity, then reporting a summary of the findings. By studying a sample of any population, a survey can provide a description of trends, attitudes or opinions of that population (Creswell, 2009). The current research studied in a quantitative way the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District.

This study will examine the influence of gender and work experience of working with female school managers. To examine the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management the researcher will conduct interviews with approximately 60 Queenstown Education District male teachers in order to examine their perceptions on under-representation of female teachers and their attitudes towards female school managers. The researcher will use mixed method approach in order to know more about a phenomenon when the findings from data generated by two or more methods are brought together; it is called triangulation (Moran-Ellis, Alexander, Cronin, Dickinson, Fielding, Sleney & Thomas, 2006).

According to Moran-Ellis et al, (2006) there is a debate of the benefit of using triangulation in social sciences. Some researchers argue that triangulation referred to the claim that compares results from two or more different research methods in order to conclude whether an aspect of a phenomenon has been accurately measured. Using of this modal of triangulation leads to increased confidence in the implied measurement outcomes of the research. This is called the increased validity 'model of triangulation. Hence, researchers on the other hand reject the increased validity modal. They argue that the value of triangulation is to generate more knowledge about a phenomenon. Furthermore, they believe that these paradigms which include quantitative and qualitative methodological approaches rest on apparently incompatible assumptions about how we understand and theorise notions of reality, and so cannot be combined to produce increasingly accurate approximations to the truth of a phenomenon (Moran-Ellis et al, 2006).

Creswell (2009) pointed out several reasons of using mixed methods. Mixed method appeared was discovered by Campbell and Fisk (1959) when they used multi-methods in order to examine validity of psychological traits. Researchers recognised

that all methods have limitations, they felt that biases inherent in any single method could neutralise the biases of other methods. This led to the emergence of the triangulation, which means the researcher seeks convergence across qualitative and quantitative methods. The findings from one method can help to identify participants to study or questions to ask for the other method. Finally, in order to reinforce each other, the qualitative and quantitative data can be merged into one large database or the results used side by side, for example, statistical results can be supported by qualitative quotes.

Creswell (2009) also identified three general strategies of using mixed method. The first method is sequential mixed methods. In this method researchers aimed to elaborate on or expand on the results of one method with another method. For example, a researcher can begin with a quantitative method to test a theory, followed by a qualitative method to provide a detailed exploration with a few cases or individuals. The second method is concurrent mixed methods. In this design, researchers link between quantitative and qualitative data to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. They collect both forms of data at the same time then combine the information in the interpretation of the overall results. Researchers can also use this design in order to analyse different types of questions by embedding one smaller form of data within another larger data collection. Transformative mixed method is the third strategy of using quantitative and qualitative methods. Researchers in this design contain both quantitative and qualitative data by using a theoretical lens as an overarching perspective. This lens provides a framework for the topic of interest, methods for collecting data, and outcomes or changes anticipated by the study (Creswell, 2009).

The current research used triangulation model to generate more knowledge about perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District in order to gain in-depth understanding about these perceptions. This type of using of mixed methods described by Leckenby and Hesse-Biber (2007) as using qualitative study to identify specific populations or issues that require to be further explored in depth, and the qualitative study complements the quantitative. In this study, the researcher will collect the quantitative data by using questionnaires in order to generate information about perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of

female teachers. Then the researcher will conduct a number of interviews. The interviews will try to unearth the reasons of under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District.

3.3.3 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research, according to Creswell (2009) is defined as a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures. Quantitative research is based on a positivist philosophy (Creswell, 2009; Firestone, 1987; Johnson, & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This philosophy presumes that there are social facts with an objective reality apart from the beliefs of individuals (Firestone, 1987). The purists of this approach believe that social observations should be treated in the same way that physical scientists treat physical phenomena (Johnson, & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), and the main purpose of quantitative research is looking for an explanation of causes of changes in social facts by using objective measurements and quantitative analysis (Firestone, 1987).

The study used the Women as Managers Scale (WAMS) to collect data about perceptions of male teachers on under-representation of female teachers in the Queenstown Education District. The scale has been used in a broad range of studies, with different samples. For example, Owen and Todor (1993) employed it with a sample of human resource managers; Ware and Cooper-Studebaker (1989) used it with MBA and undergraduate students; Murgai (1991) used WAMS to examine library and information science master's degree candidates, male and female managers, and Cordano, Scherer and Owen (2002) used the scale with 412 Chilean and American undergraduate business administration students. WAMS has also been used in part in studies conducted in Arabic and Islamic countries. Sidani and Gardner (2000), for example, used five items from the Women as Managers Scale (WAMS) to study the positive attitudes towards women's involvement at work as a work value among Lebanese workers (Sidani & Gardner, 2000). Crawford, Mapstone & Whiteoak (2006) also used four items from the Women as Managers Scale to study the attitudes towards women at work in the United Arab Emirates.

3.3.4 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research, in contrast, is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative approaches, which are also called constructivist and interpretive, are based on a phenomenological paradigm which assumes that reality is socially constructed through an individual or collective definition of the situation (Firestone, 1987). The purists of this approach argue for the superiority of constructivism, idealism, relativism, humanism, hermeneutics and postmodernism, while they reject positivist philosophy (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). These interviews provided the participants with opportunities to talk about their experiences and facts such as, the experience of working with women managers, their studying or working overseas and how these factors influenced their attitudes and perceptions of women as managers and their communication competencies.

3.4 Research design

In order to investigate the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation in female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education this study therefore, wanted to gain a detailed understanding of the complex problem that involved the use of mixed methods (Yin, 2009). Cohen et al. (2007) contend that women under-representation study provides a unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply presenting them via abstract theories context, but remains close to it in order to understand how behaviour is influenced by, and how it influences, the context (Yin, 2009). The present study used the descriptive survey design. Descriptive survey was preferred over other designs as it enables one to make investigations with predictions, narration of events and drawing of conclusions based on the information obtained from relatively large representative samples of the target population (Kothari, 2005 & Creswell, 2009). The researcher used the survey research design because it is appropriate for collecting information regarding people's views, opinions, perceptions and beliefs (Creswell, 2005). The case study (as used in this research) is used for four reasons, as pointed out by Denscombe, (2003) and Yin (2004) if a researcher wants to study an extreme or unique instance,

contrary to the norm an area is selected because of its suitability for either building. Following from reasons given above, the case was selected because of the need to study an extreme instance contrary to the norm and it was observed that the logic being invoked is that the particular case is similar in crucial respects to others that might have been chosen and that the findings from the case study are likely to apply elsewhere (Denscombe, 2003).

Therefore, Queenstown Education District was chosen for this study because it had similar characteristics to other districts in the region. However, it differs from other districts in terms of culture and geography. The selection of the study was also guided by the theoretical perspectives used, namely liberal feminist theory, which require detailed information and the use of multiple sources of information (Rowley, 2002). In this case study the focus was on describing and explaining the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. Since the case study may include both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, its choice is based on its capacity to accommodate multiple instruments of data collection to get in-depth information (Yin, 2003). Baxter and Jack (2008) report that, in a case study, a researcher can gather and integrate survey data to arrive at a holistic understanding of the issue studied.

Moreover, Kumar (2011) argues that to qualify as a case study it must be a bounded system, an entity in itself: A case study should focus on bounded subjects or a unit that is representative or extremely typical. Yin (2003) suggests the importance of placing a boundary in a case study to avoid overly broad questions. In this study the researcher used what Yin (2003) refers to as an embedded single case study design. This type of design enables a number of sub-units each of which is explored individually to be drawn together to yield an overall picture (Rowley, 2002). In this case study the researcher used cross-case analysis, according to which sub-unit data was collated and compared to draw overall conclusions (Rowley, 2002). The strength of the case study rests in its power to observe the phenomenon in its real context in terms of both its cause and effects. Thus, the results are more easily understood by many readers as they are written in non-professional language, they speak for themselves, are strong in reality and help to interpret similar cases (Cohen

et al., 2007). It provides also an overview and in-depth understanding of a case process and interactional dynamics within a unit of study (Kumar, 2011).

In contrast, the weakness of the case study is that the results cannot be generalised and are prone to observer bias (Cohen et al., 2007; Kumar, 2011). To limit this bias, the researcher ignored prior knowledge of the influences of female under-representation in school management and focused on the participants' views. It was appropriate for tapping the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions. Surveys are also appropriate for use with relatively larger samples as was the case in this study (n=60).

3.4.1 Study site

Queenstown is situated in the middle of the Eastern Cape, roughly half-way between smaller towns of Cathcart and Sterkstroom. Queenstown has severe weather problems, affecting both urban and rural areas, heavy snowfalls, strong winds that cause severe disasters, power shortages and also heavy rainfalls. It is expected that teachers who form part of the inhabitants of this district will be affected by these severe weather conditions from time to time. It is equally expected that this adverse weather condition may be impacting the ability of some of the individuals living in this part of the province to carry out their normal daily routines.

Schools situated in the rural areas are generally faced with bad roads, which affect most teachers' daily or monthly budgets as they mostly find themselves always and necessarily fixing or repairing their cars or experiencing frequent delays from public transport. Most of the schools in the rural and urban areas in this District have poor infrastructure, cracked buildings, fewer furniture and most of the schools, especially those located in the peri-urban areas, are surrounded by squatter camps. Most of the schools in rural Queenstown District struggle to deal with issues relating to parents of pupils who are not always around because most of the parents are away working in the cities, leaving their homes to be run by their children and grandparents. These situations appear to be affecting the morale of the teachers.

3.5 Population

Creswell (2002) defines population as a group of people who have similar characteristics and who provide data to answer your study questions. For instance, all students in the region may make up the population of students. The population for this study comprised of male teachers. It was impossible to study all the schools in the region, as the study wanted to obtain in-depth information through interviews and a questionnaire, which was not feasible across a large population. Moreover, due to limited time and financial constraints it was not possible to cover a large population (Cohen et al., 2007 & Corbetta, 2003). A sample of the population was used. The population for this study comprised 60 male teachers in eight high schools in the Queenstown District Educational District.

3.6 Sample and sampling

The sample size for the study comprised 8 high school male teachers in the Queenstown Education District. According to Gerring (2007) case study design focuses on a small number of cases that are expected to provide insight into a causal relationship across a larger population of cases. Moreover, a sample in qualitative research is selecting information-rich cases in-depth (Patton, 2002) when one wants to understand something about those cases without needing or desiring to generalize to all such cases. Qualitative sampling is done to increase the utility of information from small samples. The researcher then searched for information-rich key informants, groups, places or events to study (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

The sample size of the study comprised teachers from the Queenstown Education District, 4 high schools from the rural areas and 4 high schools from the urban areas which formed part of this study. The sample size was purposefully selected. Purposeful sampling is selection of particular elements from the population that will be representative or informative about the topic of interest (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010). On the basis of the researcher's knowledge of the population, a judgement was made about which participants should be selected to provide the best information that was used to address the purpose of this research.

3.7 Instruments

The present study used semi-structured interviews to obtain qualitative data and questionnaires (with closed and open-ended questions) to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data. The researcher used questionnaires as instruments for data collection from the 60 male teachers. In addition, semi- structured interviews were also used as an instrument to collect data from 20 male teachers who were part of the 60. A questionnaire was seen as suitable for the study since it allows for the collection of adequate factual information, opinions and attitudes in structural framework from a large number of respondents at a low unit cost (Ayalew & Seyoum, 1989). It consisted of both closed ended and open-ended questions with the intentions to disclose free opinions of respondents.

The first part of the questionnaire was designed to collect demographic data (age, academic qualification and work experience). The second part consisted of 20 items and the level of agreement was indicated on a five point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). This helped to get information of respondents' agreement or disagreement on the current extent of women's participation and aspiration to educational leadership. This study also employed 20 structured interview questions as instrument for data collection to complement and obtain relevant data that might not be handled by the questionnaire and to countercheck the information that was obtained from questionnaires. While the researcher was interviewing the participants, the researcher took notes.

3.7.1 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

Checking the validity and reliability of data collecting instruments is important before providing to the actual study of the subjects, it is the core to assure the quality of the data (Yalew, 1998). In order to ensure validity of the instruments, the instruments were developed under close guidance of the supervisor. The validity of the questionnaires was also established by asking 4 raters to check the suitability of the questionnaire as a measure of perceptions. The same 4 raters were also asked to score the questionnaire out of 10. These ratings were correlated and an inter-rater reliability coefficient of 0, 57 was obtained. This indicated that the raters agreed that the questionnaire was moderately reliable.

After this, the questionnaire was tested with a group of ten male teachers to see if it worked as intended. After minor modifications, the questionnaire was adopted for use with the study sample.

3.7.2 Interviews

In order to gain an understanding of people's feelings, perceptions and interpretation of the issue at stake, interviews were used. Semi-structured interviews were employed with a flexible structure, content and format for asking questions. This method was used because feminist research insists on the use of methods of data collection that are less hierarchical and that give autonomy to the participants to express their views for the trustworthiness of the data (Harding, 1987). As the method is based on the feminist perspective, the direct quotes of participants have been used to authenticate the data collected. This type of interview was used to obtain specific data in detail. This method gives freedom to participants to express their views.

In this study, interview guides contained the same questions for almost each respondent category in order to get valid and consistent findings. The questions for the interviews were developed from the research questions to obtain the answers and views of the participants. The interview questions were about the perceptions of male teachers on under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. This method was favoured because it was thought to be relevant for collecting the perceptions and feelings of participants. Cohen (2011) asserts that the interview enables participants to discuss their interpretation of the world in which they live and express how they regard situations from their point of view.

Before the interview, the researcher arranged a convenient time and date for the interviews with the participants. A positive relationship with the participants was maintained so as to abide by the research ethics. The interviews were conducted in English to give freedom to the participants to elucidate their feelings in a language with which they are comfortable. Each interview lasted about thirty minutes. Probing questions were important and were used to get more insight or to clarify some

points. As Wragg (2002) points out semi-structured interviews permit the interviewer to ask questions first and then probe for more clarification of the issues discussed.

The researcher used non-directive probing. Non-directive probes were used when the interviewer gave incomplete or inadequate answers, which encouraged the participant to elaborate more on the issues. These techniques broadened the participants' understanding of the problem and made the participants free to share information about the issue under discussion. The researcher summarised the participants' response to encourage them while waiting for new information.

The advantages of using interviews were that all the questions were attempted as planned, there was a high level of response, in-depth information was gathered and they enabled the researcher to observe the non-verbal behaviour of the participants, which helped him ascertain their mood. Moreover, this technique helped the researcher to explain and clarify unclear and ambiguous questions. On the other hand, the weakness of this technique is that it might cause bias due to the researcher's presence. This bias was overcome by triangulating the data collection methods.

3.7.3 Semi-structured interview

In order to gain an understanding of people's feelings, perceptions and interpretation of a phenomenon, interviews were used. Semi-structured interviews were employed with a flexible structure, content and format for asking questions (Sarantakos, 2005). This method was used because feminist research insists on the use of methods of data collection that are less hierarchical and give autonomy to the participants to express their views for the trustworthiness of the data (Harding, 1987). As the method is based on the feminist perspective, the direct quotes of participants have been used to authenticate the data collected. This type of interview was used to obtain specific data in detail. The participants worked in the study area and so they possessed in-depth information about what was being studied. This method gives freedom to participants to construct knowledge of their environment. In this study, interview guides contained the same questions for almost each respondent category in order to get valid and consistent findings. In this regard, male teachers were asked

similar questions. The questions for the interviews were developed from the research questions to obtain the answers and views of the participants.

The interview questions were about the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. This method was favoured because it was thought to be relevant for collecting the feelings and perceptions of participants. Cohen et al. (2011) assert that the interview enables participants to discuss their interpretation of the world in which they live and express how they regard situations from their point of view. Before the interview, the researcher arranged a convenient time and date for the interviews with the participants. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher introduced himself to the participants (name, position, career, institution and the purpose of the study), and then the researcher asked the participants about their work experience and responsibilities in order to build rapport, to get to know the participants in detail, and to create a conducive environment for conducting the interview. During the interview the discussion was controlled and guided by the case study design and interpretive paradigm strategies (Sarantakos, 2005).

A positive relationship with the participants was maintained so as to abide by the research ethics in exploring the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. The interviews were conducted in the office of the female school managers to allow the participants freedom and flexibility. The interviews were conducted in English to give freedom to the participants to elucidate their feelings in a language with which they are comfortable. Each interview lasted about an hour. Probe questions were important and were used to get more insight or to clarify some points. As Wragg (2002) points out, semi-structured interviews permit the interviewer to ask questions first and then probe for more clarification of the issues discussed.

The researcher used non-directive probing and summary techniques (Sarantakos, 2005). Non-directive probes were used when the interviewer gave incomplete or inadequate answers, which encouraged the participant to elaborate more on the issues. Through this technique, phrases were used such as: Can you elaborate

more? Can you give me an example? Is there anything else? and How certain are you? These techniques broaden the participants' understanding of the problem and make the participants free to share information about the issue under discussion (Sarantakos, 2005). Moreover, words like ok, go on, next, mmm, were used to encourage participants to carry on speaking and the researcher summarised their response to encourage them while waiting for new information (Sarantakos, 2005).

Generally, these techniques gave the participants an opportunity to elaborate and clarify their feelings, perceptions, views and experiences of female leadership in detail. During the interviews, the assistant researcher took notes and tape-recorded the interviews, which were transcribed after the interviews. This was important because it helped me to refer to what had actually been said by the participants and correct some errors in the notes. The advantages of using interviews were that all the questions were attempted as planned, there was a high level of response, in-depth information was gathered and they enabled me to observe the non-verbal behaviour of the participants, which helped me ascertain their mood (Sarantakos, 2005). Moreover, this technique helped me to explain and clarify unclear and ambiguous questions (Kumar, 2005). On the other hand, the weakness of this technique is that it might cause bias due to my presence (Sarantakos, 2005). This bias was overcome by conducting a survey that validated the qualitative data.

3.7.4 Questionnaire

To secure the reliability and adequacy of information, questionnaires comprising both open and close ended questions were collected from sample high school male teachers. Questionnaires are convenient to collect large amount of information from large number of respondents with in short period of time and in a relatively cost effective way. It allows the respondents to give information with no threat. In line with this, it makes likely an economy of time and expanse and high proportion of usable response (Best & Kan, 2003). The questionnaire has two parts. The first part is about the background information of the respondents. The second part of the questionnaire contain items on the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of male teachers in high school management positions. In this part each item was prepared in the form of five scale likert type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree that will help to measure the level of conformity of the respondents.

3.8 Credibility and trustworthiness of interview data

3.8.1 Credibility of instrument

In qualitative and quantitative research, instrument credibility simply entails a demonstration that the researcher through the use of a particular instrument accurately measured what the researcher had intended to measure. To achieve this Bartlet and Burton (2007) suggest that the researcher must adopt a research design that is well established and suited for the study. It has been noted earlier that the case study research design was used. Other measures suggested by Armstrong (2010) include the development of familiarity with the organisation to be researched; the sampling of appropriate informants likely to give the required information; triangulation; tactics to ensure that informants are as honest with their responses; frequent debriefing; peer scrutiny of the emerging research report; member checks and detailed description of the phenomenon that has been investigated.

In achieving credibility, the researcher ensured that the appropriate informants were selected for the study. The researcher also ensured that the use of interviews and a questionnaire is aimed to check for gaps between methods. All necessary efforts were made to ensure that informants remained as honest as possible without contaminating their responses with lies. Moreover, frequent debriefing between the researcher and the supervisor was ensured and that focus was maintained throughout the duration of the study. To further ensure credibility all interviews were conducted in participants' natural settings, using a tape-recorder to ensure verbatim transcription. Finally, when the first draft of the report was compiled, informants who were interested were also invited to read for accuracy of findings.

3.8.2 Trustworthiness

The questions of validity and reliability in both quantitative and qualitative studies are important, although they are treated differently. In a qualitative study, different approaches and methods are used to determine the trustworthiness of the data. In this study, trustworthiness of data was achieved by describing accurately the experience of the informants of the influences of females' under-representation in leadership (Krefting, 1991). To ensure trustworthiness in this study, the researcher

used the case study design to discover humans' experiences and behaviours in their context (Krefting, 1991). That is, in a case study the validity of the data obtained is confirmed when different categories of participants from different schools either agreed or disagreed on the issue under discussion (Cohen et al., 2007). Establishing standardized criteria for evaluating the quality of qualitative research has always been a challenging issue due to the need to incorporate rigour, subjectivity and creativity into a scientific process (Chase, Mandle & Whittemore, 2001). However, due to the diverse approaches to qualitative research it would be incompatible to generate common criteria for judging the quality and credibility.

This has led to many criteria and suggestions on how the quality of a qualitative research can be realized. However, some of these criteria overlap (Patton, 2002). The author underscores that subjectivity, acknowledgement, trustworthiness, authenticity, triangulation, reflexivity, praxis, particularity and contribution to dialogue are suitable criteria for judging the quality of a qualitative data which are a key to the constructivist tradition (Patton, 2002). Merriam (1995) posits that in order to ascertain the trustworthiness of a qualitative research, it is imperative to reflect on the kind of problems and issues which qualitative study is originally intended to deal with. The author further intimates that qualitative research is suitable for clarifying and understanding phenomena and situations which do not require predetermined variables. Moreover, qualitative research is ideal for understanding the inner perspectives of the participants. Thus the ability of a study to serve the purpose for which qualitative design stands for is the *sine qua none* of the trustworthiness of qualitative research (Merriam, 1995). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) prescribe the use of multiple perspectives as a means of achieving quality in qualitative research.

The more recent framework by Tracy (2010) proposes eight criteria and means of achieving them to ensure the quality of qualitative research. These include worthy topic, rich rigour, sincerity, credibility resonance, significant contribution, ethical, and meaningful coherence (Tracy, 2010). Right from the onset of the research, most of the decisions the researcher made were consistent with the quality assurance frameworks intimated by the writers above. It is no exaggeration to say that in the South African context the relevance, significance and timing of the topic cannot be overemphasized. In developing countries the potentials of women are underutilized and this has partly contributed to the slow pace of the country's development World

Bank (2011). After realizing the topic, the biggest challenge was the researcher's skills or credibility as a novice qualitative researcher (Patton, 2002; Cresswell, 2009).

In this study, transferability was also used to ensure the trustworthiness of the data. Transferability of the findings in qualitative research is similar to generalisation of the findings in quantitative research (Krefting, 1991). The antagonists of qualitative studies claim that it is difficult to generalise the findings in qualitative studies because they only apply to the context of study (Punch, 2005). Nevertheless, Denscombe (2003) argues that the ability to generalise the findings depends on how similar other contexts are to the study location. In this study, the findings were not meant to be generalised, but to provide increased understanding of the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. In this case, the findings from the context of this study may not represent the experience of the whole country, but are comparable to other districts with a similar culture, beliefs and organisational structure. Hence, the findings of this study are likely to be transferable to a similar context.

3.8.3 Validity of the study

Kumar (2005) defines validity as the ability of an instrument to measure what it is designed to measure. Researchers are obligated to use valid criteria to judge knowledge claims to construct robust knowledge (Holland & Ramazanoglu, 2002). Cohen et al. (2000) argue that the justification of the instruments is the production of documented evidence, which offers a high level of accuracy that a specific process consistently meets its objectives. Validity was assessed in this study by comparing the results of different sources of data (interviews and questionnaires) and cross-checking the finding with the pilot study (Bush, 2002). The validity of the study was assessed by examining the research instruments through discussions with the supervisor before the actual process of data collection (Cohen et al., 2007). After the data had been collected, the transcriptions were assessed by my supervisor. The instruments were piloted to check the effectiveness of the research instruments. The pilot study was carried out in one of the districts in one region in Queenstown. It involved sixty (60) participants drawn from Queenstown Education District.

3.8.4 Triangulation

Triangulation is the process of observing a phenomenon in different ways rather than only one way, which helps to ensure the accuracy of the data (Neuman, 2006). Triangulation is useful in a case study as the data can be viewed and explored from multiple perspectives (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Different methods help to add strength to the findings as they mingle together to provide a greater understanding of the case (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Types of triangulation are methodological, respondents' and theoretical, which are important for establishing the trustworthiness and validity of this study.

Methodological triangulation was done by collecting data from multiple sources (Merriam, 1998) to ensure the accuracy of the data. This triangulation is applied when more than one method of data collection is used (Cohen et al., 2000). In this study the same issue was asked about by using different methods. For example, the issue of the aspirations of women teachers to leadership was questioned through interviews and questionnaires (the Likert scale was used and the majority of questionnaires were closed-ended). The data analysed from different methods helped to validate and mutually confirm the findings and to identify any outliers across the data. Also, this helped to increase the depth and trustworthiness of the results and increase the accuracy of the information obtained on the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District.

Moreover, triangulation of the participants' involved the use of the same instrument to gather data from different respondents (Bush, 2002). Data obtained through the quantitative approach were validated and confirmed by data from the qualitative approach. In this case teachers first filled in the questionnaire, then clarified and verified what they had in the questionnaires to validate the data. Questionnaires were completed first in order to get individuals' thinking about the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. The questionnaire was regarded as the best method, as the individual's thinking was not influenced by that of others (Zohrabi, 2013).

In this case, participant triangulation was done by comparing the information obtained from the male teachers through interviews and the questionnaires completed by male teachers. Theoretical triangulation was done according to which the data was validated through the logical connection between the research instruments, the conceptual framework and the main questions (Kumar, 2005). In this study it was important that the methods of data collection and techniques of data analysis were congruent with the methodological and theoretical framework, which answers the research questions.

The position of the researcher is important for establishing trustworthiness. It is important for a researcher to know the context of any study. Whether the researcher is an insider, sharing the characteristics, role, or experience under study with the participants, the personhood of the researcher including membership status in relation to those participating in the research, is an essential and ever-present aspect of the investigation (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009). In this study the researcher started collecting data as an outsider in the area of the study which irritated some informants, since the researcher was new to the district.

In addition, as the researcher communicated with the participants trust increased, to the extent that they asked me many questions at the end of the discussion. Some teachers and heads of schools were interested in knowing more about higher education and how to reach their potential. The closeness with the participants mirrors the thoughts of Herod (1999) who maintains that whereas a researcher may initially be perceived very much as an outsider. This situation is likely to arise when a researcher is conducting follow-up interviews with sources with whom the researcher developed a working relationship.

Therefore, as an outsider-insider in the context, and a female teacher by profession, the researcher had characteristics in common with the potential informants. Moreover, the heads of schools facilitated quick discussions with teachers because of the lack of accommodation and other infrastructure, which necessitated daily travel to the schools.

3.8.5 Data collection

The researcher in this study used different techniques for collecting data. Yin (2004) argues that a good study benefits from having multiple sources of evidence. The central aim in collecting data, as stated by Yin (2004) is to triangulate or establish converging lines of evidence to make your findings as robust as possible. In this study, different methods were used to explore the same fact, which gave the researcher more confidence in concluding that the data were valid, rather than relying on a single method. Therefore, the present study used semi-structured interviews and questionnaires to obtain qualitative and quantitative data.

3.9 Data analysis

Data analysis is about making sense of the information provided by the participant. Both the qualitative and quantitative data were analysed based on the methods best suited to their nature. Frequencies and percentages were used to analyse and report quantitative data whereas most of the qualitative data were used to support findings from the questionnaires.

3.10 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues were considered in this study for the purpose of protecting participants from risks that could harm them. Cohen (2011) argues that each stage of research raises ethical issues that may be based on the nature of the research itself, the context of the research, the methods involved in data collection and the type of data collected. The participants have a right to balance the threats and benefits of being involved in the research and make a decision to participate or not (Cohen, 2011). The researcher considered ethical issues like informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity. All these were explained to the participants before and during data collection to ensure an accurate and fair process. Before data collection, ethical clearance was secured from the University of Fort Hare.

Participants in this study were given an information sheet, which described the study, and a consent form to sign upon agreeing to participate in the study. The participants read and reflected on the information given and decided either to participate or not.

The agreement to participate was based on open information sharing and not force or an incentive to influence their participation.

The participants were also informed of their freedom to withdraw from the study at any time. The information sheet and informed consent form contained information about the researcher's background, the purpose of the study, the risks and advantages of the study, the role of the participants, and the confidentiality of both the participants and the data collected. The researcher obtained a signed consent form from each willing participant.

In order to ensure confidentiality, the participants' anonymity was protected by using codes, which assured participants that their names would not be mentioned in the report or other publications. Anonymity in research in analysing and interpreting the collected data has been emphasised in the literature (Creswell, 2009). As Kumar (2005) points out, it is unethical to mention the names of the participants involved in a particular study. The data gathered were kept in a secure place that was inaccessible to anyone except the researcher. The participants from each school were promised a summary of the report after completion.

3.11 Summary

This chapter has discussed the research methodology that guided the data collection process. This study aimed at examining the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. Knowledge was constructed through the mixed methods approach in order to triangulate the information obtained from different research instruments. Questionnaires, interviews and group discussions were employed. Purposive sampling was done in order to come up with information rich sample. The next chapter presents and analyses the responses from interviews, group discussions and questionnaires.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS/DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses and analyses the collected data. Data were collected and analysed to address the research questions raised in this study. The main research question the study sought to address was: What are the perceptions of male educators on the under-representation of high school female managers in the Queenstown Education District?

Sub-research questions were:

- (b). How do male teachers perceive the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions?
- (b). What do high school male teachers perceive to be the challenges associated with having a female school manager?
- (c). What strategies can be used to prevent the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions?

The responses from questionnaires have been summarised in frequencies and percentages which are presented in tables. Qualitative data from interviews confirmed and gave detailed information on the data obtained from the questionnaires. The Demographic data were first presented

4.2 Demographic characteristics of respondents

In this part of the study, the characteristics of the respondents were analysed and discussed in frequencies and percentages as follows:

Table 4-1: Respondents by age (n=60)

Age	n	%
25-30	7	11.6
31-35	10	16.6
36-40	11	18,3
41-50	17	28.3
50 and above	15	25.0
Total	60	100

The information of the respondents in the above table indicates that there were 7 (11.6%) male teachers in the study who are between the ages of 25-30, 10 (16.6%) male teachers between the ages of 31-35, 11 (18.3 %) male teachers between the age of 36-40, 17 (28.3.5%) male teachers between the age of 41-50 and lastly, 15 (25.0%) male teachers who were 50 and above.

4.3 Respondents by length of service (n=60)

Table 4-2: 4.3 Respondents by length of service (n=60)

Service	Frequency	%
1-4	8	13.3
5-8	8	13.3
9-12	8	13.3
13-20	12	20

21-30	24	40
Total	60	100

The table above indicates that 13,32% (8) of the respondents are 1-4 years in service, another 13,3 (8) have 5-8 years of service, another 13,5 (8) have 9-12 years of service, 20% (12) have 13-20 years of service and finally, 40% (24) have 21-30 years of service. The researcher was therefore able to collect data from teachers with different lengths in service, hence, in this sense, such data are likely to reflect the views of different teachers.

4.4 The participants' qualifications (n=60)

The table below shows the respondents by their qualifications.

Table 4-3: Respondents by qualifications (n=60)

School	Qualifications		
	Diploma	1 st Degree	Hons +
A	3	2	2
B	4	2	1
C	2	4	3
E	3	3	2
F	4	2	2
G	3	3	1
H	2	2	3
I	2	3	2
Total= 60	23	21	16

Table 4.3 shows that all the participants possessed formal qualifications ranging from Senior Teachers' Diploma (STD) to Postgraduate qualifications in the form of an Honours degree. The researcher also assumed here that such teachers were familiar with gender issues involved in the appointment of school managers.

On the whole, the researcher observed that the demographic variable (age, length of service and qualifications) did not influence the male teachers' responses, at least substantially. Teachers of different ages, different lengths of service and different qualifications viewed the under-representation of female teachers in school management positions in similar ways. However, the variables enabled the researcher to collect information from teachers of different categories, thus, making the results somewhat representative of the views of teachers in the schools involved in the study.

Data from questionnaires were presented next (Table 4.4). As already indicated (Chapter 3), the questionnaire had 20 items. Each item was taken as a rating scale and was therefore analysed individually.

Table 4-4: Perceptions of male teachers on the under- representation of female teachers in high school management positions (n=60).

		Response				
		SD	D	U	A	SA
No	Items					
1.	Female school managers are more concerned about their family issues than their school management duties.	17 (28%)	10 (17%)	0 (0%)	14 (23)	19 (32)
2.	Females are appreciated more for their good character than for their competence.	28 (27%)	14 (23%)	0 (0%)	13 (22%)	5 (8%)
3.	Female school managers lack delegation skills.	24 (40%)	11 (18%)	0 (0%)	11 (18%)	14 (23%)
4.	Female school managers show better interpersonal relationship in the work place than male school managers.	31 (52%)	17 (28%)	0 (0%)	6 (10%)	6 (10%)
5.	Cultural attitudes of our society encourage female	24 (40%)	19 (32%)	0 (0%)	10 (0%)	7 (12%)

	teachers to be school managers.				(10%)	
6.	Female school managers lack confidence in their work.	15 (25%)	12 (20%)	0 (0%)	14 (23%)	19 32%)
7.	Female school managers encourage others to develop management skills more than their male counterparts.	13 (22%)	13 (22%)	0 (0%)	26 (43%)	8 (13%)
8.	The school society does not perceive female teachers as good school managers.	7 (12%)	12 (20%)	0 (0%)	12 (20%)	29 (48%)
9.	Female school managers are less patient than their male counterparts.	15 (25%)	30 (50%)	0 (0%)	8 (13%)	7 (12%)
10.	Female teachers fail to hold school management positions because of lack of sufficient tertiary qualification.	7 (12%)	9 (15%)	0 (0%)	37 (62%)	7(12%)
11.	Female teachers are not perceived to be as powerful in the school management positions.	15(25%)	16 (27%)	0 (0%)	21 (35%)	8 (13%)
12.	Female school mangers are poor at networking skills.	6 (10)	11 (18%)	0 (0%)	12 (20%)	31 (52)
13.	Female school managers are not good at making					

	informed decisions.	9 (32%)	23 (38%)	0 (0%)	12 (20%)	16 (27%)
14.	Female school managers are not concerned about staff developing their teachers.	0(0%)	8 (13%)	7 (12%)	13 (22)	34 (57%)
15.	Female school managers fear additional responsibilities that will increase pressure on them.	7 (12%)	8 (13%)	0 (0%)	13 (22%)	32 (53%)
16.	Female school managers are more skilled than their male counterparts delegating authority.	6 (10%)	8 (13%)	0 (0%)	33 (55%)	13 (22%)
17.	High school female teachers have less aspiration to be at the level of school management positions.	14 (23%)	10 (17%)	6 (10%)	8 (13%)	22 (37%)
18.	Interviews usually prefer a male candidate to a female school manager.	0 (0%)	8 (13%)	0 (0%)	13 (22%)	39 (65%)
19.	Female school managers serve as role models apart from gender concern.	14 (23%)	13 (23%)	9 (15%)	24 (40%)	0 (0%)
20.	Female school managers are more capable than male school managers.	14 (23%)	12 (29%)	0 (0%)	34 (57%)	0 (0%)

4.5 Analysis/discussion of results

As already said, the questionnaire items were taken as rating scales and thus, were analysed individually. Agree and Strongly Agree were collapsed to mean agreement with the statement given while Disagree and Strongly Disagree were also collapsed to mean disagreement with the given statement. The neutral point (undecided), was ignored in order to make the results directional (Fishbein, 1975).

Item 1 required the participants to indicate whether female managers are more concerned about their family issues than about their school management duties. While 55% felt that this was the case, 45% did not think so. In interviews, many argued that female teachers are mostly concerned about their management duties. According to Shakeshaft (1985) a direct impediment for females in attaining administrative positions is the reality based factor of family responsibility. This study documented family responsibilities as one reason why women teachers were not choosing to enter administration. Hewitt (1989) says that personal and family responsibilities interfere with female teachers' management roles.

According to Item 2, 70% (42) of the respondents disagree that females are appreciated more for their good character than for their competence while 30% (18) agree. Competence means a skill and standard of performance while competency is the behaviour by which it is achieved. Thus, transforming and directing the energies of others into purposive action requires the right knowledge, information, skills, abilities and attitudes. Leadership qualities are the most essential things in the field of leadership. Therefore, leaders are expected to have leadership competencies and skills that are core to effective leadership. Women do not have significant difference in ability, skill and competence in leadership. According to UN (2007) the top leaders in the public service require competencies such as ability to inspire a shared vision, strategic thinking, decision making, delegation and empowerment, personal strength and maturity, innovation or creativity, ability to mentor others and effective communication for a variety of reasons. Sergiovani (2006) identified eight basic competencies characterizing good managers. The competencies include management of attention, meaning, trust, self, paradox, effectiveness, follow-up and management of responsibility. The management of attention is the ability to focus

others on values, ideas, goals and purposes that bring people together and that provide a rationale source of authority for what goes on in the school. Leaders manage attention by what they say and reward, how they spend time, the behaviours they emphasize and the reasons they give for the decisions they make. The management of meaning is the ability to connect teachers, parents and students to the school in such a way that they find their lives useful, sensible and valued.

The management of trust is the ability to be viewed as credible, legitimate and honest. Self-management is the ability to know who you are and what you believe and why you do the things you do. Leaders must be smart about themselves, others and they must be wise too. The management of paradox is the ability to bring ideas that seem to be at odds with each other. Management of effectiveness is the ability to focus on the development of capacity in a school that allows it to improve performance overtime and the management of follow-up is detail, careful and continuous supervision that emphasizes learning and accompanied by assessment. The term skill refers to the ability to do something in an effective manner. Skills are determined jointly by learning and heredity (Arvey, Zhang, Avolio, & Krueger, 2007). Skills may be defined at different levels of abstraction, ranging from general, broadly abilities to narrower, more specific abilities (Yukl, 2010). Leaders would be successful only when they are equipped with certain managerial skills in getting things done through people. The leadership skills have been used in this context to refer to an ability which can be developed and manifested in performance. Thus, modern leadership is required of various skills. Leadership skills are grounded in educational values and professional knowledge.

According to Brundrett, Burton and Smith (2003) leadership skills may be grouped into three categories: personal, communicative and influence, as well as organizational and technical. Whereas personal skills are related to how leaders manage their own behaviours and thoughts in their professional lives and influence have to do with how the leader interacts and mobilizes at an interpersonal level with colleagues. Organizational and technical, skills, on the other hand, are concerned with the tasks and techniques associated with running the whole school. The key skills essential to running good schools are technical, interpersonal and conceptual skills.

The technical skills are primarily concerned with things like knowledge about methods, processes, procedures and techniques for conducting a specialized activity and the ability to use tools, equipment relevant to the activity. Interpersonal skills are primarily concerned with people. That is knowledge about human behaviour and interpersonal processes, ability to understand the feelings, attitudes and motives of others from what they say and do. Ability to communicate clearly, effectively and the ability to establish effective, cooperative relationships are also critical. The conceptual skills are primarily concerned with ideas and concepts. Hence, they are general analytical ability, logical thinking; creativity in idea-generation and problem solving, ability to analyse events anticipate and changes and recognize opportunities and potential problems. This involves the talent to see the organization in its entirety (Yukl, 2010). Some writers differentiate a fourth category of skills called administrative skills that are defined in terms of the ability to perform a particular type of managerial function or behaviour (Yukl, 2010). Other writers identify strategic management skills that are primarily relevant for upper level managers (Morgeson, 2007).

In Item 3. 58% (35) disagree that female school managers lack delegation skills while 42% (25) agree that female school managers do not lack delegation skills. Delegation is one of the most important management skills. These logical rules and techniques will help you to turn a school around. Good delegation saves you time, develops people, grooms a successor and motivates. Poor delegation will cause you frustration, demotivate and confuse the other person and fail to achieve the task or purpose itself. This means that it is a management skill that is worth having. Many studies have shown that female teachers are good at delegating as opposed to males who have a tendency to centralise power. Effective delegation is crucial for management and leadership succession. Hence, for the successor and for the manager or leader the main task of a manager in a growing and thriving organization is ultimately to develop a successor. When this happens everyone can move on to higher things. When it fails to happen the succession and progression becomes dependent on bringing in new people from outside the organisation.

In Item 4, 80% (48) of the respondents disagree that female school managers show better interpersonal relationship in the work place than male school managers. Bhalalusesa (2003) reported that women in organisations have been observed to put less effort into work than men. Other researchers, such as Beyers, Stevens and Trice (1978) say that women are less committed to their work. For Sekaran (1983) married young women were less committed to their work and put more energy into their family. In her study on stress and distress in teaching, Jensen (1989) found that female teachers allocated less time to teaching in order to meet the needs of their families. Hence, less commitment to work may affect them regarding their appointment to a leadership post.

Concerning Item 5, 72% (43) of the respondents disagree that the cultural attitudes of our society encourage female teachers to be school managers, while 28% (17) indicated that the cultural attitudes of our society encourage female teachers to be school managers. Culture does not only manifest at societal or national level but also at organizational level (Tirmizi, 2008). Organizational culture consists of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization, that function unconsciously and that determine the organization's view of itself. The members successfully apply these assumptions to solve the internal and external problems they encounter over time and it thus turns to be routine. The under-representation of females in leadership has a strong relationship with gender, leadership and society because leadership is a culturally-bound practice (Dimmock & Walker, 2006). Hence, the behaviour of males and females is shaped by the culture within a society that ascribes roles for men and women. This implies that society categorises male and female roles which in turn creates opportunities for men and women to have access to different opportunities (Dimmock & Walker, 2006), such as involvement in leadership. These roles ascribed by society control females while males are less controlled (Dimmock & Walker, 2006). In other words, women have less access to different opportunities, while men have many. It is true that females are regarded as home and family carers, while males are perceived and trained to be office workers, breadwinners and heads of families.

Women are discouraged from being leaders and so obstacles are placed in their way by society because of the culture that hinders women from becoming leaders. These hurdles are the consequence of outdated beliefs about women's roles (Onsongo, 2004). Society stereotypes females from a cultural perspective and assumes that the highest decision-making positions are for males (Onsongo, 2004). Cubillo and Brown, (2003) add that stereotype, social and cultural expectations devalue women. Society tends to classify females as inferior and are supposed to take low posts, implying that they are incapable of being heads (Amondi, 2011). This perception affects the minds of people in organisations (Onsongo, 2004). The gendered-based roles even though irrelevant to the workplace are carried to the workplace. That is, society's perceptions are also present in organisations. Society may play a major role in female under-representation in school leadership if it does not value their roles and achievements. Sperandio (2011) conducted a study in an Islamic society in Bangladesh and discovered that society discourages women from gaining higher education qualifications or participating in employment. This researcher claims that women with degrees who have a desire to work face problems obtaining leadership positions in government schools. This is also supported by Onsongo (2004) who argues that religion has a major effect on the placement of females in inferior roles, which in turn prevents females from taking part in decision-making.

Generally females have been socialised to be mothers, dependent and submissive while males have been socialised to be strong, independent, breadwinners, household decision makers and executives (Kanter, 1977; McDowell & Pringle, 1992; Oakley, 2000; French & Sheridan, 2009). Cultural patterns, like the distribution of housework, education and the choice of one's future life ascribed to males and females affect the composition of gender in leadership positions (Hojgaard, 2002). This implies that early upbringing makes girls and boys perform and behave differently. Girls will behave more femininely while boys will express their masculinity so that this socialisation is bound to keep females in the inferior position of being dominated by males (Otieno, 2001). Therefore, it is the researcher's assumption that there are few women in leadership positions in the Queenstown Education District because of socialisation and the hegemonic culture.

According to Item 6, 45% (23) of the respondents disagreed while 55% (37) agreed that female school managers lack confidence in their work. Regarding this, research reported by Shakeshaft (1993) supports the perception that females tend to receive less constructive criticism than males in carrying out their work. As a result, it is suggested that they are less able to deal with negative comments, in effect taking them too personally and allowing their confidence to be unnecessarily damaged. In relation to this, the result of the interviews also revealed that females lack confidence in involving themselves in school management positions. This has been observed to be among the individual factors for females' under-representation in senior school leadership positions. In Zimbabwe, this was observed by Chabaya et al. (2009) as they held interviews and focus group discussions with 13 female heads of schools. They found that the factors that prevent female teachers from being promoted to headship positions are within themselves as they lack confidence and see themselves as unsuitable for promotion. In Uganda, Kagoda and Sperandio's (2009) study on Ugandan women moved beyond a historical and cultural understanding of education leadership, using documentary data from qualitative research and observed that female teachers were restrained from becoming school leaders because they lacked the confidence to deal with student riots. Lack of confidence was also observed by Bubshait (2012). Smulyan (2000) argues that all female principals were indecisive about assuming leadership roles because they lacked confidence but were forced to become heads by others.

Some researchers, argue that female involvement in leadership is restricted by poor self-image (Mathika & Tsoka, 2001; Chabaya et al., 2009; Moorosi, 2010; Bubshait, 2012). Researchers have further reported that gender-based socialisation, lack of confidence, which leads to fear of failure, limited mobility and not being competitive, interrupted career development due to child bearing which are internal barriers hindering women from becoming leaders (Cubillo & Brown, 2003; Oplatka & Hertz-Lazarowitz 2006). Low self-esteem, lack of confidence, motivation or aspiration are often reasons given for women's low representation in positions of educational leadership. There is some evidence to indicate that women lack confidence in applying for promotion than their male counterparts, they only apply for jobs for which they are fully qualified (Shakeshaft, 1989).

Women's self-determination to progress and succeed is fundamental to their career progression (Priola & Brannan, 2009) but as Sherman (2005) noted; few women perceived themselves as capable of holding leadership positions in schools. One of the respondents in Normore and Gaetane's (2008) study revealed that a woman has never envisioned herself becoming an administrator, and that she was perfectly comfortable in the classroom.

Oplatka (2006) identified a variety of reasons that caused women not apply for promotion, such as the lack of the necessary aspiration, a lack of confidence that they will succeed, fear of failure and a lack of competitiveness. The think-leader-think-male stereotype can also have deleterious effects on women leaders' self-perceptions as it is associated with decreased performance and a most menacing outcome of stereotype activation on the targets of the stereotype. Hence, this may have the potential to contribute to women's disengagement from leadership roles (Hoyt, 2005). Nealy (2009) argues that research shows that women in higher education typically have a low self-worth, often being perceived as timid and preferring to maintain a low profile. No matter how skilled women leaders are, a lack of confidence is a deal-breaker (Santovec, 2010). Santovec (2010) argues that confidence spreads to those one is leading and that if a leader does not have confidence, the followers will not have confidence in the leader.

Hoyt (2005) also noted that while cultural stereotypes are likely to impact on women leaders, the level of the leader's self-efficacy for leadership will likely play a role in determining the responses to stereotype activation. Research reported by Shakeshaft (1987, 1993) supports the perception that females tend to receive less constructive criticism than males in carrying out their work. As a result, it is suggested that they are less able to deal with negative comments, in effect taking them too personally and allowing their confidence to be unnecessarily damaged. Hence, some would suggest that these psychological, internal or intrinsic barriers, however, are seldom more prevalent for women than for men, and it is not usually the woman's psyche at fault, but the social structure of society that is the root cause of the inequities (Shakeshaft, 1989).

Women may be aspiring to leadership positions, but systemic barriers can prevent them from acting upon these aspirations. Women being deficient in credentials and experience have often been cited as an influencing factor in women's under-representation in educational leadership, even though, time and again, research illustrates what a fallacy this is. In the past, women slack of credentials may have been a factor.

However, the number of women in graduate school implies an increase in confidence, motivation and credentials. More and more women are becoming better qualified for the job but, unfortunately, this is not necessarily securing them positions in the administrative field. Hence, other data reveal that corresponding number of women do not hold administrative positions. In investigating why women with administration certification were not employed in an administrative position, Grady (1992) discovered in her study that a major impediment was women's unwillingness to apply for administrative positions. Further reasons cited were that they preferred their current positions and were not interested in administrative work. It appears that some well-qualified women have psychologically accepted a secondary role in their profession because they are concerned about their family or because of lack of confidence (Grady, 1992). Women who aspire to become administrators are more likely to report lowered aspiration or lack of confidence than women who have become administrators. In studies of females aspiring to become administrators, Brown and Irby (1995) found a marked lack of self-confidence.

Female high school teachers who had been tapped for the school management position but who did not want to become administrators exhibited no signs of lack of confidence according to Hewitt (1989). Although, Walker (1995) and Gupton (1998) both noted that female administrators rarely see themselves as experts, often expressing a lack of confidence about seeing themselves at the top women superintendents studies by Lutz (1990) reported no internal barrier of poor self-image or lack of confidence. Rogan (1996) found the superintendent aspirants in her study to be very confident of their abilities and qualifications to lead School districts. Similarly, Grogan and Brunner (2005) report that 40% of women in senior central office positions feel competent to take on district leadership positions.

Low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence may be different from leadership identity, which is the feeling of belonging to a group of leaders or to a specific level of leadership and of feeling significant within that circle (Brown & Irby, 1996). Lack of leadership identity can lead to a feeling of isolation and the feeling of being an outsider (Chrisman, 2003). In their findings related to superintendents and aspiring superintendents, Walker (1995) and Scherr (1995) indicated that women lack a sense of themselves as leaders and perceive that they have further to developing this leadership identity than do men.

Perhaps it is this lack of leadership identity, rather than low self-esteem that also perpetuates the perception of women that they must get more information, more education, and more experience in the classroom prior to seeking an administrative position (McLeod & McLeod, 2001; Brunner & Grogan, 2005).

In Item number 7, the majority of the respondents (45%-26) disagreed that female school managers encourage others to develop management skills more than their male counterparts while 54% (34) agreed that female school managers encourage others to develop management skills more than their male counterparts. This finding indicates that those female managers who are fortunately engaged in school management educational positions are interested in bringing up others to management positions as much as possible. Blackmore (1989), felt that both male and female school managers are equally good. The differences that we see in their ranking is a question of individual differences-it has nothing to do with their gender. Encouraging other teachers may provide the inspiration to aspire for school management positions.

Mulkeen (2006) reports that the availability of females in school, whether as normal teachers or as school manager, is a crucial aspect in generating gender role models and mentors. Morley (2006) adds that females feel happy in the presence of female role models. Otieno (2001) observed that female teachers and students lack role models and mentors. It has also been observed that there are few female teachers and heads in rural schools who could be positive role models for female students in those areas. This implies that female teachers lack managers who can encourage and mentor them as this will affects their careers and professions. Mulkeen (2006) added that the lack of role models is one of the reasons why fewer girls than boys

enrol in primary schools in Sub-Saharan Africa. In addition, the European Commission (2010) reported that women in leadership lack females above them to admire and inspire them to work hard towards acquiring the same positions as their male counterparts. Even females who obtain power are surrounded by males, making it hard for them to learn about leadership (Sperandio, 2011). Apart from lacking role models and mentors, Shakeshaft (1993) says that women's lack of formal and informal networks at the institutional level locks them out of getting a job and obtaining promotional information compared to males.

Furthermore, if women network with and are mentored by male leaders, it can be less productive and more difficult for junior women, who may be suspected of engaging sexually with their mentors (Bell, 2002).

In the case of Item 8, 32% (19) of the respondents disagreed that the school society does not perceive female teachers as good school managers while 68% (41) agreed. The under-representation of females in leadership has a strong relationship with gender, leadership and society, because leadership is a culturally-bound practice (Dimmock & Walker, 2006). This means that the behaviour of males and females is shaped by the culture within a society that ascribes roles for men and women. This implies that society categorises male and female roles, which in turn creates opportunities for men and women to have access to different opportunities (Dimmock & Walker, 2006), such as involvement in leadership. These roles ascribed by society control females, while males are less controlled (Dimmock & Walker, 2006). In other words, women have less access to different opportunities, while men have many. It is true that females are regarded as home and family carers, while males are perceived and trained to be office workers, breadwinners and heads of families.

Acker (1990) and Blackmore (1999) put it that structural barriers to female advancement in organisations have their roots in the fact that most organisations have been created by and for males and are based on male experiences of leadership, which leads to the existence of a particular form of masculinity in organisational leadership. Amondi (2011) declares that leadership values in society have been formulated by males to favour males over females. A case in point is that many organisations still define the competence of a leader in terms of traits that are associated with males, such as the availability to work all the time, strength and

firmness (Meyerson & Fletcher, 1999). Mulkeen, Chapman, De Jaeghere and Leu (2007) in their study of five African countries, found that there is favouritism in the appointment of heads of schools at both district and regional levels. This is supported by Gaus (2011) who reported that female under-representation in leadership is due to recruitment procedures dictated by corruption, ethnicity, nepotism and discrimination. In relation to this, Moorosi (2011) observed that qualified women were not appointed to top leadership positions in South Africa due to gender bias, nepotism, ethnicity and political affiliation. In this regard, appointing School Governing Body sometimes ignores formal rules and makes their own informal rules and regulations to favour males in appointments (Ruijs, 1993; Brown & Ralph, 1996; Sales, 1999; Celikten, 2005; Coleman, 2009).

Concerning Item 9, 75% (45) disagreed and 25% (15) of the respondents agreed respectively on the issue that says that female school managers are less patient than their male counterparts. Irby and Brown, (1995) argued that females tend to be emotional when dealing with situations. This portrays them as weak leaders. Good leaders are emotionally strong and firm where necessary. Socialization and culture influence perceptions of women's leadership, qualifications and effectiveness. Eagly and Carli (2011) explored the mental associations of leaders based on gender, noting that gender prejudice aligns with social constructions of masculine and feminine based on cultural perceptions and influences. Associations develop, with women often associated with communal qualities of compassion, affection, and gentleness, and men associated with agentic qualities of assertion, self-confidence, and dominance. Prejudices may result when mismatches or role incongruity between stereotyped attributes of women traverse the leadership roles they fill. Thus, favouritism towards male over female leaders may develop. Women may be accused of being too pushy or too soft. According to leadership research, a woman who leads with behaviours traditionally perceived as masculine may find herself at a disadvantage.

Women who are feminine may be perceived as less competent, causing a double bind of mutual exclusivity between the two, creating a delicate balancing act. Angela Merkel (Chancellor of Germany), was often dismissed as being too masculine in her leadership behaviour, has also been criticized for showing emotion, such as during the 2013, she led Christian Democratic Union/Christian Social Union, in the elections

she tore up during a question and answer session. Cultural expectations also contribute to the notion that women should be polite in every situation. Furthermore, when an incongruity exists between gender role and leadership role, prejudice often results, which may account for why it is more difficult for women to become leaders and achieve success than for their male counterparts.

In Item 10, 27% (16) of the respondents disagreed that female teachers fail to hold school management positions because of lack of sufficient qualifications. On the other hand, 73% (44) of them strongly agreed that female teachers fail to hold school management positions because of lack of sufficient tertiary qualifications. A study by Gross and Trask, (1976) listed capabilities of females in management positions. Female school managers were found to have greater knowledge and concern for instructional supervision and teachers preferred females over males. Female managers placed more importance on technical skills and organization responsibility of teachers as a criterion for evaluation (Allan, 2004). These findings show that females literally perform better than males, resulting in many teachers preferring to be under female leadership. In exploring women's route into leadership, Priola and

Brannan (2009) noted that education and self-determination are perceived to be at the core of a career in leadership. They mentioned that the increased education attainment and the enhancement of academic credentials of women have subsequently accompanied an increased commitment to professional and managerial careers. A respondent in Normore and Gaetane's (2008) study on the leadership experiences of four female secondary school heads, cited a strong knowledge-base and value on having attained a doctorate as a motivator for joining education leadership. Wickham (2007) studied perceived barriers and successful strategies used to attain the superintendence in California, and discovered that obtaining a doctorate degree was considered one of the successful strategies. Fifty-two percent of the respondents in the study held a doctoral degree. The academic attainment could be attributed to the fact that, as Mitroussi and Mitroussi (2009) asserted, women need to feel well-prepared before they apply for a leadership position. They choose to become heads when they feel adequate, that is, when they have become competent teachers, and they have their own agenda for school management positions.

In Item 11, 52% (31) of the respondents disagreed while 48% (29) agreed that female teachers are not perceived to be as powerful as males in school management positions and are poor at networking. This means that female school managers lack networking skills that can be used to convince their subordinates to accept their decisions (Ibarra, 1992). Onsongo (2004) observed that the main source of under-representation of women in educational leadership was sex discrimination in recruitment and promotion. Some researchers have observed that the top management lacks the commitment to deal with gender equity and equal employment initiatives (Bell, McLaughlin & Sequeira, 2002). Women encounter a number of obstacles from their superiors. It is observed that male domination of top leadership and selection positions discourages women from seeking leadership positions, as they prefer to promote their favourites who, unfortunately, are not women (Kagoda & Sperandio, 2009). Furthermore, Bassett (2009), Powell (1999) and Shakeshaft, (1989) observed that men tend to like working with other men. In addition, Hill and Ragland (1995) and Oplatka (2006) argue that males are likely to recruit new principals who resemble them in attitude, philosophy, deeds, appearance, hobbies and club membership. In this case, women lack the opportunity in organisations to gain the experience required to move forward (Bell, 2002).

Cubillo and Brown (2003) reported that the acquisition of access to top posts in leadership exceeds the country limits. In addition, Acker (1990) and Blackmore (1999) put it that structural barriers to female advancement in organisations have their roots in the fact that most organisations have been created by and for males and are based on male experiences of leadership which leads to the existence of a particular form of masculinity in organisational leadership. Amondi (2011) declares that leadership values in society have been formulated by males to favour males over females. A case in point is that many organisations still define the competence of a leader in terms of traits that are associated with males, such as the availability to work all the time, strength and firmness (Meyerson & Fletcher, 1999).

Mulkeen, Chapman, DeJaeghere and Leu (2007) in their study in five African countries, found that there is favouritism in the appointment of heads of schools at both district and regional level. This is supported by Gaus (2011) who reported that female under-representation in leadership is due to recruitment procedures dictated by corruption, ethnicity, nepotism and discrimination.

Item 12 was about whether female school managers are poor at networking skills. Seventy-two percent (43) of the respondents agreed while 28% (17) said female school managers are poor at networking. Data from interviews revealed that men have more extensive social networks that include influencing organizational members than do females. Working females also report more difficulty establishing mentoring relationships with male colleagues than do men (Ragins & Cotton, 1991).

Even when females do find mentors and develop social networks, these relationships are less strongly associated with positive career outcomes such as promotions and compensation than are men's relationships (Lyness & Thompson, 2000; Eddleston, Baldrige & Veiga, 2004; Forret & Dougherty, 2004). Lack of professional network is perceived as a barrier to women's career advancement. Regarding this, Shakeshaft (1985) noted that a lack of established networks is a barrier for women. Networking is a means of making long-term contact which serves as an insurance for one's profession. It increases career promotion and advancement. In the study of formal and informal leadership and networks Sherman (2002) found that informal networking is crucial to women aspiring to leadership position and it is also a factor that moves the aspirants into formal leadership positions. The encouragement of women to form their networks at different levels of the hierarchy or outside the organization is likely to be a useful way of building confidence and expertise. Women's networks can powerfully impact the culture and policy of organizations and professions. It helps women to develop talents, build relationships, and support job equity. Therefore, lack of networking is a barrier to women's participation in school management positions.

In Item 13, 53% (32) of the respondents felt that female school managers are not good at making informed decisions while, 47% (28) felt that female school managers are not good at making informed decisions. A study by Hellen (1999), indicates that females tend to generalize, to synthesize, to take a broader, more contextual perspective of any issue. Educational leadership refers to leadership influence through the generation and dissemination of educational knowledge and instructional information, development of teaching programs, and supervision of teaching performance (Shum & Cheng, 1997). It is relevant in all educational institutions right from preliminary schools to universities. Education is an industry that involves various stakeholders (students, teachers, administrative personnel, parents, political

authorities as well as the general community) on educational decisions. Education is believed to play a pivotal role in any economy in relation to overall socio-economic development of any country. Owing to this, educational institutions demand better quality leadership.

In this regard, the peculiar natures of the educational institutions (crucially, complexity, visibility and the like) elevate the real call for strong, innovative and transformational leaders who have the talent and courage towards creativity. In view of this, both developed and developing countries have started to provide due attention to the importance of educational leadership. In Education, leadership is a key element as it enables leaders to inspire change and innovation through mobilization of relatively massive resources in educational organization. It is of particular importance in education because of its far-reaching impact on the accomplishment of educational programs, goals and objectives. An efficient educational leader has to stay updated with the changes in the field of education. Generally, educational leadership involves leading departments, decision making committees, educational facilities, monitoring performance of teaching staff and female leaders have been reported to be good at these.

Item 14 was concerned with the extent of mentoring services that female managers give to their staff. Thirteen percent (8) of the respondents disagreed while 87% (52) agreed that female school managers are not concerned about staff developing their teachers. Research indicates that there seems to be a lack of available female mentors for females. When males do act as mentors they tend to sponsor males (Coleman, 1996). A study by Coleman (2002) shows that mentoring is very important for a new person in a position. Mentoring may provide the inspiration to aspire for headship. Mulkeen (2006) reports that the availability of females in school, whether as normal teachers or heads of schools, is a crucial aspect in generating gender role models and mentors.

Morley (2006) adds that females feel happy in the presence of female role models. Nevertheless, Otieno (2001) observed that female teachers and students lack role models and mentors. It has also been observed that there are few female teachers and heads in rural schools who could be positive role models for female students in those areas. Another study in the Republic of Tanzania (2012) found that in some

districts in Tanzania, like Meatu, only 28% of teachers were women, 40% of the 110 surveyed schools in Meatu did not have even one female teacher. This implies that female students lack role models and mentors which affects their future careers and professions. According to Item 15, 25% (15) of the respondents disagreed while 75% (45) agreed that female school managers fear additional responsibilities that will increase pressure on them. In relation to this, Holtkanm (2002) and Gidesn (2005) suggested that females have been reluctant to pursue school management positions because of the fact that females have been playing the traditional role of home-makers while men remain managers in every sphere of life. Studies show that female teachers fear additional responsibility that will increase pressure on them. Hence, some researchers attributed women's rejection of leadership posts to the many family tasks that deprive them of leadership experience (Ruijs, 1993; Chabaya et al., 2009; Coleman, 2009; Bubshait, 2012). A study on the career progression of female teachers in England found that they preferred taking care of children at home than being leaders, which restricted their career development (Moreau, Osgood & Halsall, 2005). Gaus (2011) writes that family issues in Indonesia are given first priority by female teachers, rather than their career. Moreover, because of patriarchy in Turkey, Celikten (2009) observed that women prefer the teaching profession, which they see as the continuation of motherhood and name it as an 'easy and feminine profession' and therefore do not prefer administrative positions.

Regarding Item 16, 23% (14) of the respondents disagreed while 77% (46) agreed that female school managers are more skilled than their male counterparts in delegating authority. This indicates that females can effectively work jointly with others for the success of their organization. It also shows that they are good at delegating power through sharing the work efforts and their management position can be taken as a model. In supporting this issue, Rosener (1990) called the management styles of female teachers as interactive management.

In Item 17, 40% (24) disagreed and 60% (36) agreed that high school female teachers have less aspiration to be in school management positions. This means that according to this study there is a mixed feeling about the role of females in school management positions. Women's sparse number in educational leadership is perhaps a result of low intrinsic motivation or aspiration to leadership position

(Abebayehu, 1995). Ouston (1993) in fact provides a number of reasons for women's low aspiration while Shakeshaft (1985) disagrees.

Women's lack of success in obtaining administrative positions is not due to lowered aspiration or lack of motivation on the part of women. It could thus be said that findings regarding women aspiration are vary in some cases conflicting. According to Ouston (1993), there are a number of factors that affect the aspiration of women to move into formal leadership positions. First, devaluation of women that means considering women as less than and different from men. This assignment of less value to women takes the form of attitudes that favour males over females for administrative positions. The negative attitudes toward women by those who hire constitute the major barrier to female advancement in school administration (Shakeshaft, 1987).

The other reason is lack of self-confidence. Ouston (1993) also argues that, females have lower self-confidence than do males. This lowered confidence level make them to apply only for jobs which they are highly qualified while males are more likely to apply for jobs they are both qualified and are not qualified for. As a result, there are usually more male applications for a position and a male is likely to be hired. Relatedly, lack of self-confidence also helps to explain why females internalize failure and males externalize it. McLoughlin (1992) argues that confidence is the key factor for every woman in management.

Forty percent of the female teachers interviewed in Adams and Hambright (2004) survey, conducted on the reasons why women teachers seem to lack interest in applying for administrative positions, said that nothing would encourage them to become school administrators. Several of the participants in Eddy (2008) of community college presidents revealed that they did not have a presidential position in mind when they started working in higher education. They got the position by either being encouraged by search committees to seek promotion, by being appointed by their chancellors, by seeking the position for fear of the alternative, or simply by following the hierarchy, which naturally left presidency as the next logical step in their career (Lange, 2006). This suggests that many females do not nurse ambitions for top positions.

In Item 18, the majority of the respondents, (87%-52) agreed while 13% (8) disagreed that interviewers usually prefer a male candidate to a female school manager. Occupational segregation by gender constitutes a major problem for working women. It sets the stage for in-built gender bias in recruiting, selection and hiring patterns even if discrimination is formally prohibited. While men and women may have similar qualifications and the possibilities to apply for jobs, the selection process often favours men over women for certain jobs. According to Chan and Lee (1994) a survey study conducted in Singapore which identified common reservations about hiring women where many respondents felt that married women were unsuitable for jobs requiring frequent travel

Wirth (2001) indicated that in the United States, although the percentage of women participating in the labour force has increased dramatically, women have remained concentrated in a narrow range of occupations. Even in occupations dominated by women, men usually occupy the more skilled, responsible, and better paid positions. According to Shakeshaft (1989) there are gender sensitive hiring mechanisms that limit women's entry to leadership positions. These include: limiting eligibility to within the districts when it is known that there are only few or no women who fulfil the requirement needed; asking women irrelevant questions about child care and personal matters and focusing upon the applicant as woman, rather than as a qualified professional.

The hiring process dominated by men recruiters can limit the chances of women applicants from being hired. The personality of the recruiter also affects the chance of women's recruitment to status positions. Basically, although it is observed that most men recruiters are perceived to have negative attitudes towards female candidates for administrative jobs, the bias is observed to be less severe amongst old than young recruiters who have had some working experience with female employees (Ababayehu, 1995). Therefore, biased and subjective selection and promotion criteria that are unrelated to the job can affect their participation.

In Item 19, the majority of the respondents (55%-33) agreed while 45% (27) disagreed that female school managers serve as a role model apart from gender concern. Mentoring may provide the inspiration to aspire for headship. Mulkeen (2006) reports that the availability of females in school, whether as normal teachers

or heads of schools, is a crucial aspect in generating gender role models and mentors. Morley (2006) adds that females feel happy in the presence of female role models. As already seen, (2001) observed that female teachers and students lack role models and mentors. It has also been observed that there are few female teachers and heads in rural schools who could be positive role models for female students in those areas. Mulkeen (2006) added that the lack of role models is one of the reasons why fewer girls than boys enrol in primary schools in Sub-Saharan Africa. In addition, the European Commission (2010) reported that women in leadership lack females above them to admire and inspire them to work hard towards acquiring the same positions as their male counterparts.

Regarding Item 20, which says that females manage the school the way they lead their own family, the majority of the respondents (57%-37) agreed while 43% (23) disagreed. They argued that in most cases female school managers are more capable than male school managers. Besides, Gaskell's (1992) work shows that females tend to be more nurturing less hierarchical and more consultative as administrators than males. Female school managers are more concerned with keeping relationships in good standing and are able to pace themselves and integrate their work. This shows that females are even better than males when it comes to school management practice. Kincheloe and Steinberg (2007) assert that racial, gendered and class forms of oppression need to be understood in a structural context.

There is sufficient evidence that demonstrates that women in leadership positions who display equal education and experience do not earn as much as men in comparable tasks. Singh (2005) and Snipes (2008) assert that generally two perspectives are often cited as explaining the above situation. The first, argues that women are not adapted to outside employment, are incapable of performing well and are therefore paid less. This position also justifies occupational segregation by asserting that women are naturally well suited to certain jobs. On the other hand, opponents offer the interpretation that women are widely discriminated against in a patriarchal and sexist society. The ILO (2008) asserts that the nature of women's career paths that blocks their progress to top positions since at lower management levels women are typically placed in non-strategic sectors, and in personnel and administrative positions, rather than in professional and line management jobs

leading to the top. This is often compounded by women's limited access to formal and informal networks essential for advancement.

The International Labour Organisation (2008) also notes that in large companies and organisations where women have achieved high level managerial positions, they are usually restricted to areas considered less vital and strategic to the organisation such as human resources and administration. Women's career trajectories do not result in them moving into strategic management areas such as productive development or corporate finance. There therefore exists a pyramid structure for women's presence in management and administrative positions. The ILO (1998) also refers to these barriers as glass walls. Wirth (2010) states that the glass walls ensure that women are not being trained for and offered mid-level positions that prepare them for the top management positions. Preferences, which largely determine the androcentric nature of management. This is especially true today as increasingly management is viewed more as the building and sustaining of team spirit and group work. A great deal of research has

Larwood and Wood (2007) suggest that a woman entering management must decide the extent and the types of demands she is willing to accept. Although the usual definition of a manager is masculine, the management tasks are not strongly associated with either sex. Larwood and Wood (2007) and Legge (2007) therefore suggest that it is conformity to sex and work roles, rather than specific tasks and documented the difficulties women have experienced in advancing through the ranks of managers (Dipboye, 2008). However, despite these challenges women are increasingly entering management positions in greater numbers.

4.6 Summary

This chapter discussed and analysed the results of the study. The main finding of the study was that, in general, many men think that female school managers are capable of being good managers despite the fact that management is associated with male teachers. The next chapter gives a summary of the whole study, draws conclusions and makes recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the whole study (Chapters 1-4) and draws conclusions and makes recommendations. The chapter has been divided into five sections. The first section highlights the key ideas from each of the four preceding chapters. The second section summarises the major findings of the study, taking into consideration the research objectives and research. The third section draws conclusions based on the findings of the study, while the fourth section offers recommendations based on the major findings. The fifth and final section suggests areas for future research.

5.2 Summary of the study

Chapter 1 highlighted the problem and its setting. The chapter began by highlighting the international scene and then moved into Africa and finally into the South African situation as is where the present study was conducted. The chapter discussed perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions. Thereafter, it highlighted the statement of the problem, presented the purpose of the study, the main research question that guided the study and its sub-research questions, the research objectives and the assumptions of the study. The chapter further discussed the significance of the study, presented delimitations and defined the key terms as used in the study. Finally, the chapter outlined the organisation of the study.

Chapter 2 reviewed related literature. The chapter focused on the concept of under-representation of female teachers in school management positions. The review mainly centred on three different theories of under-representation which have a bearing on this study. The first is the feminist theory which is devoted to clarifying the nature of the social and political world and the way in which gender functions to produce male domination and female subordination. Feminism is a theoretical

perspective which is used by different organizations when they demand the emancipation of women from oppression by the societal structures of society. Feminism is not only composed of women who are seen as man-haters, it also is composed of men who demand that their counterparts be freed from all forms of discrimination (Meehan, 1995). Feminists want to break the shackles of the patriarchal system (Jeong, 2000). The second theory is liberal feminism theory which can be traced back to the struggles over job and wage differences between women and men in the USA in the 19th and 20th centuries (Lorber, 2001). The theory questions the damaging and discriminating of women and hence, demands equal opportunities through legal reforms and more women in decision-making (Mannathoko, 1992). The theory aims to involve women in leadership, overcome the glass ceiling to senior leadership positions and demonstrate how much society discriminates against women (Lorber, 2010). Therefore, the assumptions of feminist theory are still applicable in South African society even at this very present moment.

The last theory is cultural feminism theory which was applied as a theoretical framework in this study. The theory argues that restricting women's freedom to the home, the larger society was corrupt and unjust. Cultural feminism argues that there are fundamental biological and personality differences between men and women and those women differences should be celebrated as a source of personal strength and pride. Culturalists acknowledge the existence but not the inferiority of the difference and on this platform, enunciate an equality of quality, not of sameness to men. One such difference is that women raise children while men do not.

The findings relating to the challenges facing female school managers are observed to originate from society and organisation. Societal factors observed in this study were culture, religion and poverty, which discriminate against girls in education and subject them to early marriages, which deprive most of them of the chance of having an education and a career. Lack of social support from members of the school community for women to participate in decision making and education was also observed to influence female under-representation in school management positions. The findings reveal that women are discouraged from being involved in school management positions. The challenges observed in literature were that female leaders were alleged to be deceitful in their marriages, which required them to prove

to their husbands that they were innocent and not involved in sexual relationships with other men. This has been observed to cause some women to face the dilemma of either opting out of leadership or sacrificing their marriages, hence discouraging other women from being involved in leadership. Furthermore, it has been observed that senior female leaders face the challenge of rejection by the members of the school community, and so they have to work hard to be accepted. Additionally, it has been observed that, being rural female heads of schools, these heads face the challenge of balancing multiple roles in the family, society and school. Female heads in rural schools face acute challenges compared to those in urban schools, as they were observed to search for water and collect firewood, besides their official and societal activities, while those in towns use gas, electricity and tap water, which save time.

Chapter 3 was on the methodological aspects that guided the research process. These included the research paradigm, the research approach, the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instruments, issues of validity, reliability/trustworthiness, data collection procedures, data analysis and ethical considerations. The researcher in this study wanted to get a more holistic picture on the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. Thus, a paradigm that seemed ideal to capture positivistic and interpretivist ideas was concurrently considered hence, the mixed method approach was considered for its flexibility in the use of both qualitative and quantitative techniques.

Quantitative data was collected through questionnaires and qualitative data through documents and interviews that were conducted with the male teachers. Frequency counts and percentages were used to sum up indicators in quantitated data. Integration of quantitative data from questionnaires and quantitative data; interviews and document was done in the process.

Chapter 4 focused on data presentation and analysis/discussion. The researcher decided to present the data and immediately analyse/discuss them in order to avoid the unnecessary repetition that often characterises work where data presentation and data analysis/discussion are separated into two chapters. The data was

presented and analysed/discussed in line with the questionnaire. Data from the document and interviews was used to support findings from questionnaires. The questionnaire addressed the objectives of the study which reflected the main research question and sub-research questions. In the process, triangulation of different forms of data was applied to ensure trustworthiness and credibility of data and eventually reduce chances of reaching false conclusions.

The chapter was divided into three sections. The first section examined demographic information of respondents. It included the age of the respondents, the length of their service and the qualifications of the respondents. The second section presented and analysed/discussed data obtained from 20 items in the questionnaire to establish the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District. The study revealed that generally, male teachers' perceptions towards female managers tend to be biased. Many teachers felt that females are just as competent as males. It is only cultural stereotype that makes some males to think females are not as good as males when it comes to management positions.

Females have been perceived to be incompetent in terms of being trusted with management and delicate or sensitive positions, despite their education and skills (Amondi, 2011). Female school managers are negatively perceived because of the deep-rooted patriarchal system and culture, which lead most people in society to believe that women cannot be given equal opportunities in management positions. The researcher is of the opinion that, although some teachers do not accept female school managers due to culture and patriarchy, as observed in this study, currently there has been a significant change in how female school managers are perceived in South Africa, as the number of females involved in management positions is increasing, especially in politics (Kayis, Ndlovu & Okwemba, 2011).

Apart from understanding challenges facing female teachers in management positions in Queenstown Education District, the study finds that female teachers in management positions suffer from pressure at work and at home. The study revealed that gender bias, tribalism and nepotism in recommending and appointing

school heads and procedures which implicitly discriminate against women to be appointed into management positions were some of the factors to blame.

The findings show that the procedures used for recommending and appointing school managers in the Queenstown Education District are not explicit and transparent. Due to patriarchy, these procedures in the context of this study have been observed to cause gender bias and discrimination, from the school level, where recommendations start, to the Provincial level where final appointments are made. At the school and district level there is a School Governing Body to make recommendations, which has been observed to lead to a high level of gender discrimination and bias. In addition, the findings show that the lack of role models, social networking, support and encouragement from the male teachers were also to blame.

5.3 Conclusions

The findings of this study suggest that female school managers were positively viewed by their male teachers. Female school managers were also viewed by male teachers to be effective with regard to their responsibilities. Although some of the male teachers felt that there was no role conflict between domestic and professional roles of female school managers, the others felt that there was conflict and this intended to interfere with their work, not that they are incompetent. The study observed that there is under-representation of female teachers in high school management in the Queenstown Education District. From questionnaire and interview responses, it is reasonable to conclude that perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of male teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District have been positively changing. Interview data suggest that many male teachers now accept female teachers. Despite the individual barriers resulting from culture and socialisation that keep females as classroom teachers with low-level educational qualifications the school organisation also does not seem to support qualified females in acquiring school management positions.

In other words, women face obstacles in all spheres at school. The researcher also concludes that the women who are in school management positions are also to blame for female under-representation in school management positions. The study observed that for various reasons, some teachers are hesitant to take up leadership positions.

Although school environmental factors, socio-cultural factors and psychological factors are interconnected and all are also responsible for female under-representation in school management positions at a deep level, society's culture, norms and values are to some extent the most influential factors. Society's culture, values and norms affect the rules and regulations for recommending and appointing heads of schools. Society has low expectations of women, which influences the minds of those who practise bias along gender lines.

Similarly, society socialises women to be less confident, to put more emphasis on the family, to feel inferior and to be in inferior positions. Therefore, a holistic view of society, organisation and individuality should be used to gain an understanding of female under-representation in school management positions in the Queenstown Education District; the barriers and obstacles that must be overcome at all costs, is the present researcher's view.

5.4 Recommendations based on the findings of the study

Based on the findings of the study, the researcher recommends the following.

- Providing gender-sensitive training to both male and female teachers to promote non-discriminatory working relationships and respect for diversity in work and management styles. This would help to develop positive attitude to some male teachers who still have misconceptions regarding females taking leadership positions in schools.
- Employing Affirmative Action, such as constitutionally-managed quotas, to improve the representation of females in school management positions. With more women in leadership positions, negative attitudes which some male teachers still have are likely to disappear.

- Removing socio-cultural stereotypes on women leaders involves not only a transformation in employees' mind-sets but also management practices, processes and organizational culture. The School Governing Body should develop institutional strategies to forge love, self-respect and trust with the Eastern Cape Department of Education.
- Female managers are afraid of failure especially those who start their management trajectory path; there is therefore a need to encourage them to work through the moments of self-doubts by commending them to ignore that inner voice that may discourage them from taking tough decisions.

5.5 Recommendations for future research

Further studies could refine the present findings by using a larger sample of the population. A new study could employ questionnaires and in-depth interviews and with more male teachers.

Case studies of female teachers who have been in school management positions to find out the challenges they faced and how they overcame the barriers could be ideal studies in this area.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: MUS041SNYI01

Project title: Perceptions of male teachers on under-representation of female teachers in High School Management positions in the Queenstown Education District

Nature of Project: Masters

Principal Researcher: Khaya Nyikanyika

Sub-Investigator:

Supervisor: Prof T Mushoriwa

Co-supervisor:

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of:

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

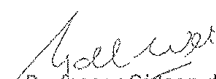
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of §71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct: principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely


Professor Gideon de Wet
Dean of Research

01 October 2015

APPENDIX B: LETTER TO THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

TO : The District Director
Department Of Education
Queenstown

FROM: K NYIKANYIKA (Mr)
Homestead Building
Queenstown Education District
Private Bag X7053
Queenstown

Dear Sir

SUBJECT: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I hereby request permission to undertake some research work at eight selected high schools in the district, 4 schools from the rural areas and 4 schools from the urban areas. I intend conducting interviews with male post-level 1 teachers and it is envisaged that each interview will last for 30 minutes. I am enrolled for a Master's Degree in Education Management at the University of Fort Hare. I am undertaking a study "PERCEPTIONS OF MALE TEACHERS ON THE UNDER-REPRESENTATION OF FEMALE TEACHERS IN HIGH SCHOOL MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN THE QUEENSTOWN EDUCATION DISTRICT".

The purpose of the study will be outlined at the beginning of each session, and confidentiality discussed and informed consent obtained at the beginning of all interviews and focus group sessions.

I believe that this study will be of benefit not only to me but to the schools, district and province as well, by providing answers to some questions surrounding the quality of teaching and learning with particular reference to the Queenstown District. I promise that all information obtained from the study will be treated with strict confidentiality and will only be used for academic purpose of this study.

I am hoping for your kind consideration.

Yours sincerely
K NYIKANYIKA (Mr.)

APPENDIX C: APPROVAL LETTER BY THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION



IDS&G SECTION : QUEENSTOWN
HOMESTEAD SITE, 2 LIMPOPO DRIVE LAURIE DASHWOOD QUEENSTOWN 5320. Private
Bag X7053 QUEENSTOWN, 5320
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA, Website: www.ecdoe.gov.za

Ref: Mr
Nyikanyika
Enquiries: JONKER W.D.

Tel.: 0458085712 CELL : 0842510032
Fax: 0458588906

TO : MR K NYIKANYIKA
Cc Principals of schools in Queenstown District

FROM : DISTRICT DIRECTOR

SUBJECT : LETTER OF NO OBJECTION TO RESEARCH BY MR KHAYA NYIKANYIKA

DATE : 16 OCTOBER 2015

This serves to confirm that the district office has no objection to the request that Mr Nyikanyika conduct research amongst schools in the Queenstown district.

The project title is as follows:

"Perceptions of male teachers on under-representation of female teachers in High School Management positions in the Queenstown Education District."

However the following conditions will apply:

1. Mr Nyikanyika needs to approach the targeted schools individually to clarify the research, times, target group etc.
2. No research must interfere with teaching and learning times or lead to disruption of teaching and learning in any institution.

Your's sincerely


H.N. GODLO
DISTRICT DIRECTOR



building blocks for growth



Ikamva eliqaqambileyo!

APPENDIX E: LETTER TO THE PRINCIPALS

Khaya Nyikanyika
45 Impala Road
Madeira Park
Queenstown
5320
17 October 2015
Email: khayanyikanyika@live.co.za

The School Manager
.....
.....
.....
.....

Dear Sir/Madam,

Re: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH

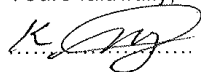
My name is Khaya Nyikanyika and I am a Manager: Student Support Services at King Sabatha Dalindyebo TVET College. I have just completed a post-graduate Degree in Educational Management and Leadership at the University of Pretoria. Currently, as part of my master's thesis, I am required to complete a research project on perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District.

Since, there is an under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions in the Queenstown Education District, the researchers intention is to get the perceptions of male teachers on the under-representation of female teachers in high school management positions. Currently, no research has been done in this field in South Africa. This letter seeks your permission to conduct the research in this field. This study will involve a mixed method approach.

On receiving permission to do the study, the researcher will proceed to do the research.

Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Yours faithfully,



Khaya Nyikanyika

Mobile Number: 0833119119

Home Number: 045-8381733

Work Number: 045-8381733

APPENDIX F: CONSENT FORM

Consent Form

Mr Khaya Nyikanyika is hereby given consent to conduct an interview with Senior Secondary School teachers ofas the research site for the thesis that she is required to write for the completion of her Master's degree.

It has come into our knowledge that the data will be collected from the focus group interviews. The information from these will then be used in the final report. Furthermore, I have received the assurance that the school teachers will remain anonymous in the report.

Principal's signature.....

Date.....

Teacher's signature.....

Date.....

APPENDIX G: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MALE TEACHERS

Information given on this questionnaire will be treated with confidence. Do not indicate your name or school nor put any other form of identity. Please put a tick (V) reflecting your response opinion. Where the questions require an explanation, write in the space provided for the purpose.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION.

1. Sex: Male () Female ()

2. Marital status: Married () Single ()

3. Age bracket

25-30 years () 31-35 years ()

36-40 years () 41-45 years () Above 50 years ()

4. Academic qualifications

Senior Teachers Diploma () ACE () B. Ed () B.Ed. Hons () M.Ed ()

Any other (specify).....

5. Work experience

a) As a teacher

Between 1-3 years () between 4-6 years ()

Between 7-9 years () Above 10 years ()

SECTION B: SCHOOL MANAGEMEMNT

6 (a) Do you like the way the school is managed?

Yes () No ()

b) If NO, which policies do you dislike? Explain briefly.

.....

.....

.....

7. What is your perception towards your female school manager?

Good () Fair () Poor ()

8 (a) How do you rate the effectiveness of your school manager in performance of her duties especially with regard to time management?

Good () Fair () Poor ()

(b) Explain your answer in (a) above

.....

.....

.....

9. (a) Does your school manager delegate some of the duties to the teachers?

Yes () No ()

(b) If yes, mention some of the duties she delegates to her teachers.

.....

.....

.....

10. Management style used by your school manager.

Autocratic () Democratic ()

Laize faire () Combination of i, ii and iii ()

11. In what ways do teachers participate in the running of the school?

.....

.....

.....

PART C: PERCEIVED CHALLENGES.

INSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES

12. Does your school organize for any training programmes on education

management for teachers in your school?

Yes () No ()

b) If NO, explain

.....

.....

.....

13. What is the perception of students to female teachers in the school?

Good () Fair () Poor ()

14 a) Do students accord male and female teachers the same level of respect?

Yes () No ()

c) Explain

.....

.....

.....

SOCIO CULTURAL CHALLENGES

14. (a) Does cultural and social issues interfere with management of school affairs?

Yes () No ()

(b) Explain your answer in (a) above

.....

.....

.....

15. Do you experience role conflict between domestic and professional roles?

Yes () No ()

(b) Explain

.....

.....

.....

PSYCHOLOGICAL/PERSONAL FACTORS

16. (a) Do your biological traits bar you from performing school duties effectively?

Yes () No ()

Explain

.....

.....

.....

17. (a) Does your traditional orientation works against your profession?

Yes () No ()

(b) Explain

.....

.....

.....

18 In your own opinion, does the media portrayal of female teachers impact negatively to their career roles? Yes () No ()

(b)

Explain

.....

.....

.....

SECTION D: COPING STRATEGIES AND WAY FORWARD

19. How do you deal with the following challenges?

a) Institutional.

.....

.....

.....

b) Socio-cultural.

.....

.....

.....

c) Personal/ psychological

.....

.....

.....

20. Suggest the way forward in ensuring that more female teachers become school managers.

.....

.....

.....

Thank

you.

APPENDIX H: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

		Response				
		SD	D	U	A	SA
No	Items					
1.	Female school managers are more concerned about their family issues than their school management duties.					
2.	Females are appreciated more for their good character than for their competence.					
3.	Female school managers lack delegation skills.					
4.	Female school managers show better interpersonal relationship in the work place than male school managers.					
5.	Cultural attitudes of our society encourage female teachers to be school managers.					
6.	Female school managers lack confidence in their work.					
7.	Female school managers encourage others to develop management skills more than their male counterparts.					
8.	The school society does not perceive female teachers as good school managers.					
9.	Female school managers are less patient than their male counterpart.					
10.	Female teachers fail to hold school management positions because of lack of sufficient tertiary qualification.					
11.	Female teachers are not perceived to be as powerful in the school management positions.					
12.	Female school managers are poor at networking skills.					
13.	Female school managers are not good at making informed decisions.					
14.	Female school managers are not concerned about staff developing their teachers.					
15.	Female school managers fear additional responsibilities that will increase pressure on them.					
16.	Female school managers are more skilled than their male counterparts delegating authority.					

17.	High school female teachers have less aspiration to be at the level of school management positions.					
18.	Interviews usually prefer a male candidate to a female school manager.					
19.	Female school managers serve as a role model apart from gender concern.					
20.	Female school managers are more capable than male school managers.					

APPENDIX I: LETTER OF ATTESTATION

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

LETTER OF ATTESTATION

I, Dr. K. E. Monyai, hereby certify that I received and edited the Masters Dissertation of Khaya Nyikanyika, entitled “PERCEPTIONS OF MALE TEACHERS ON UNDER-REPRESENTATION OF FEMALE TEACHERS IN HIGH SCHOOL MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN THE QUEENSTOWN EDUCATION DISTRICT”, 152 pages. Proposed corrections to be implemented by the author were 638.

Director/ Editor/ Educator

Dr. K. E. Monyai (Ph D)

PARLONS LA LANGUE – LET US SPEAK THE LANGUAGE cc 2005/072166/23

Tax Clearance Certificate Number: 0007/1/2014/0006506743

Diplôme d'études de la langue française (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Paris)

Post Graduate Diploma RE (Corpus Christi College, London)

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Date: 15 May 2017

Disclaimer: The editor is not responsible for the non-implementation of the proposed corrections in the final version of the dissertation/thesis.