

**PROBLEMS AND TRAINING NEEDS OF WOMEN EDUCATION MANAGERS  
IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN BLOEMFONTEIN**

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Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree

**MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE:  
EDUCATION MANAGEMENT**

in the

School of Teacher Education

at the

Central University of Technology, Free State

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BLOEMFONTEIN  
JULY 2006

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## **ABSTRACT**

Women Education managers are still in the minority in primary schools in Bloemfontein, despite the many changes education has undergone in recent years. It is against this background that the researcher found it imperative to investigate the problems women education managers might experience in carrying out their managerial duties and responsibilities. The study further sought to investigate the training needs of women education managers.

On the basis of the perceptions held by educators, findings of research studies and the little South African literature that exists, the research questions crystallise as follows: What managerial problems do women education managers experience in carrying out their managerial duties? Do women education managers experience problems other than managerial problems in carrying out their duties? What training do they require?

The purpose of this investigation was to gain an insight into the problems women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein experience in carrying out their managerial duties. The literature review provided a focus as the framework on which this study is based.

In order to collect factual information about the managerial problems women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein encounter, questionnaires were distributed amongst the target group.

Women education managers experience problems in performing their managerial duties. These problems include delegation, finance management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, decision making, problem solving and allocation of time.

There are some factors other than managerial competence and leadership style that have an influence on the way women education managers perform their duties. These

factors include workplace discrimination, sexual harassment, negative attitudes towards women, emotional influences, promotion myths, lack of self-confidence, lack of support, role models and positive reinforcement, cultural socialization as well as allocation of duties. Other organisational factors women experience include: difficulty to cope with the demands of the post, too much workload, human relations, division of work in the department and when acting as principal when he/she is absent.

Based on the findings of the study, it is imperative that relevant training programmes that would address the particular needs of women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein, be developed. These training programmes should address the various areas of management which are problematic to women education managers. As education managers, women should seize every opportunity to leave behind the gender discrimination which is still prevalent in the sphere of education and commit themselves to undergo management training to successfully execute their managerial duties.

As education managers, women also need training in various organisational issues in which they experience problems. These problems also have an influence on the way women execute their managerial duties.

Recommendations for the study: By providing women education managers with the necessary managerial skills, the different areas of management in which women experience problems can be eradicated. They will have to undergo relevant training. Workshops and in-service training sessions need to be conducted to address the managerial areas in which women education managers experience problems.

The findings of this study are not representative of the Free State province and further research needs to be conducted in the entire province or even all over South Africa.

## ***ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS***

My deepest gratitude and appreciation go to the following:

1. The Almighty God, the Omnipotent, who has sustained me since birth till present and for giving me the strength and courage to work throughout my studies.
2. The Innovation Fund for the grant that made this study possible.
3. Dr. Sheila Matoti, my supervisor, for the generous and empathetic manner in which she guided me with her considerable ability, rich experience and expertise throughout the duration of this study.
4. The Chief Director: Strategic Management Services, Mr. J.S Tladi of the Free State Education Department, for allowing me to distribute questionnaires amongst educators.
5. Mr Frans Kok of the Free State Department of Education for providing me with statistics concerning the number of female education managers at the various primary schools in Bloemfontein.
6. The educators at the various primary schools who willingly filled in the questionnaires. Without you this study would not have materialised.
7. I also thank my parents, Henry and Janet Cicilie, who have been a tower of strength throughout my educational career.
8. Grateful appreciation goes to my wife Ellen and children, Waylen and Deidrè, for their love, support and faith in me.

## ***DEDICATION***

This study is especially dedicated to my parents, Henry and Janet Cicilie, who, through difficult times and when cents had to be turned around, found it fit to send me to university. You were always a pillar and source of strength in my life. My wife, Ellen and children, Waylen and Deidrè – your patience, faith and love have always constantly inspired me to become better. This research study has been undertaken in your honour and it belongs to you more than it does to me. I love, admire and respect you.

**DECLARATION WITH REGARD TO  
INDEPENDENT WORK**

I, WAYNE CYRIL CICILIE, identity number [REDACTED] and student number 20281307, do hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State for the Degree MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE: EDUCATION MANAGEMENT, is my own independent work; and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

\_\_\_\_\_  
**SIGNATURE OF STUDENT**

\_\_\_\_\_  
**DATE**

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **ORIENTATION**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the background to the problems women education managers in Primary Schools in Bloemfontein experience when carrying out their managerial responsibilities. It also presents the statement of the problem, the aims of the study, the research questions, hypotheses as well as the significance of the study.

### **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM**

According to Dekker and Lemmer (1993:5) women, for a number of years, have seldom been offered management positions in various spheres of life. Only a few women educators were fortunate enough to be appointed in senior positions. Concern has been expressed by educators in various western countries about the under-representation of women in positions of leadership in education systems. This under-representation of women reinforced the perception that women teach and men control.

A frequent argument given by employers for not hiring women in responsible and powerful positions is that women are inherently incapable of managing such positions and hence these positions are reserved for men. The employer's argument is that they would not discriminate against women and

would hire them if they had the same capability as men (Steiner, Coleman, Estep & Shelle, 1975:50).

Women often have to endure discrimination because of the image that a woman is a sexual symbol, thus de-emphasising attributes such as intelligence, creativity and management skills in contrast to men (Steiner *et al.*, 1975:51). They further argue that a woman is not generally conceptualised as an independent human being.

The “servant” image of women can be identified in the institution of marriage when women are expected to relinquish their names for that of their husbands, traditionally agreeing to be obedient and, thus, recognising their position of subordination. These societal images of women often hinder them from exercising a wide choice of occupations and, therefore, from rising to top positions. Even those women who occupy top professional positions often discover that they are still expected to fulfil the image of a sex object or of a servant. They may encounter that employers expect them to fill in for absent secretaries, to welcome executives or serve as hostesses at important business functions. Steiner *et al.* (1975: 53) argue that these perceptions of women emphasise behaviour that is dependent, passive and non-assertive.

Males and females are expected to behave according to the roles society has allocated to them in order to be socially acceptable. The gender role that is attributed to a woman will thus, to a large extent, influence the way in which she behaves, and the way in which she performs her management actions.

The problem deepens when it comes to training women managers in an attempt to develop their management skills, because most of the existing management programmes are aimed at the male manager and do not necessarily comply with the needs of the female manager.

The school as an organisation is established and operated with specific set objectives. These objectives can only be realized if the human resources in



such an organization are fully utilized and have all the necessary expertise. The most influential figures in this regard will be the School Management Team (SMT). The School Management Team include only the principal, deputy principal and head of department. The success of a school depends entirely on the quality of the School Management Team at the helm of the organisation, and also the leadership style adopted or a combination thereof. Involved staff members also help to make a maximum contribution to the success of the school and, at the same time, grow in ability.

According to popular myth, women entrepreneurs lead their companies differently from the way the typical “business guy” does. Women managers empower and nurture employees, establish more egalitarian relationships and substitute the traditional command-and-control reporting hierarchies with a web-like corporate structure.

Our society has doubts about whether women are, or can be, competent enough to handle difficult leadership and management situations. These kinds of doubts about women’s competence to manage and to lead seem to emanate from people’s cultural identification of effective managers with the masculine image. Since groups of people have existed, women have been leaders. Even in pre-historic settings when superior physical strength usually equated with leadership, women inadvertently led, controlled and influenced others (Hill and Ragland, 1995: 7).

Women in management positions have a unique management style and, consequently, they manage differently from their male counterparts, revealing both weak and strong points in terms of their management performance. Shakeshaft (1989:171) points out that although men and women overall tend to do the same things in carrying out their work, they may put a different emphasis on certain aspects of the task. These differences in emphasis mean that whereas all the work gets done, some work gets more attention than other work, depending upon the gender of the manager. Because women reveal a unique management style, they will probably also have distinctive management

training needs in order to effectively handle their day-to-day management tasks (Niemann, 1994:7).

It is against this background that the researcher decided to undertake the study to investigate the problems and training needs of women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein. The researcher is an educator at one of the schools in Bloemfontein.

### **1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The role of school managers has increased over the years. It includes planning, human resource management, time management and financial management. These tasks require certain leadership skills. A lack of these skills may cause problems for the managers.

Men as managers are perceived to be more competent, more dominant-aggressive, and to have more ego strength than women, but to be less warm and expressive than women. The question is: Do women require special training to be effective leaders, and if so, what kind of training should it be? If it is true that women are less competitive and dominant than men, and that these qualities are necessary for effective leadership, then women probably ought to be encouraged, and trained, to behave more like men.

According to Niemann (1994:7), women in management positions in South Africa are subject to pressure and experiences which are not experienced by men. It can also be argued that they share some of the same work related pressures as their male counterparts. These pressures include feelings of isolation, strain of coping with gender stereotyping, discrimination by colleagues and the whole experience of pressure from an institutional culture. The lack of management training programmes especially designed to fit the needs of women as managers implies that there is also a lack of management skills. This therefore necessitate a need for relevant training programmes for

the development of these women as managers. Niemann (1994:7) points out that existing management training programmes do not necessarily comply with the needs of the female managers, because most of these programmes are aimed at the male manager. In order to train women education managers adequately and to make them successful leaders, there is no doubt that there should be training programmes designed which are directed towards women educational manager's specific needs.

#### **1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY**

The following were the aims of the study:

- To investigate the problems that women education managers might experience in carrying out their managerial duties.
- To determine what the training needs of women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein are and how these needs could be addressed.

#### **1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The study sought to answer the following broad research questions:

- What managerial problems do women education managers experience in carrying out their managerial duties?
- Do women education managers experience problems other than managerial problems in carrying out their duties?
- What training do they require?

The study further sought to answer the following specific questions:

- In which areas of management do women education managers experience problems?
- What organisational problems do women educational managers experience in carrying out their managerial duties?
- Are there relevant training programmes in place to train women education managers?

## **1.6 HYPOTHESES**

The study sought to address the following hypotheses

- Women education managers experience problems in carrying out their managerial duties.
- Women education managers further experience various forms of organisational problems in carrying out their managerial duties.
- There are no training for women education managers.

## **1.7 DELINEATION OF THE STUDY**

This research is a study in the discipline of Educational Management as a part-discipline of Education. The study focussed on primary education managers in Bloemfontein. Principals, deputy principals and heads of department were included in the study. Bloemfontein was chosen for the study because the researcher works in Bloemfontein and it was easy to gain entry into the schools.

## **1.8 METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The study focussed only on women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein, and therefore the results of the study cannot be generalised to the greater Free State Region. However, the results of the study may lead to the formulation of hypotheses for a larger study, not necessarily in primary schools, but to secondary schools as well.

## **1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

First and foremost, the value of this study lies in its potential to alert the Free State Education Department to the problems women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein experience when attempting to carrying out their duties. It will provide solutions to the problems they experience and will eventually lead to the effective management of schools.

## **1.10 CLARIFICATION OF TERMS**

**Problems:** Problems, as used in this study, refer to managerial problems women education managers experience in carrying out their managerial duties as well as other problems they experience because they are women.

Further definition of terms is dealt with in chapter 2.

## **1.11 OUTLAY OF THE CHAPTERS**

The dissertation is organised in the following manner:

**Chapter 2** focuses on the review of the literature on which the investigation was based. Literature that looks into the factors that contribute to the problems women education managers experience in carrying out their duty is reported. These problems include managerial problems such as planning, policy-making, decision-making, problem-solving and delegating. It also deals with peripheral issues that may have an effect on the way women education managers perform.

**Chapter 3** focuses on the research methodology that is used in the study. The population, the sampling method, research approach and the data collection as well as the analysis processes, are described.

**Chapter 4** presents the analysis and interpretation of the collected data.

**Chapter 5** summarizes the main findings and conclusions with regard to the internal and external factors that contribute to the problems women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein might experience when carrying out their managerial duties.

## **1.12 CONCLUSION**

This introductory chapter has given an overview of the study. The next chapter reviews literature pertinent to the study. It has dealt with the background to the problem, statement of the problem, aims of the study, research questions, hypotheses, delineation of the study, methodological limitations of the study, significance of the study and the outlay of the chapters.



# CHAPTER 2

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the literature review pertinent to the study. It has covered the following sections: definition of concepts, that is, management, educational management and leadership; management tasks; differences between educational management and management of other organisations; the differences between management and leadership; characteristics of educational leaders; types of leadership in an organisation; influence of gender on management styles; problems women education managers encounter; how women managers perceive their role; the South African situation and the conclusion

### 2.2 DEFINITION OF TERMS

#### 2.2.1 MANAGEMENT

The word management comes from the Latin word *manus*, meaning to handle (Calitz; Viljoen; Moller and Van Der Bank, 1992: 2). A workable definition of management reads as follows:

- Management is a process which involves the skilful handling and supervision of people and or goods by a manager in such a way that predetermined goals are reached in a certain time.



- Management is a universal process of efficiently getting activities completed through people.
- Management is the unifying and the co-ordinating activity which combines the actions of individuals into meaningful and purposeful action.
- Management is a process of getting things done by people (Calitz *et al.* 1992: 2-3).

Thus, management is a specific task, which is goal-orientated. In order for an organization to run smoothly, management needs trained people. Moreover, management takes place within an organisation, which, in this study, is the school. The next section deals with educational management.

### **2.2.2 EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT**

Educational management is a field of study, an academic subject and a body of knowledge. Basson, Van der Westhuizen and Niemann (1991: 1) say that it is a part-discipline that is acknowledged as an exceptional instrument for turning educational insights into practice and for cultivating efficiency and excellence in teaching. Terblanche (1991: 29) defines educational management as the calculated application of resources to facilitate the educational process. He maintains that its general goal is the maximum realization of educational goals with the means at the disposal of the system.

Walters (1991: 2-3) says educational management is the process of relating resources to objectives required in organisations which provide education. He maintains that behaviour which is not directed towards the desired objectives of the organisation results in the non-achievement of these

objectives. He further emphasizes that education and management should co-exist for the well-being of an organisation.

West-Burnham (1994: 13) understands educational management as an ongoing conflict between the political, economic and social context in which educational institutions have to operate, as well as the management strategies and behaviours that are adopted in response to that context. He asserts that the role of educational management theory is to clarify implicit values, predict outcomes and facilitate comparative analysis that seeks to enhance effective practice.

### **2.2.3 LEADERSHIP**

The study of leadership in organisational behaviour has produced literally hundreds of definitions (Hoy and Miskel, 1996: 373; Owens, 1995: 134). A review of various trends in the history of the development of the concept of leadership reveals that educational leadership borrowed largely from the military and industry. However, while there are varying definitions of leadership, the following is amongst the most recurring:

- Leadership is a group function: it occurs only in the processes of two or more people interacting.
- Leaders intentionally seek to influence the behaviour of others (Hoy and Miskel, 1996: 374; Owens, 1995: 116).

Cole (1993: 46) maintains that three elements are essential in order to understand leadership:

- It is intimately linked with behaviour and is essentially a human process at work in organisations.
- Leadership is a dynamic process, not a static one.

- The role of the leader is to direct the group towards group goals.

Thus, leadership is essentially a human process in a group whereby one individual influences the others to contribute voluntarily to the achievement of group tasks in a given situation (Cole, 1993: 46). The issue central to leadership is that of the relationship between those who lead and those who follow. According to Bond (1996: 13), “Fundamental aspirations which are shared connect leaders and followers.” Wynn and Guditus (1984: 24) argue that leadership cannot be separated from the needs and goals of the followers.

From the above definitions it becomes apparent that leadership concerns human relationships. The leader influences one or more individuals to set and achieve certain predetermined objectives and goals (Owens, 1995: 122). The leader leads his or her followers to commitment to the organisation and empowers them so that their combined efforts result in the attainment of their goals. In schools, the principal as leader influences others to enthusiastically reach goals. Van der Linde (1995: 8) contends that the quality of a school is clearly linked to the quality of the principal. According to Cole (1993: 45), the most significant task of the manager’s job is his or her capacity to obtain the commitment of people to the organisation’s goals.

Marite (2003: 242) defines leadership as the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals. The source of this influence may be formal, such as that provided by managerial rank in an organisation. A management position has some degree of formally designated authority, and therefore a person can assume a leadership role simply by virtue of the position he or she holds in the organisation. However, this does not imply that all managers are leaders, nor are all leaders managers.

Thus, any concept of leadership deals with exercising influence and according to Owens (1995: 116), power is an important ingredient of leadership.

The following section looks into the management tasks.

## **2.3 MANAGEMENT TASKS**

### **2.3.1 PLANNING**

Planning is not an end in itself, but rather a means to an end. How well other management actions will be carried out, will to a great extent, depend on the quality of planning (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 225). This implies that good planning will assist education managers to organise, guide and control in order to effectively run a school. For this reason there is an intense need for education managers to plan effectively – not only to become effective and efficient in their learning communities, but also to become more responsive to society's education needs, and in so doing, remain viable in an increasingly complex and dynamic world.

Squelch and Lemmer (1994: 24) define planning as a process by which school managers establish aims and specify how these aims are to be attained. In addition to that Walters (1991: 10) indicates that planning involves the formulation of aims or long-term goals, the defining of objectives to be achieved and the development of a realistic and practical plan needed to achieve those aims and objectives by using the resources available.

However, according to Viljoen and Moller (1992: 9), planning is a process whereby the manager of an organisation looks to the future and makes

plans, tackle specific operations and executes them successfully. This implies that education managers must be able to anticipate the future, they should be able to visualise how choices made today will influence tomorrow's education practices. It will also require them to be prepared to look beyond the traditional "firing line" at future alternatives available in their education systems.

From the discussion above, it can be deduced that planning is a fundamental requirement for education managers which forms the basis for all other management actions. It involves functioning with a new perspective, meaning that it is a way of life, a way of looking at the future, anticipating what one wants and organising to get there. This places a dramatic demand on education managers to be more comprehensive in their planning efforts, thus in their efforts to define goals, formulate policies, make decisions as well as in solving problems. Moreover, they should do this in a qualitative manner so that tomorrow can be better than today (Plunkett and Attner, 1989: 100; Looock; Campher; Du Preez; Grobler and Shaba, 2003: 42).

The following section looks into the sub-tasks of planning.

### **2.3.1.1 GOAL FORMULATION AS SUB-TASK OF PLANNING**

According to Van der Westhuizen (1991: 144), an education manager wanting to manage effectively must have clearly defined goals, because goals are designed to give an organisation and its members direction and purpose (Rue and Byars, 1989: 168).

Management has the responsibility to define and communicate goals to members and society, since goals serve to generate member commitment

and increase their identification with the necessary knowledge of the task, decision guidelines, methods of motivation, performance criteria and the rationale for organising.

In determining goals, Rue and Byars (1989: 169) recommend that the following steps should be followed: Education managers must formulate...

- Objectives of the individuals and groups to improve education and teaching;
- A clear, concise statement of the central purpose or mission of the organization;
- Long-term organisational goals from the mission;
- Short-term performance objectives for the organisation from the long range goals; and
- Derivative objectives for each department.

To avoid chaotic situations and disorganisation in schools, it is thus of great importance to have set goals.

### **2.3.1.2 POLICY-MAKING AS SUB-TASK OF PLANNING**

Alday and Stearns (1991: 175) define a policy as a standing plan that provide managers with general guidelines for decision-making. Schermerhorn (1996: 65) concurs with the above definition. He indicates that a policy may be regarded as a general statement or guideline for decision-making used for guiding those who are involved in the implementation or execution of planning. Therefore, for organisations to function properly and efficiently, they should have efficient policies (Rue and Byars, 1989: 178).

Alday and Stearns (1991: 175) emphasise that managers must formulate policies within organisations that require their attention. They should also have the guidelines about the methods they are to employ in order to attain the goals they are working towards.

With regard to the development of policies, Van der Westhuizen (1991: 152) and Alday and Stearns (1991: 172-173) suggest that education managers must utilise the following guidelines:

Education managers should formulate policies...

- which will reduce the need for close supervision of subordinates and which will further express the intentions of organisational strategies and goals
- which will enable them to direct behaviour and decisions towards the attainment of organisational goals
- which will express values and ideas that are believed to be important
- which will serve to reduce confusion of conflict about issues or concerns that members of staff may have in carrying out their tasks
- which are internally consistent and those that direct activities towards desired goals
- which are not rigid and inflexible, but rather are capable of changing
- in such a way that staff members will be able to make purposeful decisions
- and embody them in a written form
- which are adjustable
- which are clear in order to avoid any misunderstandings
- which are not discriminatory towards other people
- which can expose the organisation to lengthy and costly litigation.

Generally, policies are general guidelines for decision-making and actions related to the set goals.

### **2.3.1.3 DECISION-MAKING AS SUB-TASK OF PLANNING**

Purposeful and effective planning depends on effective decision-making (Loock et al., 2003: 42; Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 152). Therefore, decision-making is much more encompassing. It involves more than just selecting or searching a particular alternative. For purposeful decision-making, Rue and Byars (1989: 153-154) recommend the essential steps to the process, which include:

- Defining the problem in order to distinguish between it and its various symptoms so that it would be easy to decide about it as well as to solve it
- Gathering all pertinent data, including people's emotional states, facts and precedent, in order to turn all the unknown-unknowns into known-unknowns
- Making necessary, reasonable assumptions about unknown information
- Generating a list of alternative solutions
- Analysing the alternatives which could be most suitable to achieve the goals more effectively
- Selecting the best alternative or a combination of best alternatives
- Implementing the alternative
- Monitoring, evaluating and taking any necessary corrective action

Decision-making is a key step in planning and undoubtedly a mental process which determines how the education manager will solve problems in the organisation.

### **2.3.1.4 PROBLEM-SOLVING AS SUB-TASK OF PLANNING**

Van der Westhuizen (1991: 158) indicates that one characteristic of management is that it makes provision for solutions of problems which arise



in schools and, without that, there cannot be effective planning in schools. This implies that problem-solving is of great importance in the planning task.

Problem-solving is defined as a process of identifying a discrepancy between an actual problem and a desired state of affairs and then acting to resolve the discrepancy (Schermerhorn, 1996: 194). This gives an implication that defining a problem which has to be solved is an unavoidable process which is part of any organisation. Thus, organisations must accurately define problems so that decisions which will be reached will all be based on the correct identified problem. Plunkett and Attner (1989: 150) rightly indicate that, in their attempts to solve problems, managers are to focus on the problem, not on the symptoms of the problem.

Plunkett and Attner (1989: 149) and Whetten, Cameron and Woods (1996: 30) recommend that, while there may be no one “best” approach to problem-solving which would cover every problem, circumstances and individuals, the effective problem-solver should base his/her actions on the following principles. He/she should:

- Not wait for problems to manifest themselves, thus, they should try to anticipate problems or identify potential problem areas which, if not given attention, may result in significant trouble
- Seek more information about the causes, nature and severity of the problem, hence avoiding to leap to quick or easy solutions
- Search for more than one or two alternative solutions to the problem. In other words, they should avoid settling on the first possible solution that is apparent, or rather viewing any proposed solution as the only one possible
- Carefully evaluate the consequences, both the positive and negative of each of the alternative solutions under consideration
- Utilise the insights, perceptions and assistance of relevant others throughout the problem-solving process. They should therefore avoid

the assumptions that the manager possesses all the wisdom and/or expertise for solving a problem successfully

- Recognise that adopted solutions to a problem must be thoroughly implemented and eventually evaluated to avoid possible future mistakes and hence utilise effective problem-solving approaches

Organisations encounter various kinds of problems throughout their existence. Regardless of the magnitude of problems which occur in the organisations or the context in which they occur, a problem exists when there is a barrier between the people and the goal. Therefore, one must always find a way around, over or under the barrier.

Having completed the planning process, the education manager has to proceed to organising.

### **2.3.2 ORGANISING**

The process of organising is the grouping of activities necessary to attain common objectives and the assignment of each grouping to a manager, who has the authority necessary to supervise the people performing the activities (Rue and Byars, 1989: 252). In other words, organising is a process of division of labour accompanied by appropriate delegation of authority.

Organising thus is a management function in which people work together effectively, each doing what he/she is naturally better at, and each person achieving the best possible results. To be able to organise, education managers have to create organisational structures, to delegate and coordinate effectively.

The following section deals with the different sub-tasks of organizing.

### **2.3.2.1 CREATING AN ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE AS SUB-TASK OF ORGANISING**

Ukege (1992: 127) recommends that organisational structures should be viewed as means towards definite ends, thus, as tools and not as ends in themselves. Consequently, as tools of management to achieve plans; as plans change, they should be responsive to change (Plunkett and Attner, 1989: 17).

There are various models which may be used to create an organisational structure, line organisation and line and staff organisation being two examples of these. According to Ukege (1992: 131), a line organisation is a man-boss, superior-subordinate relation which is often referred to as the “chain of command”. In this model, every individual in an organisation reports to the superior to whom he/she looks for orders, instructions, help and approval and who usually exercises considerable control over whether or not he/she continues to hold his/her job or to make progress in the organisation. On the other hand, in the line and staff organisation model, use is made of people who give advice but are not themselves directly involved in the activity of organising (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 166). This type of model is particularly useful when people who have to carry out a task do not possess the necessary knowledge or expertise.

### **2.3.2.2 DELEGATION AS SUB-TASK OF ORGANISING**

Several authors have given definitions of the concept “delegation”. Van der Westhuizen (1991: 172) defines delegation as a task carried out by the

education manager in entrusting duties, with their attendant responsibilities to subordinates, and to divide the work meaningfully, thereby ensuring its effective execution by making people responsible for the results or the achievement of objectives. This gives an implication that the necessary authority to accomplish a task should be delegated at the same time that the responsibility for the task is assigned. In other words, every person in the organisation should know exactly who is to do what, to whom they should turn for information or advice and, finally, to whom they are themselves responsible. Nevertheless, Hodgetts (1990: 161) indicates that some managers still hang on to everything, refusing to allow subordinates to try their hand at anything.

Hodgetts and Kuratko (1991: 281) recommend some action-orientated steps that managers should follow in order to achieve effective delegation. According to Rees (1989: 83), the main reason for delegation is that it is a means whereby the manager can concentrate on the work of greatest importance, leaving the work of lesser importance to be done by others.

Education managers should:

- Spell out all assignments in terms of the expected results, thus, they should let people know exactly what they are to accomplish
- Match the person with the job, which means that they should determine which subordinates are most qualified and, from this pool, choose the one who has the best combination of training and experience
- Keep all lines of communication open so that if a problem arises, both the superior and the subordinates can communicate easily with each other
- Set a control procedure for seeing that the job is being done properly and also to provide assistance as needed. However, the manager should be careful not to interfere with work progress or to give the impression of being too close-control orientated

- Use job performance as a basis for rewards, which means that those who are willing to assume responsibility and get the job done right should be placed at the head of the list when raises and promotions are given out
- Define the scope of the authority when they delegate so that it would be clear which part of authority is being shared
- Encourage members of staff to develop personal responsibility
- Hold the members of staff accountable for the performance of the task

From the preceding discussions on delegation, it is evident that delegation is a process of distributing work to subordinates, assigning duties to them, granting them authority to carry out the duties and, finally, an obligation whereby the subordinates assume responsibility to the manager to complete the tasks satisfactorily. As such, delegation harnesses the full potential of a school's resources, making maximum use of the knowledge and the experience which the school enjoys. To ascertain that they will not lose control after delegating, education managers must co-ordinate.

### **2.3.2.3 CO-ORDINATION AS SUB-TASK OF ORGANISING**

The need for co-ordination originates from the fact that in each school, there are various teaching units, each with its own system of goals, yet all contributing towards a more embracing system of goals (Ukege, 1992: 347-348). Hanson (1996: 21) is of the opinion that co-ordination can never be achieved unless it is planned and directed from above. Co-ordination may therefore be seen as a process which places choices, materials, people, ideas and techniques in a harmonious relationship with one another (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 179).

Co-ordination as a sub-task of organising pervades all management tasks. To begin with, Viljoen and Moller (1992: 159) indicate that there should be co-ordination between aims, policy and decision-making while planning. Secondly, co-ordination is found in organising since various tasks, people and groups have to be coordinated. Lastly, co-ordination is particularly necessary while delegating. Therefore, according to Hodgetts and Kuratko (1991: 272), co-ordination is the synchronisation of the efforts of individuals and groups for the purpose of attaining organisational efficiency.

With respect to its radical importance in administration, Hodgetts and Kuratko (1991: 273), as well as Van der Westhuiszen (1991: 180) suggest the following aids to be practised for effective co-ordination.

Education managers have to:

- Organise regular meetings which will ensure co-ordination so that ideas may be exchanged, problems solved and a feeling of unity and common motivation generated
- Compile guides such as instructions, guidelines, rules, regulations and procedures to ensure that uniform conduct can be stimulated and that what is to be achieved is clear to all concerned
- Have personal contact and communicate with members of staff to ensure that the various activities are being synchronised, so that motivation can be provided and explanations and advice given
- Have constant follow-up activity to ensure that co-ordination is still being achieved
- Formulate and publicise goals and policy in order to make it clear to everyone concerned what they are, as well as providing a guideline for making uniform decisions
- Regularly inform staff about activities which affect them in the organisation
- Consult staff about new or future developments

- Create an atmosphere of being finally accountable for a delegated task
- Create an opportunity for self-development within the framework of education and teaching
- Encourage staff to contribute towards the effectiveness of the school and education
- Allow staff members to share the management activities.

Summing up, in a school as an organisation, people of diverse personalities, interests and backgrounds have to cooperate to attain the same objectives. This can be achieved only if their efforts are coordinated and, also, if they are guided.

The next section looks into guiding as management task.

### **2.3.3 GUIDING**

Guiding is the third management task which is also fundamental for effective school management, as it gives direction to the common activities of people to ensure that they execute the tasks to achieve the set goals (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 181). This means that, in guiding, the emphasis is on the interactions between the education manager and the people involved through which tasks are initiated and kept in motion.

The following sections deals with the sub-tasks of guiding.

#### **2.3.3.1 ESTABLISHING RELATIONSHIPS AS SUB-TASK OF GUIDING**

According to Plunkett and Attner (1989: 290), the quality of interpersonal relations amongst peers, supervisors and subordinates result in social

opportunities as well as the development of comfortable operating relationships, which in turn leads to employees experiencing no job dissatisfaction in the work place. For effective school management, education managers should be much more concerned with the type of person they are and how they establish and maintain relationships than concentrating on the best teaching methods (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 183), because managing involves getting things done through people. As such, management must be centered on building relationships.

Basically, there are various ingredients which contribute to building relations with one's work, with the school and the figure of authority. Ukege (1992: 235) believes that education management must:

- Have a high regard for the individual staff member and recognise that an individual human being surpasses worth and, as such, should be treated with respect
- Acknowledge the intelligence of the members of staff
- Not compel staff members to carry out their wishes
- Exert influence through their human relations as represented by their friendliness and zeal, by their sincere acceptance of members of staff as full partners in the school and by their fairness of their decisions
- Create an atmosphere where there will be sincere feelings of mutual respect so that they can work closely together and co-operate as comprehensively as possible
- Be willing to admit mistakes and be open to criticism, they should try not to be defensive
- Be sensitive and explain reasons for their actions



### 2.3.3.2 MOTIVATION AS SUB-TASK OF GUIDING

Rees (1989: 79) suggests that motivation should be at the top of the manager's list of time consuming problems, since it is directly related to the effectiveness and success of an individual in an organisation. Thus, it should be the major concern of most managers because, according to Rue and Byars (1989: 370), motivation is concerned with what directs behaviour towards a particular goal, and is also concerned with how behaviour is sustained.

Motivation is indeed an important aspect for managers to master in order to increase effort, which will in turn increase performance if the individual has the ability and the effort is properly directed (Rue and Byars, 1989: 370). Emphasising the importance of motivation, Van der Westhuizen (1991: 202-203) suggests the following factors which managers must consider to motivate staff:

Education managers should...

- know the needs of the staff, which include the need for recognition, expectation, the need to achieve, the need to be an authority figure, self-respect and friendship relationships
- provide opportunities for creativity and renewal in the organisation so that members of staff can be challenged in their work, and also to increase chances of promotion in the work place
- accommodate staff members in their planning, implementation and execution of tasks in order to enhance motivation as well as stimulating participation. In other words, staff members should be allowed to participate in the management of the school
- deal with community factors
- provide members of staff with guidance and support

- expand the staff member's scope of the job, authority and responsibility, that allows him/her to increase the opportunity to perform more responsible activities and to grow and develop in the job
- give members of staff a chance to have new challenges which, when mastered, will become satisfying experiences
- inform members of staff about the objectives and the results achieved – they are inclined to co-operate more and feel they are part of the group
- encourage members of staff to work hard and lift their morale by giving them verbal and non-verbal praise
- promote members of staff when their performance warrants it
- encourage members of staff to be self-motivated
- not give criticism immediately after giving positive recognition
- not give recognition in the form of false flattery – recognition should be genuine
- involve members of staff in matters which affect them directly
- delegate authority to capable members of staff

Knowledge of what motivates people is basic in management. Therefore, education managers should recognise motivating factors when setting the environment for performance rather than manipulate members of staff.

### **2.3.3.3 COMMUNICATION AS SUB-TASK OF GUIDING**

The need to develop skills of effective communication should be a critical priority to managers (Rees, 1989: 95). Ukege (1992: 178) indicates that communication is an important element of the administrative process. The effectiveness of decisions taken or plans drawn up for the implementation depend to a large extent on how far they are communicated to those who will execute them. Communication is also used to develop group cohesiveness towards goal achievement.

Communication is defined as the transmission of information and understanding from one person to another in order to get a set of information, and the understanding of that information, from one person to another (Plunkett and Attner, 1989: 68). Communication is the process in which the sender constructs a message and passes it to the receiver, who will eventually interpret the message and take action in a manner satisfactory to the sender (Hodgetts, 1990: 418). For this reason, education managers should create communication channels for transferring instructions and commands and receiving feedback (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 210).

As one of the requirements for effective school management, communication should be highly valued because the image the education managers convey, both verbally and non-verbally, tends to shape people's perceptions and views of their schools. According to Hodgetts (1990: 448-449), as well as Plunkett and Attner (1989: 89-90), managers should employ the following commandments for good communication in the organisation.

They should:

- Clarify ideas before communicating and systematically think through messages and then consider who will be receiving and/or be affected by it
- Examine the true purpose of communication, thus determining what they really want to accomplish with the message
- Take the entire environment into consideration, such as the physical and human factors
- Obtain advice from others to acquire additional insights regarding how to handle the communication

- Be aware of the overtones as well as the basic content of the message, because the listener gets affected not only by what is said but also how it is said
- Convey useful information because people often remember what is beneficial to them
- Follow up on communication, thus solicit feedback in ascertaining whether subordinates understand the communiqué and whether they are willing to comply with it so that appropriate action can be taken
- Communicate with the future as well as the present in mind
- Support words with deeds and be good listeners

Effective communication is basic for effective school management because if the communication process is faulty, then everything else in the school can be affected.

The next section deals with controlling as management task.

#### **2.3.4 CONTROLLING**

Controlling is the last requirement for effective school management, it is basically an administration function that makes sure that plans succeed (Hodgetts and Kuratko, 1991: 526).

Hodgetts and Kuratko (1991: 526) define controlling as the process in which management evaluate performance using predetermined standards, and in light of the results, make a decision regarding corrective action. Basically, the purpose of controlling is to determine whether people and the various parts of an organisation are on target and achieve the progress towards objectives which they are planned to achieve. In other words, it attempts to prevent failure and to promote success by providing the means to monitor

performance of individuals, departments, divisions and the entire organisation (Plunkett and Attner, 1989: 346).

In controlling, Van der Westhuizen (1991: 220-222) recommends that the education manager should exercise the following four steps, they should:

- Set controlled instructions for what is expected and how the tasks will be evaluated
- Observe and measure work, in order to obtain feedback on work done so that actual performance may be compared with set standards
- Evaluate work which assumes that the education manager should monitor the progress with regard to goals, and also correcting those which have deviated from goals.

The following section deals with time management as management task.

### **2.3.5 TIME MANAGEMENT**

The allocation of time to various activities is a vital important aspect of planning in order to ensure that the educational balance is maintained. Two different research projects undertaken by the University of Stellenbosch revealed that principals devote 42% of their time to administrative tasks, whereas a mere 20% is considered to be the ideal (Cawood and Gibbon, 1981: 8, 9). The same trend, although to a lesser degree, was revealed by research in the Free State, namely that secondary school principals devote 26.7% and primary school principals 25.7% of their time to administrative tasks (Theron and Bothma, Part I, 1984: 34 and Part II, 1984: 37). If a principal allocated his/her time in such a way that only 20% of it were devoted to this aspect, he/she could do justice to his/her fundamental task. "He will no longer be content with the multitude of details of administration,

but will emerge as the guiding force for professional development” (Cawood and Gibbon, 1981: 11).

To reorganise time more favourably is difficult. If principals were to establish a priority list of his/her tasks, even with the assistance of his/her staff, it would be easier to allocate his/her time more meaningfully according to priorities. He/she could have a firm basis according to which he/she could deal with his/her tasks and, where necessary, delegate.

The next section looks into human resource management as management task.

### **2.3.6 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

According to Oosthuizen (2003: 176), human resource management is a human orientated process that focuses on the needs of the employee with the aim of facilitating the acquisition of mutual goals which are within the parameters of a well-known strategic plan.

Human resource management, as an education management area, can be defined as those activities by means of which the services of teaching staff can be acquired, facilitated and improved. This is achieved by means of management strategies to bring about increased effectiveness in educational training.

The following facets of human resource management should receive attention from the education manager in order to improve effective educational training in a school:

- The most suitable staff should be recruited, screened and appointed. The suitability of a person is determined by the particular environment

and contemporary requirements of a school, of which the education manager must be fully aware

- The contemporary education manager must manage the induction of staff as effortlessly as possible in order to ensure the minimum loss of productivity in educational training
- The evaluation of staff must be handled skilfully, fairly and on the basis of open communication, in order to identify the most suitable and effective leaders to facilitate an increased flow of educational training
- The contemporary education manager must develop and exploit human resources (teaching staff) optimally and see to it that leadership in education is identified
- He/she must monitor the internal motivational levels of education personnel within a healthy, stress-controlled framework. In order to achieve this, he/she must combat work overload and exhaustion and pay attention to the handling of conflict and the modification of behaviour
- He/she must utilise responsible planning, organisation, leadership and control to manage the participants and interested parties in education as auxiliary human resources (Oosthuizen, 2003: 176-177)

The following section deals with financial management as management task.

### **2.3.7 FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT**

Oosthuizen (2003: 205) defines financial education management as: “The distribution and use of money for the purpose of providing educational services and producing student achievement.”

Financial control has been, and always will be, one of the most essential aspects in the effective management of a school. Financial control is the

process of supervising financial school management (Campher; Du Preez; Grobler; Looock and Shaba, 2003: 40).

The financial control process includes:

- Determining financial procedures
- Collecting money
- Spending money
- Recording financial transactions
- Financial reporting
- Accountability

Oosthuizen (2003: 209) states that school fees remain the primary source of funding in education. The question is how school funds may be supplemented. Education institutions may employ a variety of methods to supplement their finances: school functions, admission and subscription fees for sporting events, and the letting of school facilities (tennis courts and swimming pool) after hours to learners and parents. The letting of classrooms for adult education is another suitable avenue of potential revenue since classrooms are mostly used in the mornings during the term.

Another possible method of fund-raising is canvassing for trust funds (either for specific or general purposes), the sale of pledges for the construction of buildings or the creation of sport facilities, and requests for donations and bequests from parents and ex-learners.

#### **2.3.7.1 BUDGET CONTROL**

Essentially a budget is a detailed plan, expressed in monetary terms, of activities that have to take place within a specified period (Oosthuizen, 2003: 211-212). Applied to a school, this means that the school budget



should be a scheduled plan which balances estimated future income and expenditure. In addition, a budget serves as an important control mechanism (Campher et al., 2003: 41). It enables one to establish, at any stage, whether expenditure exceeds the budgeted amount and to take remedial steps timeously.

Budget control should be the duty of a competent controller, with the emphasis on competent, because competency implies attitudes and values as well as knowledge and skills. It is therefore important for the controller to be able to interpret a budget report (Campher et al., 2003: 41).

#### **2.3.7.2 ASSET CONTROL**

One of the most important forms of income for a school must be the school fees paid by the parents of the learners. Most of the parents are salary-earners who are paid on a monthly basis. Although school fees are determined for the year, most parents will only be able to pay in monthly installments. It is therefore necessary to offer them credit whereby they are able to pay an affordable amount each month (Campher et al., 2003: 43).

The following section deals with the differences between educational management and management of other organizations.

### **2.4 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND MANAGEMENT OF OTHER ORGANISATIONS**

According to Bush (1988: 5), there are six major areas in which management of educational institutions differs from the management of other organisations.

- The objectives of educational institutions are much more difficult to define than commercial industries. In schools, there is no clear-cut educational diversification, as found in the private sector.
- It is very difficult to measure whether or not objectives have been achieved in schools. In industry it is possible to measure success in financial terms, however, in schools, it is much more difficult to assess certain outcomes such as “being a good citizen”.
- The focus of educational organisations is young children. They are entirely different from the raw products that one might find in a factory.
- The managers and educators at a school are from a common professional background with shared values, training and experiences. The client relationship between educators and learners differs from other client links. Educators have several extended contacts with their learners, unlike other professions.
- Many external influences and groups influence the climate for school decision-making: governing bodies, departmental officials, parents and other pressure groups.

Thus, educational management is a field of study and practice concerned with the operation of educational organisations (Bush, 1988: 1). Since educational management takes place within an educational organisation, it is apposite to discuss the school as an organisation.

The next section looks into the difference between management and leadership.

## **2.5 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP**

In management terms a clear distinction is made between managers and leaders. Most researchers regard managers as the people in power, who

exercise their authority over others in the organisation. They have the right to organise and guide the activities of others through coercion. A leader, on the other hand, gets results without using coercion because he/she has certain qualities, consults and motivates his/her followers and can get the willing co-operation of followers and colleagues (Bennis in Rosenbach & Taylor, 1993: 214).

The achievements of any school or enterprise are directly related to the quality of its leadership. Put differently: The better the quality of leadership, the better the chances that the school will be successful in achieving its goals. Harold Green (in Syrett & Hogg, 1992: XIX) sees the leader's role as follows: "The ability to lead and inspire others is far more instinctual than premeditated and it is acquired somehow through the experiences of everyday life, and the ultimate nature and quality of that leadership comes out of the innate character and personality of the leader himself".

The manager's main goal is to make the leader or initiator's vision come true (if the leader and manager are not one and the same person). This implies that the manager has a specific task which is linked to his position. Should the manager fail in the execution of his/her task, internal competence as well as the school's external image may suffer quite severe damage.

The difference between managers and leaders is even clearer in Syrett and Hogg's exposition: Leadership skills have become important because the more fragmented and diversified an organisation becomes, the more leaders it requires; the faster moving an organisation's markets or commercial environment, the more it needs "changing" rather than "running". Therein lies the fundamental difference between the tasks of leaders and managers.

Researchers contend that management and leadership are different but not mutually exclusive. According to Squelch and Lemmer (1994: 10) management is the process of planning, organising, motivating and guiding. Leadership is a process of encouraging and influencing people to co-operate in achieving goals that are mutually satisfying.

On the other hand, there is also research evidence that management and leadership are not only different, but also mutually exclusive. This argument arises from the view that managers manage things, while leaders lead people. According to Wynn and Guditus (1984: 28), leadership means implementing change to achieve goals that serve the needs of the organisation and the individuals who are part of it. Management, on the other hand, is typically involved with maintaining existing structures and procedures. The emphasis on procedural aspects of the school tends to focus more on things than people. Sergiovanni and Starrat (1993: 196) mention the following differences:

- Leaders tend to focus on the vision
- Managers often are the ones who know how to make things work

Although leadership and management are often thought to be synonymous, they are in fact different. These distinctions between management and leadership allude to the belief that they are incompatible concepts. That is to say that the task of the manager is to maintain the status quo, while the role of the leader is to bring about change. However, to view these two concepts as counterproductive “would be to deny the realities of organisational life” (Wynn and Guditus, 1984: 28).

Thus, in conclusion, both management and leadership are important facets in organisation. Moreover, in order to maintain a high level of efficiency, the leader must possess certain characteristics.

These characteristics are described in the ensuing paragraph.

## **2.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS**

Educational leaders fulfil one of the most important leadership roles. Much research has been done on what makes a good leader. Prior to 1945, most studies on leadership were mainly devoted to traits or qualities of leaders (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994: 3). This approach derives from the “great man theory” and identifies the following characteristics as essential to effective leadership:

- Physical and mental well-being
- A sound philosophy of life
- Humility
- Selflessness
- Optimism, enthusiasm and drive
- Intelligence and drive
- A flair for languages
- Will-power
- Adaptability and flexibility
- Understanding
- Character

(Squelch & Lemmer, 1994: 3)

However, research conducted on children, professional, business and military personnel has not isolated a single uniform trait or group of characteristics which distinguishes the leader from members of the group (Allias, 1995: 288). According to Allias (1995: 288): “The trait approach to leadership has not made any significant contribution toward improved understanding of leadership at school.” The trait theory claims that good leaders are good leaders regardless of their followers.

On the other hand, Van der Westhuizen (1991: 186) maintains that there are four basic characteristics of an educational leader that are necessary for him/her to carry out management tasks effectively:

- Empathy: This is the ability to understand the feelings and intentions of others
- Respect and warmth: This is recognising the rights of others and also showing recognition and appreciation for outstanding work
- Sincerity: A school principal should be honest, open and spontaneous in his/her interaction with others
- Clarity: A school principal should avoid being vague and generalising

Van der Westhuizen (1991: 187) expounds: “ When I show basic respect for another person, I am able to enter his world of existence or feelings.” By showing empathy, the principal is genuine and sincere towards himself/herself and the other person. In this way the principal is able to communicate purposefully and in a concrete manner. In contrast to the above, Van der Westhuizen (1991: 187) states that the following characteristics and actions are harmful to sound relationships in a school:

- Indecisiveness
- Autocracy
- Blaming the group instead of the individual
- Taking sides
- Tediousness
- Egoism
- Treating staff like children.

The next section deals with the different types of leadership styles.

## **2.7 TYPES OF LEADERSHIP STYLES IN AN ORGANISATION**

The particular style or form of leadership adopted by an educational manager is usually determined by the size and nature of the organisational structure. The particular style adopted also depends on the specific situation. A leader can therefore adapt his/her style to circumstances – provided that this has positive results.

According to Hoy and Miskel (1996: 387), leadership style refers to the underlying need structure of the leader that motivates behaviour in various interpersonal relationships. Moreover, Allias (1995: 300) alludes that leadership style may be defined as the behaviour pattern used by the leader when he or she is trying to influence the performance of others.

The different types of leadership styles will now be looked into.

### **2.7.1 THE AUTOCRATIC LEADERSHIP STYLE**

This style of leadership is leader-centred. The leader dominates the group, sets the objectives towards which the group must work and determines the roles of group members. Authoritarian leadership makes great demands on the staff, and questioning the authority of the leader is discouraged. In this type of leadership, the organisation's interest is more important than the group's interest. The leader gives instructions and the subordinates follow with very little participation in decisions that are made. The principal who uses this leadership style likes to do things his/her way and uses his/her position and power to get things done. The autocratic leader solely determines policy and personally gives orders to subordinates (Calitz *et al.* 1992: 5).

According to Calitz *et al.* (1992: 5), this style of leadership may be useful in certain situations, but it is not suitable for dealing with professional staff. Some of the most important disadvantages of this leadership style in schools are:

- Lack of co-operation
- Suppression of initiative and creative thought
- Inadequate communication
- A tense atmosphere at school (Van der Linde, 1995: 17).

Calitz *et al.* (1992: 5) contends that the authoritarian leader is obsolete in this day and age and it could be disastrous to adopt such a style in modern circumstances. This leadership style places strong emphasis on production and could result in low morale of staff. The general pattern of this leadership is:

- The work of educators comes to a standstill when the leader is away
- Educators are not used to making decisions on their own and usually wait for higher authority before carrying out instructions
- Educators end up being disloyal
- The autocratic leader is in constant fear because he/she believes that his/her position is constantly being threatened  
(Calitz *et al.*, 1992: 5)

### **2.7.2 THE DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP STYLE**

The democratic leader involves the whole staff in sharing authority and in jointly working together to make decisions (Loock *et al.*, 2003: 48). Calitz *et al.* (1992: 5) argue that a democratic leadership style should enhance “esprit de corps” and mutual understanding, thereby influencing the organisational climate in a positive manner. Democratic leaders ensure that members of the group discuss all activities. They allow members to



be involved in decision-making, and encourage the development of an egalitarian atmosphere. Policy is decided by means of group discussion and the leader plays the role of facilitator (Allias, 1995: 290). According to Van der Linde (1995: 17): “The democratic style of leadership lies between the extremes of laissez-faire and autocratic leadership”. The democratic leader guides the followers through examples and persuasion. There are essentially four key dimensions of the democratic leadership style:

- Creating and communicating vision
- Building trust and organisational commitment
- Utilising the organisation’s expertise
- Developing the organisation’s team (Van der Linde, 1995: 17)

However, according to Calitz *et al.* (1992: 4), there are disadvantages to being too democratic. The leader may sometimes allow himself/herself to be influenced by the majority decisions when, in fact, the minority might be proved to have made the right decision. Participatory decision-making and two-way communications are sub-categories of the democratic leadership style. A brief discussion of these categories follows.

- a) Participation occurs when people are involved and influence decisions that are likely to affect them. Participatory decision-making expands the influence in the organisation of those who are lower down the hierarchy and affected by decisions. Participative management can lead to useful involvement in decisions and joint problem-solving (Leigh and Walters, 1998: 145).
- b) Two-way communication allows for feedback and provides opportunities to develop mutually acceptable ways of dealing with issues (Leigh and Walters, 1998: 70-71). It allows for dialogue and constructive means of solving problems. Although the dialogue may

be problematic the resulting outcome is fully owned by both parties (Leigh and Walters, 1998: 72).

### **2.7.3 THE LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP STYLE**

Squelch and Lemmer (1994: 7) aver that this type of leader is very casual. In this type of leadership, no vision of the organisation's mission is projected. The individuals are left to do things as they feel led. The leader is reluctant to make decisions or to deal with problems directly. This kind of leadership may work if the professional staff is highly motivated. If adopted in the wrong situation, it could lead to:

- Disunity
- Conflict and confusion
- Confidence in and respect for the principal being forfeited
- Negative organisational climate (Calitz *et al.*, 1992: 5; Van der Linde, 1995: 18).
- Others to consider options. Leaders and followers work together as a group to reach goals.

### **2.7.4 THE CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP STYLE**

Van der Linde (1995: 18) argues that charismatic leadership is where individuals hold positions of leadership because of their popularity. People have faith in such leaders because of their unusual leadership qualities. Some of the qualities charismatic leaders possess are heroism, oratory and sympathy with others in an organisation. Leaders in political and religious organisations belong to charismatic leadership. They are able to influence the people through being persuasive. People follow them

because they see them with certain appealing powers. Their influence remains unchallenged as long as the charismatic leader remains strong.

The next section deals with the influence of gender on management styles.

## **2.8 INFLUENCE OF GENDER ON MANAGEMENT STYLES**

Gender expectations may partially determine the management style school headteachers employ in their roles. However, the concept of management style needs more clarification and explanation here.

“A style is a form of social accomplishment, a particular way of realising and enacting the authority of headship. It is eminently an individual accomplishment, but at the same time it is essentially a form of joint action” (Ball, 1987:83).

It follows from Ball’s definition that principals manage their schools in different ways and enact diverse levels of control and authority. Their relationships with staff range from participative, non-directive relationships to autocratic-directive ones. Overall, a style of management, as Evetts (1994b: 160) commented, ‘is a manner of working, an approach, a feeling, a method and a way’. The term seems to comprise cognitive, emotional and behavioural elements.

On the other hand, Reay and Ball (2000: 146-147) suggest that women are quite likely to adopt more authoritarian styles on attaining headship: “as women achieve power, qualities normally associated with femininity are modified”. They note that, traditionally, women have been in subordinate positions and for those achieving power “the inherent tension between being female and being a leader invariably results in adaptations and the assumption of a femininity which is more congruent with

leadership than traditional variants of femininity which are grounded in notions of relative powerlessness”. The increasing move towards competition and the use of market forces in the maintained sector has led a number of commentators to examine the effects of entrepreneurialism on management styles. Blackmore (1997: 9) notes “the marketisation, privatisation and devolution of education creates new problems with regard to gender reform equity”.

There is evidence of differences between men and women in their styles of management. Vinnicombe (1987: 14) highlights less emphasis amongst women managers on a “traditionalist” style of management decision-making, with its emphasis on sensing (rather than tuition) and judging (rather than perceiving). Rosener (1990:119-125) identifies a greater emphasis amongst women, compared to men, on a “transformational” approach, which involves motivation, by exchange of rewards and favours and power by position. Furthermore, McLoughlin (1992:23) argues that women managers tend to have wider goals, want to succeed, but also wanting to make the work environment more fulfilling for everybody involved in the business. Studies by Marshall (1984: 23) found that, for women, “challenge and satisfaction in a particular job are more important than recurrent promotion for its own sake”. Powell (1988:147), on the other hand, reports differences observed in specific behaviours. For example, if the staff are performing badly, men are more likely to adapt their response to a perceived cause: if the problem is inability they may use training; if the problem is lack of effort they will punish. In contrast, women are more likely to adopt a consistent approach either using training or punishing in every case. Women are also, he reports, less likely to use secretaries and closed doors as barriers to staff. In relation to communication, Tannen (1992: 23) describes a greater tendency for women to use communication to connect or establish rapport, whereas

men are more likely to communicate with the aim of conveying information, displaying expertise and challenging for status.

Rosener (1990: 123) writes that women make their way into top management not by adopting the style and habits judged successful for men, but by making use of their own experience. Their success depends precisely on certain characteristics generally being regarded as feminine and as unsuitable for a leader.

Rosener (1990: 125) makes interesting observations about how men and women describe their influence on their co-workers. Men view leadership as a deal; they regard work as a series of exchanges or deals with their subordinates - rewards for assignments well done or punishment for inappropriate performance. They are also more likely to use the power of their position. Women, in contrast, describe their leadership as interaction, encouraging their subordinates to integrate personal and collective interests. They link their own authority more to their personal characteristics than to their formal status; they make more effort to impart a positive tone to interactions with all their subordinates; they encourage participation, share power and information, enhance their subordinates' self-esteem, and encourage them to show what they can do in the workplace.

Women make a special effort to create an atmosphere of accommodation in the organisation, whereas men basically try to enhance their own authority and perfect their methods of managing their subordinates. Male managers are oriented toward restructuring the sphere of rules and norms; women managers are oriented toward restructuring the sphere of relations.

Westman (2002: 12) states that it has been demonstrated in some studies that women's friendliness, openness, awareness and understanding have a higher appreciation by the staff in everyday life than the command-and-control attitude of men.

Based on the approach that management is not a gender-neutral process, a number of feminist writings and studies in educational management focused on the sameness amongst women in their methods of leadership and use of power (Oplatka, 2001: 221). Women headteachers are considered to act according to a 'feminine' management style, whereas men are conceived as using a 'masculine' style. Women seem to be more democratic and participatory in their decision-making style than men (Oplatka, 2001: 221), and are more likely to withdraw from conflict in their role. Relationships with others are more central for women than for men, resulting in a sharing of power, instead of 'power over' like men (Oplatka, 2001: 222). Caring for the staff and students is of great value in their leadership style, and the women headteachers constructively evaluate staff performance so as to bring out the best (Oplatka, 2001:222). Finally, women tend to focus mainly on instruction, learning and student needs in the school setting (Oplatka, 2001: 222).

In recent years the traditional approach to the dichotomy of the 'masculine' versus 'feminine' management style has been increasingly questioned in educational management (Oplatka, 2001: 222). Evetts manifested the problem of the assumed gender differences in management styles:

“ The question of leadership style and gender differences is one which is difficult to handle empirically. The results of quantitative testing procedure ... have found few significant differences between male and female heads in their perceptions of leadership ... (whereas) qualitative studies ... have suggested gender differences in style. The question of

leadership style is difficult for researchers to take over and to define operationally” (1994: 160).

Hall and Southworth (1997) have reviewed studies of headship in Britain. Bearing in mind the caveat about the over-simplification of assigning certain traits to gender alone, Hall (1996: 140) have found that women do tend to espouse more collaborative styles of leadership. Hall (1996: 140) found that her subjects “demonstrated a need to establish the legitimacy of their authority” but this was achieved “without damaging their acceptability as women”.

The managerial problems that women education managers encounter will now be dealt with.

## **2.9 MANAGERIAL PROBLEMS THAT WOMEN EDUCATION MANAGERS ENCOUNTER**

Women education managers, like their male counterparts encounter many problems in carrying out their managerial duties. These problems include: planning; goal formulation; policy-making; decision-making and problem-solving. In addition to the management tasks that they have to perform, there are additional problems like workplace discrimination; sexual harassment; negative attitudes towards women; emotional influences; promotion myths; lack of self-confidence; lack of support; role models and positive reinforcement; cultural socialisation and allocation of duties.

The presence of the above factors has an influence on the way women managers manage and apply leadership at their schools. These issues are dealt with in the following section.

### **2.9.1 PLANNING**

The question here is whether or not women education managers can plan and carry out their plans.

Regarding planning, women education managers do have positive attributes like thinking of different things at different levels at the same time (Ozga, 1993: 54).

Regardless of the evidence that women education managers are good planners who are specific in their planning, the fact that they plan in great details tends to delay their planning actions. Furthermore, in spite of Hill and Ragland's (1995: 51) view that change is considered as inevitable and non-threatening – as challenging, stimulating and an opportunity rather than a problem - women education managers are often hesitant to start planning for change.

Although research has shown that women managers are good planners, there are still problems that have been observed. These problems include delays in planning and hesitation to change (Shakeshaft, 1990: 188).

### **2.9.2 POLICY-MAKING**

Women education managers have a flexible style in formulating policy and have good communication skills (Ozga, 1993: 41).

Although it is revealed by the evidence given above that women education managers possess the necessary skills for policy-making, they have little experience in it due to the fact that they have always been excluded from it.



### **2.9.3 DECISION-MAKING**

According to Adler and Laney (1993: 122), the decision-making style of women tends to be more participatory due to the fact that they use coalition building to achieve their goals, thus, they do not try to dominate discussions, rather, they leave space for participation of others.

Although it is revealed above that women are more participatory in decision-making, Heller (1982: 60) states the fact that women education managers allow greater involvement of members of staff, may give an impression that the education manager herself is indecisive thus, she simply cannot make decisions; and, also, it may give an impression that she likes group approval rather than being confident as a leader.

A study conducted in May 1999 at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology indicated the scarcity of women in senior decision-making structures (Makosana, 2002: 2).

### **2.9.4 PROBLEM-SOLVING**

Women education managers spent more time and energy to successfully identify problem situations, asking subordinates for information, discussing problems with them and actually involving them in their work to get more information (Shakeshaft, 1990: 187).

Despite the fact that women education managers are able to identify problem situations, they are very sensitive with regard to problems that might cause conflict, as such they tend to pay attention to feelings, personal impressions and emotional information of others (Gabbard, 2000: 3; Ozga, 1993: 21).

### **2.9.5 DELEGATING**

This management task is one that appears to cause problems for women education managers.

Women education managers are more often than not frightened by power because they associate it with its misuse or even abuse, they basically do not feel comfortable with it (Brown and Brady, 1991: 136). In addition to that, women education managers do not find it easy to see themselves in positions of authority, they feel uncomfortable in positions of power (Brown and Brady, 1991: 17).

According to Brown and Brady (1991: 23), women education managers have a “perfection block”, thus, they feel they have to do one job perfectly before they can think of seeking the next run up the ladder. The other reason for women education managers having trouble with delegating - holding on too tightly to their areas of expertise - is because they want to shy away from criticism, fearing unpleasant repercussions and to be harshly judged on performance by others and also because it is difficult for them to accept that other people, those that they supervise, will make the same investment. Women education managers are so much obsessed with perfect standards that they tend to forget the saying which goes ‘not everything worth doing is worth doing well’ (Brown and Brady, 1991: 23).

Women education managers also encounter difficulties with delegating sufficiently because of their inability to find a balance between enabling others and releasing control (Ozga, 1993: 80).

Out of the above discussion regarding managerial problems women education managers encounter, it is clear that women need training in all the different areas of management.

Training should address the specific needs of women and provide for the development of managerial skills. Training could take the form of in-service training programmes or workshops.

Besides the managerial problems, there are other problems that effect women education managers. The next section looks at these.

## **2.9.6 OTHER PROBLEMS WHICH AFFECT WOMEN EDUCATION MANAGERS**

The problems that women education managers experience in carrying out their duties may be influenced by many factors other than managerial competence and leadership style. The following discussion looks at some of these factors.

### **2.9.6.1 WORKPLACE DISCRIMINATION**

Given the unique aspects of women's experiences, including workplace discrimination, greater family demands and non-assertive attitudes, many have maintained that women's careers and development are different from those of men (Gutman, 1987). It is argued that women and men do not experience the same reality. Gender is a cultural term that describes the characteristics people ascribe to because of their sex. The ways in which people believe they behave are based upon people's cultural expectations of what is considered male and female (Shakeshaft, 1995).

In this vein, gender is an important aspect of the complexity of daily interactions that make up life in school and has a tremendous influence on one's behaviours and perceptions (Hall, 1999; Shakeshaft, 1995).

The barriers to the career progression of women that are experienced within the workplace are inter-twined with the perception of women in their domestic role, which influences the presumption that women may be ill-fitted for management and leadership. At its most extreme this can lead to overt and covert discrimination against women in relation to their promotion and appointment for more senior roles. Women also appear to lack confidence compared to their male peers and to be less likely to plan their careers (Shakeshaft, 1989). Difficulties associated with appointment may be aggravated by the stereotypes that identify women with the caring and pastoral roles and may exclude them from others, specifically those associated with leadership.

#### **2.9.6.2 SEXUAL HARASSMENT**

Coleman (2000: 23), in her study of female secondary heads in maintained schools in England and Wales, writes that: "Over half of the surveyed heads reported experiencing sexist attitudes from their male colleagues ... Once established as headteachers, they were strongly aware of the fact that men found difficulty in dealing with female leaders".

Despite the fact that sex discrimination is illegal, there is still some evidence that it exists, although mainly in a covert form. Women in general management still report perceiving the existence of bias against them (Davidson and Cooper, 1992) and there is also evidence of similar perceptions in education (Adler *et al.*, 1993; Coleman, 1996).

### **2.9.6.3 NEGATIVE ATTITUDES TOWARDS WOMEN**

Research by Arnot; David and Weiner (1996:135) for the Equal Opportunities Commission, has found that there was still an overwhelmingly number of men in senior positions in maintained secondary schools in England and Wales and that hostile attitudes to women could still be found: "In some state schools the atmosphere is quite antipathetic to female staff: "In a culture where staff are called 'Brains', 'Sergeants' and 'Ladies', women teachers felt uncomfortable and out of place".

### **2.9.6.4 EMOTIONAL INFLUENCES**

Sachs and Blackmore (1998: 272) have studied the emotional responses of women leaders to the conflicting demands of "the employer's job descriptions of the principalship and the attributes of leadership so valued and deemed necessary by principals and teachers". The perceived difficulties and stresses involved may also be contributory factors to women not putting themselves forward for headship. There is an interesting comparison with the comments about management style made by some of the principals in Stott and Lawson's (1997: 27) report. Although most of the principals said that their staff would probably describe their style as open and participative, the demands of incorporation had caused one principal to comment "I was dropped in it before incorporation, inspection and a new senior management team ... I've had to be autocratic". Coleman (2000: 24) notes that the heads in her survey did find some clear benefits in being women:

"The most mentioned advantage was in terms of being able to defuse macho behaviour on the part of males: students, teachers and parents ... the fact that men feel the need to be aggressive to other men, and that aggressive behaviour is not associated with females, acts to their advantage".

From the literature reviewed, it becomes evident that women managers in general, have difficulty in performing their managerial responsibilities. They face many injustices that stand in their way in order for them to progress into top management. Although quite a number of women find themselves in top management positions, it is clear that women are still under-represented in management. This gap can be filled if women can let their voices be heard.

#### **2.9.6.5 PROMOTION MYTHS**

The role of women in the working environment is surrounded by myths that are accepted as facts, although they have little basis in the truth. One of the most harmful myths, which militate against women, is the belief that women do not have the necessary attributes to become good managers.

Although it is generally believed that lack of preparation is a barrier to promotion, Shakeshaft (1993: 12) argues that women come just as prepared as men. The only problem is the lack of informal opportunity in terms of becoming visible. Women tend not to give themselves visibility, instead they let men become visible.

Men are sometimes given assignments seen generally as being more central, more critical, more visible and more relevant than those that are given to women (Cahoon, 1991: 13). The promotion myths are associated with the perceived misconception that women are not professionally qualified. The Weindling and Earley Report (1987) states that it is only a myth that women are no less qualified psychologically for positions in management than men. This does not match reality to think women are under-represented in senior education management posts because of

being under or non-qualified. Both men and women are qualified and both are interested in promotion posts.

Contrary to expectations, Jones and Millman (1990: 12) revealed that women teachers were the best-qualified and male teachers the worst qualified. However, a lack of training and experience were the most significant factors affecting women's chances for promotion.

#### **2.9.6.6 LACK OF SELF-CONFIDENCE**

Women are perceived to have lower self-esteem than men. Dean (1991: 24) clearly states that men are more likely to overreach and go beyond their abilities, while women are likely to under-reach. Women have a tendency of thinking that, because it is mostly men that are chosen for the most senior posts, there is something wrong with them. Women have a tendency of applying only for posts for which they qualify, whilst men apply even if they don't qualify.

In the same vein Cahoon (1991: 13) states that, because of their low self-esteem, women apply for a lot less positions. The low self-esteem is coupled with inner fears and inability to talk positively about themselves or even feel positively about themselves.

Shakeshaft (1987: 85) contends that the lack of confidence is a product of traditional belief and organisational system that limits opportunities for female educators to acquire experience that will help them build self-confidence. Experience boosts ones' self-confidence and empowers ones' self-image. It is alleged that women are employed in senior posts temporarily or as being seconded to those promotion posts, and, as a result, their confidence about their careers is shaky.

### **2.9.6.7 LACK OF SUPPORT, ROLE MODELS AND POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT**

Lack of support from the organisation in which one works, and from the family, may lead to the under-development of women.

Lack of support from family members (eg. from one's spouse, if the wife is in a senior management post) leads to frustration. When the performance evaluation is done, males predicate much higher performance ability on their part than females. This is due to the fact that in most cases, the appraiser is the male who thinks that he is the role model. The lack of female role models may also increase the problem. Males that are seen as real administrators and women who are compared and gauged against male norms compound this problem.

### **2.9.6.8 CULTURAL SOCIALISATION**

Culture is a complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, norms, law, customs, morals and other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. In the words of Lewis (1976: 16), "Culture is thus the protective shelter of a community and cultural distinctions become, to some extent, an index of social identity". Culture is handed down from one generation to the next through the education process of socialisation. It is believed that cultural socialisation ensures that people in the society acquire the norms and standards that govern their thoughts, speech, beliefs and all other actions and behaviour.

Tsoka (1999: 128) explains that it is through cultural socialisation processes that individuals come to acquire notions of racism, racial



antagonism, racial exploitation and conflict, gender domination and exploitation.

Raum in Duminy (1996: 96), quoted in Tsoka (1999: 128), points out that, with regard to indigenous culture, a boy is promoted from herding goats to herding sheep and then from herding calves to finally herding cattle. A girl, on the other hand, learns first to cook for an infant then for her elder siblings, and for her mother and, as it were, graduates in cooking when she is allowed to prepare a meal for her father. Such cultural prescriptions go a long way and eventually are transferred from home to school and can prevent people, especially women, from obtaining senior education management posts. Women are denied promotions in the working place simply because culture had consigned them the home environment.

Apartheid, on the other hand, too, had actually worked to reinforce the cultural patterns of a traditional society in which women were regarded as mere children in the society and, therefore, had no business to be leaders in any enterprise.

#### **2.9.6.9 ALLOCATION OF DUTIES**

Tradition plays an important role in culture and contributes significantly in shaping one's future. Traditionally a women's place is the kitchen, where she is expected to fulfill certain kinds of jobs which are prescribed for her, for example, to cook, clean, sewing, knitting and so on.

Tsoka (1999: 22), in her study, observed that 20.7% of women and 12% of men strongly disagree with the statement that, on average, a woman who stays at home all the time with her children is a better mother than a woman who works outside home at least part time. These very low

percentages prove that the majority of South Africans in the Gauteng Province still believes in the old saying which prescribes that “a women’s place is at home”, where her role is seen as caring for the children. It is assumed that women, as leaders in primary schools, fulfill adequately the role model of motherliness the children are used to at home. On the other hand, it is argued that the male teachers, like the father figure in the family, are always feared and, therefore, should be less considered for the leadership position in primary schools (Tsoka, 1999: 127). Therefore, the male teachers are seemingly considered to be leaders in high schools because they are believed to be able to control and maintain discipline.

Women often take on roles which are more complex than the kind of conventional management roles occupied by men, but which are less visible in the institutions and are less well rewarded (Al-Khalifa, 1990: 2). A project done on teachers’ jobs at East Anglia University has revealed a growing “underclass” of demoralised teachers who feel increasingly excluded from career development. Many teachers, mainly women, appear to be doing more work than ever before but have no prospect of receiving any promotion in the form of an allowance (Al-Khalifa, 1990: 2).

It can be argued that schools, together with the families, contribute heavily towards the maintenance of a society’s social relationships and sexual division of labour. In the same vein, Hirschowitz (1986: 38) argues that schools and families contribute to sex role stereotyping. At school, subjects like science were largely seen as masculine subjects inappropriate to girls, since science and technology were mainly of use in the production of goods and profits, a world from which girls were largely excluded. The schools initiated a culture which is difficult to eradicate and a culture of thinking that science is not for girls, but is exclusively for boys.

Teachers play a big role in the thwarting of girls' potential. This is sometimes done directly in actions such as holding different expectations for girls and boys, boys getting more teacher time than girls, male teachers giving less attention to girls. Girls' subject choices in education and training reflect expectations of a role in society, which confirms their place in society. Morrel (1992: 01) argues that, even though girls enter school in large numbers, their career directions and participation in the labour market are gender specific.

The next section looks into how women education managers perceive their role.

## **2.10 HOW WOMEN EDUCATION MANAGERS PERCEIVE THEIR ROLE**

This section focuses on the way in which women managers perceive their role. This is relevant because the way managers perceive their role determines their leadership and management styles.

Most European women see work as a way to maintain their standard of living rather than as a career opportunity: only 33 % regard their work as a career. By comparison, this figure is 46 % amongst American women. Most Russian women managers regard power and influence negatively. Sixty percent of the women surveyed by E.A. Zdravomyslova consider their work interesting and say that it gives them an opportunity to make independent decisions. At the same time, more than half of the respondents see no opportunity for advancement. When asked to explain women's disinterest in a career, they say that women "are, objectively, not prepared for management, and women's salaries are viewed as being in line with their qualifications. Western women, in contrast, are convinced

that their salaries do not match their qualification (Gvozdeva and Gerchikov, 2002: 74).

Research on the career stages of headteachers in Israel has been influenced by theories of adult and career developments from the non-educational field. They highlighted that a person's experiences and attitudes toward work and life vary across the career life cycle and that developmental change processes were assumed to be differentiable into observable career stages (Oplatka, 2001: 220). Several models have been developed to depict the stages headteachers may undergo during their career cycle (Oplatka, 2001: 220). It is argued that the perspective and behaviour of headteachers may change during the course of their career, indicating that a person's career should be considered as a flexible and fluid profession rather than as stable and permanent over the years (Oplatka, 2001: 220).

One of the career stages is mid-career, a stage that has been described in the literature as occurring after 8-14 years in the career. Interestingly, despite the impact of cultural and historical differences on headship, studies from various countries, conducted amongst school headteachers in mid-career showed similar findings (Oplatka, 2001: 220).

In this day and age women, indisputably, make up a significant part of the academic labour force; moreover, they have a presence in the middle ranks and are beginning to appear in the upper levels of university management. Senior women in education are 'negotiating newly acquired status positions, forms of institutional power, and intellectual authority in many different ways' (Luke, 1997: 193). Feminists have operated as change agents in the universities of the last three decades (Morley and Walsch, 1995; Morley, 1999; Yeatman, 1995), through creating women's studies programmes, working to introduce or improve policies along equity

lines, staffing equity-oriented positions and, more recently, entering the ranks of senior management. Many women strive to make a difference to the institution – by not simply ‘fitting in’ but by challenging discriminatory and unjust practices and creating new practices.

It is becoming clear that women managers generally view their roles differently. We will now focus on the South African situation.

## **2.11 THE SOUTH AFRICAN SITUATION**

### **2.11.1 CHANGES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM**

There has been much written about the identification and analysis of the causes that have come about due to the significant under-representation of women at senior management level of organisations, including higher education institutions (Delpont, 2000; Makosana, 2002; Niemann, 2002; Onsongo, 2002; Ramsay, 2000).

Despite the fact that women form approximately two-thirds of the total teaching force in South Africa, they are underrepresented in management (Greyvenstein, 1991:303; Greyvenstein and Van der Westhuizen, 1992:271). According to Ozga (1993:4), women are more visible in the management of education offered to younger learners. As the age of learners increases, the proportion of women in management diminishes. A range of explanations of the under-representation of women in management has been identified by De Witt (1990:565) and varies from inadequacy or incapacity as societal perspectives of women, discrimination and a lot of other factors.

The South African educational system is presently undergoing extensive transformation from a system plagued with racial and gender disparities to one that will uphold the ideals of non-sexism and non-racism. Since the first democratic elections were held in South Africa in 1994 - elections in which the African National Congress (ANC) was voted into office - the new government has launched a concerted effort to create a nonracist, nonsexist society where the political, cultural and economic interests of all South Africans will be protected. The efforts of this new government are evidenced by the new Constitution that was adopted in 1996. The Constitution aims to protect, through legislative action, those who were disadvantaged by discrimination in the past. The Constitution of South Africa and the Bill of Rights (Chapter 2) (Act 108, Art.9 (3): 1996) embrace the fundamental issue of equity, which states unequivocally that:

Everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law. Equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms. To promote the achievement of equality, legislative and other measures designed to protect or advance persons, or categories of persons disadvantaged by unfair discrimination may be taken. The state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth.

The nation's new Bill of Rights makes specific provisions for education by protecting the right of every South African citizen to receive a basic education, including basic adult education as needed. The Bill of Rights further stipulates the responsibility of the government to make education available and accessible to all, and to take into account issues of equity as well as the need to redress the effects of past racial discrimination (Constitutional Assembly, 1996). South Africa's Bill of Rights and the transformation of the workplace have brought about a heightened

awareness of women and gender related issues in employment and in education (Howard, 1995:23).

The new democracy in South Africa has given this country a unique opportunity to reconsider the past and improve things for the betterment of the future. The change which has taken place during the past years has seen a large proportional increase of women in key decision-making positions in government, business and educational institutions, probably for the first time in this country (Maphalala, 1995:6).

The White Paper on Education of 1994 supports the Bill of Rights (South Africa, 1994:27; Nelmapius, 1995:11) and states: The Constitution recognises the specific nature of gender inequality by establishing a Commission on Gender Equality. The task team will advise the Director-General on all aspects of gender equity in the education system and will in particular:

- Identify means of correcting gender imbalances in enrolment, dropout, subject choice, career paths and performance.
- Propose guidelines to address sexism in curricula, textbooks, teaching and guidance.
- Propose employment equity strategies for increasing the representation of women in professional leadership and management positions, and for increasing the influence and authority of women teachers.

In South Africa there is a new approach regarding the role of women development. Howard (1995:24) states that employment equity, as part of the new democracy in South Africa, has, to a great extent, contributed to

reduce and remove gender inequities throughout different institutions in South Africa and it has been instituted, giving women the opportunity to advance in management roles.

These opportunities include the greater participation of women in all facets of education management (Duff, 1992:23). It is critical that women should not let this opportunity pass them by. (Jacobson, 1994:10) also encourages women to come out of their victimhood and seize the opportunities. Training is therefore of vital importance to realise and develop the potential of women (Lane, 1991:15).

Other recent government initiatives include the appointment of women to senior positions within government and the enactment of various laws such as the South African School Act (1996), the Higher Education Act (1997) and the Labor Relations Act (1995) to ensure equitable treatment of historically excluded groups (i.e. Blacks and women).

### **2.11.2 MANAGERIAL PROBLEMS SOUTH AFRICAN WOMEN EXPERIENCE**

According to Delpont (2000:2) women in South Africa constitute approximately 54% of the population and two-fifths (38%) of the paid workforce, but they account for 68% of all service sector employees and more than half the clerical positions. Furthermore, the disparities between male and female employees are also reflected in the following: “ Male managers have twice as many subordinates as female managers; for every male earning less than R60 000 a year, there are eight women earning less than this; twice as many men as compared to women earning more than R100 000 a year “ (Delpont, 2000: 2).



In education, available promotion starts with senior staff positions, like Heads of Department, Deputy Principals, Principals, Subject Advisers, District Managers, Regional Managers, Deputy Directors, Directors, General Directors, Deputy Minister/s and the Minister of education. Although teaching has traditionally been viewed as the ideal profession for women, it is usually in the position of class or subject educator, and not in the role of principal. The poor picture of representativity takes place despite the fact that women, like men, went to the same schools and universities and were taught the same subjects and courses in the same classes and by the same teachers and lecturers. They also paid the same tuition fee and studied under the same conditions where they all ended writing the same examinations and finally receiving the same certificates, diplomas and degrees. The Gender Equity Task Team's report stated that, "Education Management in South Africa has traditionally been and *remains male dominated* at the most senior levels of decision-making" (Wolpe, Quinlan & Martinez, 1997: 1). Therefore, it would be fair to say that women manage teaching while men manage education.

The reality in South Africa seems, however, to be that because of the historical and still present dominant masculine values in South African organisational cultures as well as the minority status of women in management:

- feminine values in leadership are not yet appreciated on equal grounds with masculine values
- there are simply not enough women, black and white, in management and executive management in South African organisations to bring about the necessary paradigm shift

Similar initiatives to those in parliament need to be implemented in all organisations to break down the patriarchy and balance the masculine value systems in the organisation. This transformation will then not only bring more feminine values into the organisation, but will also further the cause for women in management and broaden the pool of talent for management in general, in the interest of organisations and the country as a whole.

## **2.12 CONCLUSION**

The literature shows that women education managers experience problems in executing their management tasks. These problems include planning, policy-making, decision-making, problem-solving, delegation, time management, financial management and human resource management.

Although research has shown that women managers are good planners, they still delay the planning process and are hesitant to change. Women have little experience in policy-making due to the fact that they have always been excluded from it. The literature indicates that women simply cannot make decisions, despite the fact that they allow greater involvement of members of staff. The sensitivity of women education managers with regard to problems that might cause conflict, makes it extremely difficult for them to solve problems. Delegation is another managerial problem women encounter, because of their inability to find a balance between enabling others and releasing control.

These problems are aggravated by workplace discrimination, sexual harassment, negative attitudes towards women, emotional influences, promotion myths, lack of self-confidence, lack of support, role models and positive reinforcement, cultural socialization and allocation of duties.

These problems also contribute to the managerial performance of women and the execution of their managerial duties. In order for women to become better leaders, they need to be taught how to deal with these peripheral issues.

Women are still disadvantaged as far as senior positions are concerned. The ideology based on the superiority of men is still evident in schools. This under-representation of women in management positions is also found in management training.

Furthermore, the literature has pointed out that women bring sensitivity to a relationship; an awareness of right and wrong, values and intuition.

Women are always perceived as inferior to their male counterparts and, therefore, cannot perform on the same level.

It is imperative that relevant training programmes that would address the particular needs of women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein be developed. These training programmes should address the various areas of management which are problematic to women, as outlined in this chapter. Training could take the form of in-service programmes to develop the managerial performance of women or training workshops could be arranged by the Free State Department of Education to prepare women for their different managerial responsibilities.

This chapter has presented the literature review pertinent to the study. The next chapter describes the research methodology used in the study.



# **CHAPTER 3**

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the research methodology that was followed in this study. It covers the following sections: population; sample; sampling procedure; research approach; research design; methods and procedures of collecting data; data analysis and conclusion.

### **3.2 METHODS AND PROCEDURES**

#### **3.2.1 POPULATION**

Stoker (1989:100) states that any empirical-scientific investigation commences with a statement of intent, in which both the problem to be investigated and the field to be covered should be clearly described and demarcated. If, for instance, an investigation is to be conducted into the spending pattern of households of a particular community, the total collection or group of all households in the community constitutes the population, also called the target population involved in the investigation.

The population of the study was all the women education managers in the primary schools in Bloemfontein. Managers included principals, deputy

principals and heads of department, as they are the School Management Team (SMT).

There are 75 primary schools in Bloemfontein. At the time the research was conducted, 30 schools had women as principals, 14 deputy principals and 56 heads of department. This gives a population of 100 school managers.

The next section will look at the sample that was used.

### **3.3 SAMPLE**

According to Grinnell (1993: 154), sampling is the selection of some units to represent the entire set from which the units were drawn. If the selection is carried out in accordance with the requirements of sampling theory, the data obtained from the sample should, quite accurately, pertain to the entire set. Samples must be representative of the population of concern, otherwise no general observations about the population can be made from studying the sample. Two key features of samples determine how representative of the population they are, these being **size** and **bias**.

#### **3.3.1 SIZE OF THE SAMPLE**

Out of the population of 100, a sample of 87 respondents was used to gather the information. The sample comprised 22 principals, 14 deputy principals and 51 heads of department.. They were selected from 22 primary schools in Bloemfontein. These were the schools that were accessible to the researcher.

### **3.4 SAMPLING PROCEDURE**

Patton (1990: 169) describes purposeful sampling as a process of “selecting information-rich cases for study in depth”. In a similar vein, McMillan and Schumacher (1993: 378) assert that the researcher searches for information-rich key informants “because they are likely to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomenon the researcher is investigating”.

### **3.5 RESEARCH APPROACH**

A quantitative research methodology has been followed to gather relevant information on the topic. A quantitative study means any type of research that produces results arrived at by means of statistical procedures. In this study a questionnaire was used.

Mouton and Marais (1990: 155-156) write that the quantitative approach is that approach to research in the social sciences that is more highly formalised as well as more explicitly controlled, with a range that is more exactly defined and which, in terms of the methods used, is relatively close to the physical sciences.

Quantitative researchers use a deductive form of reasoning. According to Neuman (1994: 41), quantitative research takes universal propositions and generalisations as a point of departure.

A quantitative research approach was used in order to get objective information from the respondents, through use of a structured questionnaire.

### **3.6 RESEARCH DESIGN**

A survey was used. A survey is essentially a cross-sectional method of research involving the gathering of data from a large number of cases from a limited area at a particular time. For some surveys, it is possible to question or interview the entire population involved. A survey is the collection of information on a wide range of cases, each case being investigated only on the particular aspect under consideration. A survey does not emphasize the diverse aspects of a single case but rather the frequency or number of answers to the same question by different people. One criterion for the quality of a survey will be how many questionnaires have been filled out and how large and representative the sample is.

The school survey is usually conducted to determine the school needs of a specified community. Some of the large school systems have research departments which are continually conducting research in areas connected with the quality of the education its learners are receiving.

The aim of any survey is to obtain information on certain characteristics of the population as a whole. The survey is the most widely used data-gathering technique in sociology, and it is used in many other fields as well (Neuman 1997: 228).

The use of a survey for the purpose of this study was relevant so that the managerial performance of women in management positions in primary schools in Bloemfontein could be determined. A survey was conducted amongst primary schools in Bloemfontein to obtain information on the problems women education managers encounter in their schools and how well they are trained to perform their duties.



## 3.7 METHODS AND PROCEDURES OF COLLECTING DATA

### 3.7.1 INSTRUMENTATION

The instrument that was used in collecting data, was a questionnaire. A good questionnaire forms an integral whole. The researcher weaves questions together so they flow smoothly (Neuman 1997: 233). The questionnaire is similar to the paper-and-pencil test. In fact, there are no characteristics that invariably differentiate between a test and a questionnaire. A test usually contains a set of items related to a single variable, such as vocabulary or arithmetic achievement, that has correct or incorrect answers and produces a score that indicates the individual's level of performance on that variable. In contrast, the questionnaire usually contains questions aimed at getting specific information on a variety of topics. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions, and no total score is computed by combining the questionnaire responses.

The questionnaire may be regarded as a form of interview on paper. Procedure for the construction of a questionnaire follows a pattern similar to that of the interview schedule.

The questionnaire is a document normally distributed through the post to be filled out by the respondent himself/herself in his/her own time. Questionnaires can be used without direct personal contact with respondents, that is, without the help of an interviewer. These are ***self-administered questionnaires***, to be filled in by respondents themselves. This can be done either by distributing the questionnaire and collecting it after it has been filled out, or by mailing it and asking respondents to send it back. It is then called a ***mail questionnaire***, which is definitely a non-personal method of gathering data.

### **3.7.1.1 ADVANTAGES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

The most important advantage of the questionnaire over the interview is one of economy. Because many questionnaires are sent through the mail, the expense and time involved in training interviewers and sending them personally to interview each respondent are diminished. Also, the questionnaire can be sent almost anywhere, a condition that is usually impractical for interviews.

Another advantage claimed for the questionnaire is that each respondent receives the same set of questions phrased in exactly the same way, as they are on standardized tests. Questionnaires are, thus, supposed to yield more comparable data than do interviews. The validity of this argument depends, in large part, on whether questions are structured or unstructured.

Most questionnaires can be filled out by a group of respondents at one sitting or sent out individually for completion and return. When well constructed and intelligently interpreted, the questionnaire can provide an extremely fruitful method of obtaining information (Neuman 1997: 251).

The questionnaire, however, has some limitations or disadvantages as indicated in the following section.

### **3.7.1.2 DISADVANTAGES OF QUESTIONNAIRES**

Questionnaires, like any other data gathering instrument, have disadvantages. First, the motivation of the respondent is difficult to check, while an interview permits rapport to be established. Without knowing how motivated respondents are, the validity of their responses is difficult to judge.

A second disadvantage of the questionnaire, and especially those that are mailed, is the assumption that respondents are literate. Although this is probably not too serious a problem in many studies, it is a limitation in some populations.

Sampling is a third disadvantage of the questionnaire. Because each questionnaire that is not returned increases the likelihood of biased sampling, every effort should be made to obtain a 100 percent return. The percentage of returns depends on such factors as the length of the questionnaire, the reputation of the sponsoring agency, the complexity of the questions asked, the relative importance of the study as judged by the respondent, the extent to which the respondent believes that his or her responses are important, and the quality and design of the questionnaire itself (Neuman 1997: 251).

The construction of a questionnaire is time-consuming business and is an art as well as a science. If the information requested is more than routine file data, it is probably wise to seek the consultation of an expert with extensive experience in the development of questionnaires. The questionnaire attempts to obtain information which will describe educational phenomena.

The fact that questionnaires are impersonal can sometimes be to one's advantage - for example, when answers are given anonymously. But for the most part, questionnaire responses should be treated with caution and the questionnaire method should be used only for relatively simple and factual inquiries, although it may form a necessary part of more complex studies.

### **3.7.1.3 JUSTIFYING THE USE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDY**

The decision was made to make use of self-administered questionnaires in this study. The questionnaire was easier to distribute to schools in Bloemfontein.

#### **3.7.1.4 CONSTRUCTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

The questionnaire was divided into sections.

Section A involved the biographical information of the respondents. This included the following: highest academic qualifications; highest professional qualifications; marital status; type of school; position held by respondent; the year when the respondent was promoted to the position as well as the percentage of women in management in the school.

Section B involved the problems women education managers encounter. It involved the various types of problems women might experience in carrying out their responsibility; management problems education managers experience, as well as sexual harassment.

Questions 18 and 19, pertaining to the problems women education managers might experience, had to be answered by principals only. They involved problems experienced concerning the professional management of the school as well as providing professional leadership.

Questions 20, 21 and 22 had to be answered by deputy principals only and included whether participants found problems in assisting the principal in managing the school. It also asked whether the respondents experience difficulties when they acted as principals.

Questions 23 and 24 involved heads of department and asked if women education managers experience problems from their male colleagues.

Section C involved the need for training. Respondents were asked to comment whether the training they have received enables them to execute their

managerial responsibilities. They were also asked to comment whether the education department is sufficiently equipped with staff and skills to offer training programmes.

Section D was an open-ended section. Respondents could comment on other problems that have been omitted in the questionnaire and how these problems could be addressed.

The following section deals with the administration of the questionnaire.

### **3.7.2 ADMINISTRATION OF QUESTIONNAIRES**

Questionnaires were distributed amongst the target group. Since the schools to which the questionnaires were sent were within the researcher's reach, questionnaires were distributed and collected in person so as to try and increase the percentage of returns.

Although there are 30 primary schools in Bloemfontein headed by women education managers, 22 questionnaires were distributed to 22 schools and 18 (81.8%) were returned. Fourteen questionnaires were distributed to female deputy principals and 14 (100%) were returned. Fifty-one questionnaires were distributed amongst heads of department and 46 (90.1%) were returned.

In total, 87 questionnaires were distributed of which 78 (89.6%) were returned. Permission to circulate questionnaires amongst the various schools having women in management positions in primary schools in Bloemfontein, has been granted by the Free State Department of Education.

**Table 3.1: The number of schools and questionnaires distributed and returned**

	Number of questionnaires distributed	Number of questionnaires returned	%
Principals	22	18	81.8
Deputy principals	14	14	100
Heads of department	51	46	90.1
Total	87	78	89.6

The researcher collected all the questionnaires distributed in person and that contributed to the high return rate. The high return rate of 89.6% indicates that women education managers were eager to participate in the research, as they experience problems in carrying out their managerial duties.

The next section looks into the analysis of data.

### **3.8 DATA ANALYSIS**

According to Creswell (1994: 152), the discussion on the plan for analysing data may be comprised of several components. Data analysis requires the researcher to be comfortable with developing categories and making comparisons and contrasts. It also requires the researcher to be open to possibilities and see contrary or alternative explanations for the findings.

Silverman (2000: 146) suggested that data analysis and data collection take place concurrently. This implies that the researcher does not wait until all the data has been obtained before interpreting it.

Keeping the above in mind, the researcher clustered data relating to each of the research questions. A comparison of data in terms of similarities and differences was made to simplify the data analysis procedure. Frequency tables and graphs were generated.

### **3.9 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has presented the research methodology followed in this study. It has covered the following sections: population, sample, sampling procedure, research approach, research design, methods and procedures of collecting data and data analysis.

Chapter 4 will deal with the data presentation and analysis.





# **CHAPTER 4**

## **DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter described the research methodology that was utilised to investigate the problems women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein experienced.

This chapter presents and analyses the data collected from women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein and covers the following sections: biographical data of principals, deputy principals and heads of department; problems experienced by women principals in carrying out their responsibilities; specific areas of management in which respondents experienced problems; problems concerning the professional management of the school; problems concerning sexual harassment; differences and similarities with regard to managerial problems women education managers experience; the need for training as well as the conclusion.

### **4.2 DATA ON PRINCIPALS**

The following section deals with the biographical data of principals.

#### 4.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF RESPONDENTS

Biographical data included their highest academic qualification, professional qualifications, teaching experience and marital status.

##### *Academic and professional qualifications.*

Table 4.1 represents the academic qualifications of the respondents.

**Table 4.1: Highest academic qualifications of principals  
(n=18)**

<b>Academic Qualifications</b>	<b>Number of principals</b>	<b>%</b>
BA	10	55.5
B.ED	6	33.3
MA	2	11.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>

From Table 4.1 it is evident that the women principals are well qualified. Their academic qualifications imply that they are fully equipped to teach their respective subjects. This, however, does not necessarily mean that they have good managerial skills.

The questionnaire also requested the respondents to indicate their professional qualifications.

Table 4.2 gives the breakdown of their professional qualifications.

**Table 4.2: Professional qualifications of principals (n=18)**

<b>Professional Qualifications</b>	<b>Number of principals</b>	<b>%</b>
PTD	4	22.2
HPTC	4	22.2
PTC	2	11.2
HED	4	22.2
HPTD	4	22.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>

There is a variation in the professional qualifications of the respondents.

They hold either a teaching certificate or a teaching diploma. Four (22.2%) had PTD, 4 (22.2%) had HPTC, 2 (11.2%) had PTC, 4 (22.2%) had HED and 4 (22.2%) had HPTD. As principals, they are professionally qualified to perform their managerial duties.

***Teaching experience of respondents.***

The experience of respondents as principals ranged from 1-18 years, as shown in Table 4.3. All principals were in primary schools. Two (11.2%) were at schools for girls only, while sixteen (88.8%) were at mixed schools (boys and girls).

Table 4.3 shows a breakdown in the number of years experience.

**Table 4.3: Number of years experience of principals (n=18)**

<b>Experience</b>	<b>Number of principals</b>	<b>%</b>
1 year	3	16.7
5 years	4	22.2
8 years	4	22.2
11 years	5	27.7
18 years	2	11.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>

### ***Marital status***

The respondents were asked to comment on their marital status as this could have an influence on the way they manage their schools. Research has shown that domestic problems could spill over to the work situation.

Out of the 18 principals who took part in the investigation, 14 (77.7%) were married, 1 (5.5%) was single and 3 (16.6%) divorced. 10 (55.5%) of the 14 respondents who are married did not experience problems in carrying out their managerial duties. 4 of the respondents did experience problems in carrying out their managerial duties. The lack of management training appeared to be the problem, and not the marital status.

The 1 respondent who was unmarried did not experience problems in carrying out her managerial duties.

Out of the 2 (11.2%) divorced respondents who reacted to the question whether they experience problems in carrying out their managerial duties, 1 (5.5%) did not experience problems, whereas 1 (5.5%) experienced problems.

The following section presents data on the problems experienced by principals in carrying out their responsibilities.

#### **4.2.2 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY PRINCIPALS IN CARRYING OUT THEIR RESPONSIBILITIES**

Question 11 of the questionnaire sought answers to the following question: Do you experience any problems in carrying out your managerial duties? The responses are illustrated in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4: Response to problems principals experienced in carrying out their managerial duties (n =18)**

<b>Yes</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>%</b>
10	55.5	8	44.4

Question 12 probed further into the type of problems that were experienced. Items that were included in the questionnaire were sexism, difficulties in coping with the demands of the work, workload and human relations. The additional category (other) was also given to enable respondents to explain whatever they felt was a problem to them.

Table 4.5 illustrates the various problems experienced by principals in carrying out their duties. These problems are seen as barriers in the execution of their tasks.

**Table 4.5: Problems principals experience in carrying out their responsibilities (n=18)**

<b>Problems</b>	<b>Number of principals</b>	<b>%</b>
Sexism	3	16.7
Difficult to cope	5	27.7
Workload	5	27.7
Human relations	3	16.7
Other	2	11.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.5 shows that five (27.7%) principals found it difficult to cope with their responsibilities. Five (27.7%) experienced problems with their workload and five (27.7%) experienced problems in coping with the demands of their work.

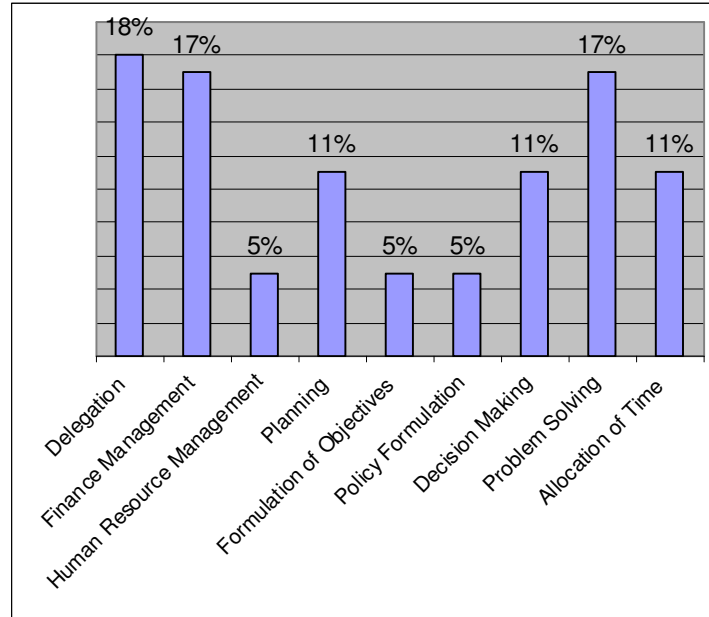
Sexism and human relations constitute problems to 3 (16.7%) of the principals. Having to attend to visitors without arrangement also caused problems to 2 (11.2%) of principals.

Question 13 sought answers to a range of managerial tasks including delegation, financial management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, problem solving, decision-making and allocation of time, in which principals found problems.

The following section shows the responses to this question.

### **4.2.3 SPECIFIC AREAS OF MANAGEMENT IN WHICH PRINCIPALS EXPERIENCE PROBLEMS**

Figure 4.1 illustrates the specific areas of management in which principals experienced problems



**Figure 4.1: Areas of management in which principals experience problems (n=18)**

Figure 4.1 indicates that delegation is one of the management tasks where 4 (18%) of the respondents experienced management problems. In addition to delegation, financial management and problem-solving caused management problems to 3 (17%) of the respondents.

Planning, decision making and allocation of time respectively caused problems to 2 (11%) of the respondents.

Human resource management, formulation of objectives as well as policy formulation were identified as problems areas by 1 (5%) of the respondents.

Table 4.6 shows a ranking of the different aspects of management.

**Table 4.6: Ranking of management tasks (n=18)**

<b>Task</b>	<b>Ranking</b>
Delegation	1
Financial management	2
Problem-solving	2
Planning	3
Decision-making	3
Time management	3
Human resource management	4
Formulation of objectives	4
Policy formulation	4

Delegation as management task is ranked the highest with regard to problems principals experience. This implies that further research need to be done on this area of management.

Questions 14, 15, 16 and 17 sought answers to questions related to sex stereotypes. The items included sexist attitudes in connection with job application, sexist attitudes from peers and sexual harassment.

Thirteen (72.2%) of the respondents indicated that they have been aware of sexist attitudes in terms of job application or promotion, whereas 5 (27.7%) have never been aware of such problems. With regard to sexist attitudes from peers, 9 (50%) have been aware of sexist attitudes. All of the respondents felt that the problem of sexual harassment can be overcome through staff development programmes which will remove gender stereotypes about males being more successful as managers than females.

The following section deals with the problems concerning the professional management of the school.



#### 4.2.4 PROBLEMS CONCERNING THE PROFESSIONAL MANAGEMENT OF THE SCHOOL

Questions 18 and 19 were directed to principals only and not to deputy principals and heads of department. These questions sought answers to problems relating to the professional management of the school, for example, drawing up timetables; admission and placement of learners; school accounts and record keeping as well as inspecting the school. The additional category (other) was included.

**Table 4.7: Problems principals experience concerning the professional management of the school (n=18)**

<b>Problems experienced</b>	<b>Number of responses</b>	<b>%</b>
Drawing up timetables	2	11.2
Admission and placement of learners	3	16.7
School accounts and record-keeping	5	27.7
Inspecting the school	5	27.7
Time for OBE	3	16.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.7 shows that 5 (27.7%) of the respondents experienced problems with school accounts and record-keeping, as well as inspecting the school. Three (16.7%) of the respondents experienced problems with admission and placement of learners, whereas 2 (11.2%) experienced problems with drawing up timetables.

From the data it is clear that although women principals are well qualified, both academically and professionally, they do experience problems in the execution of their managerial duties. These problems include delegation, finance management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, decision-making, problem-solving and allocation of time. Principals also experience problems concerning the professional management of the school. These problems include drawing up time tables, admission and placement of learners, school accounts and record-keeping, inspecting the school and time for Outcomes Based Education (OBE).

The next section presents data on deputy principals.

### 4.3 DATA ON DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

#### 4.3.1 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF RESPONDENTS

##### *Academic and professional qualifications.*

This section deals with the highest academic qualifications of deputy principals, professional qualifications, teaching experience as well as marital status.

**Table 4.8: Highest academic qualifications of deputy principals (n=14)**

<b>Academic Qualifications</b>	<b>Number of deputy principals</b>	<b>%</b>
Grade 12	5	36
Diploma	1	7.1
PGDE	1	7.1
HDE	3	21.4
B.ED	1	7.1
B.ED Honours	2	14.2
MA	1	7.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.8 shows that all respondents are suitably qualified. However, 5 (36%) have only a grade 12 certificate.

All deputy principals also had professional qualifications in addition to their academic qualifications.

Their professional qualifications are illustrated in Table 4.9.

**Table 4.9: Professional qualifications of deputy principals (n=14)**

<b>Professional Qualifications</b>	<b>Number of deputy principals</b>	<b>%</b>
HTC	1	7.1
Teaching diploma	2	14.2
ACE	1	7.1
HPTD	2	14.2
STD	1	7.1
JPTD	1	7.1
Univ. diploma	1	7.1
SPTD	2	14.2
HED	2	14.2
HPTC	1	7.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>100</b>

***Experience of respondents as deputy principals.***

The experience of the respondents as deputy principals ranged from 2-11 years. Table 4.10 shows the breakdown in the number of years experience of deputy principals.

**Table 4.10: Number of years experience of deputy principals (n=14)**

<b>Experience</b>	<b>Number of deputy principals</b>	<b>%</b>
2 years	4	29
3 years	5	36
6 years	2	14
11 years	3	21
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>100</b>

***Type of school***

Two (14%) of the respondents were at girls schools while 12 (86%) were at mixed schools (boys and girls). Two (14%) respondents indicated that being appointed as deputy principal was their first management position, while 12 (86%) were in management positions before.

Question 10 asked what the percentage of women in management at the various schools was. Three (21%) indicated less than 50%, four (29%) indicated between 50% and 60%, two (14%) indicated between 70% and 80% and five (36%) indicated less than 50%.

***Marital status.***

Four (29%) of the married respondents who took part in the investigation, experienced problems in carrying out their managerial duties. Six (43%) said they had no difficulty with management.

Out of 4 (29%) divorced respondents, 2 (50%) experienced problems with managing their duties, whereas 2 (50%) had no problems.

The following section deals with the problems deputy principals experience in carrying out their responsibilities.

#### 4.3.2 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN CARRYING OUT THEIR RESPONSIBILITIES

Question 12 sought answers as to whether deputy principals experienced problems in carrying out their responsibilities. Table 4.11 gives a breakdown of these problems.

**Table 4.11: Problems deputy principals experience in carrying out their responsibilities (n=14)**

<b>Problem</b>	<b>Number of deputy principals</b>	<b>%</b>
Sexism	4	29
Difficult to cope	1	8
Workload	3	21
Human relations	3	21
Other (Decision-making)	3	21
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>100</b>

Four (29%) of the respondents experienced problems with sexism. One (8%) found it difficult to cope, whereas 3 (21%) experienced problems with workload, human relations and decision-making respectively.

The following reactions also came from the open-ended section of the questionnaire:

*“The principal accepts our inputs, but never carries them out. We have requested him on several occasions to draw up management planning, but this has never materialised.”*

*“Positions in posts of principals are regarded as a position of males. Mostly women are appointed as deputy principals as glass ceiling to show their commitment towards gender issues. This is only for the eye blind.”*

*“The principal stopped us from checking teacher’s and learner’s books.”*

The above views by deputy principals clearly show that the cultural perception of husbands being the head of the family still exists in the workplace. Principals do not give women the opportunity to prove themselves because of prejudice against them.

The findings correspond with the writings of authors like Hirschowitz (1986:38) who argue that schools and families contribute to sex role stereotyping:

*“Where teaching is traditionally viewed as complementary to a women’s role of wife and mother, management is contradictory to this role, thereby causing further conflict” .*

Question 14 asked whether deputy principals have ever been aware of sexist attitudes in connection with job application or promotion. Their reaction was as follows:

*“90% of the management was made up of males over 50 to 60 years, who still fear for change and still believe that the top positions are reserved for males.”*

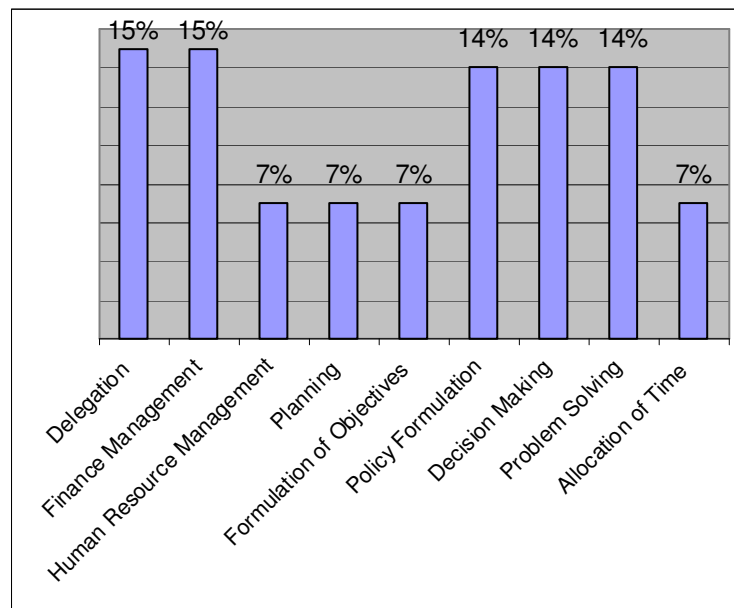
*“It is often stated that a male is needed in a specific post.”*

The findings of this research are similar to the findings of a research study conducted by Cahoon (1991: 13), who asserts that males are sometimes given assignments seen generally as being more relevant than the duties given to females.

The next section deals with the specific areas of management in which deputy principals experienced problems.

### 4.3.3 SPECIFIC AREAS OF MANAGEMENT IN WHICH DEPUTY PRINCIPALS EXPERIENCE PROBLEMS

Figure 4.2 illustrates the different areas of management in which deputy principals experienced problems.



**Figure 4.2: Areas of management in which deputy principals experience problems**

Figure 4.2 indicates that 15% of the respondents experienced problems with delegation and finance management, whereas 14% experience management problems regarding policy formulation, decision-making and problem-solving.

In addition to the above, 7% of the respondents experienced problems regarding human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives and allocation of time.

Question 14 asked whether women have ever been aware of sexist attitudes in connection with application or promotion. Ten (71%) of the deputy principals indicated that they were not aware of sexist attitudes from their peers or those they work with. The other four (29%) have experienced problems in this regard. The following comments came to the fore:

*“When being appointed as deputy principal the male who also stood as candidate spread rumors that I only got the post as a woman for equity sake.”*

The main reason for the above attitude may be the myth that the woman’s position is “in the kitchen”.

When the issue of gender bias is discussed, it is generally assumed that it is the male segment of the population that discriminates against women. It never occurs in our minds that males may be supportive, whilst women may be responsible for bringing other women down. This revelation is captured in this deputy principal’s response:

*“Females trust you in certain areas. Males still have that feeling of not trusting any decision made by a woman.”*

These problems can be overcome by various means, i.e. training, workshops, staff development, as well as in the ways stated by two respondents:

*“With time, gender stereotypes will disappear or at least get more equal.”*

*“To make more women to be leaders, even to the world known as a man’s world.”*

The following section deals with the problems deputy principals experience concerning the professional management of the school.



#### 4.3.4 PROBLEMS CONCERNING THE PROFESSIONAL MANAGEMENT OF THE SCHOOL

Questions 20, 21 and 22 referred specifically to deputy principals. Question 20 asked whether deputy principals experienced problems in assisting the principal in managing the school. Table 4.12 illustrates their responses.

**Table 4.12: Problems in assisting the principal when managing the school (n=14)**

<b>Yes</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>%</b>
6	43	8	57

Six (43%) of the respondents indicated that they experienced problems in assisting the principal in managing the school. Eight (57%) of deputy principals did not experience problems in assisting the principal in managing the school.

Question 21 sought answers to the kind of problems deputy principals experienced in assisting the principal in managing the school. Table 4.13 illustrates these problems.

**Table 4.13: Problems deputy principals experience in assisting the principal in managing the school (n=14)**

<b>Problem area</b>	<b>Number of deputy principals</b>	<b>%</b>
Lack of leadership skills	4	29
Lack of management training	6	42
Discrimination	1	8
Other	3	21
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>100</b>

Other problems include personality and attitude to decisions not always appreciated and accepted.

One respondent even reacted as follows:

*“The principal is using laissez-faire leadership style.”*

Another commented: *“Sometimes I get the impression that I as woman am a more capable manager than the principal and therefore get more tasks to run.”*

Question 22 of the questionnaire asked whether deputy principals experienced difficulties when they acted as principal. Table 4.14 gives a breakdown of their responses.

**Table 4.14: Problems experienced when acting as principal (n=14)**

<b>Yes</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>%</b>
5	36	9	64

Five (36%) of deputy principals experienced problems when they acted as principal, whereas 9 (64%) did not experience any problem.

The next section deals with heads of department.

## **4.4 DATA ON HEADS OF DEPARTMENT**

### **4.4.1 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF RESPONDENTS**

#### ***Academic and professional qualifications.***

The highest academic qualifications of heads of department ranged from Grade 12 to B.Ed Honours and is analysed in Table 4.15.

**Table 4.15: Highest academic qualifications of heads of department  
(n=46)**

<b>Academic Qualifications</b>	<b>Number of heads of department</b>	<b>%</b>
Grade 12	26	57
PGDE	1	2
HDE	1	2
BA	8	17
BA Honours	3	7
B.ED	2	4
B.ED Honours	5	11
<b>Total</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>100</b>

Twenty-six (57%) of the heads of department had Std. 10 (Grade 12) as their highest academic qualification. This is cause for concern, especially seeing as they have to give expert guidance to the educators. One (2%) of the heads of department had PGDE and HDE respectively. Eight (17%) had a BA degree, 3 (7%) had a BA Honours degree, 2 (4%) had a B Ed degree and 5 (11%) had a B Ed Honours degree.

The various qualifications are shown in Table 4.16.

**Table 4.16: Professional qualifications of heads of department  
(n=46)**

<b>Professional Qualifications</b>	<b>Number of heads of department</b>	<b>%</b>
Teaching diploma	7	15
PTD	3	7
HPTD	4	9
PTC	11	24
PGDE	2	4
HTD	2	4
HED	11	24
SPTD	2	4
JPTD	2	4
NTSD	1	2
ODE	1	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>100</b>

Question 8 asked the respondents to react on whether being appointed as heads of department was their first management position. Three (7%) were appointed in a management position before, whereas forty-four (96%) were appointed, for the first time, into a management position.

***Experience as heads of department***

Their experience as heads of department ranged between 1 – 23 years. Table 4.17 gives a breakdown of their experience.

**Table 4.17: Number of years experience of heads of department (n=46)**

<b>Experience</b>	<b>Number of heads of department</b>	<b>%</b>
1- 5 years	16	34.7
6 –10 years	9	19.5
11 - 15 years	10	21.7
16 - 20 years	10	21.7
Over 20 years	1	2.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>100</b>

***Marital status.***

Fifteen (32.6%) of the married heads of department experienced problems in carrying out their managerial duties, whereas eighteen (39.1%) said they had no problem with management. All 4 (8.7%) of the unmarried respondents said they experienced no problems with their management duties.

Out of 9 (19.5%) divorced heads of department, 4 (44.4%) indicated that they experienced problems with management, whereas 5 (55.5%) found that they had no problems.

The next section deals with the problems heads of department experienced in carrying out their responsibilities.

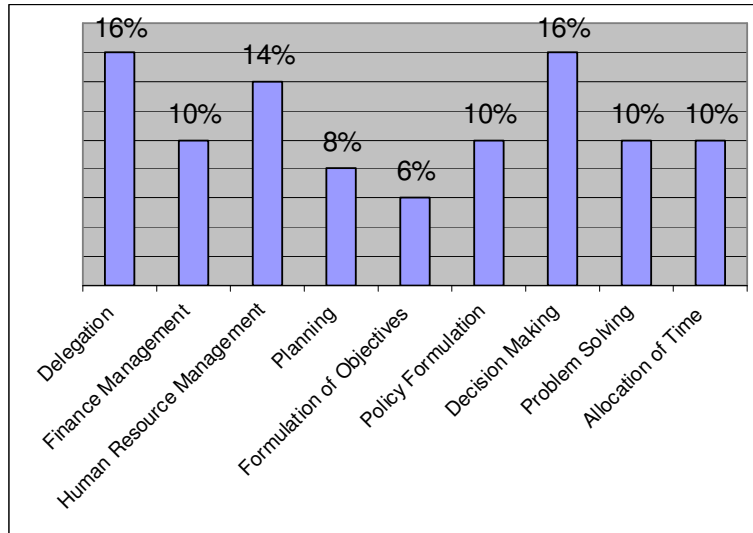
#### 4.4.2 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY HEADS OF DEPARTMENT IN CARRYING OUT THEIR RESPONSIBILITIES

In response to question 11 on whether heads of department experienced problems in carrying out their managerial duties, the response was as follows. Fifteen (32.6%) of the respondents indicated that they experienced problems in carrying out their management duties, whereas the other thirty one (67.4%) did not encounter any problems regarding their management duties. However, many problems arose when carrying out their responsibilities. These problems include sexism, difficulty to cope, workload as well as human relations. This is illustrated in Table 4.18.

**Table 4.18: Problems heads of department experience in carrying out their responsibilities (n=46)**

<b>Problem areas</b>	<b>Number of heads of department</b>	<b>%</b>
Sexism	4	8.7
Difficult to cope	8	17.3
Workload	27	59
Human relations	6	13
Other (Resistance)	1	2.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>100</b>

Question 13 asked respondents in which area of management they had problems. The response was as follows:



**Figure 4.3: Areas of management in which heads of department experience problems**

Figure 4.3 shows that delegation and decision making as management tasks caused problems for 7 (16%) of the respondents. Human resource management was problematic to 6 (14%) of the respondents. Five (10%) of the respondents experienced problems with policy formulation, problem-solving and allocation of time, while 4 (8%) had difficulty in planning. The remaining 3 (6%) experienced problems in formulating objectives.

The next section deals with problems of sexual harassment.

#### **4.4.3 PROBLEMS CONCERNING SEXUAL HARASSMENT**

Questions 23 and 24 referred specifically to heads of department. Question 23 sought answers as to whether heads of department experienced problems from their male colleagues when carrying out their managerial duties. Table 4.19 shows a breakdown of responses.

**Table 4.19: Response to whether heads of department had problems with male colleagues (n=46)**

<b>Yes</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>%</b>
14	30.4	32	69.5

Fourteen (30.4%) of the heads of department indicated that they experienced problems with male colleagues, whereas 32 (69.5%) did not experience any problems.

Question 24 deals with the kind of problems heads of department experienced from their male colleagues when carrying out their managerial duties. Only 14 (30.4%) of the heads of department had indicated that they experienced problems with male colleagues. Table 4.20 illustrates the responses.

**Table 4.20: Problems heads of department experience from male colleagues (n=14)**

<b>Problem area</b>	<b>Number of responses</b>	<b>%</b>
Sexual harassment	1	7
Division of work in the department	6	43
When acting as principal when he/she is absent	1	7
When delegating	6	43
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>100</b>

Comments on this issue have been categorised as follows:

- i. Composition of the interviewing panel is male dominated.

*“During interviews for promotion, the panel consist of more men than women.”*

ii. Bias towards males.

*“A male deputy was chosen over me although I was better qualified and had more experience than him.”*

*“Undermine the integrity of women and do not want to be ruled by women.”*

*“I was not appointed as deputy principal, because the principal wanted a male to be appointed.”*

*“Higher posts are created for male teachers, less female educators are in management.”*

*“In higher posts males are prioritised by many companies.”*

iii. Feelings of insecurity.

*“In a situation where a senior feels threatened by your knowledge, especially positive acknowledgements directed to me from people who know me well.”*

iv. Focus on extra mural activities.

*“Ons soek ‘n man wat kan rugby afrig, as jy kan krieket afrig, kan jy die pos kry.”*

*“I have not always been treated fairly.”*

The above utterances link up with Greyvenstein (1991: 32), whose research findings proved that incorrect selection of filtering occurs when interview panels



consist of males only and selection is taking place according to stereotyped gender role criteria.

On the question as to whether heads of department have ever been aware of sexist attitudes from their peers or those they work with, the respondents reacted as follows:

*“A woman is not accepted.”*

*“Principal not always open for discussion. He listens, but does not really hear. He sometimes makes a final decision just because he is the principal and he can!”*

*“Only one male whose word is final at his home and wants to bring that to school.”*

*“They decide for female educators. They undermine the intelligence of female educators or peers.”*

It appears, from the comments cited by the respondents, that women are not given a chance to show or utilise their skills or expertise in schools. This reflects the problem of bias against women in terms of allocation of duties, whereby there are certain posts that are for males and certain posts that are associated with women.

All heads of department agreed that the problem of sexual harassment can be overcome by training, workshops and staff development. One female respondent even said: *“severe punishment for the guilty one.”*

Although a few women experienced problems from their male colleagues when carrying out their duties, some had difficulties with regard to division of work in

the department, when they act as principal when he/she is absent , as well as when she has to delegate certain tasks to male colleagues.

The next section deals with differences and similarities with regard to managerial problems women education managers experienced.

#### 4.5 COMPARISON OF THE MANAGERIAL PROBLEMS WOMEN EDUCATION MANAGERS EXPERIENCE

Table 4.21 shows a comparison of the managerial problems women education managers experience.

**Table 4.21: Comparison of the managerial problems women education managers experience (n=78)**

<b>PROBLEM AREA</b>	<b>PRINCIPALS (n=18)</b>	<b>DEPUTY PRINCIPALS (n=14)</b>	<b>HEADS OF DEPARTMENT (n=46)</b>
Delegation	3 (18%)	2 (15%)	7 (16%)
Finance Management	3 (17%)	2 (15%)	5 (10%)
Human resource management	1 (5%)	1 (7%)	6 (14%)
Planning	2 (11%)	1 (7%)	4 (8%)
Formulation of objectives	1(5%)	1 (7%)	3 (6%)
Policy formulation	1 (5%)	2 (14%)	5 (10%)
Decision-making	2 (11%)	2 (14%)	7 (16%)
Problem-solving	3 (17%)	2 (14%)	5 (10%)
Allocation of time	2 (11%)	1 (7%)	5 (10%)

From Table 4.21, it is clear that delegation, financial management, decision-making, problem-solving and allocation of time are situations that are problematic to all women education managers.

It is also interesting to note that there are many differences with regard to the various managerial problems experienced by women.

Three (18%) of principals experienced difficulty with delegation, whereas only 1 (5%) experienced problems with human resource management, formulation of objectives and policy formulation. Financial management and problem solving are problematic to 3 (17%) of the principals.

Two (15%) of the deputy principals experienced problems regarding delegation and financial management. In relation to principals experiencing problems in the same areas of management, this figure slightly changes. Policy formulation, decision-making and problem-solving were problems to 2 (14%) of deputy principals, whereas only 1 (7%) experienced problems regarding human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives and allocation of time.

Heads of department experienced similar managerial problems to those of the principals and deputy principals. Seven (16%) of the respondents experienced problems with delegation and decision-making. Five (10%) experienced problems with regard to financial management, policy formulation, problem-solving and allocation of time. Four (8%) had problems with planning, whereas 3 (6%) experienced problems with formulation of objectives.

The next section deals with the need for training.

## 4.6 THE NEED FOR TRAINING

Section C of the questionnaire focused on the need for training for all education managers.

### 4.6.1 DATA ON PRINCIPALS

Question 25 sought answers to the following question: Do you think the training you have received enables you to execute your managerial responsibilities successfully? The principals reacted as follows to this question.

Eleven (61%) of the principals agreed that there is definitely a need for training. In their opinion, the training they received as first entrants into the education profession did not enable them to execute their managerial responsibilities successfully.

Question 26 sought answers to the aspects of management in which principals need training.

Table 4.22 gives a breakdown of the aspects of management in which training is required.

**Table 4.22: Areas of management in which principals need training (n=11)**

Training area	Number of principals	%
Organising	2	18
Finances	6	55
Leadership	3	27
<b>Total</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>100</b>

Question 27 sought answers to whether the respondents think there are enough training programmes in place to train women as education managers. Eleven (61%) responded that training programmes were not enough, whereas

7 (39%) responded that enough training programmes were provided by the Free State Department of Education to train women as education managers.

Training programmes should be put in place to focus on: how to deal with the aspect of sexual harassment, how to manage male colleagues, leadership skills, how to manage your school and conflict resolution.

#### 4.6.2 DATA ON DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

Question 25 asked whether the training deputy principals have received enabled them to execute their managerial duties. Seven (50%) of the respondents agreed that the training they received enables them to execute their managerial duties. The other 7 (50%) felt that the training they have received does not enable them to execute their managerial duties.

Question 26 sought answers to the aspects of management in which deputy principals need training.

Table 4.23 gives a breakdown of the aspects of management in which training is required.

**Table 4.23: Areas of management in which deputy principals need training (n=7)**

<b>Training area</b>	<b>Number of deputy principals</b>	<b>%</b>
Organising	2	28.6
Finances	4	57.2
Leadership	1	14.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>100</b>

The need to be trained after being appointed into their respective management positions became evident in their responses. In one accord they fully agreed that, after being appointed into management, they were not equipped to perform their various responsibilities. This lack of training could have an influence on their performance as well as the way in which they manage their various schools.

Training programmes should be put in place to focus on how to deal with the aspect of sexual harassment, how to manage male colleagues, leadership skills, how to manage your school and conflict resolution.

#### 4.6.3 DATA ON HEADS OF DEPARTMENT

Question 25 asked whether the training heads of department received enables them to execute their managerial duties. Three (6%) of the respondents agreed that the training they received enabled them to execute their managerial duties. The other 43 (94%) felt that the training they have received does not enable them to execute their managerial duties.

Question 26 sought answers to the aspects of management in which heads of department need training.

Table 4.24 gives a breakdown of the aspects of management in which training is required.

**Table 4.24: Areas of management in which heads of department need training (n=43)**

Training area	Number of heads of department	%
Organising	7	16
Finances	21	49
Leadership	15	35
<b>Total</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>100</b>

Training programmes should be put in place to focus on: how to deal with the aspect of sexual harassment, how to manage male colleagues, leadership skills, how to manage your school and conflict resolution.

#### **4.6.4 VIEWS ON THE NEED FOR TRAINING**

All the participants in this investigation felt that the National and Provincial Department of Education is responsible for such training programmes and that these programmes should take place during holidays as well as seminars after normal school hours. One respondent even mentioned that private institutions, that specialise in management training, should be consulted.

The beginner education manager should receive very special attention, since the community may not have any sympathy with an education manager who is not well orientated to his/her task and who may make unnecessary flaws. Theron and Bothma (1990:21) feel that the beginning in school management is very essential. They have a feeling that the beginner headmaster should be trained and prepared for his/her post, just after his/her appointment, but before duty is assumed.

Jacobson; Logsdon and Wiegman (1973:40) contend that there is a growing awareness amongst those concerned of the need for training school principals. They, in addition, feel that such training should include membership in professional organisations, state, regional and national meetings and workshops. They go on to say that there is a need for a new type of principals' clinics to help keep principals already in the schools up to date.

In the opinion of women education managers, the National and Provincial Department of Education is not sufficiently equipped with staff and skills to offer those training programmes and do not do enough to train women who reach management level. Some of the opinions are the following:

*“The Education Department must have a sub-directorate specifically for the training and identification of women managers’ needs.”*

*“Invite more motivational speakers.”*

*“Appoint more people, but they never have finances.”*

*“Bring in specialist trainers from the private sector.”*

#### **4.7 OPEN-ENDED SECTION**

Section D was an open-ended section in which respondents could mention any other problem that could have been omitted in the questionnaire. Out of question 35 the following comments came from principals:

*“How to deal with educators who use their power to influence other educators negatively towards supervisors”.*

Another mentioned the following: *“Besides sexist problems at school, women educators do not accept women leaders easily. They tend to be more critical than their male counterparts. Their attitude needs to change”.*

The following comments also came to the fore:

*“Motivational speakers should be sent to schools twice a year so that educators feel uplifted by people who know nothing or have no background about their situation”.*



*“Women should be trained to do stock-taking and that grounds and building tasks must also be assigned to women educators to prepare them for management posts”.*

*“A council or organisation be established to be the mouthpiece of women managers. This council or organisation can mediate between individuals and the Department of Education, thus informing the Department of their grievances”.*

Comments on question 35 from deputy principals was as follows:

*“Anyone holding a management position should have been chosen on merit. The male/female issue is irrelevant. It is ability that counts. Modern day women are not a weak link in the job market. Anyone with drive, determination and ability has the ingredients for success”.*

#### **4.8 CONCLUSION**

Women education managers experience problems with their managerial duties. The academic qualifications of principals imply that they are well equipped to teach their respective subjects. This does not necessarily mean that they are qualified to manage. Delegation, problem solving and financial management seem to be problematic to principals. Five (27.7%) of the women principals experienced problems in coping with the demands of their work. The marital status of principals could have an influence on the way they manage their schools, as responses have shown that domestic problems could spill over to the work situation. These managerial problems, as well as the difficulty to cope with the demands of their work, can be overcome by training programmes. The lack of management training appeared to be a prominent problem. These training programmes should develop newly appointed principals as well as those principals who experience problems in executing their managerial duties.

The high academic and professional qualifications of deputy principals are an indication that they are well equipped to teach. However, they still have problems in some areas of management, for example delegation, financial management, policy formulation, decision-making and problem-solving. They need training in these areas of management. Deputy principals have also indicated that they encounter problems with the professional management of the school. These problems range from lack of leadership skills, lack of management training and discrimination. These problems could be solved if relevant training programmes could be put in place to address the various areas of management in which deputy principals experience problems.

All heads of department who took part in the research received professional training as teachers. They are also academically qualified. Although well qualified, heads of department experience managerial problems similar to those of principals and deputy principals. These problematic areas of management are delegation, human resource management and decision making. Heads of department also experience problems with sexual harassment, division of work in the department, as well as when acting as principal when he/she is absent. Training programmes should be put in place to focus on how to deal with the aspect of sexual harassment, how to manage male colleagues, leadership skills as well as how to manage your school.

These needs could be addressed by the School Management Developer (SMD) who should organise training workshops for the School Management Team at school level.

The next chapter deals with the findings of the study and makes recommendations.

# **CHAPTER 5**

## **SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the summary, discussion of findings, conclusions and recommendations. The chapter also presents the aims of the study, research questions and the research hypotheses. The discussion of findings has been organised to be in line with the research questions and hypotheses.

### **5.2 SUMMARY**

#### **5.2.1 AIMS OF THE STUDY**

The following were the aims of the study:

- To investigate the problems that women education managers might experience in carrying out their managerial duties.
- To determine what the training needs of women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein are and how these needs could be addressed.

## **5.2.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The study sought to answer the following research questions:

- What problems do women education managers experience in carrying out their managerial duties?
- Do women education managers experience problems other than managerial problems in carrying out their duties?
- What training do they require?

The study further sought to answer the following specific questions:

- In which areas of management do women education managers experience problems?
- What organisational problems do women education managers experience in carrying out their managerial duties?
- Are there relevant training programmes in place to train women education managers?

## **5.2.3 HYPOTHESES**

The study addressed the following hypotheses.

- Women education managers experience problems in carrying out their managerial duties.
- Women education managers further experience various forms of organisational problems in carrying out their managerial duties.

- There are no training programmes for women education managers.

#### **5.2.4 METHODOLOGY**

A quantitative research approach was used in order to get objective information from the respondents, through the use of a structured questionnaire. The decision was made to make use of self-administered questionnaires in this study. The questionnaire was easier to distribute to schools in Bloemfontein. The aim of the questionnaire was to solicit responses from both closed questions and open-ended questions, where the respondents were given the opportunity to express their views. Twenty-two questionnaires were distributed to women education managers in 22 primary schools in Bloemfontein. Fourteen deputy principals and 51 heads of department took part in the study. In total, 87 questionnaires were distributed and 78 (89.6%) were returned.

A survey was conducted amongst primary schools in Bloemfontein to obtain information on the problems women education managers encounter in their schools and how well they are trained to perform their duties.

#### **5.3 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

The discussion of findings is organised in line with the research questions and hypotheses.

### 5.3.1 In which areas of management do women education managers experience problems?

The corresponding hypothesis to this research question was that:

- **Women education managers experience problems in carrying out their managerial duties.**

Women education managers experience problems in carrying out their managerial duties. These problems include delegation, finance management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, decision-making, problem-solving and allocation of time.

#### ***Principals.***

Principals experienced problems in specific areas of management. These problems, as indicated in Figure 4.1 include delegation, financial management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, decision-making, problem-solving and allocation of time. Delegation, as a management task, presented problems to 4 (18%) of the respondents. Financial management and problem-solving respectively presented managerial problems to 3 (17%) principals. Planning, decision-making and allocation of time was problematic to 2 (11%) of the respondents. Five percent of the respondents experienced problems with human resource management, formulation of objectives as well as policy formulation.

Concerning the professional management of the school, women principals also encountered problems. These problems, as indicated in Table 4.7, include drawing up time tables, admission and placement of learners, school accounts and record-keeping and inspecting the school. Research

has shown that 5 (27.7%) of the respondents experienced problems with school accounts and record-keeping as well as inspecting the school. Admission and placement of learners was a problem to 3 (16.7%) of the respondents, whereas 2 (11.2%) experienced problems with drawing up timetables.

### ***Deputy Principals.***

Figure 4.2 indicates that deputy principals also experienced problems in specific areas of management. These problems include delegation, financial management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, decision-making, problem-solving and allocation of time. Delegation and financial management as management tasks presented problems to 15% of the respondents respectively. Problem solving, policy formulation and decision-making respectively caused managerial problems to 14% of deputy principals. Human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives and allocation of time was problematic to 7% of respondents.

Concerning the professional management of the school deputy principals also experienced problems. These problems, according to Table 4.12, include lack of leadership skills, lack of management training and discrimination. Research has shown that lack of management training was problematic to 6 (42%) of women. This also led them to experience problems when acting as principal, as indicated in Table 4.14. Four (29%) of the respondents indicated that the lack of leadership skills caused problems in assisting the principal in managing the school. Other problems identified by deputy principals include personality and attitude to decisions not always appreciated and accepted.

### ***Heads of Department.***

Heads of department experienced problems in specific areas of management, as indicated in Figure 4.3. These problems include delegation, financial management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, decision-making, problem-solving and allocation of time. Delegation and decision making as management tasks caused problems for 16% of the respondents respectively. Human resource management is problematic for 14% of the respondents. Problem-solving, policy formulation, allocation of time and financial management presented managerial problems for 10% of heads of department. Eight percent of the respondents experienced problems with planning and 6% had a problem with formulation of objectives.

Heads of department as education managers also experienced problems in carrying out their responsibilities. Fifteen (32.6%) of the respondents indicated that they experienced problems in carrying out their managerial duties, whereas 31 (67.4%) did not encounter any problems regarding their management duties. However, many problems arise when carrying out their responsibilities. These problems, according to Table 4.18, include sexism, difficulty to cope, workload, human relations as well as resistance from colleagues. Twenty-seven (59%) women experienced problems with workload. Difficulty to cope with work was problematic to 8 (17.3%) of the women. Human relations caused problems to 6 (13%) of the heads of department and 4 (8.7%) of the respondents experienced problems with sexism.



### **5.3.2 What organisational problems do women education managers experience in carrying out their managerial duties?**

The corresponding hypothesis to this research question was that:

- **Women education managers further experience various forms of organisational problems in carrying out their managerial duties.**

Women principals, as education managers, experienced problems in carrying out their responsibilities. These problems include sexism, difficulty to cope, workload and human relations. Difficulty to cope with work as well as workload was problematic for 10 (55.5%) of the women, as indicated in Table 4.5. Table 4.5 further indicates that sexism and human relations caused problems for 6 (33.3%) of the women respectively. Having to attend to visitors without arrangement caused problems for 2 (11.2%) of the women as indicated in Table 4.5.

Deputy Principals, as education managers, also experienced problems in carrying out their responsibilities. Table 4.11 indicates these problems. They include sexism, difficulty to cope, workload, human relations as well as decision-making. Twenty one percent of women experienced problems with workload, human relations and decision-making respectively. Difficulty to cope with work was problematic to 1(8%) of the women. Sexism caused problems for 4 (29%) of the women.

Heads of department also experienced problems with sexual harassment. Seven percent have indicated that they experienced problems with sexual harassment. Thirty-one percent of heads of department experienced problems with male colleagues, as indicated in Table 4.20. These problems include the division of work in the department, when acting as principal when he/ she is absent and when delegating.

### 5.3.3 Are there relevant training programmes in place to train women education managers?

The corresponding hypothesis to this research question was that:

- **There are no training programmes for women education managers.**

Principals, as education managers, definitely need training. Eleven (61%) agreed that there are no training programmes in place, whereas 7 (39%) responded that there is enough training programmes to train women education managers. As indicated in Table 4.22, the specific areas identified in which principals need training are organising, finances as well as leadership.

Deputy Principals, as education managers, definitely need training. Seven (50%) of the respondents agreed that the training they received enables them to execute their managerial duties. The other 7 (50%) felt that the training they have received does not enable them to execute their managerial duties. Table 4.23 indicates that the specific areas of management in which deputy principals need training are organising, finances as well as leadership.

Heads of department, as education managers, definitely need training. Three (6%) of the respondents agreed that the training they received enables them to execute their managerial duties. The other 43 (94%) felt that the training they have received does not enable them to execute their managerial duties. The specific areas identified in which heads of department need training are organising, finances as well as leadership. as indicated in Table 4.24.

All education managers who participated in this investigation felt that the National and Provincial Department of Education are responsible for such

training programmes. These programmes should take place during holidays as well as seminars after normal school hours. One respondent even mentioned that private institutions that specialise in management training should be consulted.

The beginner education manager should receive special attention, since the community may not have any sympathy with an education manager who is not well orientated to her task and who may make unnecessary mistakes.

In the opinion of women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein, the National and Provincial Department of Education is not sufficiently equipped with staff and skills to offer these training programmes. They do not do enough to train women to reach management level.

In this study, training programmes to address the training needs of women with regard to management have been raised and guidelines for the development of training programmes that would address the particular needs of women with regard to management, have been laid down.

## **5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **Recommendation one**

Women education managers experience problems in carrying out their managerial duties. These problems include delegation, finance management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, decision-making, problem-solving and allocation of time.

These managerial problems can be eradicated by providing women education managers with the necessary skills. They will have to undergo relevant training.

As education managers, women should seize every opportunity to leave behind the gender discrimination which is still prevalent in the sphere of education. They should also commit themselves to undergo management training to successfully execute their managerial duties.

### **Recommendation two**

The study has identified problems, other than the actual execution of the tasks, that compounds the problems of women education managers. These problems include sexual harassment, difficulty to cope, workload, human relations, division of work in the department, acting as principal when he/she is absent as well as when delegating.

Deputy Principals have also identified the following problematic areas in which they need training: how to deal with the aspect of sexual harassment, how to manage male colleagues, leadership skills, how to manage your school and conflict resolution.

The Free State Department of Education, as well as the National Department of Education, should address these problems by offering regular workshops and in-service training sessions so that these problems can be eradicated. Programmes should focus on how to deal with sexual harassment as well as how to manage male colleagues.

### **Recommendation three**

There are no relevant training programmes in place to train women education managers. The National and Provincial Department of Education are responsible for such training programmes. These programmes should take place during school holidays as well as seminars after normal school hours. Private institutions that specialise in management training should be consulted.

Training programmes should focus on delegation, finance management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, decision-making, problem-solving and allocation of time. Workshops and in-service training sessions need to be conducted to address the management areas in which women education managers experience problems.

Programmes for the development of management skills amongst women education managers should contain the following basic elements:

- **Delegation**

The main reason for delegation is that it is a means whereby the manager can concentrate on the work of greatest importance, leaving the work of lesser importance to be done by others.

Education authorities should spell out all assignments in terms of the expected results. All lines of communication should be kept open so that if a problem arises, both the supervisor and the subordinates can communicate easily with each other. Job performance should be used as a basis for rewards, which means that those who are willing to assume responsibility and get the job done right should be placed at the head of the list when raises and promotions are given out. The scope of the authority should be

defined when delegating so that it would be clear which part of authority is being shared.

- **Financial management**

Financial management has been, and will always be, one of the most essential aspects in the effective management of the school.

Clear guidelines and financial management strategies should be laid down by the Provincial and National Departments of Education so that women education managers can be able to successfully manage school finances.

- **Human resource management**

The following facets of human resource management should receive attention from the Provincial and National Departments of Education in order to improve effective educational training in schools:

- The most suitable staff should be recruited, screened and appointed. The suitability of a person is determined by the particular environment and contemporary requirements of a school.
- The evaluation of staff must be handled skilfully, fairly and on the basis of open communication in order to identify the most suitable and effective leaders to facilitate an increased flow of educational training.
- The contemporary education manager must develop and exploit human resources (teaching staff) optimally and see to it that leadership in education is identified.

- **Planning**

Planning is a fundamental requirement in the education process, which forms the basis for all other management actions. This places a dramatic demand on education authorities to be more comprehensive in their planning efforts to define goals, formulate policies, make decisions as well as in solving problems.

- **Formulation of objectives**

Education authorities have the responsibility to define and communicate objectives to education managers and society, since objectives serve to generate commitment.

Objectives of the individuals and groups should be formulated to improve management of schools. A clear, concise statement of the central purpose or mission of the school as an educational organisation should be formulated.

- **Policy formulation**

Policies should be formulated which will reduce the need for close supervision of subordinates and which will further express the intentions of organisational strategies and goals.

Policies which will serve to reduce confusion of conflict about issues or concerns that education managers may have in carrying out their tasks, should be formulated.

- **Allocation of time**

The allocation of time to various activities is a vitally important aspect of planning in order to ensure that the educational balance is maintained.

Time for training should be allocated more meaningfully according to priorities.

- **Decision-making**

Decision-making is a key step in planning and undoubtedly a mental process which determines how the education manager will solve problems in the organisation.

Thus, problems should be defined in order to distinguish between it and its various symptoms, so that it would be easy to decide about it as well as to solve it. A list of possible solutions should be generated. Monitoring, evaluating and taking any necessary corrective action are essential steps in purposeful decision-making.

- **Problem-solving**

Problems must be defined accurately so that decisions which will be reached will be based on the correct problem identified.

The Provincial and National Departments of Education should not wait for problems to manifest themselves. They should try to anticipate problems or identify potential problem areas which, if not given attention, may result in significant trouble. They should seek out information about the causes, nature and severity of the problem, hence avoiding leaping to quick or easy solutions.

#### **Recommendation four**

Training programmes should also focus on organisational issues such as:

- **Sexual harassment**

The problem of sexual harassment can be overcome by training, workshops and staff development programmes which will remove gender stereotypes about males being more successful as managers than females.

The composition of the interviewing panels should not be male dominated. Incorrect selection of candidates for management posts occurs when interview panels consist of males only and selection takes place according to gender role criteria.



Women are not given a chance to show or utilize their skills or expertise in schools. This reflects the problem of bias against women in terms of allocation of duties whereby there are certain posts that are for males and certain posts that are associated with women.

- **Difficulty to cope with the demands of the post**

Women education managers should be trained on how to cope with the demands of the posts. Although women are academically qualified, this does not necessarily mean that they have good managerial skills.

Management training programmes should be introduced by the Provincial and National Departments of Education in order for women education managers to overcome the difficulty of coping with the demands of the post. This training should take place prior to their appointment into the various posts.

- **Workload**

The workload of women education managers should be reduced in order for them to function effectively. The high workload is a barrier in the execution of their tasks. Many of the management functions allocated to women education managers could be delegated to other members of the School Management Team (SMT).

- **Human relations**

Good human relations amongst the various stakeholders involved in the management of a school would contribute to the smooth and successful implementation of teaching and learning programmes in the school. Education managers should have an open-door policy towards their subordinates in order for them to work in close relation with each other.

Women education managers should accept inputs from subordinates and draw up a management planning together with all members of the School Management Team.

Training sessions on how to build good human relations should be offered by the Provincial and National Departments of Education in order for women education managers to execute this organisational responsibility successfully.

- **Division of work in the department**

The division of work in the various departments in the school should be done equally and in accordance with the allocation of workload according to the Personnel Administrative Measures (PAM). Women education managers should be involved in the drawing up of timetables in the beginning of the year when duties are assigned to the various educators as well as other members of the School Management Team.

- **Acting as principal when he/she is absent**

Women education managers feel insecure when they have to act as principal when he/she is absent. This is because of a lack of leadership skills and management training prior to their appointment into management positions.

The Provincial and National Departments of Education should implement management training programmes in which they equip women education managers with good leadership skills in order for them to successfully execute this task when it is assigned to them.

## 5.5 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, there are many managerial as well as organisational problems women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein encounter. Managerial problems include delegation, financial management, human resource management, planning, formulation of objectives, policy formulation, allocation of time, decision-making and problem-solving.

The findings of the study have also uncovered organisational problems women education managers encounter in the execution of their duties. These problems include sexual harassment, difficulty to cope with the demands of the post, too much workload, human relations, division of work in the department as well as acting as principal when he/she is absent.

These problems need immediate attention if women education managers are expected to perform their responsibilities successfully. Training in the various managerial functions, as well as in organisational issues, are required in order for women education managers to execute their responsibilities. This competency to be successful education managers can be acquired through in-service and professional development.

In view of the changing situation in South Africa, where, in future, women will probably hold more higher posts, women managers have to be equipped for their task.

The researcher would be gratified if the findings of this investigation could have an impact on the agenda of addressing the managerial problems women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein encounter. The findings will hopefully assist in the development of relevant training programmes to equip women school managers so that they can execute their managerial duties effectively.

## **5.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY**

This study has highlighted the problems and training needs of women education managers in primary schools in Bloemfontein. The findings of this study are based on the responses of a sample of 87 women education managers from 22 primary schools in Bloemfontein.

This sample is not representative of the Free State province and further research needs to be conducted in the entire province or even all over South Africa. Such a large investigation may yield more comprehensive results, on the basis of which more far-reaching conclusions can be drawn.

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W.C CICILIE  
32 JAN KEMP CRESCENT  
GENERAAL DE WET  
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9300  
28 JULY 2003

THE HEAD  
FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
PRIVATE BAG X20565  
BLOEMFONTEIN  
9300

FOR ATTENTION: CHIEF EDUCATION SPECIALIST: EDUCATIONAL PLANNING  
ROOM 1213  
C.R SWART BUILDING  
ELIZABETH STREET  
BLOEMFONTEIN

DEAR SIR/ MADAM

RE: PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH

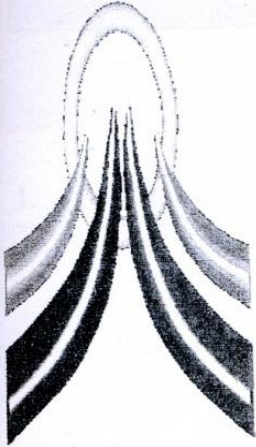
AS A REGISTERED STUDENT AT THE TECHNICON FREE STATE I AM CURRENTLY DOING MY M TECH DEGREE. THE TITLE OF MY THESIS IS: **"PROBLEMS AND TRAINING NEEDS OF WOMEN EDUCATION MANAGERS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN BLOEMFONTEIN"**.

I HEREBY ASK PERMISSION TO VISIT THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, AS WELL AS SCHOOLS, AFTER NORMAL SCHOOL HOURS TO OBTAIN INFORMATION FROM EDUCATORS AND RELEVANT PERSONS IN ORDER TO COMPLETE MY DEGREE.

I RELY ON YOUR POSITIVE CO-OPERATION

YOURS FAITHFULLY

.....  
W.C CICILIE



# Technikon

Vrystaat • Free State • Foreistata

DEPARTMENT TEACHER EDUCATION  
DEPARTEMENT ONDERWYSOPLEIDING

*Universiteit van Tegnologie • University of Technology  
Yunivesithi ya Thekenoloji\**

2003-10-28

Dear Educator

## REQUEST TO COMPLETE A QUESTIONNAIRE

You are kindly requested to complete this questionnaire.

This research endeavors to investigate the problems women education managers in primary school in Bloemfontein encounter and their training needs.

There are no right or wrong answers, so please indicate what you really think. Your completed questionnaire will be collected by myself. The answers/responses will be treated confidentially.

For any further clarity, please do not hesitate to contact me at the following cellular number: 0833442373.

Thanking you in anticipation.

**W.C. CICILIE**  
M.Tech: Stud. No. 20281307

**DR SN MATOTI**  
**SUPERVISOR**

/pp

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**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR WOMEN EDUCATION MANAGERS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN BLOEMFONTEIN**

**SECTION A:**  
**BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION**

1. What is your highest academic qualification, eg. BA, B.Sc, etc.?

.....

2. What is your highest professional qualifications, eg. teaching diploma?

.....

3. What is your marital status?

Married	<input type="checkbox"/>
Unmarried	<input type="checkbox"/>
Divorced	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Which of the following apply to your school?

Mixed	<input type="checkbox"/>
Girls only	<input type="checkbox"/>
Boys only	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. Into which category does your school fall?

Public School	<input type="checkbox"/>
Intermediate School	<input type="checkbox"/>
Primary School	<input type="checkbox"/>
Special education centre	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Which one of the following positions apply to you?

Principal	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deputy Principal	<input type="checkbox"/>
Head of Department	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. In which year were you appointed into your present position?

.....

8. Is this your first management position?

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
-----	--------------------------	----	--------------------------

If no, please indicate the duration (in years) of previous management positions.

Position one	<input type="text"/>	years	<input type="text"/>
Position two	<input type="text"/>	years	<input type="text"/>
Position three	<input type="text"/>	years	<input type="text"/>

9. Before you came into your current position, were you in a management position?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

If yes, please indicate the duration (in years).

Principal		years	
Deputy Principal		years	
Head of Department		years	

10. What is the percentage of women in management at your school?

Less than 50	
50 – 60	
60 – 70	
70 – 80	
More than 80	

**SECTION B:**  
**PROBLEMS WOMEN MANAGERS ENCOUNTER**

11. Do you experience any problems in carrying out your managerial duties?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

12. What type of problems do you encounter in carrying out your responsibility?

Sexist	
Difficult to cope	
Workload	
Labour Relations	
Other (Specify below)	

Other:.....

13. In which of the following areas of management do you experience problems?

Delegation	
Finance management	
Human resource management	
Planning	
Formulation of objectives	
Policy formulation	
Decision-making	
Problem solving	
Allocation of time	

14. Have you ever been aware of sexist attitudes in connection with job applications or promotion?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

If yes, please indicate the circumstances:

.....

.....

15. Have you been aware of sexist attitudes from your peers or from those you work with?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

If yes, please indicate the circumstances:

.....  
.....

16. How do you think this problem of sexual harassment can be overcome?

Training	
Workshops	
Staff Development	
Other (Specify below)	

Other: .....

17. Of the interview panel that selected you into management, approximately how many were men and how many were women?

Men		Women	
-----	--	-------	--

**The following two (2) questions (18 &19) apply to principals only:**

18. In which of the following areas concerning the professional management of your school, do you find problems?

Drawing up timetables	
Admission and placement of learners	
School accounts and records kept	
Inspecting the school	
Other (Specify below)	

Other:.....

19. Do you experience any problem in providing professional leadership within the school as one of your responsibilities?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

**The following three (3) questions (20, 21 & 22) should be answered by deputy principals only:**

20. As a woman, do you find any problem in assisting the principal in managing the school?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

21. What kind of problems do you encounter?

Lack of leadership skills	
Lack of management training	
Discrimination	
Other (Specify below)	

Other:.....  
.....

22. Do you experience difficulties when you act as principal?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

**The following two (2) questions (23 &24) refer to the duties of Heads of departments and should be answered by them alone.**

23. Do you experience any problems from your male colleagues when carrying out your duties?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

24. What kind of problems do you experience?

Sexual harassment	
Division of work in the department	
When acting as principal when he/she is absent	
When delegating	

**SECTION C:**  
**THE NEED FOR TRAINING**

25. Do you think the training you have received enables you to execute your managerial responsibilities?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

26. In which aspect(s) of management do you require training as an education manager?

Organising	
Finances	
Leadership	
Other (Specify below)	

Other: .....

27. Do you think there are enough training programmes in place to train women as managers?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

28. On which areas should training programmes focus?

To deal with aspects of sexual harassment	
How to manage male colleagues	
Leadership skills	
How to manage your school	
Other (Specify below)	

Other:.....

29. Who is responsible for these training programmes?

Education Department	
School Management team	
Yourself	
Principal	
Other (Specify below)	

Other:.....

30. What form should these training programmes take?

Workshops during holidays	
Seminars after normal school hours	
Other (Specify below)	

Other:.....

31. Do you think that, if women are well trained, there will be a change in the way they manage their responsibilities?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

32. In your opinion, is the Education Department sufficiently equipped with staff and skills to offer these training programmes?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

If no, what do you suggest?

.....  
.....

33. Do the National and Provincial Departments of Education do enough to train women who reach management level?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

34. Do you think that if there are more women in management, this will contribute positively towards quality education?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

**SECTION D:**

35. Are there any other problems you think that have been omitted in this questionnaire?

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

36. How do you think that these problems you have mentioned in number 35 could be addressed?

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PRECIOUS TIME**