

**ANALYSING THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN LEADERSHIP:  
A CASE OF THE DURBAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree Master of Management Science in Administration and Information Management in the Faculty of Accounting and Informatics at the Durban University of Technology

By

Akhona Denisia Ngcobo

June 2016

APPROVED FOR FINAL SUBMISSION

Dr Knowledge Siyabonga Ngwane  
Supervisor

## DECLARATION

I, Akhona Denisia Ngcobo, hereby declare that this research project is the result of my own investigation and findings, except where otherwise stated. It has not been submitted in part or in full for any other qualification at any other institution of higher learning.

This submission is the result of my own independent work and may be used by organisations and future students in research.

.....  
Student Name

.....  
Date

.....  
Supervisor

.....  
Date

## **DEDICATION**

We must carry forward the work of the women who came before us and ensured our daughters have no limits to their dreams, no obstacles to their achievements and no ceiling to shatter- Barrack Obama

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, to God is the glory for granting me the strength and capacity to fulfil my dreams and the strength to persevere.

To my parents, Mandla and Fikile Ngcobo, thank you for teaching me to fear God and most of all, thank you for giving me the gift of education. My siblings, Awande and Asanda, may this thesis inspire and motivate you to empower yourselves.

To my late grandmother, MaKhanyile, you departed before you could fully reap the fruits of your harvest but through believing in God I know you are in a better place, I love you still.

To Mam-ncane and the rest of the family, thank you for being my pillar of strength when I needed it most.

Dr. K.S Ngwane, without you this thesis would have remained a dream in my mind, thank you for accepting me into the department, thank you for your hard work, continued support and guidance; you contributed to this thesis and critically edited my work. It was a privilege to study and grow under your supervision.

Angel Sibisi and Vathiswa Gwala thank you for the continued support during the difficult and stressful times.

My sincere gratitude goes to friends and fellow students for being my source of encouragement and motivation.

I would like to acknowledge the Durban University of Technology for allowing me to conduct my study at their institution, as well as the Research Postgraduate Office for the support and the internal scholarship and finally, the National Research Foundation (NRF) for sponsoring my studies.

To all those who participated in my study, thank you, it would have not been possible without you.

## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of the study was to explore the empowerment of women leadership, focusing on the Durban University of Technology. Statistics around the world have highlighted that women are under-represented in decision-making positions, with a specific focus on the academic sector; this study aims to review these statistics and establish which barriers prevent females from progressing to leadership positions.

The target population was comprised of staff members from the Durban University of Technology and ranged from leadership, management, and lecturing, to entry-level employees. The technique of probability sampling was chosen in this research, with a sample size of 100 participants drawn from the population. Questionnaires were designed with both closed-ended and some open-ended questions, and were personally administered to all campuses of the Durban University of Technology, namely Ritson Campus, Steve Biko Campus, ML Sultan Campus, City Campus, Indumiso Campus and Riverside Campus.

This study revealed that, although women are still under-represented in Higher Education, there are efforts being made to bridge this gap. This study found female leaders more productive than male counterparts at the Durban University and are able to run their department smoothly and efficiently. The study also found that there are internal respondents agreed that there are hidden difficulties in their department that women face and prevent them from moving into higher positions. Additionally, the study found that there are programs at the Durban University that empower women into leadership.

This study contributes to knowledge of gender-based leadership and female empowerment into leadership positions, in the higher education sector.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

|                                   |      |
|-----------------------------------|------|
| DECLARATION .....                 | ii   |
| DEDICATION.....                   | iii  |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....            | iv   |
| ABSTRACT.....                     | v    |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS.....            | vi   |
| LIST OF APPENDICES .....          | xii  |
| LIST OF TABLES.....               | xiii |
| LIST OF FIGURES .....             | xv   |
| ACRONYMS .....                    | xvi  |
| CHAPTER ONE .....                 | 1    |
| INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND ..... | 1    |
| 1    INTRODUCTION.....            | 1    |
| 1.1    RESEARCH BACKGROUND .....  | 2    |
| 1.2    RESEARCH PROBLEM.....      | 3    |
| 1.3    RESEARCH AIM.....          | 4    |
| 1.3.1 Research Objectives .....   | 5    |
| Sub-Objective 1:.....             | 5    |
| Sub-Objective 2:.....             | 5    |
| Sub-Objective 3.....              | 5    |
| 1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....      | 5    |

|  |    |
|--|----|
| Question 1:.....                                       | 5  |
| Question 3:.....                                       | 5  |
| Question 4:.....                                       | 5  |
| Question 5:.....                                       | 6  |
| Question 6:.....                                       | 6  |
| 1.5 RATIONALE FOR STUDY.....                           | 6  |
| 1.6 DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY .....   | 7  |
| 1.6.1 Delimitations.....                               | 7  |
| 1.6.2 Limitations .....                                | 7  |
| 1.7 OUTLINE OF RESEARCH STUDY.....                     | 7  |
| 1.7.1 Chapter 1: Introduction.....                     | 7  |
| 1.7.2 Chapter 2: Literature Review.....                | 7  |
| 1.7.3 Chapter 3: Research Methodology.....             | 8  |
| 1.7.4 Chapter 4: Data Presentation.....                | 8  |
| 1.7.5 Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations ..... | 8  |
| 1.8 CONCLUSION .....                                   | 8  |
| CHAPTER TWO .....                                      | 9  |
| LITERATURE REVIEW .....                                | 9  |
| 2.1 INTRODUCTION.....                                  | 9  |
| 2.2 DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP .....                     | 9  |
| 2.3 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT ..... | 11 |
| 2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP.....                 | 12 |
| 2.5 TYPES OF LEADERSHIP.....                           | 15 |
| 2.5.1 Autocratic leadership style .....                | 15 |

|        |  |    |
|--------|--|----|
| 2.5.2  | Laissez-faire leadership style .....   | 16 |
| 2.5.3  | Democratic leadership style .....  | 17 |
| 2.6    | LEADERSHIP THEORIES .....  | 17 |
| 2.6.1  | Great man theory .....   | 17 |
| 2.6.2  | Trait theory .....   | 18 |
| 2.6.3  | Contingency theory .....   | 18 |
| 2.6.4  | Transformational leadership .....  | 19 |
| 2.6.5  | Participative theory .....   | 20 |
| 2.7    | OVERVIEW ON THEORIES OF WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT,<br>LEADERSHIP AND EMPOWERMENT ..... | 21 |
| 2.7.1  | Feminist theory .....  | 21 |
| 2.7    | GENDER AND CULTURAL STEREOTYPES .....  | 23 |
| 2.8    | LEADERSHIP AND GENDER .....  | 27 |
| 2.9    | GENDER LEADERSHIP IN THE ORGANISATION .....                                      | 32 |
| 2.10   | THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK .....  | 33 |
| 2.10.1 | Status of South African Women in Comparison to other Countries .....             | 33 |
| 2.10.2 | Brief overview of the South African higher education sector .....                | 41 |
| 2.10.3 | Synopsis of the Durban University of Technology .....                            | 42 |
| 2.11   | SOUTH AFRICAN LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK .....  | 43 |
| 2.11.1 | South Africa Constitution .....  | 44 |
| 2.11.2 | Employment Equity Act .....  | 45 |
| 2.11.3 | The Gender Bill on Equality and Women Empowerment .....                          | 46 |
| 2.12   | BARRIERS TO WOMEN'S PROGRESSION IN HIGHER<br>EDUCATION .....                     | 50 |



|  |    |
|--|----|
| 2.12.1 Glass Ceiling .....                               | 51 |
| 2.12.2 Family Responsibility.....                        | 53 |
| 2.12.3 More Barriers Hindering Females.....              | 55 |
| 2.12.3 Recruitment and Promotion Selection Process ..... | 59 |
| 2.12.4 Lack of Mentoring.....                            | 61 |
| 2.12.5 Organisational culture .....                      | 61 |
| 2.12.6 Gender, Equity, and Empowerment .....             | 62 |
| 2.13 CONCLUSION .....                                    | 64 |
| CHAPTER THREE.....                                       | 64 |
| RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY .....                    | 64 |
| 3.1 INTRODUCTION.....                                    | 64 |
| 3.2 AIM OF THE STUDY .....                               | 65 |
| 3.2.1 Research Objectives .....                          | 65 |
| 3.2.2 Research Questions.....                            | 65 |
| 3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....                           | 66 |
| 3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN .....                                | 67 |
| 3.4.1 Target population .....                            | 67 |
| 3.4.2 Sampling Selection.....                            | 68 |
| 3.4.3 Sampling Frame .....                               | 69 |
| 3.4.4 Data Collection .....                              | 70 |
| 3.4.5 Research Instrument .....                          | 71 |
| 3.4.6 Advantages of Questionnaires .....                 | 71 |
| 3.4.7 Questionnaire construction.....                    | 72 |
| 3.4.8 Pilot Study .....                                  | 73 |

|                         |   |    |
|-------------------------|---|----|
| 3.4.9                   | Purpose of a Pilot Study .....                              | 73 |
| 3.5                     | DELIMITATIONS.....  | 74 |
| 3.6                     | LIMITATIONS .....   | 74 |
| 3.7                     | ADMINISTRATION OF THE INSTRUMENT .....                      | 75 |
| 3.8                     | DATA ANALYSIS .....   | 76 |
| 3.9                     | VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENT.....                             | 76 |
| 3.10                    | RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENT .....                         | 77 |
| 3.11                    | ETHICAL CONSIDERATION .....                                 | 77 |
| 3.12                    | CONSENT .....   | 78 |
| 3.13                    | CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY .....                         | 78 |
| 3.14                    | PRIVACY .....   | 78 |
| 3.15                    | RELIABILITY.....  | 78 |
| 3.16                    | CONCLUSION .....  | 79 |
| CHAPTER FOUR.....       |   | 79 |
| DATA PRESENTATION ..... |   | 79 |
| 4.1                     | INTRODUCTION.....   | 80 |
| 4.2                     | PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH DATA.....                          | 80 |
| 4.2.1                   | Reliability Statistics.....                                 | 80 |
| 4.2.2                   | Factor Analysis.....  | 81 |
| 4.2.6                   | GENDER.....   | 85 |
| 4.2.7                   | AGE .....   | 85 |
| 4.2.3                   | Work Experience at the Higher education sector .....        | 86 |
| 4.2.4                   | Race of respondents .....                                   | 87 |
| 4.2.5                   | Positions held at the Durban University of Technology ..... | 87 |

|                                 |  |     |
|---------------------------------|--|-----|
| 4.2.6                           | What gender is your current leader in your department? ..... | 89  |
| 4.3                             | DISCRIMINATION .....   | 89  |
| 4.3.                            | CONCLUSION .....   | 108 |
| CHAPTER 5                       | .....  | 109 |
| CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS | .....  | 109 |
| 5.1                             | INTRODUCTION.....  | 109 |
| 5.2                             | SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.....                                     | 110 |
| 5.2.1                           | Key findings.....  | 110 |
| 5.3                             | FINDINGS RELATED TO THE LITERATURE REVIEW .....              | 113 |
| 5.4                             | RECOMMENDATIONS .....  | 114 |
| 5.4.1                           | Office Environment.....                                      | 114 |
| 5.4.2                           | Training .....   | 115 |
| 5.4.3                           | Women need to be tougher .....                               | 115 |
| 5.4.4                           | Salary Gap .....   | 116 |
| 5.5                             | FUTURE RESEARCH.....   | 116 |
| 5.6                             | CONCLUSION .....   | 117 |
| REFERENCES                      | .....  | 118 |
| Appendices                      | .....  | 141 |

## LIST OF APPENDICES

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| Appendix 1: Written permission letter from DUT ..... | 141 |
| Appendix 2: Letter of Consent.....                   | 142 |
| Appendix 3: Questionnaire.....                       | 144 |
| Appendix 4 Descriptive Statistics.....               | 152 |

## LIST OF TABLES

|   |    |
|---|----|
| Table 2.1: Differences between management and leadership .....  | 12 |
| Table 2.2: Differences in Characteristics of Leaders and Manager.....   | 14 |
| Table 2.3: Advantages and Disadvantages of Participative leadership.....  | 20 |
| Table 2.4: Male and Female Leadership.....  | 28 |
| Table 2.5: Institutions led by Women in the World .....   | 35 |
| Table 3.1: Selected Respondents for Data Collection.....  | 69 |
| Table 4.1: Reliability Statistics .....   | 80 |
| Table 4.2: KMO and Bartlett's Test 1 .....  | 82 |
| Table 4.3: Rotated Component Matrixa .....  | 82 |
| Table 4.4: Rotated Component Matrixa .....  | 83 |
| Table 4.5: Rotated Component Matrixa .....  | 83 |
| Table 4.6: Gender of Respondents .....  | 85 |
| Table 4.7: Age Groups of Respondents .....  | 85 |
| Table 4.8: Gender of current leader in respondents' department.....   | 89 |
| Table 4.9: Equal treatment and respect .....  | 90 |
| Table:4.10 Women are promoted by merit and not just by following protocol<br>or gender quotas? .....                                    | 91 |
| Table 4.11: Women leadership at the Durban University of Technology are more<br>productive than male leaders? .....                     | 91 |
| Table 4.12: Respondents opinion whether women are better communicators<br>than men.....   | 92 |
| Table 4.13: Cultural notion that women are not supposed to lead, influences<br>women's position in leadership in higher education ..... | 93 |
| Table 4.14: Gender does not have a direct influence on the success of<br>educational leaders.....                                       | 94 |

|   |     |
|---|-----|
| Table 4.15: Durban University of Technology does provide an opportunity to empower and develop women in leadership and management positions .....   | 96  |
| Table 4.16: Women leaders at the University of Technology are emotional and make decisions based on emotions .....                                  | 97  |
| Table 4.17: There is an enabling environment at the Durban University of Technology   | 98  |
| Table 4.18: Respondents' belief that there is adequate commitment from the Durban University of Technology to drive gender equity .....             | 99  |
| Table: 4.19 Female employees are encouraged to participate in initiatives that promote gender equality .....  | 99  |
| Table 4.20: Respondents perception that women have achieved equal status in both the recruitment and hiring process of educational leadership ..... | 100 |
| Table 4.21: Male vs Female in management positions at the University of Technology .....  | 101 |
| Table: 4.22: Women's ability to cope with leadership positions and take care of their families at home .....  | 102 |
| Table 4.23: The importance of establishing management development programmes, specifically for women employees.....                                 | 103 |
| Table 4.24: Women are increasingly given more opportunities.....  | 104 |
| Table 4.25: Hidden difficulties .....   | 104 |
| Table 4.26; Postponement of educational leadership position application.....  | 105 |
| Table 4.27: Women's personality trait of strictness influences their rise to managerial level.....  | 106 |
| Table 4.28: Maternity leave and other feminine responsibilities are impediments to selecting women as administrators in higher institutions .....   | 107 |

## LIST OF FIGURES

|   |     |
|---|-----|
| Figure 2.1: Number and percentage (%) of permanent staff in public Higher Education Institutions (HEIs).....  | 38  |
| Figure 2.2: The income gap between males and females in South Africa .....                                    | 57  |
| Figure 4.1: Work experience in the higher education sector .....  | 86  |
| Figure 4.2: Races of the Respondents.....   | 87  |
| Figure 4.3: Positions held by respondents at the Durban University of Technology .....                        | 88  |
| Figure 4.4: What underpins discrimination against female leaders at the Durban University of Technology ..... | 89  |
| Figure 4.5: Aims to identify initiatives to empower women at the Durban .....                                 | 95  |
| Figure 4.6: Barriers faced by women and how they can be eradicated.....                                       | 101 |

## **ACRONYMS**

|      |                                 |
|------|---------------------------------|
| DUT  | Durban University of Technology |
| HE   | Higher Education                |
| HEI  | Higher Education Institute      |
| UK   | United Kingdom                  |
| USA  | United States of America        |
| UKZN | University of KwaZulu Natal     |
| EEA  | Employment Equity Act           |
| CEO  | Chief Executive Officer         |
| KMO  | Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin              |





# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND**

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

In post 1994 South Africa, women were seen as mothers and house wives, while subjected to many stereotypes, such as polygamy, unilateral repudiation for Muslim women, early or child and forced marriages, as well as being deprived of any form of education, let alone tertiary education.

On the 9<sup>th</sup> of August 1956, South African women staged the largest demonstration, with over 20 000 women of all races and marched to Pretoria Union Building to present a petition against the carrying of passes by women, to the Prime Minister J. G. Strijdom. The march was against the pass laws and was organised by the Federation of South African Women. The Federation famously challenged the idea that a 'women's place is in the kitchen', declaring it instead, to be everywhere (South African History Online :2015).

Since then, South Africa has improved drastically in women representation, according to Apleni L. (2012). The Republic of South Africa has, since 1994, enjoyed much recognition as an exemplary country where female representation in political office was concerned.

By 2008, South Africa had achieved 43 percent female representation in the Cabinet and about 33 percent in provincial Legislature, including the appointment of the first, female Deputy President, in 2005. The representation of women in the South African Parliament has increased from close to a third (27.8 percent) in 1994 to almost half (43.3 percent) in 2009. This puts South Africa amongst the leading countries in the world, in terms of the number of women in important, governmental positions.

Despite many successes in empowering women, numerous issues still exist in their leadership, ranging from stereotyping, discrimination, a lesser wage and fewer empowerment initiatives.

This chapter seeks to introduce the study and provide an in-depth understanding through an outline of the background, problem statement, and main aim of the study, as well as the objectives and research questions. It also presents the research study's limitations and delimitations. Lastly, a brief summary is presented of what to expect in each chapter.

## **1.1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND**

Regardless of the many reported successes in empowering women, there are still numerous issues where female leadership is concerned, ranging from stereotyping, discrimination, lower wages and a reduced number of empowerment initiatives. A decade ago, De La Rey (2005) pointed out that, in South Africa, there were 41 percent women in the labour force but only 14.7 percent were executive managers and only 7.1 percent directors of companies.

This lack of women reaching the highest positions has not been isolated to one field, but seems to be a national trend, across all sectors, according to a Census (2012) undertaken by the Businesswomen's Association of South Africa. The Census finds that women make up more than half (52 percent) of the South African population, but they account for a mere 3.6 percent of CEO positions, only 5.5 percent of chairperson positions, 17.1 percent of directorships and 21.4 percent of executive management positions.

De La Rey (2005) further suggests that these differences can be attributed to gender specific socialisation practices and life experience. While avenues to leadership are open to men, women have to reach leadership positions by

following different 'paths' than men. While men's career paths are often linear and uninterrupted, women's career paths are often interrupted because of, for example, caring for children, leading them to reach managerial positions much later in life.

## **1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Oppression against women is one of the major challenges in South African culture. According to (Naicker: 2013) South African women are divided by race, class, culture, and urban and rural situations, as well as education and language, amongst other divisions.

For years, women have been excluded from public presence and were forced into marriages and motherhood, while culturally, family responsibilities remained everyday life for women, whereas men worked and earned a living. Women slowly started entering the workplace and some have even become primary breadwinners, however, Naidoo (2013) highlights that, due to gender discrimination and other challenges, women tend to be undermined and face inequalities within their workplace.

Researchers suggest women suffer from two primary forms of prejudice. Women are either viewed as less qualified or natural in most leadership roles, and secondly, when women adopt culturally masculine behaviours, as often required by these roles, they may be viewed as inappropriate or presumptuous. As a consequence, women leaders acquire a gender stereotype, based on the role they assume when competing with men for leadership roles (Naurert: 2011).

South Africa's mission to advance women has seen the implementation of various policies to ensure fairness and equality, such as the Employment Equity Act, with the aim to achieve equity in the workplace through equal opportunity,

affirmative action measures and equitable representation (Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998); The Labour Relations Act that advances economic development, social justice, labour peace and the democratisation of the workplace (Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995: 9); as well as the Bill of Rights in the South African Constitution, the cornerstone of democracy in South Africa, which affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom (Republic of South Africa, 1996), these acts of law govern our society by acting in the interests of all people.

Hojgaard (2002:16) further states that societal conventions, regarding gender and leadership, have traditionally excluded women, and that top leadership is viewed as a masculine domain. Compared to females, males have better access to leadership roles and face fewer challenges in becoming successful in them. Pounder and Coleman (2002: 122) suggest that, traditionally, descriptors that identify with the male include rational, assertive, analytical, confident and ambitious, while the female is described as sensitive, emotional, cooperative and intuitive. This could be because of cultural background, since Tsai (2011) suggests that culture and leadership are interrelated; culture plays a significant role in shaping leadership styles because it can affect and justify the way individuals and groups behave at different levels.

Furthermore, Siemienska (2004) argues that cultural factors influence the level of support for women candidates and influence the electoral behaviour of men and women. Values shape the beliefs of party gatekeepers and perceptions of individuals.

### **1.3 RESEARCH AIM**

The aim of this study is to critically analyse the empowerment of female leadership at the Durban University of Technology (DUT).

### **1.3.1 Research Objectives**

This study should be able to achieve the following objectives:

**Sub-Objective 1:** To identify the percentage of women occupying top managerial positions at the DUT and to establish what stereotypical and discriminatory ideas respondents have of women in leadership.

**Sub-Objective 2:** To evaluate initiatives or programmes to empower women into leadership at the DUT.

**Sub-Objective 3:** To determine what the barriers to women face and what hinders them to occupying from occupying leadership positions and how these barriers can be be eradicated.

### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following research questions were developed:

**Question 1:** How many women are occupying leadership positions at the DUT?

**Question 2:** What programmes or initiatives does DUT have to develop and empower females into leadership positions?

**Question 3:** Are women leaders treated and respected as equally as male leaders in the workplace?

**Question 4:** What stereotypical ideas are there that respondents may have about women in leadership?

**Question 5:** How do the respondents view women in leadership positions in terms of productivity, decision-making and emotion, compared to their male counterparts?

**Question 6:** What should women do to overcome the barriers that keep them from reaching leadership positions within their organisation?

## **1.5 RATIONALE FOR STUDY**

Smith (2008) claims that women are under-represented in educational and leadership positions. Despite women having worked their way into management positions, gender imbalance in higher education (HE) is a global concern, with progress towards equity very slow and uneven (Odhiambo 2011).

According to (Machika: 2014) in 2007, it was found that three of the 23 Vice-Chancellors (13 percent) and five of the 23 registrars (21 percent) in South African HEIs, were women. Women also comprised 21 percent of the deputy Vice-Chancellors, while another 21 percent were Executive Directors. Although women constitute more than half of the higher education workforce in South Africa, they are still under-represented in senior positions (HERS-SA 2015).

Improving women's involvement in senior management plays an implicit role in increasing the rights, freedoms, and opportunities of all women. The progression of women into positions of authority and power in organisations is important for women to attain equality in the workplace (Schein: 2007).

The reason for conducting this research study is to analyse the barriers that affect female advancement to leadership positions in HEIs, by looking at recent statistics of female leadership, leadership theories and different management styles.

## **1.6 DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Despite this study's holistic approach of using both qualitative and quantitative data in the analysis, there were other shortcomings.

### **1.6.1 Delimitations**

The population used for this study was very small, compared to the number of universities in South Africa. The target population had to be managed due to time and budgetary constraints.

### **1.6.2 Limitations**

This research study was conducted at the DUT; the findings will mostly be for the DUTs benefit.

## **1.7 OUTLINE OF RESEARCH STUDY**

This section will outline in brief as to what the structure of this study will be, according to its chapters.

### **1.7.1 Chapter 1: Introduction**

The first chapter includes the introduction and background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study.

### **1.7.2 Chapter 2: Literature Review**

The literature chapter provides an overview of the literature related to the study of female leadership.



### **1.7.3 Chapter 3: Research Methodology**

Research design and methodology used in this study are set out in this chapter, with the focus on the design, methodology, and data collection and data analysis processes.

### **1.7.4 Chapter 4: Data Presentation**

The objective of this chapter is to present the the data obtained, by means of the questionnaire, with the findings forming the discussions of this chapter. This data will be presented in tables and graphs to clearly illustrate findings of the study.

### **1.7.5 Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations**

The final chapter will conclude whether the study met the aims and objectives and all the research questions were answered. This chapter will also present a summary and conclusions, along with recommendations and finally, suggestions for further research.

## **1.8 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has provided an overview and highlighted the background, research problem and the preliminary literature review. The next chapter will provide an in-depth discussion on women in leadership.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The first chapter introduced the entire study, by stating the aim to be achieved and questions to be answered at the conclusion to the study. A variety of different sources of literature were searched to answer research questions, while a theoretical framework has been used to explain the topic better.

Chapter two will shed light on leadership theories and styles, and further differentiate between gender leadership. To address the topic, this chapter looks at previous theories and studies on gender stereotyping, leadership styles and various barriers that hinder women's progression to leadership. This study will also analyse the South African HE sector and its legislative framework, with specific reference to the university participating in this research study; DUT.

#### **2.2 DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP**

Northouse (2011:143) defines leadership as a process, whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal, with (Prentice 1961: 143) half a century ago, having defined leadership as the accomplishment of a goal through the direction of human assistants.

Leadership is also defined by Sashkin and Sashkin (2003:39), as the art of transforming people and organisations, with the aim of improving the

organisation. Leadership styles are closely associated with common perceptions and stereotypes of women leaders (Henderson , 2004).

According to Manning and Curtis (2012: 2), leadership is a social influence, which means it leaves a mark; leadership initiates and guides, and the result is change. It is very common in rural villages in Africa to find the man literally walking ahead of the woman; men will always lead and a woman will follow, it is also considered a taboo in Zulu culture, for men to carry a baby and be seen in the kitchen. Different motives may be assumed for this, but eventually, it demonstrates the intensely held concept of leadership as masculine.

De La Rey (2005) lists the qualities commonly linked with leadership as:

- effective communication skills,
- task completion,
- responsibility,
- problem solving,
- originality,
- decision-making,
- vision,
- self-awareness,
- confidence,
- experience, and
- power.

“A leader is one who successfully marshals his human collaborators to achieve particular ends” (De La Rey:2005).

### **2.3 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT**

Leadership varies in definition, due to its complexity and diverse contexts, ranging from business to politics and organisation. Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2004: 52) suggest that leadership is 'providing vision and direction in a school', whereas management is 'ensuring that the organisational goals are achieved'. Good management is about controlling, where leadership is about coping with change. Taiwo (2013) suggests that managers push and direct, while leaders pull and expect.

Bingham (2003) describes managers as people who are concrete and measurable, whereas leaders are viewed as intuitive, dreamers, innovators, and visionaries, as well as inspired and charismatic. Leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary systems of action. Each has its own function and characteristic activities, with both leadership and management being necessary for success in an increasingly volatile business environment. The real challenge is to combine strong leadership and strong management, using each to balance the other. Management is about coping with complexity, while leadership is about coping with change.

On the one hand, these different functions shape the characteristic activities of management and leadership (Kotter:1996). On the other hand, Northouse (2011) suggests that leadership is a multi-directional influence relationship, while in contrast, management is an unidirectional authority relationship. The author further states that leadership involves the process of developing mutual purpose; with management directed towards coordinating events, in order to get jobs done.

Kotter further summarised the differences between a leader and a manager, tabled as follows:

**Table 2.1: Differences between management and leadership**

| Management  | Leadership  |
|---|---|
| Planning and Budgeting – detailed plans for short-term goals                      | Establishing direction – defining the future vision and long-term objectives          |
| Organising and Staffing – organising work teams and delegating responsibility     | Aligning people – articulating the vision and influencing people                      |
| Controlling and Problem Solving – monitor results and reactive problem resolution | Motivating and Inspiring – energising people to deliver results and meet higher needs |
| Result: produces predictable results and order.                                   | Result: produces change to a dramatic degree.   |

Source: Adapted from Kotter (1996: 217)

Kotter (1996) concludes that leadership and management are two distinct but complementary systems. While management promotes stability, leaders press for change. Only organisations that can embrace both sides of that contradiction can thrive in turbulent times.

## **2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP**

Leadership, in Kotter (1996:25) view, defines what the future should look like, aligning people with that vision and inspiring them to make it happen, despite the obstacles. In contrast, Kouzes and Posner (1990:29) assert that the successful leader depends far more upon the follower's perceptions of the

leader's abilities, than upon the leader's own perceptions. In a later study, conducted by Kouzes and Posner (1995) that focused on leadership behaviours that influence an individual preference for leadership, it was suggested that leadership is not a position but a collection of practices and behaviours.

This study uncovered five fundamental practices of exemplary leadership which are:

- 1 Challenge the process
- 2 Inspire a shared vision
- 3 Enable others to act
- 4 Model the way
- 5 Encourage the heart

There is an endless list of characteristics of good leaders, Caliper (2014) highlights the following traits:

- Honesty: A leader must display sincerity, integrity, and candour in their actions, deceptive behaviour will not inspire trust.
- Competent: A leader's actions should be based on reason and moral principles. Do not make decisions based on childlike emotional desires or feelings.
- Forward looking: A leader must set goals and have a vision of the future. The vision must be owned throughout the organisation. Effective leaders envision what they want and how to get it; they habitually pick priorities stemming from their basic values.

- Inspiring: A leader must display confidence in all that they do. By showing endurance in mental, physical, and spiritual stamina, you will inspire others to reach for new heights, take charge when necessary.
- Intelligent: Read, study, and seek challenging assignments.
- Fair-minded: Show fair treatment to all people. Prejudice is the enemy of justice. Display empathy by being sensitive to the feelings, values, interests, and well-being of others.
- Broad-minded: Seek out diversity.
- Courageous: Have the perseverance to accomplish a goal, regardless of the seemingly insurmountable obstacles. Display a confident calmness when under stress.
- Straightforward: Use sound judgment to make good decisions at the right time.
- Imaginative: Make timely and appropriate changes in your thinking, plans, and methods. Show creativity by thinking of new and better goals, ideas, and solutions to problems. Be innovative.

Quinlan (2008: 21) suggests that a great leader is the one who has a vision, emotional intelligence, values collaboration, commitment, passion and attention, as well as care of their employees. Cooper (2003: 31) sums up the characteristic differences between leaders and managers as follows:

**Table 2.2: Differences in Characteristics of Leaders and Manager**

| <b>Manager Characteristics</b> | <b>Leader Characteristics</b> |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Administers                    | Innovates                     |
| A Copy                         | An original                   |
| Maintains                      | Develops                      |
| Focuses on systems             | Focuses on people             |
| Relies on control              | Inspires trust                |
| Short-range view               | Long-range perspectives       |

|                        |                           |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| Asks how and when      | Asks what and why         |
| Eye on the bottom line | Eye on the horizon        |
| Imitates               | Originates                |
| Accepts the status quo | Challenges the status quo |
| Classic good soldier   | Own person                |
| Does Things Right      | Does the right thing      |

(Cooper, 2003)

A great character is important for a leader and also to be able to influence your followers. In South Africa, when we look at leaders, such as the late, former South African president, Nelson Mandela, he is described as a charismatic leader who was a man of peace, had a powerful presence, remarkable endurance, determination, a visionary who focused on the mission beyond himself (Prichard, 2014). On the other hand, (Olivier , 2003) describes former South African president Thabo Mbheki, as an independent and original thinker who remains close to visible leadership, a shaper. Oliver further points out that Mbeki's leadership characteristics are simultaneously ambitious, missionary and somewhat romantic but daunted in complexity and magnitude. Personal characteristics play an important role in leadership and influence leadership style.

## **2.5 TYPES OF LEADERSHIP**

Below are the different leadership styles that leaders can adopt:

### **2.5.1 Autocratic leadership style**

Veale (2010) describes autocratic leadership as being arbitrary, controlling, power orientated, coercive, punitive, and close-minded, while Balkundi and Harrison (2006: 23) suggest that this type of leader makes decisions for the group, these leaders like to be in complete control of all aspects relating to how the group functions. Robbins, Judge and Sanghi (2007: 475) describe an autocratic leader as a person who abdicates responsibilities and avoids making



decisions, while De Cremer (2006: 81) defines autocratic leadership as a leadership style focused on not providing any latitude for the group members to discuss and think about their own ideas, rather, these leaders push their ideas and opinions during discussions leading to a decision, thus, not giving much voice, control and respect to others.

An autocratic leader is the one who tends to centralise authority and derive power from position, control of reward and coercion Draft and Lane (2008:44).

According to Goodnight (2004: 820) autocratic leaders are usually rigid in their thinking and perceptions. These leaders expect individuals to follow instructions and don't feel the need to involve other individuals in decision-making. These leaders are central authority figures who retain a high degree of control and power over their followers, making all the decisions and most likely, one way of communication is used.

In most cases, this style of leadership results in minimal or no innovation, and virtually no personal or corporate improvement in the community where they rule. Most individuals are familiar with autocratic leaders because such leaders are prevalent, even today (Okoji 2014: 87).

### **2.5.2 Laissez-faire leadership style**

According to Wood (2014: 201) laissez- faire is a French phrase that is roughly translated as 'to do nothing'. Wood states that this type of leadership is laid back and non-directive. The leader does not provide guidance or suggest direction for the group. In this type of leadership style, no authority is given, preferring to let group set its own goals and move at its own speed.

Northouse (2015: 266) highlights that leaders that steer in this leadership style ignore workers and their motivations; these leaders take a "hands off"/let it ride

attitude towards their followers. In this type of leadership style, sometimes, leaders provide employees with important material and they involve the answer and question but avoid giving feedback (Chaudhry and Javed 2012: 259).

### **2.5.3 Democratic leadership style**

A democratic leader delegate's authority to others, encourages participation, relies on subordinate's knowledge on completion of tasks and depends on subordinate respect for influence (Draft and Lane 2008: 44).

According to Boone and Kurtz (2009: 269) democratic leadership involves subordinate in making decisions, this leadership style centres on employees, with delegation of assignment, to ask suggestions, while encouraging participation from employees.

## **2.6 LEADERSHIP THEORIES**

According to (Burke *et al.* 2006: 83), there is a range of theories that suggest different approaches or leadership styles. Leadership theories suggest a range of perspectives, or show different preferences of how leadership can be understood. Trait leadership is defined as integrated patterns of personal characteristics that reflect a range of individual differences and foster consistent leader effectiveness, across a variety of group and organisational situations, (Zaccaro, Kemp and Bader 2004).

### **2.6.1 Great man theory**

This theory states that leaders are born and not made; the inherent characteristics will surface based on the need. This theory was favoured by historians and was termed the "Great man theory" because in the early days, the leadership role was taken only by males; however, this thought was laid off after much research and studies done on leadership.

Lawler (2005) identifies these essential traits, stating that others can emulate them through simulated versions of leadership. However, there are implications that the 'great people' are great leaders, as a result of learning from situations throughout their lives. In essence, this theory suggests that one can emulate and learn from the actions of great leaders (Burke and Barron 2014: 83).

### **2.6.2 Trait theory**

This approach focuses on basic traits, such as physical and personal characteristics, along with the competencies a leader should possess. It is based on the assumption that basic traits are the reason for the behaviour of leaders, which are consistent in different situations (Zhang, Wang and Fleenor 2011).

The trait perspective assumes that great leaders are born with distinguished traits/characteristics that make them different from other people. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003: 19) further argue that a person does not become a leader because of a combination of traits, since the impact of traits differs according to situation. Researchers, such as Hoy and Miskel (2001: 396), (Stogdill, 1948) and others conclude that possession of some traits might contribute to leadership effectiveness. Furthermore Lawler, (2005) suggests that by identifying these essential traits, others can be imitated through motivated versions of leadership.

### **2.6.3 Contingency theory**

Hoy and Miskel (2001: 403) highlight that this approach of leadership proposes two basic hypotheses: leadership traits and characteristics of the situation combine to produce leader behaviour and effectiveness; situational factors have a direct effect on effectiveness. Various factors include the leadership style, followers and the situation. Situational theory emphasises that leaders will

choose the best style of leadership, based on the situation and the group to be influenced.

#### **2.6.4 Transformational leadership**

Transformational leadership is defined as a leadership approach that causes change in individuals and social systems. In its ideal form, it creates valuable and positive change in followers, with the end-goal of developing followers into leaders. According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transforming leadership is a process, in which leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation. Lussier and Achua (2015) propose that leadership theory attempts to explain the distinctive characteristics accounting for leadership effectiveness.

Researchers analysed physical and psychological traits, qualities such as high energy levels, appearances, aggressiveness, and self-reliance, as well as persuasiveness and dominance, in an effort to identify a set of traits that all successful leaders possess. Transformational leaders try to motivate their employees and stimulate them to achieve the goal of the organisation (Druskat 1994).

In this type of leadership, roles of employees and task requirements are clarified; followers are rewarded positively and negatively, depending on their performance (Kreitner and Kinicki 2008). Transformational leadership motivates others to do more than they originally intended and often even more than they thought possible. It is held by Bass and Riggio (2006) that transformational leaders empower followers and pay attention to their individual needs and personal development, helping followers pay attention to their individual needs and personally develop their own leadership potential.

### 2.6.5 Participative theory

Participative leadership is referred to as using a democratic process to succeed in bonding the staff (Lumby and Coleman 2007: 71).

Smith (2008: 18) states that a participative leader must have a pioneering, imaginative and adventuresome mind-set, in order to empower employees to make decisions involving the organisation. In the empowerment literature, participative leadership behaviour has been predominantly treated as a source of intrinsic motivation and psychological empowerment (Huang *et al.*, 2010: 123). In the same light Dolatabadi and Safa (2010) suggest that participative leadership is associated with consensus, consultation, delegation, and involvement. This leadership style would help in motivating the team members as their inputs are being considered and given due importance (Somech 2006).

According to (Huang *et al.*, 2010), participative leadership has often been regarded as a way by practicing managers, to empower employees. When participative leadership can effectively improve the work performance of lower-level employees, managers may assume that empowerment works, which may cause misunderstanding of the needs of these non-managerial subordinates. Cray Inglis and Freeman (2007) highlight that participative leadership is defined as sharing problem-solving with followers, by consulting them before making a decision. Participative leaders are seen as supportive and open because they consult subordinates about problems and potential actions, encouraging ideas for solutions. Ricketts and Ricketts (2011) differentiate these advantages and disadvantages for participative leadership.

**Table 2.3: Advantages and Disadvantages of Participative leadership**

| Advantages | Disadvantages |
|------------|---------------|
|------------|---------------|

|  |  |
|--|--|
| Group and organisation members like to feel that their ideas are important and to tend to feel considerably more committed to changes and decision making in which they have participated in.      | Some group members might feel that the participative approach as an attempt to manipulate them.  |
| Group and organisation members develop greeter feeling of self-esteem, belief in one's ability and respect for oneself, when they perceive that they have been trusted to make competent decision. | Some leaders hesitate to use participative style because of their personality type.  |
| Often the combined knowledge and experience of the members of a group or organisation exceed those of the leader.  | Some leaders feel hesitate to use participative leadership for fear that they will lose control over their or organisations members.                           |
| Problems that members work on collectively often generate new ideas, created as a result of the interpersonal communication  | This approach assumes a considerable commonality of interests between the leaders and their group or organisations members this might not be actual situation. |
| Participation allows members of a group or organisation to learn more about implementing new programs or procedure after decisions are made  | Some leaders feel uncomfortable using participative type.  |

Source: Ricketts and Ricketts (2011: 30)

The educational literature reflects the widely-shared belief that participative leadership has an overwhelming advantage over the contrasting style of directive leadership in organisational and team effectiveness (Somech 2005).

## **2.7 OVERVIEW ON THEORIES OF WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT, LEADERSHIP AND EMPOWERMENT**

### **2.7.1 Feminist theory**

According to Lorber (1997), theoretically liberal feminism claims that gender differences are not based in biology, and therefore that woman and men are not

all that different their common humanity supersedes their procreative differentiation. If women and men are not different, then they should not be treated differently under the law. Women should have the same rights as men and the same educational and work opportunities.

At the core of the sociological analysis of gender is the distinction between biological sex and gender: sex is a property of the biological characteristics of an organism; gender is socially constructed, socially created, (Gerson 2009:1).

According to Blackmore(1989:113) contemporary scholarship on women is highlighting feminist reconstruction of leadership involving women in meaningful address about organizational life and values as independent individuals rather than as objects of male-controlled discourse with the focus on relationships between individuals and leadership.

Furthermore, central to feminist theory is the belief that the inferior status delegated to women is due to societal inequality, that the personal status of women is shaped by political, economic and social power relations and that women should have equal access to all forms of power, (Turner and Maschi 2015: 152).

### **2.7.2 Marxist and Socialist Feminisms theory**

The global idea of feminism refers to the belief that men and women deserve equality in all opportunities, treatment, respect, and social rights. In general, feminists are people who try to acknowledge social inequality based on gender and stop it from continuing. Feminists point out that in most cultures throughout history men have received more opportunities than women, (Goodfriend 2014).

According to MacKinnon (1982:515) Feminists have often found that working-class movements and the left undervalue women's work and concerns, neglect the role of feelings and attitudes in a focus on institutional and material change, denigrate women in procedure, practice, and everyday life, and in general fail to

distinguish themselves from any other ideology or group dominated by male interests.

Marxist theories suggest that society is fundamentally constructed of the relations people perform as they do and make things needed to survive humanly. (Meyers 2014)

Furthermore, MacKinnon (1982) suggests that Marxism and feminism are theories of power and its distribution: inequality. They provide accounts of how social arrangements of patterned disparity can be internally rational yet unjust.

## **2.7 GENDER AND CULTURAL STEREOTYPES**

Most African cultures define women in terms of what they should be or do for men. For instance, a married woman's major role is to enhance her husband's career goals, by providing him with moral and emotional support. The woman is left with all the family responsibilities and chores, while the husband is away, either studying or working. Women can only pursue their professional dreams after fulfilling their culturally accepted roles (Malovi, 2014: 12). People in different cultures have strikingly different analyses of themselves, and of others, and these perceptions can influence how they behave (Makus and Kitayama, 1991).

In any ethnic group in Africa, a typical woman has a low status, particularly lack of power to make decisions on matters affecting her life and those of her family. Normally, by the time of birth, this culturally determined expectation and attitude towards the girl-child influences less allocation of resources towards girls, when compared with the boys' allocation, a boy will always be considered first, before a girl.



Mutekwe and Modiba (2012: 279) point out that, previously, boys and girls were taught different practical and vocational subjects, with boys having to study technical subjects, such as metalwork, woodwork, agriculture, technical graphics and building, and being encouraged to pursue science subjects, whilst girls were offered domestic science subjects, and typing and shorthand, and encouraged to pursue the arts subjects.

According to Smit (2005:14), from a very young age (between three and six years), children become aware of what appropriate sex-roles are within society and it is at this stage, that they construct their own sex-role identities. Society's view on appropriate behaviour for men and women is coupled with stereotypes associated with each sex. These stereotypes may, unfortunately, promote beliefs about the difference of capabilities between boys and girls (Snyman, 2013).

As a result, this may have an effect at adulthood, whereby women or men may feel inadequate when performing certain tasks considered to be done better by the opposite sex.

Zulu (2003: 99) states that society teaches girls and boys from a young age that certain behaviour differentiates them. This includes how girls should be modest, submissive, affectionate, and nurturing, as well as people-oriented and emotionally expressive; while boys should be aggressive, assertive, independent, and rational, as well as task-oriented. These beliefs are embedded in their life and style of thinking; this may impact how they behave at work during their adult years.

In Tanzania, it is noted that girls are socialised from an early age into key roles of mothers and housewives and that these roles are often portrayed as the only

viable option. Lim (2002) also finds that women's status is measured mainly by their capacity to reproduce and provide for their children (Lim 2002).

During the apartheid era in South Africa, these stereotypes were rooted in the system and the way of thinking of the people, as a result, it was the norm to be a female housewife. Smit, (2005: 38) proposes that it is paramount to eliminate the effects of these stereotypes, so as to provide equal career opportunities and possibilities for men and women and furthermore, it is important that individuals are made aware of the value of both masculine and feminine characteristics.

Many women still hold the view that they are not capable of accomplishing and excelling in society and the workplace Smit (2005: 39), which could be the main reason why women are not occupying leadership positions. Snyman (2013) suggests that women should be made aware of all the possibilities open to them and, should it be their choice, they should be helped to recondition years of socialisation.

According to the sex theory approach, women acquire a great deal of sex role-learning early in their lives, and this can lead to an attitude of mind that creates difficulties later, during their working lives. Appelbaum, Audet and Miller (2003: 46), suggest that the sex role theory of being a man or woman, means enacting a general role as a function of one's sex, this theory uses words, such as masculine and feminine, asserting that the feminine character in particular, is produced by socialisation into a female role. On the other hand, Jonsen, Maznevski and Schneider (2010: 551) suggest that people use stereotypes as a shortcut to predict how people will behave, and their abilities. The authors also argue that stereotypes are enforced by society, which results in different expectations for men and women.

According to Cameron *et al.* (2003: 36), myths and stereotypes serve to keep females in their place, justify their lack of progress and place blame on females instead of gender discrimination. Through these stereotypes and behavioural perceptions, Smit (2005) highlights that women adopt an inferior view to men, they place themselves in a position where they are not able to experience true equality.

Marumo (2012) highlights that stereotypes block women's progress through a complex leadership labyrinth in two ways: the first is by casting doubts about their leadership abilities; and secondly, by forcing them to personally conform to those doubts. As a result, women in leadership positions experience the challenge of having their leadership competency questioned, which then requires them to outperform men and to be seen as equally competent. Hojgaard (2002) supports this by suggesting that, when individuals experience a stereotype threat, it can influence their work performance negatively. Stereotype threats influence performance negatively, it can also result in decreased working memory, increased stress and anxiety (Von Hippel *et al.* 2011: 112).

It is stated by Cornelius (1998) that stereotyping can have an influence on the way in which men and women are perceived in the workplace. The use of stereotypes as the basis for assessment of individuals can result in an advantage or disadvantage, not because of individual ability or lack of it but because of group membership.

Commission (2000) suggests that gender stereotypes are still pervasive and widely shared, as men and women share descriptions of 'typical' men and women, and both tend to describe men and women in terms of opposites; men typically being described as strong and active and women as weak and passive. Mihail (2006: 375) proposes that these negative stereotypes of women influence

how their employees perceive them, how other managers perceive their work, and how they are selected for further training and development.

## **2.8 LEADERSHIP AND GENDER**

Von Hippel *et al.* (2011: 113) conducted a study that highlighted the differences between feminine and masculine communication, defining feminine communication as more indirect, in detail and emotional, while masculine communication is more direct, brief and instrumental.

Els (2004: 18) argues that women in executive positions are expected to have dual mind-sets, on the one hand to be masculine, namely they need to be in control, strong and powerful, while on the other hand, they need to have traditional feminine characteristics of women, namely nurturing, cooperating, and sharing. Women as leaders display qualities that involve the process of envisioning, planning, teamwork, motivation and evaluation (Shangase and Proches 2014: 276).

A study conducted by Kets de Vries (2001: 309) found women to be outperforming males in interpersonal and cross-cultural skills, to prove this, Appelbaum, Audet and Miller (2003: 48) state that research from a number of sources confirms that males and females approach leadership in different ways. Eagly and Karau (2002) support this statement by finding that, when a female adopts a man's style or behaviour, chances are that she may not be accepted as a leader. This contradicts Appelbaum, Audet and Miller (2003: 45), since they suggest that female leaders should adopt male leadership characteristics and feminine characteristics, to enable them to have better opportunities of rising to a leadership position.

Supporting this, Thomson and Graham (2005: 113) suggest that the best approach is that females should just act normal, lead their lives as females and value the unique contributions they bring to a situation.

It is held by Jones (2005: 1) that, on average, women use more expressive, tentative, and polite language than men do, especially in situations of conflict, while men are viewed as more likely than women to offer solutions to problems, in order to avoid further, seemingly unnecessary discussions of interpersonal problems. According to Merchant (2012) the structure of the higher education workplace is still organised according to the male model, hierarchical and competitive, to which women in leadership positions have had to adapt. Male-dominated work environments further maintain a male ‘model’ of career (Martin and Barnard 2013).

As stated by Lockwood (2006: 7), it is harder for women to advance in the workplace because they “have to prove themselves more, chasing a dilemma of trying to be ambitious without overdoing it”. Evans (2010), in support, suggest that leadership competency is very often perceived as being a male asset and that to be competent; women have to adopt unfeminine attitudes in the workplace.

**Table 2.4: Male and Female Leadership**

| <b>Male</b> | <b>Female</b> |
|-------------|---------------|
| Dominant    | Submissive    |
| Independent | Dependent     |
| Intelligent | Unintelligent |
| Rational    | Emotional     |
| Assertive   | Receptive     |
| Analytical  | Intuitive     |
| Strong      | Weak          |
| Brave       | Timid         |

|                                       |                               |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Ambitious                             | Content                       |
| Active                                | Passive                       |
| Competitive                           | Cooperative                   |
| Insensitive                           | Sensitive                     |
| Sex object                            | Sexually aggressive           |
| Attractive due to physical appearance | Attractive due to achievement |

Source: Adapted from (Taylor, 2003)

The analysis clearly highlights the different stereotypes people have about male and female leadership (Table 2.4). While research shows that the possession of certain traits alone does not guarantee leadership success, there is evidence that effective leaders are different from other people in certain key respects (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991).

Recently, women leaders have proven to be more assertive and persuasive, have a stronger need to get things done and are more willing to take risks than male leaders, according to a new study conducted by Caliper (2014), which assessed the potential of more than two million applicants and employees for over 25 000 companies around the world. The study further highlights that these qualities combine, to create a leadership style that is inclusive, open, consensus building, and collaborative, as well as collegial.

A study by Msimang (2011) suggests that apartheid was also used to curb the participation of women, in particular Black women, in various aspects of life, and it effectively relegated them to second-class citizenship status. This resulted in women becoming reserved and afraid to be called names should they be confident and aggressive, yet not wanting to be called indecisive or emotional.

Masculine and feminine roles are defined by Best and Williams (1997), as “the degree to which men and women have incorporated traits, considered to be womanlike and manlike by their culture, into their self-perceptions”. The

“womanlike” traits involve behaviours associated with being emotional, considerate, loving, and caring, as well as warm, towards others.

Gender stereotypes and prejudices are major obstacles in women’s ascent to the corporate heights, with judgments of competence, aptitude and intrinsic leadership ability often stacked against women, as well as charges of uneven treatment and performance appraisal (Eagly and Carli , 2011).

Men and women tend to differ in their job expectation. Eagly and Carli (2011) point out that women and girls prefer jobs that offer experiences to work with others and help people, in addition to an easy commute and a feeling of accomplishment and intrinsic stimulation, while men and boys favour jobs with opportunities for leadership, supervision, or solitude that provide plentiful leisure time. Hochschild and Machung (2012) found that men tend to make greater sacrifices at home, in order to maintain their work responsibilities, whereas women do the opposite.

Nelton (2001) maintains that women leaders are more likely to push back when they are overly bound by regulations and rules, and they will engage in more risk-taking than male counterparts. In addition, women leaders are venturesome; less interested in what has been than in what can be and run the risk of occasionally being wrong, in order to get things done. Nelton further suggests that women, with their fine abstract reasoning skills, will learn from their mistakes and carry on, while they also prefer direct communication to communication up and down a chain of command. Moreover, women are hailed for an intuitive, communicative and feminine style of leadership.

Maseko (2013) states, in a Harvard Business review report on a leadership survey conducted for the international Women's Forum in Washington, that woman respondents tended to use an interactive leadership style, in which they do not only encourage others' participation but also attempt to enhance other people's sense of self-worth and to energise followers in leadership. This could be because of the different way men and women are raised and encouraged into leadership. Furthermore Hejase *et al.*, (2013) highlight that men have been prepared from a very young age to assume leadership positions; whereas women were brought up to be obedient followers.

Women are seen as caring and nurturing, while men are seen as taking charge and being assertive, in addition to which Rhode (2003:18) states that gender differences do make some difference, and they need to be registered in leadership positions. Women are so immune to discrimination in a way that they are always anticipating it. Studies suggest that women anticipate the discrimination even before it happens, which results in them having lower self-confidence and average career ambition, when compared with men (BBC News, 2011).

A study conducted by Jogulu (2010) between males and females, highlights that women scored higher in being better leaders than men in their tests. The fact was underlined that women have always had a desire to lead but have been considerably handicapped and politically, economically and socially restricted (Jogulu 2010).

In the interim, another study conducted by Billing and Alvesson (2000: 145), finds both males and females to have leadership qualities; the difference is that their qualities apply in different situations. It is further proposed that males apply a tough-minded approach to problems, and have analytical abilities to handle



abstract issues, along with planning. Men make it a point that their personal and emotional issues do not prevent them from completing their tasks as scheduled; they solve problems and take necessary decisions, while female leadership is characterised by interdependence, co-operation, receptivity, and merging, as well as acceptance, awareness, compassion, and sensitivity, along with empathy. According to the study, female leaders also do well on issues that require imagination and creativity (Heilman, 2001: 26).

## **2.9 GENDER LEADERSHIP IN THE ORGANISATION**

Organisational culture is defined as the realities, values, symbols and rituals held in common by members of an organisation and which contribute to the creation of norms and expectations of behaviour (Phillips 1997). Conduct within an organisation determines what is and is not valued, and how authority is asserted (James and Saville-Smith, 1994). According to Lorenzen (1996: 24), an individual's history is an inseparable part of any professional life, as it represents parts of the present. Furthermore, Madsen (2007) argues that, as children grow, there are some individuals in society who influence their childhood behaviour. Burton (1998) states that the masculine values underpinning organisational culture have a systemic influence, which creates an environment in which men are more at home than women. Brandl, Mayrhofer and Reichel (2008: 77) suggest that different countries have different cultures, which play a role in division of work within certain professions.

Society has specific views of what women's roles should be and their role in the wider society. Bergeron, Block and Echtenkamp (2006: 136) argue there is a continued belief that, when people think of a manager, they immediately assume it is a male, resulting in women's level of competency in these positions being subject to questioning and viewed as less effective managers than men. (Brannon, 2015) suggests that female roles carry over the workplace

atmosphere, which can create a certain stereotyped and sexualised atmosphere. Stereotypes in women leaders within the workplace result in women being perceived as less favourable than equivalent male leaders because by fulfilling expectations concerning leadership, these violate conventions concerning appropriate female behaviours (Eagly and Karau 2002).

A workplace environment that is not welcoming has an influence on the leadership positions of women. One cannot live in a sexist society, without internalising some of the comments made, according to Janet Lever, professor of Sociology at California State University in Los Angeles, who has been reported as saying this makes women feel worse about themselves. In addition their self-confidence and self-esteem are affected to the extent that they lose self-worth (Marumo 2012).

According to (Bullough 2008), the participation of women in the workforce has been argued to bring particular, gender-specific capabilities (relationship focused, open communication styles, motivating abilities toward followers, and the sharing of power).

## **2.10 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

This section explores the position of women in higher education in South Africa and the DUT. Highlighted are the overview, statistics, legislation, and barriers that prevent women empowerment to leadership positions, along with possible actions to overcome these barriers.

### **2.10.1 Status of South African Women in Comparison to other Countries**

According to Bowen *et al.* (2005), higher education institutions have become the gatekeepers to full social, economic and political citizenship. Yet, they remain a long way from reaching the goal of becoming genuinely inclusive, diverse and

democratic. In South Africa alone, there is still a great imbalance in the appointment of female leadership in the higher education sector. The lack of women leaders in universities has become a global problem, irrespective of the social, political or cultural context (Sharma 2012).

In Europe, eight countries have either female prime ministers or presidents, while in Germany, Chancellor Angela Merkel was elected for a third term, and in France and Italy, the first minority women were appointed to be ministers in the cabinet in 2012. In Latin America and the Caribbean, countries such as Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, and Trinidad and Tobago, and in Africa, countries such as Liberia and Senegal, had female political leaders in 2014 (Lemke 2014).

South Africa has one of the highest numbers of women in parliament globally; after the 2004 election there was a critical mass of 32.8 percent women in parliament and 43 per cent women in cabinet positions (Gouws and Kotzé 2007: 2).

According to the University of Cape Town (2015), in 1996, Dr. Mamphela Ramphele became the first black and the first woman Vice-Chancellor for the University of Cape Town. The highest numbers of female rectors (Vice-chancellors) were recorded in Sweden, Iceland, Norway, Finland and Israel, while in Denmark, Cyprus, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Hungary, no single university was headed by a woman, (Morley 2013).

In comparison to other countries, such as the USA, the UK and Australia, there is limited representation of women in positions of academic leadership in African countries, such as South Africa

In 2003, South Africa produced fewer than 25 PhDs per year, per million of the population, compared to the UK, with more than 150, the USA having over 125, and Australia with in excess of 200 PhDs, (Person, Saunders and Oganessian, 2014).

In Sweden, 43 percent of Vice-Chancellors in 2010 were women. There is a legal requirement to provide statistics on the number of women students, doctoral researchers, teachers, and professors, as well as deans and department heads, according to a report for the British Council (Sharma 2012).

Leadership in South Africa is, however, not viewed as being inclusive for all genders, ethnicities and races, it is commonly stereotyped that women are not effective as leaders, and their place is not in a leadership position (Lumby and Azaola (2011: 73). Attitudes in South Africa reflect the idea that men are better leaders than women, with Black women typically experiencing a combination of discrimination, aggression or harassment, in regards to their gender, when attempting to obtain leadership positions in education (Lumby and Azaola, 2011).

Below is a list of institutions led by Women in the world.

**Table 2.5: Institutions led by Women in the World**

| NGO  | Members | Institutions led by women numbers or % |
|--|---------|--|
| Association of African Universities              | 120     | 6                                      |
| Association of Arab Universities                 | 103     | 2                                      |
| Association of Commonwealth Universities         | 463     | 37                                     |
| Association of French-speaking Universities      | 270     | 5-7%                                   |
| Association of European Universities             | 497     | 6-8%                                   |
| Inter-American Organization for Higher Education | 350     | 5%                                     |
| Union des Universidad's de America Latina        | 177     | 47                                     |

|        |    |     |
|--------|----|-----|
| Brazil | 10 | 14% |
|--------|----|-----|

Source: Adapted from (UNESCO, 1998)

A UNESCO global gender parity index that computes the ratio of female-to-male enrolments in higher education, is now 1.08, meaning that there are slightly more women undergraduates than men enrolled worldwide. Globally, the number of female students rose six fold, from 10.8 to 77.4 million between 1970 and 2008 (UNESCO, 2012).

Attitudes towards women in leadership affect women's participation in leadership, and in turn, women in positions of leadership engage in policies that positively affect women (Caizzza, 2004).

A study conducted by White and Özkanlı (2010: 16) highlights that, at Turkish universities, senior managers did not admit to organisational barriers that prevented women from progressing to senior management positions, however, they acknowledged a conflict between the traditional roles of women, namely motherhood, marriage and professional life. In the same study, interviewees from Australia admitted that there were barriers that influenced the progression of women to senior management positions, which includes promotion processes, difficulties for working mothers and women having interrupted periods of employment, owing to taking a break for motherhood, suggesting that leadership can be a punishment as well as a reward.

There is often a morality that captures women, for example, the suggestion that leadership is the turn-taking, sacrifice or re-orientation of externally facing, international researchers to the duties of domestic labour (Morley 2013: 118).

A study conducted in South African universities (Mathabe, 2006) reveals the following trends in top management structures, a decade ago:

- Unisa had one black female in the position of Pro Vice-Chancellor in the post-merger interim executive management team, consisting of nine males, including the Vice-Chancellor.
- Wits University had two women deputy Vice-Chancellors, one black and the other white, a black male Vice-Chancellor and Principal and a male deputy Vice-Chancellor.
- At the University of Cape Town, there were a male Vice-Chancellor and Principal, one black woman as deputy Vice-chancellor and two male deputy Vice-Chancellors.
- The Executive management of Stellenbosch University had two women out of seven males.
- University of the Free State's top management structure comprised four males

| Institution                                  | Total Permanent Staff          |                      |               | % of Black Staff in Total      |                      |               | % of Female Staff in Total     |                      |               |
|--|--------------------------------|----------------------|---------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|---------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|---------------|
|  | Instruction and Research Staff | Administrative Staff | Service Staff | Instruction and Research Staff | Administrative Staff | Service Staff | Instruction and Research Staff | Administrative Staff | Service Staff |
| Cape Peninsula University of Technology      | 765                            | 916                  | 163           | 59                             | 83                   | 99            | 42                             | 60                   | 26            |
| University of Cape Town                      | 1 077                          | 2 210                | 133           | 29                             | 70                   | 98            | 42                             | 66                   | 60            |
| Central University of Technology, Free State | 274                            | 325                  | 103           | 42                             | 61                   | 98            | 39                             | 57                   | 55            |
| Durban University of Technology              | 599                            | 753                  | 94            | 72                             | 91                   | 100           | 46                             | 53                   | 20            |
| University of Fort Hare                      | 315                            | 470                  | 21            | 73                             | 88                   | 100           | 39                             | 56                   | 10            |
| University of the Free State                 | 949                            | 1 113                | 329           | 21                             | 34                   | 97            | 48                             | 67                   | 49            |
| University of Johannesburg                   | 1 009                          | 1 878                | 251           | 41                             | 66                   | 98            | 45                             | 53                   | 33            |
| University of KwaZulu-Natal                  | 1 399                          | 2 185                | 261           | 54                             | 85                   | 99            | 47                             | 62                   | 25            |
| University of Limpopo                        | 825                            | 700                  | 288           | 83                             | 83                   | 100           | 42                             | 58                   | 44            |
| Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University       | 596                            | 967                  | 80            | 26                             | 57                   | 91            | 47                             | 62                   | 35            |
| North West University                        | 1 248                          | 1 676                | 363           | 27                             | 32                   | 96            | 46                             | 67                   | 47            |
| University of Pretoria                       | 1 281                          | 1 544                | 387           | 21                             | 46                   | 89            | 50                             | 66                   | 33            |
| Rhodes University                            | 336                            | 546                  | 452           | 23                             | 53                   | 99            | 40                             | 60                   | 50            |
| University of South Africa                   | 1 588                          | 3 128                | 98            | 48                             | 71                   | 99            | 49                             | 58                   | 31            |
| University of Stellenbosch                   | 973                            | 1 837                | 240           | 19                             | 45                   | 100           | 42                             | 62                   | 41            |
| Tshwane University of Technology             | 855                            | 1 462                | 157           | 55                             | 72                   | 98            | 40                             | 53                   | 38            |
| University of Venda                          | 328                            | 313                  | 156           | 93                             | 98                   | 100           | 34                             | 51                   | 58            |
| Vaal University of Technology                | 341                            | 441                  | 232           | 59                             | 73                   | 98            | 41                             | 62                   | 56            |
| Walter Sisulu University                     | 583                            | 687                  | 166           | 88                             | 96                   | 100           | 44                             | 56                   | 52            |
| University of Western Cape                   | 559                            | 883                  | 25            | 64                             | 94                   | 100           | 49                             | 58                   | 8             |
| University of Witwatersrand                  | 1 074                          | 1 605                | 317           | 35                             | 73                   | 100           | 48                             | 66                   | 29            |
| University of Zululand                       | 298                            | 387                  | 184           | 81                             | 92                   | 100           | 40                             | 48                   | 40            |
| Mangosuthu University of Technology          | 179                            | 267                  | 96            | 88                             | 96                   | 100           | 31                             | 51                   | 47            |
| <b>Total</b>                                 | <b>17 451</b>                  | <b>26 293</b>        | <b>4 596</b>  | <b>46%</b>                     | <b>67%</b>           | <b>98%</b>    | <b>45%</b>                     | <b>60%</b>           | <b>41%</b>    |

**Figure 2.1: Number and percentage (%) of permanent staff in public Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)**

Source: (Department of Education, 2012)

These statistics prove the low number of female leaders present in the higher education sector. The lowest being University of Western Cape, with eight percent and University of Cape Town leading, with 60 percent in women hired as service staff.

Booyesen and Nkomo (2010) highlight that the South African context is unique, due to the political and social history of the country; they further state that, although there has been aggressive employment equity legislation, there is still a persistent race and gender hierarchy.

According to Achola and Aseka (2001), women are certainly absent from higher education management. In order to restore women's central role in development in South Africa and other third world countries, there is an urgent need to overcome the barriers women face.

A study by Moodie (2010) indicates that only 24 percent of professors and associate professors in South Africa were women. This number remained unchanged from 2004, when only 25 percent of females occupied the same positions. By the year 2009, South Africa had only three female Vice-Chancellors out of 23 Vice-Chancellor in the country and occupied only five of the 23 registrar positions in all universities in the country Council of the Higher Education (2009), proving that women are highly under-represented in higher education. Reasons suggested by Lockwood (2006: 7) include society making it harder for women to advance in the workplace, as they have to prove themselves more, chasing a dilemma of trying to be ambitious without overdoing it.

Progress towards gender equality in academia remains a pipe-dream for many female academics, where women are still under-represented. Many obstacles remain in universities that, should they be adequately addressed, may pave the way for female academics to assume leadership positions. These revelations show that women still have a long way to go, to reach gender balance in higher education (South Africa Democratic Teachers Union, 2014).

At an annual Women in Parliament's Global Forum, which took place in March 2015, it was highlighted that only with women's voice, leadership and participation, will the outcomes and implementation of all these processes set the real grounds for humanity to adopt new models and transform through genuine gender mainstreaming (Purl , 2015).



In recognition of the importance of establishing gender equality around the world, the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) was established as a separate fund within the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in 1984 (Nations 1995). This platform was created to empower and make sure women are not limited to their goals and representation is ensured on a worldwide scale.

The Platform of Action, resulting from the 1995 Beijing World Conference on Women, expanded this concept, calling it gender mainstreaming, in other words, the application of gender perspectives to all legal and social norms and standards, to all policy development, research, planning, and advocacy, as well as development, implementation and monitoring, as a mandate for all members (World Economic Forum, 2005).

The United Nations Commission has played a critical role in promoting gender mainstreaming at national level and within the United Nations system. The appointment of Christine Lagarde in 2011 to the leadership of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) may have been a highlight for women's representation in international organisations, suggesting that the final glass ceiling for women in global governance has been broken (Hack , 2014).

According to the Grant Thornton Report (2015) the proportion of business leadership roles held by women in Africa stands at 23 percent, ranging from 27 percent in South Africa (only marginally up from 2004 – 26 percent) to 21 percent in Nigeria and 19 percent in Botswana. Furthermore, the report highlights that, 44 percent of female respondents from the region said gender bias was a barrier to women reaching leadership, the highest globally. Even

though this view was shared by just 21 percent of male respondents, this was also the highest figure recorded.

### **2.10.2 Brief overview of the South African higher education sector**

South Africa has one of the highest rates of public investment in education in the world. At about seven percent of gross domestic product (GDP) and 20 percent of total state expenditure, the government spends more on education than on any other sector. South African Communist Party secretary-general, Blade Nzimande, is the minister of Higher Education and Training, and the department's role is to oversee public and private FET colleges, which cater for out-of-school youth and adults (South Africa Information Online, 2013).

South Africa has a vibrant higher education sector, with 23 state-funded tertiary institutions: 11 universities, six universities of technology, and six comprehensive institutions. There are also new institutes of higher education, the Northern Cape National Institute for Higher Education, and the Mpumalanga National Institute for Higher Education. According to figures from the Council of Higher Education, 892 936 students (726 882 undergraduates and 138 610 postgraduates) were enrolled in South Africa's public higher-education institutions in 2010. Staff employed by these institutions numbered 127 969, with 46 579 of those being academic staff (South Africa Information Online , 2013).

Since the demise of apartheid, South African Higher Education has seen massive changes, which have left an indelible imprint on the system, its constituent institutions and practices, changes that have manifested on many fronts. The celebration of a decade of democracy in South Africa in 2004, provided an opportunity for the large-scale review of the transformation process in higher education, which accounted for the changes that had occurred in the preceding ten years, indicating the apartheid legacy, continuities and

discontinuities in the system, the current situation and remaining challenges, and how these related to national policy and the South Africa education system (South Africa Information Online 2013).

Leading constructs of leadership framed by a concept of “the colour of competence” had its correlative in the ‘gender of competence’, women thus “struggled against masculine and racist concepts of what constituted leadership” (Chisholm 2001: 398).

### **2.10.3 Synopsis of the Durban University of Technology**

With approximately 23 000 students, the DUT is the first choice for higher education in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), with campuses in the beautiful cities of Durban and Pietermaritzburg (PMB).

As a University of Technology, DUT prioritises the quality of teaching and learning by ensuring its academic staff possesses the highest possible qualification. The DUT is a result of the merger, in April 2002, of two prestigious Technikons, ML Sultan and Technikon Natal.

It was named the Durban Institute of Technology and later became the Durban University of Technology, in line with the rest of the universities of technology. DUT, a member of the International Association of Universities, is a multi-campus university of technology at the cutting edge of higher education, technological training and research. The university aspires to be a “preferred university for developing leadership in technology and productive citizenship”, and to “making knowledge useful” (Durban University of Technology 2015).

DUT boasts six faculties, namely Accounting and Informatics, Applied Sciences, Arts and Design, Engineering and the Built Environment, Health

Science, and Management Science, plus two writing centres for Excellence, in the Learning and Teaching Writing Centre

The university's website, under the DUT Council section, provides insight to the council members, stating there are 29 members in total. Of the 29 members, 20 members are male and only 9 members are females (Durban University of Technology 2015). Another interesting insight on the DUT website is the profiles of the senior management team, which is made up of ten members, of which seven are male.

## **2.11 SOUTH AFRICAN LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK**

“Freedom cannot be achieved unless women have been emancipated from all forms of oppression, women should be empowered to intervene in all aspects of life as equals with any other member of society” (Mandela 1994). Tshabalala-Msimanga (2009) highlights that South Africa has moved drastically from seventeenth place to third position in the global ranking of women in Parliament, following 22 April 2009 elections. Even though South Africa is viewed as progressive, in terms of its Constitution, and has women in senior management positions, society views these appointments as window dressing, which implies that they were appointed because of Affirmative Action (April, Dreyer and Blass 2007: 51).

Despite the presence of a historically, male-dominated culture in leadership, gender-mediated obstacles and challenges, Black women in South Africa have the passion to develop professionally and move to higher levels as educational leaders (Person, Saunders and Oganessian, 2014).

### **2.11.1 South Africa Constitution**

The South Africa Constitution is the highest law of the country, on equity, the Constitution states:

- 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.
- No person may unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds in terms of subsection (4.1). National legislation must be enacted to prevent or prohibit unfair discrimination (4.2) Discrimination on one or more of the grounds listed in subsection (4.3) is unfair, unless it is established that the discrimination is fair.

However Person, Saunders and Oganessian (2014: 11) suggest that leadership in South Africa is not viewed as being inclusive for all genders, ethnicities and races. Attitudes in South Africa reflect the idea that men are better leaders than women. Black women typically experience a combination of discrimination, aggression or harassment in regards to their gender, when attempting to obtain leadership positions in education (Lumby and Azaola, 2011).

### **2.11.2 Employment Equity Act**

The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (EEA) deals with the achievement of equity in the workplace. This involves the promotion of equal opportunities and fair treatment, as well as the implementation of affirmative action measures.

The purpose of the Act is to achieve equity in the workplace, by:

- Promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination;
- Implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce.

Chapter Two of the Employment Equity Act further states that no person may unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly, against an employee in any employment policy or practice, on one or more grounds, including race, gender, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language, and birth.

According to Gobind (2013), the employment equity act has failed women since they are faced with escalating rates of unemployment, further exacerbated by the challenge of competing with other women, who are similarly classified in a designated group. The employment equity challenge lies not only in the competition for work, but also in being the supplier of work, as well as in economic growth.

The HESA Higher Education Statistics Agency (2011) states that statistics “show a similar pattern in other parts of Africa, including Nigeria, Ghana,

Uganda, Tanzania, Kenya, Malawi, Zambia, Mozambique and Zimbabwe”. The organisation states that “the highest proportions of women are in the lowest academic positions and the lowest occupational levels in support departments”. This shows that South Africa, as a country, could do much in the field of developing and empowering women in leadership.

In a study of women leadership in South Africa, Chiloane-Tsoka (2010: 1) finds that, despite having a South African Constitution that entrenches equal rights, discriminatory practices, structural inequalities, cultural factors, prejudices and traditional patriarchal societies are still alive and well in the South African business environment, while women dominate the teaching profession in South Africa, few of them occupy school management positions.

### **2.11.3 The Gender Bill on Equality and Women Empowerment**

In 2003, The Bill on Gender Equality and Women Empowerment came into effect, to section nine of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Its aim, in so far as the empowerment of women and gender equality is concerned; to establish a legislative framework for the empowerment of women; to align all aspects of laws and implementation of laws relating to women empowerment, and the appointment and representation of women in decision-making positions and structures; and to provide for matters connected therewith.

The act gives effect to the letter and spirit of the Constitution, in particular:

- The equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms by every person;
- The promotion of equality, specifically gender equality; and
- The values of non-racialism and non-sexism, contained in section one of the Constitution, facilitate compliance by designated public bodies and

designated private bodies, with the country's commitments to international agreements, including:

- i Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (December 1979);
  - ii Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (September 1995);
  - iii Millennium Declaration and Development Goals (September 2000);
  - iv Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (July 2004); and
  - v SADC Protocol on Gender and Development (August 2008);
- Align all aspects of the laws and the implementation of the laws relating to women empowerment and the appointment and representation of women in decision-making positions and structures;
  - Facilitate the development and implementation of plans and strategies by designated public bodies and designated private bodies for the promotion of women empowerment and gender equality, and the submission of those plans and strategies to the Minister for consideration, evaluation and guidance;
  - Provide for the implementation of measures to achieve a progressive realisation of a minimum of 50 per cent representation and meaningful 50 per cent participation of women in decision-making structures, including Boards, by designated public bodies and designated private bodies, as contemplated in section 7;
  - Provide for the implementation of gender mainstreaming by designated public bodies and designated private bodies as contemplated in section 8; and
  - Provide for the development and implementation of public education programmes on practices that unfairly discriminate on grounds of gender as



contemplated in the applicable legislation and in international agreements in order to promote gender equality and social cohesion.

Source: (Nations, 2005)

A study by the Transformation Committee 2014, appointed by Higher Education Minister Blade Nzimande, finds it will take 43 years to transform the overall staff profile of South Africa's 23 universities, to represent national demographics.

The study which was conducted through an equity index, to measure the distance between organisational demographics and national demographics and the period, unique to each institution, to attain ideal and complete transformation found the following:

Of all the universities the “long walk to transformation” would be hardest for Stellenbosch University, they said, which was the least transformed. When race and gender were put together, the Central University of Technology in the Free State best mirrored national demographics. Of the top, five, research-producing universities - the University of the Witwatersrand, the University of Pretoria, the University of Cape Town, Stellenbosch University and UKZN - it was UKZN that was the top achiever.

The study further revealed that, of KZN's four universities, the DUT was transforming fastest. It was fourth-best in the country, while UKZN was 15<sup>th</sup> (John 2013).

An Institutional Cultures and Higher Education Leadership Conference report urges that universities should address the issue of institutional culture, in terms of gender-based power constructs, subtler forms of discrimination and implementation of gender-based policies. These issues were described as forms of barriers to women's progress to senior management positions (HERS-SA

2015). Although women represent more than half of the world population, there is no country in which women represent half, or even close to half, of the corporate managers (Mazibuko 2006: 106).

Gender equality in higher education is, of late, becoming increasingly focused, with attention concentrated on gender equality in higher education reflecting growing concerns that women in higher education are not receiving the same treatment as their male counterparts. In the higher education sector there is less visibility of women in leadership positions, especially in key leadership positions, such as university Vice-Chancellor and Registrar (South Africa Democratic Teachers Union 2014).

Chiloane-Tsoka (2010) suggests that the new political dispensation in South Africa brought along employment equity, national policy frameworks for women emancipation, gender equality and affirmative action policies in businesses. According to De Klerk and Radloff (2010) the challenge facing universities is to respond quickly to the national imperative to facilitate transformation, both in terms of day-to-day institutional practices, as well as perceptions, attitudes and mind-sets.

Initiatives, such as the Cell C's 'Take a Girl Child to Work Day', which was first introduced to the South African business community on 8 May 2003, are noteworthy. The campaign has enjoyed unrivalled success as a platform to address the needs and aspirations of Grade 10 to 12 girls.

The day spent in the working world, shadowing top executives, opens up a choice of career opportunities, inspiring girl children to reach heights of success that they never would have, previously, dreamed possible. It is a practical step towards enabling these young girls to make the connection between what they

learn at school and their future career goals. The Cell C 'Take a Girl Child to Work Day' has, as its main aim, to expand young women's horizons, broaden their knowledge and begin to challenge the stereotypes instilled within our educational systems (Santos 2015).

## **2.12 BARRIERS TO WOMEN'S PROGRESSION IN HIGHER EDUCATION**

"If you educate a man you educate an individual, but if you educate a woman you educate the nation". An old African proverb.

Often, when women are assembled in a group, they share examples or experiences about how they are discriminated against by being put down, labelled, stereotyped, ignored or harassed by their male counterparts, however, women should not look at what others are doing, in terms of placing barriers in their progression, but should rather consider what they can do to make it better (Kayi, 2013).

Attitudes in South Africa reflect the idea that men are better leaders than women, with Black women typically experiencing a combination of discrimination, aggression or harassment, with regards to their gender, when attempting to obtain leadership positions in education (Lumby and Azaola, 2011).

Speaking at the 4<sup>th</sup> World Conference on Woman in Beijing in 1995, Dr. Nkosazana Zuma expressed the difficulties of South African women and all the challenges they encounter. She highlighted that South Africans are definitely not free, the majority live in poverty and many cannot read or write, while millions do not have proper housing and no access to water, sanitation, education or health

services. South African women are marginalised economically, with no right to own land and, under customary law; they marry and live their lives as effective minors, subject to the authority of a male relative. After more than a decade, although great improvements have been made, gender inequities are not fully addressed in the field of higher education.

According to Jones and Palmer (2011: 190), women to this day, still struggle to find their voices and positions within male-dominated professional cultures. South Africa occupies the second position in Africa, in terms of women's representation and participation in politics. The issue of women accessing top leadership positions, especially in the private sector, persists, as women are only 24 percent represented in economic, decision-making positions in both the public and private sectors (Maseko, 2013).

International Labour Organization (2004) highlights that the principal reason for persisted gaps in salaries between men and women are mainly social and cultural attitudes, along with gender inequality in education, training and recruitment.

Bendeman (2007: 35) points out that many organisations have development initiatives specifically for women, however, the author argues that these initiatives lack penetration, in terms of the impact they could have in supporting women's progress to senior management positions.

### **2.12.1 Glass Ceiling**

One of the barriers that have been recognised to prevent women from ascending to senior management positions has been described by the metaphor "the glass ceiling". This phenomenon was introduced in 1986 by writers of the Wall Street Journal. The "glass ceiling" represents a hidden difficulty for women

and other minority groups, which prevents them from moving into senior management (Broadbridge and Weyer, 2007).

It is noted that these barriers come in multiple forms, particularly prominent near key promotion junctures, whether they are institutional or occupational, policies or practices, the ceilings manifest when women and other minority groups endure struggles to obtain equal access and opportunity. While rapid increases of female participation were not expected, women were expected to expand their roles across all career levels (Goldman, 1973).

There have been some contradictions in findings related to the validity or severity of the glass ceiling effect. For example, one study (Burke *et al.* 2006) found that, while women make up half of the work force in developed countries these days, there are still visible glass ceiling effects that keep women from moving into middle- and senior-level, management positions, such as long working hours, and male-dominated networks, which could, in particular, be the reason for the under-representation of women in the higher education sector.

According to (Ziegler 2003), there has never been a better time to be a female leader than right now, as more women are encouraged to portray their own professional styles, they are no longer required to conform to formerly preferred models, based upon their male co-workers. Even so, there are still challenges that prevent women from achieving their goals and leading in those structures. The barriers that prevent women from ascending to senior management positions have been described by the metaphor “the glass ceiling”. Commissioned research shows evidence that, “a glass ceiling does exist and that it operates substantially to exclude women from top level positions of management” (Jackson, 2001).

It is held by Eagly and Karau (2002: 537) that the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders suggests a seeming incongruity between the female gender role and the leadership role leading to prejudice or a glass ceiling. One form of this prejudice involves the perception of women as less favourable than men, as potential occupants of leadership roles. A second form of prejudice includes evaluating behaviours that fulfil the prescriptions of a leader role less favourably, when it is enacted by a woman. Lowe and Gardener (2000: 4) propose that the factors that influence leadership may vary depending on circumstance and may change, due to the dynamic nature of any given context.

### **2.12.2 Family Responsibility**

Wood and Newton (2006: 8) highlight that family responsibility, namely children; create a barrier for women to progress to senior management positions. They further suggest that, in organisations and institutions, it is believed that to be a productive worker, one is expected to be available or be at the office until 19:00 or 20:00. Working long hours is an indication of being ambitious and committed. (Liff and Ward, 2001: 23) suggest that mothers and young wives find this a challenge because as much as they take their careers seriously, they have to make time for their families, including children and husbands.

Lukaka (2013), further highlights that very few women CEOs and women executives have children, due to the effect it would have on their career. On the contrary, many women have voluntarily left their jobs due to family decisions.

While a decreasing number of women are taking pregnancy or childcare leave, 32 percent of women still leave their jobs once they have children. Also, once a woman has children, she is much more reluctant to go back to the workplace and part with loved ones. In today's world, employers still prefer men over

women, when looking at matters such as pregnancy, maternity leave, as well as children and family responsibilities (Baxter and Wright, 2000).

Lee-Gosselin, Briere and Ann (2013) highlight that women make up a large number of junior managers in the South African public service, yet, as the ranking's go higher, there are fewer women, when compared to men in high level managerial positions, such as Deputy Director General and Director General. Yam (2008) finds that women have great household commitments and family responsibility, even when working outside the home because women are still expected to be the primary caregivers.

Regarding these responsibilities in China, many women sacrifice their career advancement for their husband's success and by so doing, "they realize their own value" Lee and Koh (2001). Women can pursue their professional dreams only after fulfilling their culturally accepted roles, an expectation nearly impossible, considering at what age this would be happening (Malovi, 2014).

Support should be given to women to succeed in their careers while they families are also best taken care of. Greenhaus and Powell (2006), together with Grzywacz and Bass (2004), suggest that when organisations are supportive of family, they provide employees with opportunities to perform well at work or in the family, which enables employees to experience gains at work (such as positive mood or a sense of fulfilment), which help them perform better or be more satisfied in their family. When culture is conducive to work, family matters become less negative, according to (Wayne, Randel and Stevens, 2006).

Blair-Loy (2009), asserts that "childbearing and household management play major roles in women's lives and pose dilemmas in trying to fulfil career goals and to maintain family harmony". Even some in American society still criticise

“women who seek a family life and a successful career”, as their professional ambitions are not considered fully feminine (Dean, Bracken and Allen 2009: 241).

In the past black women were expected to be responsible for the well-being of their families, as opposed to obtaining an education (Phendla, 2008). Stereotypical assumptions, about the gender differences between men and women, make conditions difficult for women to obtain the opportunity to be placed in senior leadership positions. The traditionally defined model of leadership assumes that good leadership is essentially masculine (Davis and Maldonado, 2015).

### **2.12.3 More Barriers Hindering Females**

A study by Herbst and Conradie (2011) highlights that HE in South Africa, as in many other countries, such as Australia and the UK, is facing major transformation challenges that require extraordinary leadership. According to Adler and Izraeli (1994), the myth of women’s unwillingness does not have any support from research where men’s and women’s willingness to be an expatriate, have been measured. Appelbaum, Audet and Miller (2003: 47) prove that female employees find the work environment unwelcoming and very threatening, due to cultures that are dominating it directly or indirectly, discriminating against females.

Oakley (2000) points out that these invisible barriers for women include corporate practices, such as training and career development, promotion policies and compensation practices. Even when in higher positions, women have to keep proving themselves as capable leaders. Curry (2000) ascertains that women, who ascend into higher leadership levels, must often contend with



culturally engrained views of self-assurance and confidence, as unacceptable female qualities.

Other studies, such as those conducted by Mazibuko (2006: 117) and Zulu, (2009), also found that lack of mentorship and formal preparation, in the form of professional development programmes, appear to have been major constraints for women, but only before and after assuming the position as Head of Department (Tsoka and Mathipa, 2006).

Inequalities remain and women are still a disappointing minority in top positions within the HE and in parliament in particular, and are more likely to work in the lower paid, lower status, less reliable informal sector, and then get left behind, with the progress of economic growth and trade (Shidiye, 2013).

Amongst the factors that contribute to a lack of power for women, are personal and psychological barriers, and climate issues (Ramphele, 2008). A study on women in the UK and Greece showed that some women choose not to seek leadership positions because of the perceived stress caused by a conflict of roles (Mitroussi and Mitroussi, 2009).

Lee (2003); Greenhaus and Powell (2006) and Greenberger (2007) documented cases of discrimination and sexual harassment of women managers who have spearheaded organisational policies and legal reforms, to help ensure that women are duly processed for promotions, pay and partnerships. Tsoka and Mathipa, (2006: 324) argue that poor self-image can hinder women in progressing to management positions, amongst these:

- Less career orientation: as a sign of less interest in women as leaders;
- Lack of assertiveness: as a habit more associated with women than men;
- Less confidence: as an argument that women, unlike men, generally lack the will to achieve;

- Poor performance: a myth used as an excuse for employing fewer women in demanding occupations;
- Discrimination: as a sign of low interest in the recruitment of women into leadership positions; and
- Demotion: as a form of punishment thought to suit women better as they are perceived to be lazy and arrogant.

In their study, the authors found that these behaviours are most likely evident more in men than women, which proves that stereotyping hampers women’s career progress, with a taken-for-granted belief that a “natural order” exists: male leaders and female followers (Coleman, 2002).

Barriers to leadership opportunities are a global phenomenon where women, when compared to men, are disproportionately concentrated in lower-level and lower-authoritative leadership positions (Northouse, 2011).

Norway is one of the few countries that have achieved a 32 percent female Vice-Chancellor rate. Morley (2013:117) suggests that women are absent from positions of power and influence because they lack knowledge of the rules of the game.



**Figure 2.2: The income gap between males and females in South Africa**  
Source: Adapted from (Eye Witness News, 2013).

The great margins between the income of both males and females in South Africa, (Fig. 2.2) shows women at the bottom and they contribute to the greatest number of the lowest paid, while males are the highest earners. South Africa's high income inequality is one of the highest levels of earnings inequality in the world. Current research has focused on earnings inequality differences between subgroups defined by race, gender and location (Bhorat, 2004). South Africa has an overall gender gap of 25 percent, as measured by economic participation and opportunity, education, health and political empowerment, yet its gender pay gap remains at 35 percent (Landelahni, 2013).

According to the World Economic Forum (2013), Iceland continues to top the ranks, followed by Finland, Norway and Sweden, in women leadership. Foschi (2000) suggests that low-status groups, such as women in the boardroom, need to achieve substantially more to be considered equal. Lumby and Azaola (2011: 73), found that gender remains a potent influence on the career and experience of women, but that it is influenced by other factors, such as background poverty, race, and language. Meaning that the income bracket gap could be classified as a discrimination towards women, since, according to Perry, Hendricks and Broadbent, (2000) discrimination can be portrayed in different ways, it can occur in accessing employment, in promotion or in the treatment of an employee; discrimination can also be direct or indirect.

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals 2003 were strongly highlighted as specifically addressing women-related issues, promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women. In addition, the UN Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW) (UN, 2005a) promotes equality with men across the world, for sustainable development, peace and security, governance, and human rights (Nations 2005).

Watson (2009:2) still outlines the outcry in women to being provided opportunities, the concept of women's voices, how they are heard, not heard and how they are silenced, as still a concern. Jackson (2001) suggests that women lack the opportunities to observe other women as role models in key corporate positions, thereby inhibiting their own mental stimulation of seeing themselves as capable and acceptable leaders.

McGrath, (2011) argues that women learn leadership in many ways, through books, classes and by watching others but they learn the most through challenging, interesting and sometimes, difficult experiences of life.

### **2.12.3 Recruitment and Promotion Selection Process**

According to Cummings, Dinoflo and Kohler (2011), lack of commitment from the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and lack of powerful sponsors to champion women could be another reason that women are not too present in leadership positions, while some companies do not have the commitment to advance women into leadership positions.

Elmuti, Jia and Davis (2009) highlight that the pool of women qualified for promotion to executive positions is quite small and therefore, women simply cannot be promoted. This could result in the low numbers of women ascending to leadership positions and women not being motivated or inspired to be part of leadership programmes or even applying for leadership positions in their companies. In all parts of the world, female senior executives, and especially female CEOs are extremely rare in large corporations (Oakley, 2000).

Bernardi, Bosco and Vassill (2006) highlight that corporate policies and practices in training and career development, promotion, and compensation are often identified as major components of the glass ceiling that prevent women

from making it to the top. Women are generally given the easier tasks in the company and the harder and strategic work is given to males.

Akpinar-Sposito (2013) supports this, by stating that “female managers generally tend to be concentrated in lower management positions and have less authority than men”.

Furthermore, Goodall and Osterloh (2015) argue that men tend to exaggerate their abilities, whereas women have less self-confidence, which leads to a confidence gap.

According to Yakowicz (2014), a study, conducted by North-western University and the University of Chicago, asked male and female managers to recruit people to handle simple mathematical tasks. The applicants had equal skills, but managers of both genders were more likely to hire men. According to Pew Research Center Social & Demographic Trends (2015), the major challenge is that women still have to do more than men to prove themselves. As a result, women have to work extra hard, outperform and over exceed set standards, in order to prove their competence.

When trying to navigate through the hidden expectations for job promotion, women’s limited, natural relationships with men at the top inhibit their abilities to secure senior placements (Schwanke, 2013).

In some companies, pregnant women are perceived as “less authoritative and more irrational, regardless of their actual performance”, while mothers are often seen as less committed to work than non-mothers. On the other hand, fathers are not only viewed as equally competent as men without children, but also significantly more committed to work. As a result, while mothers are often penalised for their family commitments, fathers tend to be “recommended for

management training more than men without children” (Eye Witness News, 2013).

#### **2.12.4 Lack of Mentoring**

Mentoring is among the factors identified as contributing to the success of female professionals and managers, according to Arifeen (2010: 6). The presence of mentors may reduce job stress, as women may not have a peer group to rely on for psychological support. A study conducted by the National Gambling Board, with an aim to establish the perceptions of female managers in South Africa, highlights that female managers still perceived the entering of the male-dominated top management levels (the so-called 'old boys' network') in the gambling industry, as a challenge (Jonkheid and Mango 2008).

The study further points out that “communication with especially older senior male colleagues 'from the old school' was sometimes experienced as stressful”. Specific initiatives to empower female staff were either limited or non-existing, or not supported by senior/top management unless clear mandates, policies and strategies were approved and in place. The study suggests that relationships with female colleagues within the same organisation were sometimes strained, “due to jealousy and competitiveness”, which proves females are still experiencing challenges, even when they have access to these positions.

This proves that, in an environment where growth is not promoted and females are not motivated, fewer females will be seen in leadership ranks.

#### **2.12.5 Organisational culture**

Organisational structures can interfere with and inhibit female advancement, since the structures in the workplace are very male dominated and include 'old boys networks' (Schwanke, 2013:1). On the other hand, Kirai and Mukulwa

(2012) emphasise that organisational structures impede women's entry to and advancement in the workplace; this can include job recruitment, job assignment, mentoring, retention, and training, how work and family are balanced by employees, as well as promotions and reward systems.

Duflo (2011) suggests that policies should address gender imbalance in "rights, resources, and voice," and recommends that institutional structures be overhauled to promote equality, and that specific measures, such as girls' scholarships and quotas for women in parliament, be adopted. In some companies, some females are not given an opportunity for platforms of motivation, support and a chance to share their ideas. This is supported by Jakobsh (2012) when he states that corporations may further demotivate women by sponsoring explicitly male-only gatherings, which is a barrier to women in terms of developing rapport with their colleagues, potential clients, and male bosses.

According to Tlaiss and Kauser (2010) the anti-female nature of organisations and institutional discrimination, such as limited access to networking processes, lack of mentoring and limited training and development opportunities, have contributed to women's low career progression. Concerns about organisational barriers in management development remain challenging and deserving of additional research.

### **2.12.6 Gender, Equity, and Empowerment**

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service and Affirmative Action spells out the target of 30 percent of women in decision-making levels, as well as the special measures to be implemented in reaching this target.

Jonkheid and Mango (2008) highlights that it is perceived that the current emphasis on gender equity has resulted in the imbalances of the past now being actively addressed. It was especially equity in the workplace that was promoted through a more representative appointment of women in junior and middle management positions, equity in responsibilities and equal empowerment, as well as rights and opportunities in the workplace for both genders. There was, thus overall, a fairer treatment of women and a future was created for them in the company, through appropriate, personal development and exposure to training programmes.

There is no tool for development more effective than the empowerment of women (Annan 2005). The process of empowering subordinates has been variously described, as a method of increasing autonomy, personal control, accountability and self-esteem (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2010).

The South African Act, to give effect to section 9 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, insofar as the empowerment of women and gender equality is concerned, also has to establish a legislative framework for the empowerment of women; align all aspects of laws and implementation of laws relating to women empowerment, and the appointment and representation of women in decision-making positions and structures; and to provide for matters connected therewith.

The United Nations principles on women empowerment include the following:

- Establish high-level corporate leadership for gender equality;
- Treat all women and men fairly at work - respect and support human rights and non-discrimination;
- Ensure the health, safety and well-being of all women and men workers;



- Promote education, training and professional development for women;
- Implement enterprise development, supply chain and marketing practices that empower women;
- Promote equality through community initiatives and advocacy;
- Measure and publicly report on progress to achieve gender equality.

### **2.13 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has analysed the literature involved with women in leadership, the previous theory and literature framework, as well as the statistics of women in leadership. The next chapter will focus on the data analysis.

## **CHAPTER THREE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter, a literature study was conducted to explore empowerment of women leadership in the workplace, focusing at the DUT. The empirical, descriptive, investigation applied a conceptual framework, which will

touch on each sub topic. This chapter explains the population, while the selection of the sample was being discussed, followed by an explanation of the experimental procedure and a detailed discussion of the measuring instruments used. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the methods used for the statistical analysis of the data.

## **3.2 AIM OF THE STUDY**

The aim of the study is to analyse the empowerment of women leadership at the DUT. The objective of this study is to underpin barriers that could affect women leadership at the DUT and how the university can overcome them, while further recommending more strategies that can improve women empowerment at the workplace.

### **3.2.1 Research Objectives**

The objectives of the study are set as follows:

- To determine what stereotypical and discriminatory perceptions of woman in leadership.
- To identify and evaluate initiatives to empower women at DUT.
- To identify barriers faced by women in leadership and how they can be addressed.

### **3.2.2 Research Questions**

In order to achieve the above mentioned research objective, the following research questions were established:

Q1 How many women are occupying leadership positions at the DUT?

Q2 What program or initiatives does DUT have to develop and empower females?

Q3 Are women treated and respected as equally as male leaders in the workplace?

Q4 What stereotypical ideas respondents may have about women in leadership?

Q5 How do the respondents view women in managerial positions (in terms of productivity) as compared to their male counterparts? Decision making and emotion?

Q6 What should women do to overcome the barriers that keep them from reaching managerial positions within their organisation?

### **3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

According to Struwig and Stead (2001), research is a process of critically examining systematic, reliable and valid data. The interpretation and understanding of the data is largely based on the researcher's knowledge of existing theory and literature in the field, as well as the researcher's personal experiences and perspectives.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000: 112) state that methodology in research refers to a systematic way of gathering data from a given population, so as to understand a phenomenon and to generalise facts obtained from a larger population, while Mouton (2002: 35), describes methodology as the means or methods of doing something. Methodology can be further described as the framework associated with a particular set of paradigmatic assumptions that can be used to conduct research (O'Leary 2004: 85).

Kothari (2004) further defines research as a systematised effort to gain new knowledge. The research method is a strategy of enquiry, which moves from the underlying assumptions to research design, and data collection (Myers 2009: 9).

### **3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

According to Mcmillan and Schumacher (2010: 490), a research design is the plan that describes the condition and procedures for collecting and analysing data. Quantitative design is an approach of testing theories by examining the relationship amongst variables, which in turn, can be measured (Cresswell, 2013: 4).

This study chose to use a quantitative method as the quantitative approach is directly related to descriptive research designs, rather than to exploratory designs (Hair, Bush and Ortinau, 2000: 216).

It is held by Leedy and Ormond (2001: 101) that quantitative research is used to answer questions about relationships among measured variables, with the purpose of explaining, predicting, and controlling phenomena. This approach is also called the traditional, experimental, or positivist approach. Quantitative research tends to focus on what is now, what respondents intuitively know and have the facts of, including what the respondents have done. Its strength lies in the way the science of mathematical analysis and modelling can be used to explain marketing phenomena, by showing the key constructs, their interrelationships and their relative strengths within these interrelationships.

#### **3.4.1 Target population**

Research population refers to the group under which the study with specific characteristics is done, in the interest of the researcher and is related to the study (Jha, 2014: 183).

Kothari (2004) conceives the term target population to refer to the intended population covered by a study, in a specific geographical area, such as country, region and town, in terms of the age group and gender.

The target population in this study constituted staff at the DUT, from leadership and management, to lecturing and first entry employees. The technique of probability sampling has been chosen in this research. Sekaran and Bougie (2003) suggest that a sample size larger than 30 and less than 500 is appropriate for most research. The researcher therefore, used 100 as the sample size for this research.

### **3.4.2 Sampling Selection**

Pride and Ferrell (2010:99) suggest that sampling involves selecting representative units from the total population. Nonetheless, Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 272) highlight that, once the population has been stratified in some meaningful way, a sample of members from each stratum can be drawn, using either a simple random sampling or systematic sampling procedure. The subjects drawn from each stratum can either be appropriate or inappropriate to the number element in each stratum. If an organisation employs 10 top managers, 30 middle managers, 50 low level managers, 100 supervisors, 500 clerks, and 20 secretaries, a stratified sample of 140 people is needed for a specific survey.

Sampling is the procedure a researcher uses to gather people, places or things to study. It is a process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population, such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group (Orodho and Kombo 2002).

A Stratified Sampling method was used to select members of staff for the study, with the sample size therefore comprised of 100 respondents. A stratified random sampling method involves dividing the population into mutually

exclusive and mutually exhaustive subgroups/strata and then taking a simple random sample from each group (Singh 2007: 105).

### 3.4.3 Sampling Frame

Bernard (2011: 115) suggests that a sampling frame is a list of units of analyses from which you take from. In this study, the sampling frame was drawn from the staff of the DUT. The researcher used 100 staff members from the university, with staff members were divided amongst leadership, lecturing and support staff. The staff members were representatives from all the DUT campuses, including Ritson Campus, Steve Biko Campus, ML Sultan Campus, City Campus, Indumiso Campus and Riverside campus.

**Table 3.1: Selected Respondents for Data Collection**

| University                    | Respondents Classification  | Total Number of Respondents |
|-------------------------------|---|-----------------------------|
| Steve Biko Campus             | 05 Lecturing<br>05 Management<br>05 Leadership<br>05 Office Staff | 20                          |
| ML Sultan Campus              | 05 Lecturing<br>05 Management<br>05 Leadership<br>05 Office Staff | 20                          |
| Ritson Campus                 | 05 Lecturing<br>05 Management<br>05 Leadership<br>05 Office Staff | 20                          |
| City Campus                   | 05 Lecturing<br>05 Management<br>05 Leadership<br>05 Office Staff | 20                          |
| Riverside and Indumiso Campus | 05 Lecturing<br>05 Management<br>05 Leadership<br>05 Office Staff | 20                          |
|                               |   | Total: 100 respondents      |

A representation of how the questionnaires were evenly distributed amongst the different campuses of DUT, to ensure that the results are a representation of the whole university, can be seen in Table 3.1.

#### **3.4.4 Data Collection**

Data collection involves applying the measuring instrument to the sample selected for the investigation (Mouton, 2002: 67).

Furthermore, McNabb (2002:109) suggests that researchers use different approaches when gathering data in descriptive quantitative research studies, data collection can be done through observing and counting overt acts on behaviours or questionnaires may be used to generate responses to specific questions, including questions about motivations, opinions and knowledge.

In this study, quantitative research is used. Flick (2008:15) proposes that quantitative research data collection is designed in a standardised way. By standardising the data collection and the research situation, the criteria of the reliability, validity and objectiveness can be met.

Questionnaires were used as measuring instrument for this study. Sekaran and Bougie (2003) propose that the most commonly used data collection methods are interviews, questionnaires and observation and the authors offer more suggestions from which each method can profit. The researcher chose to use personally administered questionnaires.

The procedure of the data collection was as follows:

- Respondents were visited and requested to participate in the study; once they had agreed, the questionnaires were hand delivered to all the respondents.

- Respondents were reminded in an email about the questionnaire and its due date. Additionally, questionnaires were attached to the respondents' email in a soft copy format, for those who might have misplaced them.
- Respondents were visited and questionnaires were hand delivered to all the respondents.
- At the end of each week, the researcher would visit the respondents and collect all completed questionnaires.
- Emails reminders were sent prior to specified, collection periods.

### **3.4.5 Research Instrument**

Ariola (2006: 140) states that the instrument to be used must be appropriate to the study, valid and reliable.

### **3.4.6 Advantages of Questionnaires**

Best and Kahn (2006: 269) list questionnaires and surveys among the nine categories of secondary data collection techniques. There are distinct advantages in using a questionnaire versus an interview methodology, as questionnaires are less expensive and easier to administer than personal interviews; they lend themselves to group administration, and they allow confidentiality to be assured.

Mitchell and Jolley (2012: 286) suggest that questionnaires' advantages include being easily distributed to a larger number of people and secondly, self-administrated questionnaires often allow anonymity, which is important when you need honest answers to highly personal questions.

Sekaran and Bougie (2003) further highlight these advantages of questionnaires:



- Can encourage rapport and motivate respondents,
- Doubts can be clarified,
- Less expensive when administered to groups of respondents.

This signifies that questionnaires can offer respondents more ideas on how they can continue to fill in the questionnaire and they cost less as well.

Data Collection Methods are used to produce the raw material of research, namely well-structured data or sets of information that can be used to perform further investigations, according to (Bellamy and 6, 2011). In this study, quantitative research was used. The questionnaire that was used consisted of both closed-ended and open-ended questions.

#### **3.4.7 Questionnaire construction**

The format of the questionnaire is important. Babbie (2015: 254) suggests that an improperly laid out questionnaire can lead a respondent to miss questions, confuse them about the nature of the data desired and even lead them to throw the questionnaire away. Data were collected with the aid of questionnaires to evaluate the perceptions of staff on women empowerment at the DUT. The questionnaires comprised of sections A, B and C. Section A aimed at gaining demographic data, such as age, level of education, and gender. This information could assist the researcher when interpreting the results.

Section B was aimed at determining the knowledge and views of staff about the developmental and empowerment programmes at the DUT, what challenges they think affect women leadership and how they can overcome these challenges. Instruction guidelines were attached to the questionnaires to assist the subjects as to whether to circle or tick the chosen response. Section C

comprised open-ended questions, which requested the interviewee to state their personal feelings about the contents of the study.

A cover letter was attached to the questionnaire to explain the purpose of this research and its relevance and seek agreement to participation from the respondents. Contact information of the researcher was provided, in case the respondent had any questions.

#### **3.4.8 Pilot Study**

A pilot study helps to test and refine one or more aspects of the final study; it provides an opportunity to practice (Yin 2010: 35).

Before the main data collection, a pilot study was done with ten participants from DUT staff, in order to establish whether the questions are able to yield the expected results and to establish the effectiveness of the questions. Gony (2011: 172) further suggests that, by conducting a pilot study, the researcher can determine an estimate of the required time, as well as obtain a first reaction to the study and further feedback from participants on the meta aspects of the study itself.

#### **3.4.9 Purpose of a Pilot Study**

The objectives in conducting a pilot study are to:

- Administer the questionnaire to pilot subjects, in exactly the same way as it will be administered in the main study;
- Ask the subjects for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions;
- Record the time taken to complete the questionnaire and decide whether it is reasonable;
- Discard all unnecessary, difficult or ambiguous questions;

- Assess whether each question gives an adequate range of responses;
- Establish that replies can be interpreted in terms of the information that is required;
- Check that all questions are answered;
- Re-word or re-scale any questions that are not answered as expected;
- Shorten, revise and, if possible, pilot again.

Source: Sharma (2011: 291)

The reviews from the pilot study suggested that, since this study is about perceptions, open-ended questionnaires were needed, in order to provide the respondents an opportunity to state their opinion, in line with the research. As a result, the researcher opened the study to both quantitative and qualitative research.

An additional question was also included in the questionnaire that will assist in gauging what the statistics are of women in leadership at the DUT.

### **3.5 DELIMITATIONS**

This study will only focus on the DUT. The study could have expanded to other universities as well but due to time and financial constraints, the study was limited to one university.

### **3.6 LIMITATIONS**

Limitations refer to potential weakness in the study and are out of the researcher's control (Peterkin, 2014). This research only targeted 100 staff members from the DUT, due to time constraints.

### **3.7 ADMINISTRATION OF THE INSTRUMENT**

The research instrument was personally dropped off with the respondents, ensuring that they were briefed about the outcome of the research. The respondents' identities were protected and responses will remain anonymous and treated with the highest confidentiality. The questionnaires also included a letter requesting participation in the study. Participants were given an opportunity to either agree or disagree to be part of the study.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections, with Section A and B comprised of closed ended questions, with answers scaled according to a 5-point Likert scale, and Section C contained open-ended questions. According to Ary *et al.* (2013), open-ended questions permit a free response, rather than restricting the respondent to a choice amongst the stated alternatives, leaving individuals free to respond from their own frame of reference.

Kothari (2004: 103) suggests that obtaining the replies in respondents' words is thus a major advantage of open-ended questions, which are, generally, inserted to provide a more complete picture of the respondents' feelings and attitudes. Furthermore, Clow and James (2013: 326) highlight that open-ended questions can provide a new or different insight and can provide an additional alternative. Respondents were given questions and requested to tick which response best suits their answers towards that specific question.

The answers were in a 5-point Likert scales, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The section consisted of open-ended questions, kept to a minimum and straight to the point, taking an average of 15 minutes to complete. The length of a questionnaire depends on the type of respondent. Depending on the individual respondent, a questionnaire should only require up to ten minutes

to complete. Longer than that may risk causing the respondents to 'put off' completing the questionnaire until they have more time (Allison and Race 2004).

### **3.8 DATA ANALYSIS**

Data analysis, according to Luton (2010: 42), is the process of moving from raw interviews to evidence-based interpretations that are the foundation for published reports. Data Analysis is manipulating data so that the research question can be answered, usually by identifying important patterns (Bellamy and 6 2011). Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The relative importance of the elements of the image score is accessed on a 5-point Likert scale. The purpose of data analysis is to interpret and draw conclusions from the mass of collected data (Lamb, Hair and McDaniel 2011).

### **3.9 VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENT**

The quality of an interview research project is determined by its validity and trustworthiness. Validity refers to the agreement between the value of the measurement and its true value. Validity is quantified by comparing the measurements with the value that are as close to the values as possible (Bhattacharyya 2010: 318).

A pre-test was undertaken, with ten questionnaires handed out to staff members of the DUT, to establish the feasibility of the study. Pretesting is a very important step in survey research. It is an absolutely necessary step to ensure all kind of errors associated with the survey research are reduced and to aid in improving the quality of the data. Pre-testing is done on a small scale of respondents from the target population (Grim, 2010). The questions were formulated in simple language for clarity and ease of understanding. Clear instructions to respondents were given.

### **3.10 RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENT**

Reliability measures dependability or trustworthiness of an assessment Bhattacharyya (2010: 318). According to Neuman (2011), reliability refers to the consistency with which measures are used. For this study, a statistician was consulted to assist with the accurate analysis of the data and the SPSS analytical program was also made use of to analyse the data to ensure its accuracy.

### **3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

Pera (2011) defines ethics as “a code of behaviour considered correct”. It is crucial that all researchers are aware of research ethics. Ethics relate to two groups of people; those conducting research, which should be aware of their obligations and responsibilities, and the “researched upon”, which have basic rights that should be protected. The study therefore, had to be conducted with fairness and justice, by eliminating all potential risks. The respondents must be aware of their rights. Ethical issues observed in a study may include “informed consent, right to anonymity and confidentiality, right to privacy, justice, beneficence and respect for persons” (Trochim, Donnelly and Arora, 2015).

To render the study ethical, the rights to self-determination, anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent were observed. Written permission to conduct the research study was obtained from the DUT. All participants of the study will be treated with confidentiality and protected from victimisation. An ethical clearance through the research office was applied for, ensuring that the study will not harm animals and will not affect participants. The respondents were given enough to respond and all participation is voluntarily, with respondents able to withdraw from the study at any time, without giving reasons.

The information the respondents that the respondents gave the researcher were used for research purposes only. The researcher had a moral obligation to strictly consider the rights of the participants, who were expected to provide this knowledge (Streubert Speziale and Carpenter, 2003: 314).

### **3.12 CONSENT**

The researcher obtained written consent from the DUT prior to conducting the study, which is advocated by Silk and Markula (2011: 18) as a necessity.

### **3.13 CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY**

The concept of confidentiality is closely connected with anonymity, in that anonymity is one way which confidentiality is operationalised. Confidentiality also means not disclosing any information gained from an interviewee deliberately or accidentally, in ways that might identify an individual (Wiles *et al.*, 2008: 417).

It is the responsibility of the researchers collecting data to ensure that steps have been taken to prevent the accidental disclosure of data, and accordingly, researchers are obligated to make assurances to respondents that adequate security measures have been taken (Henderson 2004).

### **3.14 PRIVACY**

In this study, privacy was also maintained by not attaching participant's names to the information that will identify them Christensen and Johnson (2004: 142). Participants were also made aware of their right to withdraw from the study.

### **3.15 RELIABILITY**

Reliability is achieved when an instrument has appropriate content for measuring a complex concept (Bernard, 2011: 44).

### **3.16 CONCLUSION**

This study used a quantitative research design. Questionnaires were administered to DUT staff, after permission was obtained from the university to conduct the study.

This chapter covered the research methodology, including the population, sample, data collection instrument, as well as strategies used to ensure the ethical standards, reliability and validity of the study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR DATA PRESENTATION**



## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an in-depth background of the study, analysing women empowerment in higher education. The literature discussed the statistics of women representation in higher education, focusing on barriers to women's entry into leadership.

## 4.2 PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH DATA

This chapter presents the results and discusses the findings obtained from the questionnaires in this study. The questionnaire was the primary measurement instrument used to collect data and was distributed to staff at DUT. The data collected from the responses were analysed with SPSS version 23.0. The results will present the descriptive statistics in the form of graphs, cross tabulations and other figures for the quantitative data that was collected. Inferential techniques include the use of correlations and chi square test values; which are interpreted using the p-values.

### 4.2.1 Reliability Statistics

The two most important aspects of precision are reliability and validity. Reliability is computed by taking several measurements on the same subjects. A reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher is considered as "acceptable".

The Cronbach's alpha score for all the items that constituted the reliability are reflected below (Table 4.1).

**Table 4.1: Reliability Statistics**

| Section | Title   | Number of Items | Cronbach's Alpha |
|---------|---|-----------------|------------------|
| B1      | Stereotypical and discriminatory perceptions of woman in leadership | 5 of 6          | 0.530            |
| B2      | Initiatives to empower women at DUT                                 | 5 of 6          | 0.761            |
| B3      | Barriers faced by women in leadership and how                       | 7 of 8          | 0.530            |

|         |                       |          |       |
|---------|-----------------------|----------|-------|
|         | they can be addressed |          |       |
| Overall |                       | 19 of 20 | 0.616 |

The overall reliability score approximates the recommended Cronbach's alpha value of 0.600, for a newly developed questionnaire. This indicates a degree of acceptable, consistent scoring for the various sections of the research.

#### **4.2.2 Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis is a statistical technique whose main goal is data reduction, wherein lies its importance. A typical use of factor analysis is in survey research, where a researcher wishes to represent a number of questions with a small number of hypothetical factors. For example, as part of a national survey on political opinions, participants may answer three separate questions regarding environmental policy, reflecting issues at the local, state and national level. Each question, by itself, would be an inadequate measure of attitude towards environmental policy; however, together they may provide a better measure of the attitude.

Factor analysis can be used to establish whether the three measures do, in fact, measure the same thing. If so, they can then be combined to create a new variable, a factor score variable that contains a score for each respondent on the factor. Factor techniques are applicable to a variety of situations. A researcher may want to know whether the skills required to be a decathlete are as varied as the ten events, or if a small number of core skills are needed to be successful in a decathlon. You need not believe that factors actually exist in order to perform a factor analysis; however, in practice the factors are usually interpreted, given names, and spoken of as real things.

The matrix tables are preceded by a summarised table that reflects the results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test. The requirement is that the

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy should be greater than 0.50 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, less than 0.05. In all instances, the conditions are satisfied, which allows for the factor analysis procedure.

Factor analysis is done only for the Likert scale items. Certain components are divided into finer components, as explained in the rotated component matrix (Table 4.2).

**Table 4.2: KMO and Bartlett's Test 1**

|    |   | Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy | Bartlett's Test of Sphericity |    |      |
|----|---|---|-------------------------------|----|------|
|    |   |   | Approx. Chi-Square            | df | Sig. |
| B1 | Stereotypical and discriminatory perceptions of woman in leadership | .531  | 40.982                        | 15 | .000 |
| B2 | Initiatives to empower women at DUT                                 | .741  | 96.114                        | 15 | .000 |
| B3 | Barriers faced by women in leadership and how they can be addressed | .571  | 77.264                        | 28 | .000 |

All of the conditions are satisfied for factor analysis. In other words, the KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy value should be greater than 0.500 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity sig. value should be less than 0.05.

#### 4.2.4 Rotated Component Matrix

**Table 4.3: Rotated Component Matrixa**

| Stereotypical and discriminatory perceptions of woman in leadership   | Component |       |      |
|---|-----------|-------|------|
|   | 1         | 2     | 3    |
| Women leaders and managers at the Durban University of Technology are treated and respected equally as male leaders or managers | .830      | -.149 | .032 |

|   |      |      |      |
|---|------|------|------|
| Women in leadership at the University of Technology are promoted by merit and not just by following protocol or gender quotas | .816 | .087 | -    |
| Women leadership at the University of Technology are more productive than males in leadership                                 | .020 | .807 | .103 |
| In my opinion, women are better communicators than men  | .033 | .793 | .141 |
| Cultural notion that women are not supposed to lead, influences women position in leadership in the higher education          | .010 | .024 | .947 |
| Gender does not have a direct influence on the success of educational leaders   | .714 | .168 | .240 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

**Table 4.4: Rotated Component Matrixa**

| Initiatives to empower women at DUT   | Component |       |
|---|-----------|-------|
|   | 1         | 2     |
| Durban University of Technology does provide an opportunity to empower and develop women in leadership and management positions   | .695      | .228  |
| Women leaders at the university of Technology are emotional and make decision based on emotions   | -.071     | .905  |
| There is an enabling environment at the Durban University of Technology, where women are provided with opportunities to meet the employment criteria of management positions. | .854      | -.168 |
| I believe that there is adequate commitment from the Durban University of Technology to drive gender equity.  | .681      | .166  |
| Female employees at the Durban University of Technology are encouraged to participate in initiatives that promote gender equality.  | .880      | .029  |
| I feel as though women have achieved equal status in both the recruitment and hiring process of educational leadership  | .442      | .481  |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

**Table 4.5: Rotated Component Matrixa**

| Barriers faced by women in leadership and how they can be addressed                             | Component |      |       |
|---|-----------|------|-------|
|   | 1         | 2    | 3     |
| There are more males occupying management position than females at the University of Technology | -.234     | .783 | -.123 |

|  |       |       |       |
|--|-------|-------|-------|
| Women are able to cope with leadership position and also be able to take care of their families at home  | -.062 | -     | .881  |
| It is important to establish management development programmes, specifically for women employees   | -.193 | .141  | .786  |
| Women are increasingly given more opportunities at the Durban University of Technology to be in more challenging positions that were previously held by men. | .569  | -.302 | .053  |
| In my opinion are there hidden difficulties in my department, which women face that prevent them from moving to higher positions.                            | .138  | .701  | .358  |
| I plan to postpone/have postponed applying for an educational leadership position for marriage   | .753  | .191  | -.223 |
| Women personality trait of strictness influences women from rising to the managerial level   | .788  | .128  | -.041 |
| Maternity leaves and other feminine responsibilities are impediments to selecting women as administrators in higher institutions                             | .420  | .666  | -.025 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Factor analysis is a statistical technique whose main goal is data reduction. A typical use of factor analysis is in survey research, where a researcher wishes to represent a number of questions with a small number of hypothetical factors.

With reference to Table 4.5:

- The principle component analysis was used as the extraction method, and the rotation method was Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation. This is an orthogonal rotation method that minimises the number of variables that have high loadings on each factor. It simplifies the interpretation of the factors.
- Factor analysis/loading show inter-correlations between variables.
- Items of questions that loaded similarly imply measurement along a similar factor. An examination of the content of items loading at or above 0.5 (and using the higher or highest loading in instances where items cross-loaded at greater than this value) effectively measured along the various components.

#### 4.2.6 GENDER

This question was asked to identify the gender of the different participants of the study.

**Table 4.6: Gender of Respondents**

| Gender |        |           |         |               |                    |
|--------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid  |        | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|        | Female | 36        | 53,7    | 53,7          | 53,7               |
|        | Male   | 31        | 46,3    | 46,3          | 100,0              |
| Total  |        | 67        | 100,0   | 100,0         |                    |

Of the 100 respondents that were given the questionnaires to complete, 67 were returned to the researcher. The findings show 53.7 percent females and 46.3 percent males, indicating that there are more females working at the DUT than males.

#### 4.2.7 AGE

Frequency Table 4.7 displays the age of the study's respondents.

Within the category presented in table (4.7) age only a limited number (11.9 percent) of the respondents were between the ages of 50 years and above, with fewer (six percent) between the ages 45-49. The highest age group of respondents was between the ages of 20-24 years, as well as the age group of 25-29 years, which amounted to almost a quarter (22 percent), which could suggest that the majority of staff members at the DUT, who participated in this study, are young people.

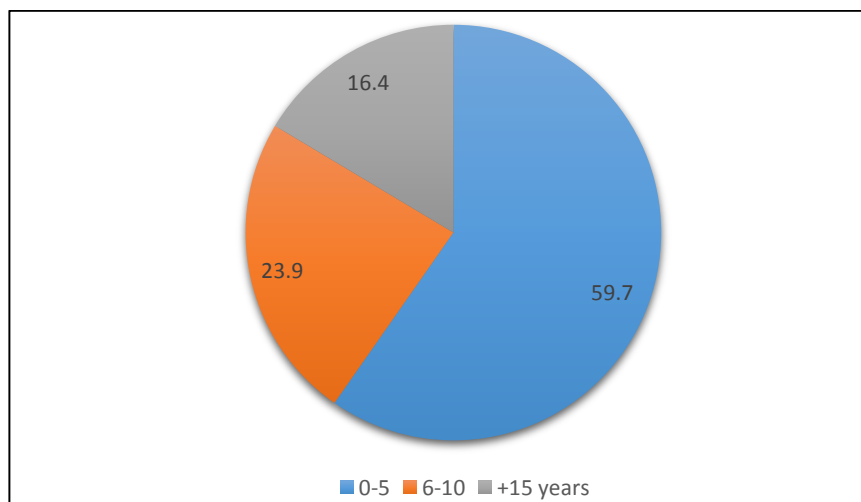
**Table 4.7: Age Groups of Respondents**

| Age   |       | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 20-24 | 19        | 28,4    | 28,4          | 28,4               |

|              |    |       |       |       |
|--------------|----|-------|-------|-------|
| 25-29        | 15 | 22,4  | 22,4  | 50,7  |
| 30-34        | 11 | 16,4  | 16,4  | 67,2  |
| 35-39        | 6  | 9,0   | 9,0   | 76,1  |
| 40-44        | 4  | 6,0   | 6,0   | 82,1  |
| 45-49        | 4  | 6,0   | 6,0   | 88,1  |
| 50 and above | 8  | 11,9  | 11,9  | 100,0 |
| Total        | 67 | 100,0 | 100,0 |       |

#### 4.2.3 Work Experience at the Higher education sector

This question was asked to identify the work experience of respondents in the higher education sector.



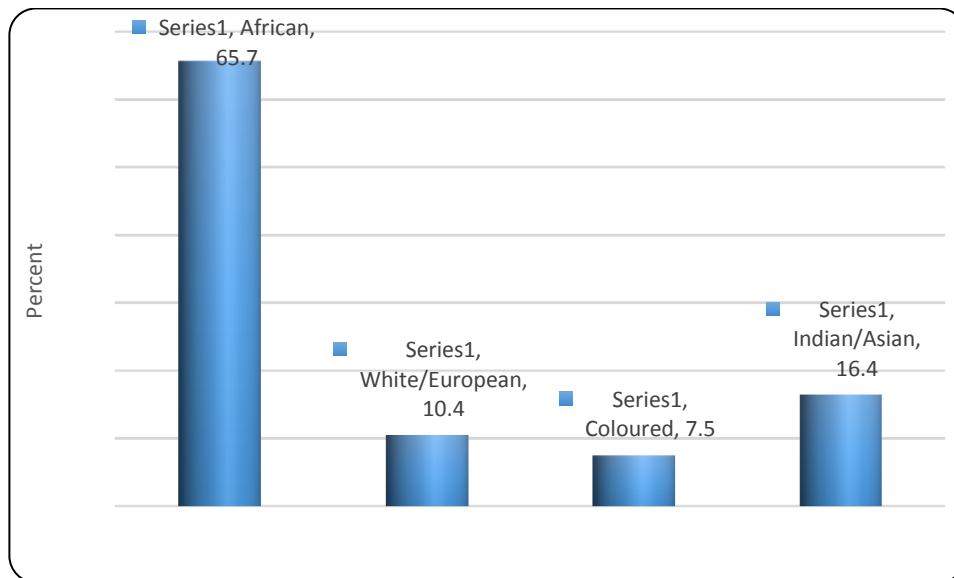
**Figure 4.1: Work experience in the higher education sector**

The majority of respondents (59.7 percent) have worked for less than five years in the higher education sector. The longest serving participants indicated that they have worked more than 15 years in the education sector; this amounted to 16 percent of the respondents. Almost a quarter (23.9 percent) of the respondents has worked between six to ten years in the higher education sector.

This shows that the majority of the respondents of this study have adequate work experience to participate in the study.

#### 4.2.4 Race of respondents

This question was aimed at finding out how many ethnic groups are represented at the Durban University



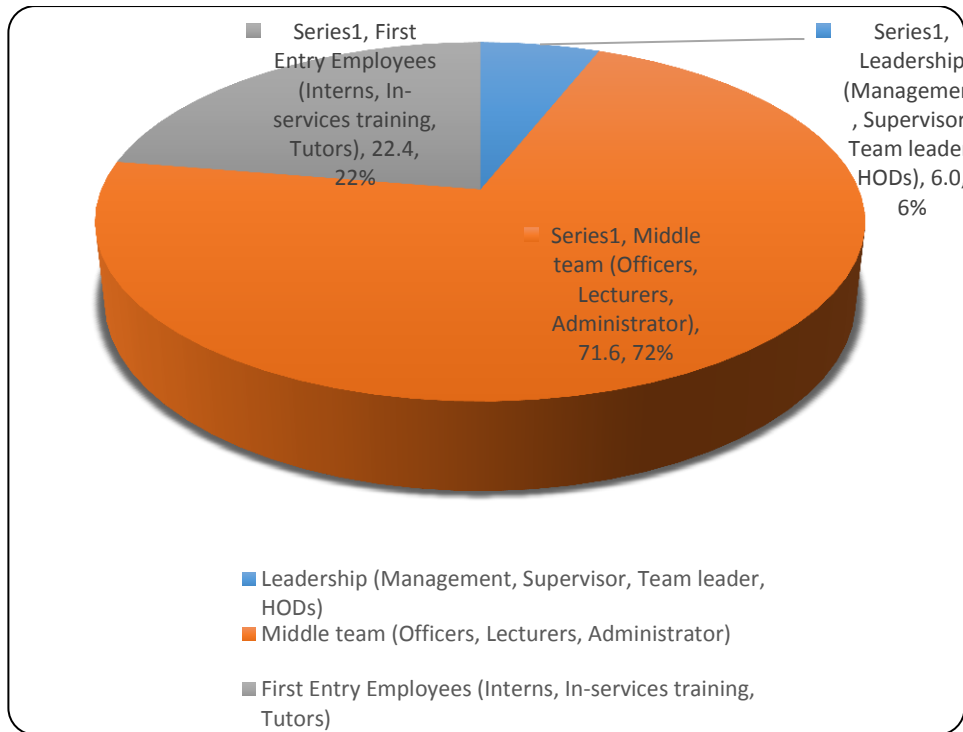
**Figure 4.2: Races of the Respondents**

The majority (65.7 percent) of respondents were African; Indians and Asians amounted to 16 percent, with White respondents rating at 10.4 percent, while Coloured respondents amounted to a low rate of 7.5 percent. This indicates that there are more African staff members at the DUT.

#### 4.2.5 Positions held at the Durban University of Technology

The researcher included this question in order to identify the position held by respondents at the DUT.





**Figure 4.3: Positions held by respondents at the Durban University of Technology**

From the statistics it was apparent that the majority (71.6 percent) of the respondents occupy positions in the ‘middle team’ at the DUT. This means that most of the people who responded to this study range from lectures, to Officers and administrators. The second highest participants were first entry employees, amongst which Interns and in-service training staff members were included, and they amounted to 22.4 percent.

Only 6.0 percent amounted to Leadership at the university, consisting of Supervisors, Team Leaders and Heads of Departments. One can observe that the respondents are qualified to respond to the different issues that hinder women’s success in leadership.

#### 4.2.6 What gender is your current leader in your department?

This question was included, in order to establish the gender of the person whom respondents held as their leader, at the DUT.

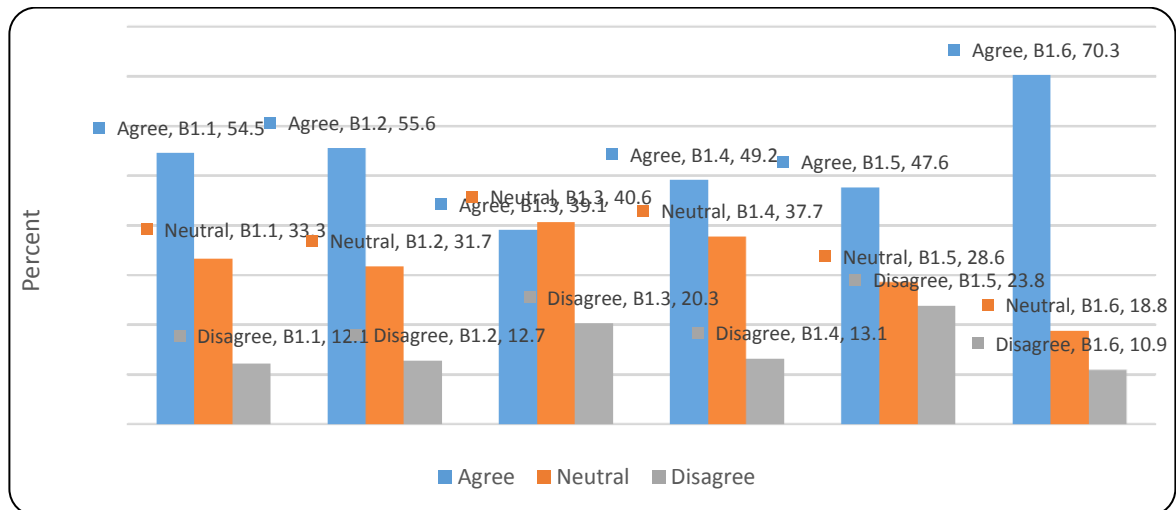
**Table 4.8: Gender of current leader in respondents' department**

|       |        | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Male   | 35        | 52.2    | 52.2          | 52.2               |
|       | Female | 32        | 47.8    | 47.8          | 100.0              |
|       | Total  | 67        | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

More than half (52 percent) of the leadership positions indicated by respondents were held by males, which could be a true reflection that there are more male than female leaders. Female leaders amounted to 47 percent, which is also very positive for the DUT.

#### 4.3 DISCRIMINATION

This section was aimed at determining if there are any stereotypical and discriminatory perceptions of woman in leadership.



**Figure 4.4: What underpins discrimination against female leaders at the Durban University of Technology**

B1.1 - Women leaders and managers at the Durban University of Technology are treated and respected equally as male leaders or managers?

**Table 4.9: Equal treatment and respect**

|         |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree    | 13        | 19.4    | 19.7          | 19.7               |
|         | Agree             | 23        | 34.3    | 34.8          | 54.5               |
|         | Neutral           | 22        | 32.8    | 33.3          | 87.9               |
|         | Disagree          | 5         | 7.5     | 7.6           | 95.5               |
|         | Strongly Disagree | 3         | 4.5     | 4.5           | 100.0              |
|         | Total             | 66        | 98.5    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System            | 1         | 1.5     |               |                    |
| Total   |                   | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

This question was aimed at establishing whether female and male leaders are treated and respected the same. More than half (54.5 percent) agreed with the question, while 13 percent of the respondents indicated that women leaders are not treated the same as their male colleagues in the same positions, which is a very low number. According to Reporter (2015), women were found to be pressuring themselves to be as perfect as possible, while they struggle to maintain their appearance, raise a family and have a career. This could be because they are not treated the same way as their male counterparts and therefore, feel the need to always do more to prove themselves.

A third (33 percent) of the respondents indicated neutral to this question regarding female leadership at the DUT.

B1.2 - Women in leadership at the University of Technology are promoted by merit and not just by following protocol or gender quotas?

**Table:4.10 Women are promoted by merit and not just by following protocol or gender quotas?**

|         |                | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree | 17        | 25.4    | 27.0          | 27.0               |
|         | Agree          | 18        | 26.9    | 28.6          | 55.6               |
|         | Neutral        | 20        | 29.9    | 31.7          | 87.3               |
|         | Disagree       | 8         | 11.9    | 12.7          | 100.0              |
|         | Total          | 63        | 94.0    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System         | 4         | 6.0     |               |                    |
| Total   |                | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

A low number (12 percent) of the respondents indicated that women are promoted on merit, while almost a third (31.7 percent) was neutral about the promotion of females. More than half (54.5 percent) feel that women are not promoted on merit, rather to fill in the status quotas.

B1.3 - Women leadership at the University of Technology are more productive than male leaders?

**Table 4.11: Women leadership at the Durban University of Technology are more productive than male leaders?**

|         |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree    | 10        | 14.9    | 15.6          | 15.6               |
|         | Agree             | 15        | 22.4    | 23.4          | 39.1               |
|         | Neutral           | 26        | 38.8    | 40.6          | 79.7               |
|         | Disagree          | 12        | 17.9    | 18.8          | 98.4               |
|         | Strongly Disagree | 1         | 1.5     | 1.6           | 100.0              |
|         | Total             | 64        | 95.5    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System            | 3         | 4.5     |               |                    |
| Total   |                   | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

According to (38 percent) of respondents suggest that female leaders at the university are more productive, which supposes that females as leaders are able

to get more things done and ensure that all runs smoothly and accordingly with their department.

Caliper (2014) suggests that women leaders are more assertive and persuasive, have a stronger need to get things done and are more willing to take risks than male leaders. Less than a quarter (20.3 percent) of the respondents in this study disagreed with this statement.

On the other hand, an article on the HR Daily (2014), highlights that everyone should be promoted on merit to ensure a fair chance for all, any other system, such as quotas, damages the fairness and it actually insults those people who are supposed to be the beneficiaries of affirmative action.

B1.4 - In my opinion, women are better communicators than men

**Table 4.12: Respondents opinion whether women are better communicators than men**

|         |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree    | 16        | 23.9    | 26.2          | 26.2               |
|         | Agree             | 14        | 20.9    | 23.0          | 49.2               |
|         | Neutral           | 23        | 34.3    | 37.7          | 86.9               |
|         | Disagree          | 6         | 9.0     | 9.8           | 96.7               |
|         | Strongly Disagree | 2         | 3.0     | 3.3           | 100.0              |
|         | Total             | 61        | 91.0    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System            | 6         | 9.0     |               |                    |
| Total   |                   | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

According to the respondents' opinion, women are better communicators than men, with almost half (49.2 percent) of the respondents agreeing that females

are better communicators than males. Peterkin (2014) states that, women are more discussion-orientated, whereas men are focused on just taking action, in business, employees appreciate managers who show a willingness to listen to them.

More than a third (37.7 percent) of the respondents remained neutral and did not want to comment, agree or disagree with this statement. A small number (12.3 percent) of the respondents disagreed, which could suggest that women are indeed better communicators than men in the workplace and at the DUT, respondents were of the opinion that females are the better communicators.

B1.5 - Cultural notion that women are not supposed to lead influences women's position in leadership in higher education.

**Table 4.13: Cultural notion that women are not supposed to lead, influences women's position in leadership in higher education**

|       |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly Agree    | 15        | 22.4    | 23.8          | 23.8               |
|       | Agree             | 15        | 22.4    | 23.8          | 47.6               |
|       | Neutral           | 18        | 26.9    | 28.6          | 76.2               |
|       | Disagree          | 13        | 19.4    | 20.6          | 96.8               |
|       | Strongly Disagree | 2         | 3.0     | 3.2           | 100.0              |
|       | Total             | 63        | 94.0    | 100.0         |                    |
|       | Missing System    | 4         | 6.0     |               |                    |
| Total | 67                | 100.0     |         |               |                    |

The cultural notion that women are not supposed to lead, which influences women position in leadership in higher education, was strongly agreed with by almost a quarter (22.4 percent) of the respondents, while another 23.8 percent also agreed with the statement.

Almost a third (28.6 percent) of the respondents were neutral towards this statement and less than a quarter (20.6 percent) disagreed, with only three percent of the respondents, who strongly disagreed and maintained that culture does not influence women leadership in higher positions. A study conducted by KPMG (2015) in women and leadership, highlights that deeply-embedded, traditional values very often pose major obstacles to women’s equity

B 1.6 - Gender does not have a direct influence on the success of educational leaders

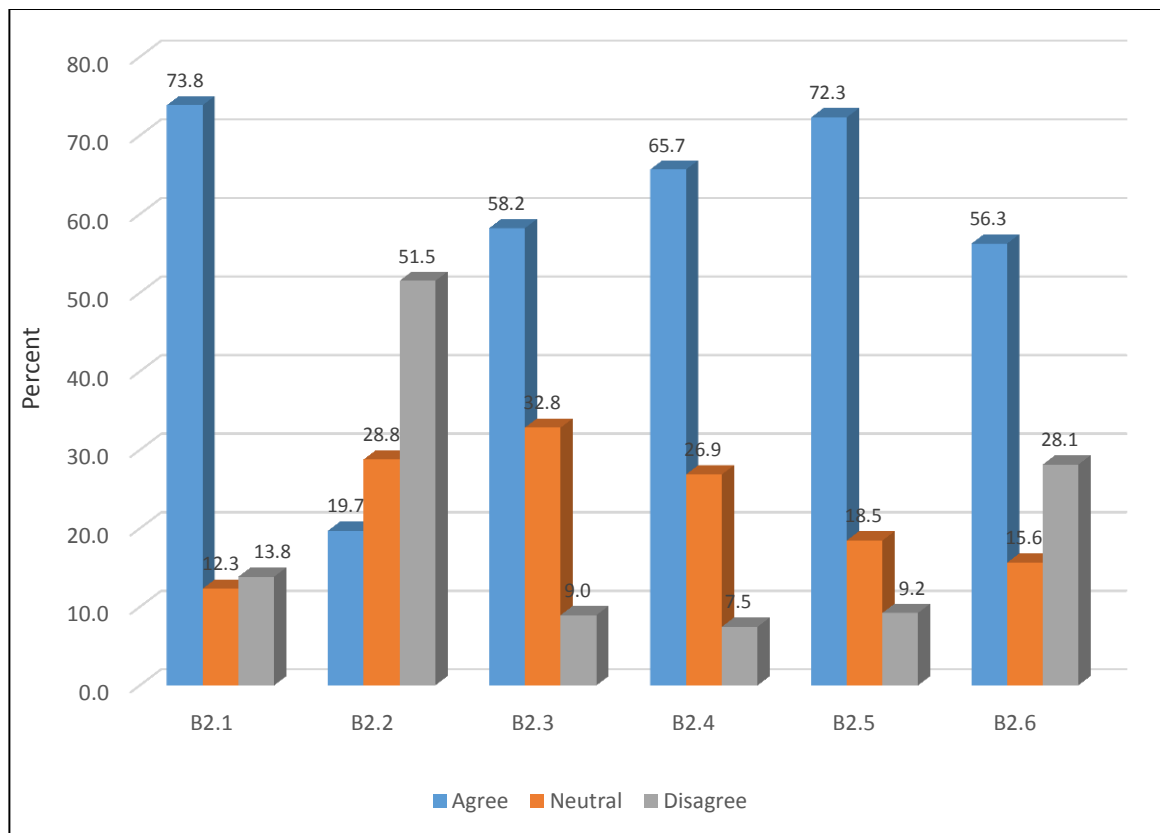
**Table 4.14: Gender does not have a direct influence on the success of educational leaders**

|       |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly Agree    | 25        | 37.3    | 39.1          | 39.1               |
|       | Agree             | 20        | 29.9    | 31.3          | 70.3               |
|       | Neutral           | 12        | 17.9    | 18.8          | 89.1               |
|       | Disagree          | 4         | 6.0     | 6.3           | 95.3               |
|       | Strongly Disagree | 3         | 4.5     | 4.7           | 100.0              |
|       | Total             | 64        | 95.5    | 100.0         |                    |
|       | Missing           | System    | 3       | 4.5           |                    |
| Total |                   | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

While women are frequently discouraged from applying for leadership, either by their colleagues or sometimes by how difficult the positions may seem, this is

supported by Eagly and Karau (2002), when they suggest that, when occupying leadership positions, women likely encounter more disapproval than men, due to perceived gender role violation.

Almost three quarters (70.5 percent) of the respondents agreed that gender does not have an influence on the success of the leader, while a small number (15.6 percent) of the respondents indicated neutral. Close on a quarter (23.8 percent) of the respondents highlighted that gender does have a direct influence on the success of educational leaders.



**Figure 4.5: Aims to identify initiatives to empower women at the Durban University of Technology**



B 2.1 - Durban University of Technology does provide an opportunity to empower and develop women in leadership and management positions

**Table 4.15: Durban University of Technology does provide an opportunity to empower and develop women in leadership and management positions**

|         |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree    | 16        | 23.9    | 24.6          | 24.6               |
|         | Agree             | 32        | 47.8    | 49.2          | 73.8               |
|         | Neutral           | 8         | 11.9    | 12.3          | 86.2               |
|         | Disagree          | 6         | 9.0     | 9.2           | 95.4               |
|         | Strongly Disagree | 3         | 4.5     | 4.6           | 100.0              |
|         | Total             | 65        | 97.0    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System            | 2         | 3.0     |               |                    |
| Total   |                   | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

DUT is shown, by the respondents' replies, to provide an opportunity to empower and develop women in leadership and management positions. This question was meant to identify development initiatives provided by the DUT. The majority of the respondents (73.8 percent) indicated that that the DUT does provide opportunities for women to be empowered. Only a small number (13 percent), of respondents disagreed that the DUT provides opportunities for women, while slightly more (13.8%) of the respondents indicated neutral to this statement.

B2.2 - Women leaders at the University of Technology are emotional and make decision based on emotion

**Table 4.16: Women leaders at the University of Technology are emotional and make decisions based on emotions**

|         |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree    | 8         | 11.9    | 12.1          | 12.1               |
|         | Agree             | 5         | 7.5     | 7.6           | 19.7               |
|         | Neutral           | 19        | 28.4    | 28.8          | 48.5               |
|         | Disagree          | 25        | 37.3    | 37.9          | 86.4               |
|         | Strongly Disagree | 9         | 13.4    | 13.6          | 100.0              |
|         | Total             | 66        | 98.5    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System            | 1         | 1.5     |               |                    |
| Total   |                   | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

The statement that women leaders at the University of Technology are emotional and make decisions based on emotions was agreed with by 19.7 percent of the respondents, while more than half (51.5 percent) of the respondents did not agree that female leaders are emotional and make decisions based on emotions.

Caruso and Salovey (2004) suggest that women must ensure to channel their emotions energy in the positive and constructive direction. Furthermore, different

genders have different qualities, according to Andrews (2013), although there is overlap, in general, men and women tend to be strong in different Emotional Quotient (EQ) areas or attributes, for example, women score higher than men in areas of empathy and social responsibility, which are generally considered female specific emotional intelligence attributes.

B2.3 - There is an enabling environment at the Durban University of Technology, where women are provided with opportunities to meet the employment criteria of management positions.

**Table 4.17: There is an enabling environment at the Durban University of Technology**

|       |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly Agree    | 9         | 13.4    | 13.4          | 13.4               |
|       | Agree             | 30        | 44.8    | 44.8          | 58.2               |
|       | Neutral           | 22        | 32.8    | 32.8          | 91.0               |
|       | Disagree          | 4         | 6.0     | 6.0           | 97.0               |
|       | Strongly Disagree | 2         | 3.0     | 3.0           | 100.0              |
|       | Total             | 67        | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

More than half (58.2 percent) of the respondents agreed that the DUT does provide an enabling environment, where women are provided with opportunities to meet the employment criteria of management positions. Almost a third (32.8 percent) of the respondents disagreed with the statement. This can include training opportunities, mentorship and management traineeship.

B 2.4 - I believe that there is adequate commitment from the Durban University of Technology to drive gender equity

**Table 4.18: Respondents' belief that there is adequate commitment from the Durban University of Technology to drive gender equity**

|       |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly Agree    | 15        | 22.4    | 22.4          | 22.4               |
|       | Agree             | 29        | 43.3    | 43.3          | 65.7               |
|       | Neutral           | 18        | 26.9    | 26.9          | 92.5               |
|       | Disagree          | 2         | 3.0     | 3.0           | 95.5               |
|       | Strongly Disagree | 3         | 4.5     | 4.5           | 100.0              |
|       | Total             | 67        | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

An overwhelming majority (65.7 percent) agreed there is adequate commitment from the DUT to drive gender equity

A small percentage (7.5 percent) of the respondents felt that the DUT is not doing enough, while a large number (32.8 percent) of the respondents were neutral.

B2.5 - Female employees at the Durban University of Technology are encouraged to participate in initiatives that promote gender equality.

**Table: 4.19 Female employees are encouraged to participate in initiatives that promote gender equality**

|         |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree    | 15        | 22.4    | 23.1          | 23.1               |
|         | Agree             | 32        | 47.8    | 49.2          | 72.3               |
|         | Neutral           | 12        | 17.9    | 18.5          | 90.8               |
|         | Disagree          | 3         | 4.5     | 4.6           | 95.4               |
|         | Strongly Disagree | 3         | 4.5     | 4.6           | 100.0              |
|         | Total             | 65        | 97.0    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System            | 2         | 3.0     |               |                    |
| Total   |                   | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

Most (72.3 percent) of the respondents agreed that women are encouraged to participate in initiatives that promote gender, while 18.5 percent indicated disagreement that women are encouraged to participate in initiatives that promote gender equality.

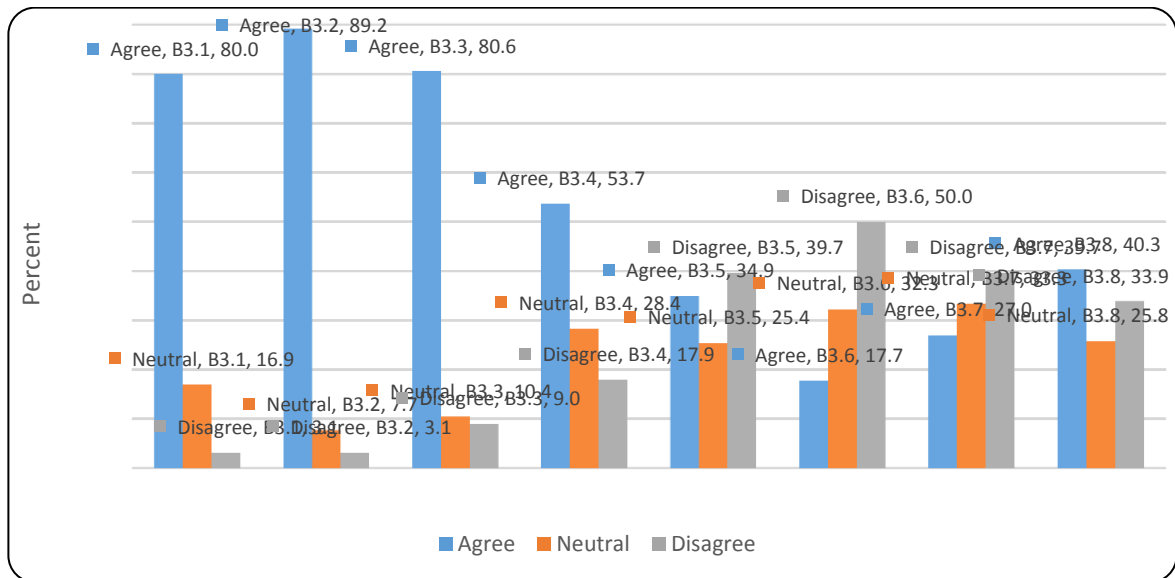
B 2.6 - I feel as though women have achieved equal status in both the recruitment and hiring process of educational leadership

**Table 4.20: Respondents perception that women have achieved equal status in both the recruitment and hiring process of educational leadership**

|         |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree    | 19        | 28.4    | 29.7          | 29.7               |
|         | Agree             | 17        | 25.4    | 26.6          | 56.3               |
|         | Neutral           | 10        | 14.9    | 15.6          | 71.9               |
|         | Disagree          | 15        | 22.4    | 23.4          | 95.3               |
|         | Strongly Disagree | 3         | 4.5     | 4.7           | 100.0              |
|         | Total             | 64        | 95.5    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System            | 3         | 4.5     |               |                    |
| Total   |                   | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

Respondents indicated their perception as to whether women have achieved equal status in both the recruitment and hiring process of educational leadership, with more than half (53 percent) agreeing with the statement. More than a quarter (28.1 percent) disagreed that women have achieved an equal status in the hiring process of educational leadership. It is important for women to adapt within the working environment. This is supported by McLellan and Uys

(2009) suggest that women need to be flexible and apply skilful balancing and management of their work and family lives.



**Figure 4.6: Barriers faced by women and how they can be eradicated**

B3.1 There are more males occupying management position than females at the University of Technology

**Table 4.21: Male vs Female in management positions at the University of Technology**

|         |                | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree | 30        | 44.8    | 46.2          | 46.2               |
|         | Agree          | 22        | 32.8    | 33.8          | 80.0               |
|         | Neutral        | 11        | 16.4    | 16.9          | 96.9               |
|         | Disagree       | 2         | 3.0     | 3.1           | 100.0              |
|         | Total          | 65        | 97.0    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System         | 2         | 3.0     |               |                    |
| Total   |                | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

The findings (Table 4.21) show that respondents indicated more male leaders occupying leadership positions, with the majority (80 percent) of the respondents agreeing. A low number (3.1 percent) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, hence suggesting that there are more female leaders at DUT. As Lathi (2013) points out that women have the possibility to rise to higher positions but they face many obstacles on the way, instead of getting ahead straightforward, as men often do.

B3.2 - Women are able to cope with leadership positions and also take care of their families at home

**Table: 4.22: Women’s ability to cope with leadership positions and take care of their families at home**

|         |                | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid   | Strongly Agree | 28        | 41.8    | 43.1          | 43.1               |
|         | Agree          | 30        | 44.8    | 46.2          | 89.2               |
|         | Neutral        | 5         | 7.5     | 7.7           | 96.9               |
|         | Disagree       | 2         | 3.0     | 3.1           | 100.0              |
|         | Total          | 65        | 97.0    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing | System         | 2         | 3.0     |               |                    |
| Total   |                | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

The majority (89.2 percent) of the respondents strongly agreed that women are indeed able to take care of the children and participate in their duties at the workplace. A small percentage (10.4) of the respondents were neutral to this statement and felt that they would rather not comment, while a few (3.1 percent) of the respondent did not agree with the statement. It is interesting to note that maternity leave is 18 weeks and after that, it is possible to take about 26 weeks of parental leave, in order to be with the child; after the birth, parental leave can be divided between the father and mother (Kela, 2013).

B3.3 - It is important to establish management development programmes, specifically for women employees

**Table 4.23: The importance of establishing management development programmes, specifically for women employees**

|       |                | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly Agree | 31        | 46.3    | 46.3          | 46.3               |
|       | Agree          | 23        | 34.3    | 34.3          | 80.6               |
|       | Neutral        | 7         | 10.4    | 10.4          | 91.0               |
|       | Disagree       | 6         | 9.0     | 9.0           | 100.0              |
|       | Total          | 67        | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

The importance of establishing management development programmes that will aid in assisting females into leadership positions was agreed on by most (80.6 percent) of the respondents. This overwhelming agreement by the respondents shows recognition of the value and need to assist women in attaining leadership positions. A few (nine percent) of the respondents disagreed that the company should establish management and developmental programmes to assist females into leadership. The reason for a negative response could be interpreted as these participants not seeing a need for females to be given preferential treatment.

Abbas and Yaqoob (2009) affirm that employee performance is an important building block of an organisation and factors that lay the foundation for high



performance must be analysed by organisations, along with all that is achieved through developmental programmes.

B3.4 - Women are increasingly given more opportunities at the Durban University of Technology, to be in more challenging positions that were previously held by men.

**Table 4.24: Women are increasingly given more opportunities**

|       |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly Agree    | 11        | 16.4    | 16.4          | 16.4               |
|       | Agree             | 25        | 37.3    | 37.3          | 53.7               |
|       | Neutral           | 19        | 28.4    | 28.4          | 82.1               |
|       | Disagree          | 9         | 13.4    | 13.4          | 95.5               |
|       | Strongly Disagree | 3         | 4.5     | 4.5           | 100.0              |
|       | Total             | 67        | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

Marginally more (39.7 percent) of the respondents disagreed that women are given more opportunities to be in challenging positions, while more than a third (34.9 percent) of the respondents agreed with the statement. Lárusdóttir (2007) confirms that masculine dominance and control have served to relegate and isolate women from leadership positions.

B3.5 - In my opinion, there are hidden difficulties in my department, which women face that prevent them from moving to higher positions.

**Table 4.25: Hidden difficulties**

|       |                | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly Agree | 11        | 16.4    | 17.5          | 17.5               |

|         |                   |    |       |       |       |
|---------|-------------------|----|-------|-------|-------|
|         | Agree             | 11 | 16.4  | 17.5  | 34.9  |
|         | Neutral           | 16 | 23.9  | 25.4  | 60.3  |
|         | Disagree          | 18 | 26.9  | 28.6  | 88.9  |
|         | Strongly Disagree | 7  | 10.4  | 11.1  | 100.0 |
|         | Total             | 63 | 94.0  | 100.0 |       |
| Missing | System            | 4  | 6.0   |       |       |
| Total   |                   | 67 | 100.0 |       |       |

More than half (53.7 percent) of the respondents agreed that there are different hidden difficulties in their department that women face and that prevent them from moving into higher positions. These can include discrimination, glass ceiling, and stereotypical behaviours implying that women are not capable enough to lead. According to more than a quarter (28.4 percent) of the respondents, there are no difficulties in their department that could hinder women from reaching leadership positions.

Pew Research Center Social and Demographic Trends (2015) suggests that the challenge is that women in the workplace have to put in extra effort, compared to men, in order to prove their competencies, which could imply that we still don't expect women to be able to do what men can, with baselines set on men's capabilities.

B 3.6I - Plan to postpone/have postponed applying for an educational leadership position for marriage

**Table 4.26; Postponement of educational leadership position application**

|       |          | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly | 5         | 7.5     | 8.1           | 8.1                |

|         |                   |    |       |       |       |
|---------|-------------------|----|-------|-------|-------|
|         | Agree             |    |       |       |       |
|         | Agree             | 6  | 9.0   | 9.7   | 17.7  |
|         | Neutral           | 20 | 29.9  | 32.3  | 50.0  |
|         | Disagree          | 15 | 22.4  | 24.2  | 74.2  |
|         | Strongly Disagree | 16 | 23.9  | 25.8  | 100.0 |
|         | Total             | 62 | 92.5  | 100.0 |       |
| Missing | System            | 5  | 7.5   |       |       |
| Total   |                   | 67 | 100.0 |       |       |

A low number (17.7 percent) of respondents agreed to having postponed motherhood duties because of wanting to be in leadership positions and being in leadership. While half (50 percent) of the respondents disagreed with this statement, it could be translated that marriage and starting a family does not have any impact in applying for leadership positions.

Rodden (2007) finds that women, who end up delaying marriage and child bearing, do so to deal with the demand of handling both the office and their role as a mother and wife at home; management is associated with working with long hours and making sacrifices to complete deadlines.

B3.7 – Women’s personality trait of strictness influences their rise to managerial level

**Table 4.27: Women’s personality trait of strictness influences their rise to managerial level**

|       |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly Agree    | 3         | 4.5     | 4.8           | 4.8                |
|       | Agree             | 14        | 20.9    | 22.2          | 27.0               |
|       | Neutral           | 21        | 31.3    | 33.3          | 60.3               |
|       | Disagree          | 17        | 25.4    | 27.0          | 87.3               |
|       | Strongly Disagree | 8         | 11.9    | 12.7          | 100.0              |
|       |                   |           |         |               |                    |

|         |          |    |       |       |  |
|---------|----------|----|-------|-------|--|
|         | Disagree |    |       |       |  |
|         | Total    | 63 | 94.0  | 100.0 |  |
| Missing | System   | 4  | 6.0   |       |  |
| Total   |          | 67 | 100.0 |       |  |

More than a quarter (27 percent) of the respondents disagreed that women do possess a strictness and this can affect them in attaining leadership positions, while a larger number (39.7 percent) of respondents agreed with this statement. A third (33.3 percent) of the respondents was neutral, which could suggest that a type of strictness is sometime essential in the company to be able to thrive. This is supported by Vozza (2015), who finds women leaders to be strict, as well as able to pay attention to relationships, when compared to male counterparts. Women leaders were also found to bring the team together by stimulating high-quality relationships, bonding, and connectivity.

B3.8 - Maternity leave and other feminine responsibilities are impediments to selecting women as administrators in higher institutions

**Table 4.28: Maternity leave and other feminine responsibilities are impediments to selecting women as administrators in higher institutions**

|       |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | Strongly Agree    | 11        | 16.4    | 17.7          | 17.7               |
|       | Agree             | 14        | 20.9    | 22.6          | 40.3               |
|       | Neutral           | 16        | 23.9    | 25.8          | 66.1               |
|       | Disagree          | 12        | 17.9    | 19.4          | 85.5               |
|       | Strongly Disagree | 9         | 13.4    | 14.5          | 100.0              |
|       | Total             | 62        | 92.5    | 100.0         |                    |
|       | Missing           | System    | 5       | 7.5           |                    |
| Total |                   | 67        | 100.0   |               |                    |

While a large number (40.3 percent) of the respondents agreed that maternity leave and other feminine responsibilities prevent women from being selected in leadership positions, (33.9 percent) of the participants responded that these responsibilities do not prevent women from being selected to management positions. This could include family responsibility, pregnancy, picking up children after school, and so on.

According to a Shever Report (2009), women are struggling to cope with work-family conflict because of these important gains in women's participation in the workforce. Many hourly workers have very little control over their schedules, due to demanding work schedules within the workplace.

### **4.3. CONCLUSION**

This chapter presented the findings and discussion from the study, highlighting the main barriers and causes of women not being represented more fairly in top positions at HEIs, specifically at the DUT. The study revealed stereotypes, gender discrimination, as well as the oppression of women and inferiority of men, as the main factors that hinder women from attaining leadership positions.

In conclusion, this chapter offered an insightful presentation of the data analysis, in two sections. The demographical profile of the respondents was highlighted, which includes information, such as race, age, years of experience, as well as what position they hold at DUT.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The first section of the study analysed the demographics, which highlighted the age, race and experience of the respondents. The section was used to underpin the findings of the study; the data analysis of findings has been presented by using bar graphs and frequency tables. The recommendations from the study will be given in this chapter and conclusions drawn about the study, while this section further also suggests possible areas for future research.

The objectives of the study were:

- To identify the percentage of women occupying top managerial positions at the DUT and to establish what stereotypical and discriminatory ideas respondents have of women in leadership.
- To evaluate initiatives or programmes to empower women at the DUT.
- To determine what the barriers are to women leadership and how they can be eradicated.

## **5.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

Many studies have, to date, focused on women in leadership but this study specifically focused on women in HE, since there is a vast number of women that are under-represented in the HE field. This study revealed that, although women are still under-represented in HE, there are efforts being made to bridge this gap. This study further found that, at the DUT, women are promoted on merit and not because of following the status quotas, which encourages women to be hired just to fill the void in higher management. This research will contribute to the body of literature and further conclude with recommendations for future research.

### **5.2.1 Key findings**

The research design of this study was quantitative and questionnaires were used to collect data. The target population was comprised of staff members from the DUT and the participants ranged from leadership, management, lecturing and first entry employees. The technique of probability sampling was chosen in this research.

The sample size of 100 participants was drawn from the population and questionnaires were designed with both closed-ended and some open-ended questions, where participants were asked to state their views.

The questionnaires were personally administered and were hand-delivered to all campuses of the Durban University, namely Ritson Campus, Steve Biko Campus, ML Sultan Campus, City Campus, Indumiso Campus and Riverside Campus. The data was analysed by a Statistician, using the statistical programme for the sciences (SPSS) and all the data was presented by means of frequency tables and bar graphs.

Findings from the research:

- The majority of the staff that work at the DUT were found to be females;
- The majority of the staff members at the DUT were found to be Black and the second highest was Indian;
- There are more males occupying management position than females at the University of Technology;
- The majority of the staff that work at the DUT was found to be between the ages of 20-24 years old;
- Female leaders were found to be better communicators, when compared to male staff members;
- DUT does provide an opportunity to empower and develop women in leadership and management positions;
- It was found that women are able to cope with leadership positions and also take care of their families at home;
- According to the participants it is important to establish management development programmes, specifically for women employees;
- Maternity leave and other feminine responsibilities do not prevent women to pursue leadership and management positions.

Participants that took part in the study were asked to elaborate further on what programmes and initiatives are available, what are the barriers that women face in leadership and how they can be improved. They highlighted the following:

The study found that women are limited by family responsibility, as well as cultural stereotypes which prevent them from excelling in leadership positions.

Some of the respondents highlighted that women are great leaders, yet at times, they cannot cope with the challenging demands of leadership; as a result, women are not taken seriously as leaders, according to the respondents.



The respondents indicated that women are too strict as leaders, while others found women to be more nurturing and caring and to be better communicators when compared to male leaders.

The respondents of the study described some females as very strong and who don't back down easily, while others described females as good leaders stating, however, that they overdo it to prove a point and become emotional. It was found in the study that within the work environment females can be strict, but they ensure service delivery.

Respondents further said that the industry is still dominated by males, as a result, women are not given enough opportunities to grow and advance. Respondents said that women are pushed aside instead of men, to be given support and encouragement.

The respondents highlighted that women would do much better in leadership, if they had other women's support, as well as support groups, because women highlighted that men do make them feel inferior but, in some cases, women look down on each other so, if women could support each other, it would be much better.

Some of the participants suggested that women should not be chosen into leadership based on gender but based on qualification, while others highlighted that it takes a longer period to be promoted when you are a female.

### **5.2.5 Barriers to women in leadership at the Durban University**

The respondents indicated that women were not given a chance to lead directly, and have to follow in the steps of a male leader. Some found women as

incompetent and lacking enthusiasm, and too comfortable working in an office environment. Another barrier was the salary gap that was paid to male and female managers, as well as pregnancy and maternity, which according to the respondents, was a negative factor that prevented women to enter leadership positions. According to Hiller (2012:), these cognitive structures are hard to change and one creates their own perception about how men and women should behave

### **5.3 FINDINGS RELATED TO THE LITERATURE REVIEW**

Results for the current study regarding negative stereotypes that women face in the workplace are supported by Mihail (2006:375), who suggests that these negative stereotypes of women influence how their employees perceive them, how other managers perceive their work, and how they are selected for further training and development.

The findings of a previous study, conducted by BBC News (2011), as mentioned earlier, suggest that women are so immune to discrimination, in a way, that they are always anticipating it. Studies suggest that women anticipate the discrimination even before it happens, which results in them having lower self-confidence and average career ambition, when compared with men. The same results were found in this study, where 40.3 percent agreed that maternity leave and other feminine responsibilities are impediments to selecting women into leadership positions, a quarter (25.8 percent) were neutral and a third (33.9 percent) disagreed.

A study conducted by Caliper (2014) highlights that women leaders have been proven to be more assertive and persuasive, have a stronger need to get things done and are more willing to take risks than male leaders. This could also go hand-in-hand with the results from this research where it was found that women

leaders were better communicators than males. Almost half (49.2 percent) of the respondents agreed, while more than a third (37 percent) were neutral, resulting in only a small number (13.1 percent) of the respondents disagreeing with the statement.

Previous research has shown that there are more women occupying management positions in HEIs. The DUT according to its Website, sees senior management made up of 20 members and of the 20 members, 15 are male and five are female, (DUT website senior management team 2014). From this research, the respondents agreed that most positions at the DUT are held by males.

More than half (51.5 percent) of the respondents disagreed that women are emotional and make decisions based on emotions, while more than a quarter (28.8 percent) were neutral and a low number (19.7 percent) of respondents agreed with the statement. This corresponds with a study conducted by Kets de Vries (2001:309), which found women to be outperforming males in interpersonal and cross-cultural skills.

## **5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

This section of the study will give recommendations from the study, focused on women and DUT management, as well all career women, based on the findings of this study;

### **5.4.1 Office Environment**

Office environments should be organised in a manner that promotes and encourages female leaders to thrive in the workplace and aspire for leadership. Women should not be judged by their gender, rather by their abilities and capabilities.

The DUT could review their office environment and find out whether they accommodate all genders in the office. In other studies, it was encouraged that the company could make simple efforts, such as having a crèche or preschool nearby the workplace, to accommodate worker that are parents.

#### **5.4.2 Training**

There should be more mentorship programmes and workshops that educate, as well as training and initiatives of promoting and encouraging women into leadership, which can further educate and equip females on how to be better leaders within the work place.

The DUT could ensure that their training is able to equip and advance leadership within the workplace.

#### **5.4.3 Women need to be tougher**

Most of the respondents said that women need to be tougher when given roles to lead and ensure they are respected and trusted with leadership positions. On that note, some respondents said that females play a good role in leading people without using position to discourage other people. In the study, females were also encouraged to work hard at proving they are suitable for the positions and eradicated the stigma that females are promoted out of merit, rather as procedure to follow protocol and status quotas. Respondents said that women must be able to share their views without any fear of losing their positions at work. Women need to be tough and understand that they are in leadership positions to make a mark through leading effectively and not to pay attention to all the negativity around them.

In other studies, women are encouraged to have a positive attitude and also be proactive and explore opportunities.

#### **5.4.4 Salary Gap**

Another barrier was the salary gap between what was paid to male and female managers, as well as pregnancy and maternity, which according to the respondents, was one of the negative factors that prevented women from entering into leadership positions. According to Hiller (2012) these cognitive structures are hard to change and one creates an own perception about how men and women should behave.

It is recommended that:

- Women should be paid equal salaries to their male counterparts and not be made to feel inferior because of their gender.
- The Durban University could review the current salary gap and ensure that all gender is financially compensated in the same manner. The Durban University should look for more initiatives where they can advance and promote female leadership, while working on balancing internal Human Resources, as well as be open to look at legislative frameworks and adapt to the different trends that are in line with their policies.

#### **5.5 FUTURE RESEARCH**

The following recommendations are suggested for further research:

- It is recommended that further research be conducted on other universities as a comparative study, to examine the rate of women in leadership and what initiatives can be implemented to ensure that women in leadership are given more opportunities
- Critically reviewing the South African legislation in term of advancing women in leadership positions.

## **5.6 CONCLUSION**

The above section covered the recommendations of the study and suggested additional future research for the study topic.

In light of the study findings, the study revealed that there are more male leaders than female leaders at the Durban University of Technology and respondents agreed that there are hidden difficulties in their department that women face and prevent them from moving into higher positions. The difficulties could be things like gender and cultural stereotypes as well the reason that women have to work hard to prove themselves in the work place.

Female responsibilities at home that include care giving and young children could be things that hold women back and the fact that they have to choose between being career women or housewife's.

It was also revealed that women yearn more for role model leaders who can mentor and motivate women into leadership and provide support and direction to young aspiring women.

At the Durban University of Technology, it was found that there are some programs that empower women into leadership however a lot more can still be done to ensure that women are provided opportunities equally especially in the Higher Education sector.

The findings of the study suggested that women at the Durban University of Technology are more productive, when compared to their male counterparts which supposes that females as leaders are able to get more things done and ensure that all runs smoothly and accordingly with their department.

The study revealed further that the South African legislation framework in South Africa does provide room for improvement in terms of advancing women into leadership positions however the gap is still huge.

It can be concluded that, women have the potential and ability to be leaders to perform at the top level of public, provided they are given support, allowed opportunities and mentored into leadership positions.

The South African HE sector needs to embrace change and promote the progression of women into leadership positions, policies and structures in place should be reviewed to ensure that an environment is promoted where all workers are equal in the workplace.

## REFERENCES

Abbas, Q. and Yaqoob, S. 2009. Effect of leadership development on employee performance in Pakistan. *Pakistan Economic and Social Review*, 3 (23): 269-292.

Achola, P. and Aseka, E. 2001. Searching and accessing senior management for public universities in Africa: challenges and opportunities. Paper presented at the *International Conference on Leadership and Management of Higher Education for Efficacy in Africa*. Kenyatta University Nairobi, (online), Available: <http://www.makerere.ac.ug/womenstudies/full%20papers/onsongo.htm> (Accessed 08 March 2015).

Adler, N. and Izraeli, D. 1994. *Competitive frontiers*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Cambridge: Blackwell.

Akpinar-Sposito, C. 2013. Career barriers for women executives and the Glass Ceiling Syndrome: the case study comparison between French and Turkish women executives. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, (4) 75: 488-497.

Alimo-Metcalfe, B. 2010. An investigation of female and male constructs of leadership and empowerment. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 25 (8): 640-648.

Allison, B. and Race, P. 2004. *The students guide to preparing dissertations and theses*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. London: Routledge.

Annan, K. 2005. Empowering women the most effective development tool. Paper presented at the *UN Commission on the Status of Women*. (online), Available: <http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=13478> (Accessed 22 June 2015).

Apleni L. 2012. *Womens role in the transformation of South Africa*. (online), Available: <http://www.polity.org.za/article/womens-role-in-the-transformation-of-south-africa-2012-11-01> (Accessed 08 March 2015).

Appelbaum, S. H., Audet, L. and Miller, J. C. 2003. Gender and leadership? Leadership and gender? A journey through the landscape of theories. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 24 (1): 43-51.

April, K., Dreyer, S. and Blass, E. 2007. Gender impediments to the South African executive boardroom. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 31 (2): 51-67.

Arifeen, S. R. 2010. The significance of mentoring and its repercussions on the advancement of professional, managerial women in Pakistan. *Global Business Review*, 11 (2): 221-238.

Ariola, M. 2006. *Principles and Methods of Research*. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. Samploc Manila: Rex Book Stors.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L., Sorensen, C. and Walker, D. 2013. *Introduction to research in education*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. London: Cengage Learning.

Babbie, E. 2015. *The Practise of Social Research*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. London: Cengage

Balkundi, P. and Harrison, D. 2006. Ties, leaders, and time in teams: Strong inference about network structure's effects on team viability and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49 (1): 49-68.

Bass, B. and Riggio, R. 2006. *Transformational Leadership*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New Jersey: Lawrence Erbaun Associate.

Baxter, J. and Wright, E. O. 2000. The glass ceiling hypothesis: A reply to critics. *Gender and Society. A Comparative Study of the United States, Sweden, and Australia*, 12 (2): 275-294.

BBC News. 2011. *Davies Report Calls for More Women in the Boardroom* (online), Available: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/12560121> (Accessed 05 March 2015).



Bellamy, C. and 6, P. 2011. *Principles of Methodology*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New Dehli: Sage Publications

Bendeman. 2007. Beating the drums on the gender bandwagon. *HR Future, Human Strategy for Business*, 7 (2): 34-36.

Bergeron, D. M., Block, C. J. and Echtenkamp, B. A. 2006. Disabling the able: Stereotype threat and women's work performance. *Human Performance*, 19 (133): 158.

Bernard, H. 2011. *Research Methods in Anthropology: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. Altimira: Rowman

Bernardi, R. A., Bosco, S. M. and Vassill, K. M. 2006. Does Female Representation on Boards of Directors Associate With Fortune's "100 Best Companies to Work For" List. *Business and Society*, 45 (2): 235-248.

Best, J. and Kahn, V. 2006. *Research in Education*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Pearson Allyn: Bacon

Bhattacharyya, D. 2010. *Cross Cultural Management: Texts and Cases*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New Dehli: PH Learning.

Bhorat, H. 2004. Labour Market Challenges in the Post-Apartheid South Africa. *South African Journal of Economics*, 72 (4): 940-977.

Billing, Y. D. and Alvesson, M. 2000. Questioning the Notion of Feminine Leadership. *A critical Perspective on the Gender Labelling of Leadership, Organizing Identity: Entrepreneurial Governance and Public Management in South Africa*. 7 (3): 144-157.

Bingham, P. 2003. Pursuing innovation in a big organization. *Research technology management* 46 (4): 52.

Blackmore, J., 1989. Educational leadership: A feminist critique and reconstruction. *Critical perspectives on educational leadership*, 27 (56): 93-129.

Blair-Loy, M. 2009. Competing devotions. *Career and family among women executives*. *Career and family among women executives*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. London : Harvard University Press.

Boone, L. E. and Kurtz, D. L. 2009. *Contemporary business 2010 update*. 13<sup>th</sup> ed. New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons.

Booyesen, A. E. and Nkomo, S. M. 2010. Gender role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics: The case of South Africa. *An International Journal*, 25 (4): 285-300.

Bowen, W. G., Kurzweil, M. A., Tobin, E. M. and Pichler, S. C. 2005. *Equity and Excellence in American Higher Education*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. London : University of Virginia Press.

Brandl, J., Mayrhofer, W. and Reichel, A. 2008. The Influence of Social Policy Practices and Gender Egalitarianism on Strategic Integration of Female HR Directors. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19 (11): 2113-2131.

Brannon, L. 2015. *Gender: Psychological Perspectives*. 6<sup>th</sup> ed. New York: Routledge.

Broadbridge, A. and Weyer, B. 2007. Twenty years later: explaining the persistence of the glass ceiling for women leaders. *Women in Management Review*, 22 (6): 482-496.

Bullough, A. M. 2008. Global factors affecting women's participation in leadership. Florida International University.(online), Available: <http://giditalcommons.fiu.edu/etd/> (Accessed 5 March 2015).

Burke, R. and Barron, S. 2014. *Project management leadership: Building creative teams*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. London: John Wiley and Sons.

Burke, R. J., Vinnicombe, S., Ogden, S. M., McTavish, D. and McKean, L. 2006. Clearing the way for gender balance in the management of the UK financial services industry: Enablers and barriers. *Women in Management Review*, 21 (1): 40-53.

Burton, C. 1998. *The Promise and the Price. The Struggle for Equal Opportunity in Womens Employment*. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. North Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Caizza, A. 2004. Does women's representation in elected office lead to women friendly policy. Analysis of state-level data. *Women and Politics* 26 (1): 35-70

Caliper. 2014. *Qualities that Distinguish Women Leaders*. (online), Available: <https://www.calipercorp.com/portfolio/the-qualities-that-distinguish-women-leaders/> (Accessed 12 May 2015).

Cameron, C., Pienaar, D., Waddy, C., Naicker, S. and Wessels, P. 2003. *Women in Management: Integral Providers of Quality Education*. KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture.

Caruso, D. R. and Salovey, P. 2004. *The emotionally intelligent manager: How to develop and use the four key emotional skills of leadership*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. San Francisco: John Wiley and Sons.

Census, C. 2012. *Transforming the world of work annual report* (online), Available: [www.catalyst.org/uploads/annual\\_report\\_2012.pdf](http://www.catalyst.org/uploads/annual_report_2012.pdf) (Accessed 12 May 2015).

Chaudhry, A. Q. and Javed, H. 2012. Impact of transactional and laissez faire leadership style on motivation. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3 (7): 258-264.

Chiloane-Tsoka, G. 2010. Perceptions of Barriers to the Advancement of Women in Management and Leadership Positions in South Africa. *Gender and Behaviour*, 8 (2) 291-376.

Chisholm, L. 2001. Gender and leadership in South African Educational Administration. *Gender and Education*, 13 (4): 387-399.

Christensen, L. and Johnson, B. 2004. *Educational research: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Approaches*: Boston: Pearson.

Clow, K. E. and James, K. E. 2013. *Essentials of Marketing Research: Putting Research into Practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishers

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2000. *Action Research: Research Methods in Education*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. London: Routledge- Falmer.

Coleman, M. 2002. *Women as head teachers: Striking the balance*. London: Trentham Books.

Commission, S. S. 2000. Working Paper: Barriers to Women's Career Progression: A Review of the Literature. *State Services Commission*,.

Cooper, D. J. 2003. *Leadership for follower commitment*. 2<sup>nd</sup>. Butterworth: Heinemann.

Cornelius, H. 1998. *The Gentle Revolution: Men and Women at Work - What Goes Wrong and How to Fix It*. North Shore City: Tandem Press.

Council of the Higher Education 2009. *Monitoring and Evaluation higher education*. Available: [http://www.che.ac.za/media\\_and\\_publications/monitoring-and-evaluation/higher-education-south-africa-data-2009](http://www.che.ac.za/media_and_publications/monitoring-and-evaluation/higher-education-south-africa-data-2009) (Accessed 8 March 2015).

Cray, D., Inglis, L. and Freeman, S. 2007. Managing the arts: leadership and decision making under dual rationalities. *The Journal of Arts Management, Law, and Society*, 36 (4): 295-313.

Cresswell, J., W. 2013. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Cummings, H., Dinolfo, S. and Kohler, J. 2011. *Sponsoring Women to success*. New York: Catalyst.

Curry, B. 2000. *Women in Power: Pathways to Leadership in Education*. 4<sup>th</sup>. New York: Teacher College Press.

Davis, D. R. and Maldonado, C. 2015. Shattering the Glass Ceiling: The Leadership Development of African American Women in Higher Education. *Advancing Women in Leadership*, (12) 35: 48-64.

De Cremer, D. 2006. Affective and motivational consequences of leader self-sacrifice: the moderating effect of autocratic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, (22) 17: 79-93.

De Klerk, V. and Radloff, S. 2010. Measuring the effect of diversity interventions at a South African residential university. *The International Journal of Diversity in Organisations, Communities and Nations*, 10 (2): 25-46.

De La Rey, C. 2005. Gender, Women and Leadership. *Agenda Gender and Society* 4(65): 4-11.

Dean, D.R., Bracken, S.J. and Allen, J.K., 2009. The balancing act revisited—professional strategy and personal choice on the path to academic leadership. *Women in Academic Leadership: Professional Strategies, Personal Choices*. 12 (5)1-7.

Department of Education. 2012. *Statistics on Post-School Education and Training in South Africa*. (online), Available: <http://www.dhet.gov.za/DHET%20Statistics%20Publication/Statistics%20on%20PostSchool%20Education%20and%20Training%20in%20South%20Africa%202012>. (Accessed 22 April 2014).

Dolatabadi, H. R. and Safa, M. 2010. The effect of directive and participative leadership style on employees' commitment to service quality. *International Bulletin of Business Administration*, (9): 31-42.

Donald, D., Lazarus, S. and Lolwana, P. 2004. *Educational psychology in social context*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Draft, R. and Lane, P. 2008. *The Leadership Experience*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Canada: Cengage Learning.

Druskat, V. U. 1994. Gender and leadership style. *Transformational and Transactional Leadership in The Roman Catholic Church. Leadership Quarterly*, 5 (2): 99-199

Duflo, E., 2011. Women empowerment and economic development. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 50(4), pp.1051-1079.

Durban University of Technology. 2015. *About DUT* (online), Available: <http://www.dut.ac.za/about/> (Accessed 22 April 2015).

Durban University of Technology. 2015. DUT Council. Available: <http://www.dut.ac.za/about/> (Accessed 22 April 2015).

Eagly, A. H. and Carli, L. L. 2011. Gender and leadership. *The Sage handbook of leadership*, 6 (22).103-117.

Eagly, A. H. and Karau, J. 2002. Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological review*, 109 (3): 573.

Elmuti, D., Jia, H. and Davis, H. 2009. Challenges Women Face in Leadership Positions and Organizational Effectiveness. *An Investigation Journal of Leadership Education*, 8(2): 21- 31.

Els, R. 2004. Challenges for female executives, part one. 18-19

Evans, D. 2010. Aspiring to leadership... a woman's world? An example of developments in France. *Cross cultural management: An international journal*, 17 (4): 347-367.

Eye Witness News. 2013. *The Gender Income Gap as analysed by Eye Witness as researched by the Stats SA*. Available: <http://www.government.nl/issues/development-cooperation/equal-treatment-for-women-worldwide> (Accessed 09 March 2015).

Flick, U. 2008. *Managing Quality in Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications.

Foschi, M. 2000. Double Standards for Competence: Theory and Research *Annual Review of Sociology*, 26: 21-42.

Gobind, J. 2013. *The Employment Equity Act has failed women*. Available: [http://www.sabpp.co.za/wpcontent/uploads/2014/womens%20reports/SABPP Women%27s%20Report%202013%20web.pdf](http://www.sabpp.co.za/wpcontent/uploads/2014/womens%20reports/SABPP%20Women%27s%20Report%202013%20web.pdf) (Accessed 10 March 2015).

Goff, K. 2005. Advancing women's leadership: the white house project website.

Goldman, N. 1973. The changing role of women in the Armed Forces. *The American Journal of Sociology*, 892

Gondy, L. 2011. *Designing User Studies in Informatics*. London: Springer

Goodall, A. H. and Osterloh, M. 2015. Women have to enter the leadership race to win: Using random selection to increase the supply of women into senior positions.

Goodnight, R. 2004. Laissez-faire leadership. *The Economic Journal*, 98 (392): 755-771.

Gouws, A. and Kotzé, H. 2007. Women in leadership positions in South Africa: The role of values. *Politikon*, 34 (2): 165-185.

Grant Thornton Report. 2015. *Women in business: the path to leadership*. Available: <http://www.gt.co.za/news/2015/08/women-in-business-the-path-to-leadership/> (Accessed 31 August 2015).

Greenberger, M. 2007. Equal rights amendment is still needed. *The Wall Street Journal*.

Greenhaus, J. H. and Powell, G. N. 2006. When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review*, 31 (1): 72-92.

Gerson K, The Unfinished Revolution: How a New Generation is Reshaping Family, Work, and Gender in America. *Management Journal*, 5 (22): 450-500

Grim, P. 2010. *Pretesting a Questionnaire* Wiley Encyclopedia of Marketing

Grzywacz, J. G. and Bass, B. L. 2004. Work, family, and mental health Testing different models of work-family fit. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 65 (1): 248-262.

Hack, K. 2014. Breaking Barriers? Women's Representation and Leadership at the United Nations. *Global Governance*: 37-54.

Hair, J. F., Bush, R. P. and Ortinau, J. 2000. *Marketing Research: A practical Approach for the New Millennium*.

Heilman, M. E. 2001. Description and Prescription: How Gender Stereotypes Prevent Women's Ascent Up the Organizational Ladder. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57 (4): 657-674.

Hejase, H., Haddad, Z., Hamdar, B., Massoud , R. M. and Farha, G. 2013. Female Leadership: An Exploratory Research from Lebanon. . *American Journal of Scientific Research* 86

Henderson, M. 2004. Women who break through class ceiling face a cliff-hanger. *The Times* 3-4.

Herbst, T. and Conradie, P. 2011. Leadership effectiveness in Higher Education: Managerial self-perceptions versus perceptions of others. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*,

HERSA. 2015. About HERSA (online), Available (<http://www.hersa.org.za/page/about-hersa>) (Accessed 10 March 2015).

Hochschild, A. and Machung, A. 2012. *The Second Shift: Working families and The Revolution at Home*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Penguin Publishing Group.

Hojgaard, L. 2002. Tracing differentiation in gendered leadership: *An Analysis of Differences in Gender Composition in Top Management in Business, Politics and The Civil Servic*. *Gender, Work and Organization*,9 (1): 15-38.

Hoy, W. K. and Miskel, C. G. 2001. *Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: McGraw – Hill.

HR Daily. 2014. *Are Merit-based Promotions Really 'Fair'?* (online), Available: [https://www.hrdaily.com.au/nl06\\_news\\_selected.php?selkey=3280](https://www.hrdaily.com.au/nl06_news_selected.php?selkey=3280) (Accessed 10 March 2015)

Huang, X., Iun, J., Liu, A. and Gong, Y. 2010. Does Participative Leadership Enhance Work Performance by Inducing Empowerment or Trust? The Differential Effects on Managerial and Non-Managerial Subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31 (1): 122-143.

International Labour Organization. 2004. *Breaking Through the Glass Ceiling: Women in Management*. International Labour Office: London.

Jackson, J. C. 2001. Women Middle Managers' Perception of the Glass Ceiling. *Women Management Review*,16 (1): 30.

Jakobsh, D. R. 2012. Barriers to Women's Leadership. *Encloypedia of Leadership*, 7(12) 77-78.

James, B. and Saville-Smith, K. 1994. *Gender, Culture and Power: Critical Issues in New Zealand Society Series*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London:Oxford University Press.

Jha, A. 2014. *Social Research methods*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. India: Mc Graw Hill.

Jogulu, U. D. 2010. Culturally-linked leadership styles. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 31 (8): 705-719.

Jolly, S., 2002. *Gender and cultural change*. *Institute of Development Studies*. 56 (28) 111-150.



John, V. 2013. University transformation will take 43 years, says study. *Mail and Guardian* (online), Available: <http://mg.co.za/article/2013-10-23-ukzn-study-it-will-take-years-for-university-staff-to-transform> (Accessed 23 April 2015).

Jones, S. D. 2005. Leadership in Higher Education: *Influences on perceptions of black women*, 25 (8) 225-300

Jones, S. J. and Palmer, E. M. 2011. Glass Ceilings and Catfights: Career Barriers for Professional Women in Academia. *Advancing Women in Leadership*, 15 (31): 189-198.

Jonkheid, E. and Mango, T. 2008. *Perceptions of Female Managers in the South African Gambling Industry: Gender Equity* South Africa (online), Available: <http://www.ngb.org.za/siteresources/documents/finalreportgenderequitywebsitepdf29apr08.pdf> (Accessed 10 October 2015).

Jonsen, K., Maznevski, M., and Schneider, S. 2010. Gender differences in leadership –believing is seeing: Implications for Managing Diversity. Equality, Diversity and Inclusion. *An International Journal*, 29 (4): 549-572.

Kayi, N. 2013. The progression of women to senior management positions at a South African University in the Western Cape. Capetown: Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Kets de Vries, M. F. 2001. *The Leadership Mystique*. London: Prentice Hall.

Kirai, M. and Mukulwa, E. 2012. Perceived Organisational Barriers to Women Career Progression in Kenya's Civil Service *International Journal of Advances in Management and Economics*, 1 (6) 122-140.

Kirkpatrick, S. A. and Locke, E. A. 1991. Leadership: Do Traits Matter? *The Executive* 5 (2) 48-60.

Kothari, C. 2004. *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. India: New Age International.

Kotter, J. P. 1996. *Leading change*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Boston: Harvard Business Press.

Kouzes, J. and Posner, B. 1990. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. *Leadership Practices Inventory. A Self Assessment*. San Diego: Pfeiffer and Company.

Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. 1995. *The Leadership Challenge: How to Keep Getting Extraordinary Things Done in Organisations. Foreword by Tom Peters.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

KPMG. 2015. *Women's Leadership Study Moving Women Forward into Leadership Roles* Available: <http://womensleadership.kpmg.us/content/dam/kpmg-womens-leadership> (Accessed 10 March 2016).

Kreitner, R. and Kinicki, A. 2008.2<sup>nd</sup> ed. *Organization Behavior.* Singapore: McGraw-Hill International.

Lamb, C., Hair, J. and McDaniel, C. 2011. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. *Essentials of Marketing.* London: Cengage Learning.

Landelahni, A. 2013. SA women earn 35% less than men. *Women 24* (online), Available: <http://www.women24.com/CareersAndMoney/AtWork/Gender-pay-gap-persists-20140331> (Accessed 27 March 2015).

Lárusdóttir, S. 2007. The Fact that I'm a Woman May Have Been the Defining Factor' The Moral Dilemmas of an Icelandic Headteacher. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership:* 3 (18) 261-276.

Lawler, J. 2005. The essence of leadership. *Existentialism and Leadership,*1 (2): 215-231.

Lee-Gosselin, H., Briere, S. and Ann, H. 2013. Resistances to gender mainstreaming in organizations: toward a new approach. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 28 (8): 468-485.

Lee, B. A. 2003. The Legal and Political Realities of Women Managers in Fagenson. *Women in Management: Trends, Issues and Challenges in Managerial, Diversity.* London: Sage.

Lee, M. and Koh, J. 2001. Is empowerment really a new concept? *International journal of human resource management,* 12 (4): 684-695.

Leedy, P. and Ormond, J. 2001. *Planning and design: Practical research:* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Lemke, L. 2014. Women in leadership: Can Women Have it All? Paper presented at the 2014 Max Weber Conference Center for European and Mediterranean Studies New York University,

Liff, S. and Ward, K. 2001. Distorted Views Through the Glass Ceiling: The Construction of Women's Understandings of Promotion and Senior Management Positions. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 8 (1): 19-36.

Lim, L. 2002. Female labor-force participation in United Nations Population Division Population Bulletin of the United Nations. *Completing the Fertility Transition*, 15 (22) 195-212.

Lockwood, P. 2006. "Someone Like Me Can Be Successful": Do College Students Need Same-Gender Role Models? *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 30 (1): 36-46.

Lorenzen, Z. 1996. Female leadership: some personal and professional reflections. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 17 (6): 24-31.

Lorber, J., 1997. *The variety of feminisms and their contributions to gender equality*. (online), Available:  
[http://www.a.ibit.unioldenburg.de/bisdoc\\_redirect/publikationen/bisverlag/unirede/n/ur97/kap1.pdf](http://www.a.ibit.unioldenburg.de/bisdoc_redirect/publikationen/bisverlag/unirede/n/ur97/kap1.pdf)

Lowe, K. B. and Gardener, B. 2000. Ten years of Leadership Quarterly: Contributions and Challenges For The Future. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11 (4): 1-56.

Lukaka, E. 2013. Influence of culture on women leadership in managerial position: a case of Eldoret municipality, Kenya. University of Nairobi.

Lumby, J. and Azaola, C. 2011. Women Principals In Small Schools in South Africa. *Australian Journal of Education*, 55 (1): 73-85.

Lumby, J. and Coleman, M. 2007. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. *Leadership and Diversity: Challenging Theory and Practice in Education*. London: Sage Publications.

Lussier, R. and Achua, C. 2015. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. *Leadership: Theory, Application and skills Development*. London: Cengage Learning.

Luton, L. S. 2010. *Qualitative Research Approaches for Public Administration*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. New York: Routledge.

Machika, P. 2014. Mind the gap,. *The place of women in higher education*. *Mail and Guardian*.(online),<http://mg.co.za/article/2014-08-12-mind-the-gap-the-place-of-women-in-higher-education>. (Accessed 10 October 2015).

Malovi, P. M. 2014b. *A Study of Socio-Economic Elements Influencing Gender Imbalance in Elective Governance Positions in Kenya: The Case of Kilgoris Sub-County*.

Mandela, N. 1994. Speech by President Nelson Mandela opening South Africa's First Democratically Elected Parliament on 24 May 1994. *Braamfontein, Commission on Gender Equality*.

MacKinnon, C.A., 1982. Feminism, Marxism, method, and the state: An agenda for theory. *Signs*, 7(3): 515-544.

Manning, G. and Curtis, K. 2012. *The Art of Leadership*. 4th ed. Tata: McGraw-Hill Education.

Marumo, K. M. 2012. Empowerment: *Making sense of the voices of women about their journey towards their leadership identity in higher education*, 77 (25) 260-285

Maseko, T. I. 2013. *A comparative Study of Challenges Faced by Women in Leadership: A case of Foskor and the Department of Labour in Mhlathuze Municipality*. University of Zululand.

Mathabe, N. 2006. *Mainstreaming Gender into Universities. A Commentary by Professor N. Mathabe in UNISA*). Available: [http://www.unisa.ac.za/contents/management/provc/docs/mainstreaming\\_gender\\_into\\_universities.prof\\_mathabe\\_november\\_06.pdf](http://www.unisa.ac.za/contents/management/provc/docs/mainstreaming_gender_into_universities.prof_mathabe_november_06.pdf) (Accessed 22 April 2015).

Mazibuko, F. 2006. Women in academic leadership in South Africa: conventional executives or agents of empowerment? *Alternation*, 13 (1): 106-123.

McGrath, M. 2011. *Women and Leadership*. Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania.

McLellan, K. and Uys, K. 2009. Balancing dual roles in self-employed women: *An exploratory study*. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 35 (1): 21-30.

Mcmillan, H. and Schumacher, S. 2010. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. *Researcher in Education*: Boston: Pearson.

McNabb, D. E. 2002.. *Research Methods in Public Administration and Nonprofit Management*.2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: ME Sharpe.

Merchant, K. 2012. How men and women differ. *Gender differences in communication styles, influence tactics, and leadership styles*, 1 (9): 225-227.

Mihail, D. 2006. Gender-Based Stereotypes in the Workplace: The case of Greece. *Equal Opportunities International*, 25 (5): 373-388.

Mitchell, M. and Jolley, J. 2012. *Research design explained*.8<sup>th</sup> ed. London: Cengage Learning.

Mitroussi, A. and Mitroussi, K. 2009. Female educational leadership in the UK and Greece. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 24 (7): 505-522.

Morley, L. 2013. The rules of the game: Women and the leaderist turn in higher education. *Gender and education*, 25 (1): 116-131.

Mouton, J. 2002. *Understanding Social Research*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Msimang, S. 2011. Affirmative action in the new South Africa. *The Politics of representation, law and equity women in action*, 1 (2): 106-189

Meyers, D.T., 2014. Feminist social thought: A reader.2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Routledge.

Myers, M. D. 2009. *Qualitative Research in Business and Management*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Sage Publications.

Naicker, L. 2013. The journey of South African Women Academics with a Particular Focus on Women Academics in Theological Education. *Studia Historiae Ecclesiasticae*, 1 (39): 325-333.

Naidoo, B. 2013. Women principals in curriculum leadership at schools in disadvantaged communities in the Gauteng East District. Doctoral dissertation, University of Johannesburg.

Nations, U. 1995. *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4–15September*.(online), Available: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/official>

[.htm](#) (Accessed 27 May 2015)

Nations, U. 2005. *Division for the Advancement of Women*.(online), Available: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/daw/> (Accessed 22 April 2015).

Naurert, R. 2011. Stereotypes Still Keep Women from Leadership Roles. (online), Available:<http://psychcentral.com/news/2011/07/14/stereotypes-still-keep-women-from-leadership-roles/27744.html> (Accessed 22 April 2015).

Nelton, S. 2001. Men, women and leadership-management styles. *Management Journal*, 2 (45): 189-200)

Neuman, W. 2011. *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. 7<sup>th</sup> ed. Whitewater: Pearson.

Northouse, P. G. 2011. *Introduction to leadership: Concepts and Practice*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Sage Publications.

Northouse, P. G. 2015. *Leadership: Theory and practice*. London: Sage publications.

O'Leary, Z. 2004. *The Essential Guide of Doing Research*. London: Sage publication.

Oakley, J. G. 2000. Gender-based barriers to senior management positions: Understanding the Scarcity of Female CEOs. *Journal of business ethics*, 27 (4): 321-334.

Odhiambo, G. 2011. A critical analysis women and higher education leadership in Kenya:. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*,, 33 (6): 667-678.

Okoji, O. 2014. Influence of Leadership Styles on Community Development Programmes' Implementation in Rural Communities of Akwa Ibom State Nigeria. *African Research Review*, 8 (2): 83-95.

Olivier, G. 2003. Is Thabo Mbeki Africa's Saviour? *International Affairs*, 79 (4): 815-828.

Orodho, A. and Kombo, D. 2002. Research methods. *Nairobi: Kenyatta University, Institute of Open Learning*,

Pera, S. 2011. *Ethics in healthcare*.2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Capetown: Juta and Company Ltd.

Perry, E. L., Hendricks, W. and Broadbent, E. 2000. An exploration of access and treatment discrimination and job satisfaction among college graduates with and without physical disabilities. *Human Relations*, 53 (7): 923-955.

Person, D., Saunders, K. and Oganessian, K. 2014. Building South African women's leadership: A cohort model for the PhD in student affairs. *Journal of Student Affairs in Africa*, 2 (1) 235-360.

Peterkin, C. 2014. *Reasons why women are more likely to succeed in career planning as managers.* (online), Available: <http://www.companyofwomen.ca/ReasonsWhyWomenSucceedCareerPlanningas546.xa#sthash.vcutntkq.dpuf>. (Accessed 5 May 2015)

Pew Research Center Social & Demographic Trends. 2015. *Women and Leadership: Public Says Women are Equally Qualified, but Barriers Persist.* United States. (online)  
Available: [http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2015/01/14/women-and-leadership/?utm\\_expid=53098246-2.Lly4CFSVQG2lphsg-Koplg.0&utm\\_referrer=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.economist.com%2Fblogs%2Fdemocracyinamerica%2F2015%2F01%2Fwomen-and-work](http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2015/01/14/women-and-leadership/?utm_expid=53098246-2.Lly4CFSVQG2lphsg-Koplg.0&utm_referrer=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.economist.com%2Fblogs%2Fdemocracyinamerica%2F2015%2F01%2Fwomen-and-work) (Accessed 10 October 2015).

Phendla, T. 2008. The Paradox of Iuselo-lufhanga Metaphors: African Women Defining Leadership for Social Justice. *International Studies in Educational Administration (Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management)*, 36 (1): 22-40.

Phillips, A. 1997. Dealing With Difference: A Politics of Ideas Or A Politics of Presence 1. *Constellations*, 1 (1): 88-91.

Prentice, W. 1961. Understanding leadership. *Harvard Business Review*, 39 (5): 143-151.

Prichard, S. 2014. *Eleven leadership qualities of Nelson Mandela.* Available: <http://www.skipprichard.com/11-leadership-qualities-of-nelson-mandela/> (Accessed 22 April 2015).

Pride, W. and Ferrell, O. 2010. *Marketing.* Ohio: South-Western: Mason.

Purl, L. 2015. Women's input and leadership is essential for global challenges" In: *Proceedings of Women in Leadership.* Available:

<http://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2015/3/womens-input-and-leadership-is-essential-for-global-challenges> (Accessed 04 April 2015).

Quinlan, L. M. 2008. Leader Personality Characteristics and their Effects on Trust in the Organizational Setting. Degree Doctor of Philosophy. Walden University.

Ramphele, M. 2008. Diversity in leadership in higher education. Paper presented at the *Conference report of Institutional Cultures and Higher Education Leadership: Where are the Women?* University of Cape Town.

Reporter, D. M. 2015. Male-Dominated Workplaces can Make Women Ill: social Problems from being 'Token' females can Deregulate Body's Response to Stress. *Daily Mail* (online), Available: [www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article321966/male-dominated-workplaces-make-women-ill-social-problems-token-female-derugalate-body-s-response-stress-html](http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article321966/male-dominated-workplaces-make-women-ill-social-problems-token-female-derugalate-body-s-response-stress-html)

Republic of South Africa. 1996. *The Bill of Rights*, Capetown.

Rhode, D. L. 2003. *The Difference" Difference" Makes: Women and Leadership*. Stanford University Press.

Ricketts, C. and Ricketts, J. 2011. *Leadership: Personal Development and Career Success*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Cengage Publisher.

Robbins, S., Judge, T. and Sanghi, S. 2007. *Organizational Behavior Computer*. 13<sup>th</sup> England: Pearson Education.

Santos, J. 2015. *Cell C's Take a Girl Child to Work Day*.(online), Available: <http://www.cellc.co.za/girlchild#> (Accessed 10 October 2015).

Sashkin, M. and Sashkin, M. 2003. Leadership that matters: *The Critical Factors for Making a Difference in People's Lives and Organizations' Success*. San Francisco Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Schein, V. 2007. Women in Management: Reflections and Projections. *Women in Management Review*, 22 (1): 6-18.



Schwanke, D.-A. 2013. Barriers for Women to Positions of Power: How Societal and Corporate Structures, Perceptions of Leadership and Discrimination Restrict Women's Advancement to Authority. *Earth Common Journal*, 3 (2) 568-700

Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R. 2003. *Research methodology for business*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New York: John Wiley and Son.

Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R. 2010. *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. London: Wiley and Sons.

Shangase, N. and Proches, C. 2014. Leadership Challenges Facing Female Employees in the Telecommunications Industry. *Gender and Behaviour*, 12 (2): 6275-6285.

Sharma, S. 2011. *Nusrising Reseach Statistics India*: Reed Elsevier.

Sharma, Y. 2012. Transparency Needed for More Women to Become University Leaders. *Transparency Needed for More Women to Become University Leaders* (online), Available:  
<http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20120321153708931>

Shever Report. 2009. *Got Talent? It Isn't Hard to Find*.(online), Available:  
<http://shriverreport.org/got-talent-it-isnt-hard-to-find/> (Accessed 10 October 2015).

Shidiye, A. 2013. Determinants of women participation in leadership positions in National Hospital Insurance Fund in Garissa County, Kenya. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Nairobi.

Siemienska, R. 2004. Elites and women in Democratizing Post National Communist Societies. *International Review of Sociology*, (2) (1): 233-280

Silk, M. and Markula, P. 2011. *Qualitative Research for Physical Culture*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Palgrave: Macmillan.

Singh, K. 2007. *Quantative Social Resrach methods*.1<sup>st</sup> ed. India: Sage Publications

Smit, A. L. 2005. The Sex-Role Identity, Attributional Style and Self-Esteem of a Group of Female Students. Masters Degree. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.

Smith, A. M. 2008. Race and Gender in the Leadership Experiences of Three Female African American High School principals. A multiple case study. Degree Doctor in Education. Georgia Southern University.

Smith, R. 2008. Entrepreneurship, police leadership, and the investigation of crime in changing times. *Journal of Investigative Psychology and Offender Profiling*, 5 (3): 209-225.

Snowdon, G. 2011. Women still face glass ceiling. *The Guardian* (online), Available: [www.theguardian.com/society/2011/feb/21/women-glass-ceiling-still-exists-top-jobs](http://www.theguardian.com/society/2011/feb/21/women-glass-ceiling-still-exists-top-jobs) (Accessed 10 October 2015).

Snyman, N. 2013. The sex-role identities adopted by Black and White working females in South Africa. Doctoral Dissertation. University of the Witwatersrand Available: <http://wiredspace.wits.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10539/12261/Thesis%20%28final%20submission%29.pdf?sequence=2&isAllowed=y> (Accessed 22 May 2015).

Somech, A. 2005. Directive Versus Participative Leadership: Two Complementary Approaches to Managing School Effectiveness. *Africa Journal of Leadership*, 8:(12) 451-459.

Somech, A. 2006. The Effects of Leadership Style and Team Process on Performance and Innovation in Functionally Heterogeneous Teams. *Journal of management*, 32 (1): 132-157.

South Africa Democratic Teachers Union. 2014. *Policy brief promoting gender equality in higher education and research*. (online), Available: [http://www.sadtu.org.za/docs/docs/disc/2014/gender\\_equality.pdf](http://www.sadtu.org.za/docs/docs/disc/2014/gender_equality.pdf) (Accessed 22 May 2015).

South Africa Information Online. 2013. *Education in South Africa* (online), Available: <http://www.southafrica.info/about/education/education.htm#.VQbu3o6UfTo> (Accessed 15 March 2015).

South African History Online. 2015. *20 000 Women march to Union Building in Protest of Pass Laws*. (online), Available: <http://www.sahistory.org.za/dated-event/20-00-women-march-union-buildings-protest-pass-law> (Accessed 02 May 2015)

Stogdill, R. M. 1948. Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A survey of the Literature. *The Journal of psychology*, 25 (1): 35-71.

Streubert Speziale, H. J. and Carpenter, D. R. 2003. *Qualitative Research in Nursing: Advancing the Humanistic Imperative*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New York: Lippincott.

Struwig, F. W. and Stead, G. B. 2001. *Planning, Designing and Reporting Research*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Cape Town: Pearson Education South Africa.

Taiwo, O. 2013. Leadership style: Impact on Employee. Masters Degree. Lahti University of Applied Science.

Taylor, F. 2003. Analysis and Gender Stereotypes. *Teaching Sociology*, 31 (3): 300-311.

Thomson, P. and Graham, J. 2005. *A Woman's Place is in the Boardroom*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. London : Palgrave Macmillan.

Tlaiss, H. and Kauser, S. 2010. Perceived Organizational Barriers to Women's Career Advancement in Lebanon. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 25 (6): 462-496.

Trochim, W., Donnelly, J. and Arora, K. 2015. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. *Research methods: The Essential Knowledge Base*. London: Cengage Learning.

Tsai, Y. 2011. Relationship between organizational culture, leadership behavior and job satisfaction. *BMC health services research*, 11 (17): 112-130.

Tshabalala- Msimanga, M. 2009. Address by the Minister in the Presidency. In: Proceedings of *National Gender machinery Commission on the Status of Women Report Back Meeting*. South African Government Information: The Presidency.

Tsoka, E. M. and Mathipa, E. R. 2006. Possible Barriers to the Advancement of Women to Leadership Positions in the Education Profession. *South African Journal of Education*, 21 (4): 324-330.

Turner, S.G. and Maschi, T.M., 2015. Feminist and Empowerment Theory and Social Work Practice. *Journal of Social Work Practice*, 29(2): 151-162.

UNESCO. 1998. Women and Higher Education: Issues and Perspectives. (online), [http://www.ifuw.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/01/UNESCO\\_1998rpt.pdf](http://www.ifuw.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/01/UNESCO_1998rpt.pdf) (Accessed 20 April 2015).

UNESCO. 2012. *World Atlas of Gender Equality in Education* Paris. (online), Available:<http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/unesco-world-atlas-gender-education-2012.pdf> (Accessed 12 June 2015).

University of Cape Town. 2015. *Celebrating 125 years of women on campus*. Available: <http://www.uct.ac.za/dailynews/women125/> (Accessed 22 April 2015).

Veale, N. W. 2010. A Comparison Between Collaborative and Authoritative Leadership Styles of Special Education Administrators. *JAASEP*: 146.

Von Hippel, C., Wiryakusuma, C., Bowden, J. and Shochet, M. 2011. Stereotype threat and female communication styles. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*: 0146167211410439.

Vozza. 2015. *Three Situations Where Women Make Better Leaders*. Available: <http://www.fastcompany.com/3048879/strong-female-lead/three-situations-where-women-make-better-leaders> (Accessed 10 March 2016).

Watson, J. 2009. Polokwane–Taking Women One Step Forward or Two Steps Back. *Critical Review* 16 (42) 894-989.

Wayne, J., Randel, A. and Stevens, J. 2006. The role of identity and work–family support in work–family enrichment and its work-related consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69 (3): 445-461.

White, K. and Özkanlı, Ö. 2010. A comparative study of perceptions of gender and leadership in Australian and Turkish universities. *Journal of higher education policy and management*, 33 (1): 3-16.

Wiles, R., Prosser, J., Bagnoli, A., Clark, A., Davies, K., Holland, S. and Renold, E. 2008. Visual ethics: Ethical issues in visual research.

Wind G. 2014 *Feminism Types and Definitions: Liberal, Socialist, Culture and Radical*. *Critical Review of Management*. 82 (27) 180-200.

Wood, G. J. and Newton, J. 2006. “Facing the wall”-“equal” opportunity for women in management? *Equal Opportunities International*, 25 (1): 8-24.

Wood, J. 2014. *Communication in our lives*. 7<sup>th</sup> ed. London: Cengage Learning.

World Economic Forum. 2005. *Women Empowerment: Measuring the Global Gender Gap*. Available:[http://www.weforum.org/pdf/Global\\_Competitiveness\\_Reports/Reports/gender\\_gap.pdf](http://www.weforum.org/pdf/Global_Competitiveness_Reports/Reports/gender_gap.pdf) (Accessed 04 April 2015).

World Economic Forum. 2013. The Global Gender Gap Report 2013. In: Proceedings of. World Economic Forum, New York .

Yakowicz, W. 2014. How to Remove Gender Bias From the Hiring Process. *INC*. Available:<http://www.inc.com/will-yakowicz/how-to-help-end-gender-bias-while-hiring.html> (Accessed 10 October 2015).

Yam, N. 2008. Raising half the sky: work–life balance of Chinese female administrative workers. Auckland University of Technology.

Yin, R. K. 2010. *Qualitative research from start to finish*. New York: Guilford Press.

Zaccaro, S. J., Kemp, C. and Bader, P. 2004. Leader traits and attributes. *The nature of leadership*, 101: 124.

Zhang, Z., Wang, M. and Fleenor, J. W. 2011. Effects of participative leadership: the moderating role of cultural values. In: Proceedings of *Academy of Management Proceedings*. Academy of Management, 1-6.

Ziegler, M. 2003. Picture Brightens for Women in Government. *Federal Times*,

Zulu, C. 2003. Gender representation patterns in higher education management in South Africa: perspectives on higher education. *South African Journal of higher education*, 17 (1): p. 98-104.

Zulu, C. B. 2009. A comparative study of women in management in higher education in South Africa and the United Kingdom.

## **Appendices**

### **Appendix 1: Written permission letter from DUT**



Directorate for Research and Postgraduate Support  
Durban University of Technology  
Tromso Annexe, Steve Biko Campus  
P.O. Box 1334, Durban 4000  
Tel.: 031-3732576/7  
Fax: 031-3732946  
E-mail: [moyos@dut.ac.za](mailto:moyos@dut.ac.za)

24 August 2015

Ms Akhona Ngcobo  
c/o Department of Information and Corporate Management  
Durban University of Technology

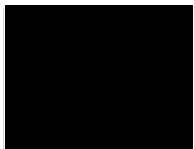
Dear Ms Ngcobo

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE DUT**

Your email correspondence in respect of the above refers. I am pleased to inform you that the Institutional Research Committee (IRC) has granted permission for you to conduct your research "Analyzing the empowerment of Women in leadership: A case study of the Durban University of Technology" at the Durban University of Technology.

We would be grateful if a summary of your key research findings can be submitted to the IRC on completion of your studies.

Kindest regards.  
Yours sincerely



**PROF. S. MOYO**  
**DIRECTOR: RESEARCH AND POSTGRADUATE SUPPORT**

**Appendix 2: Letter of Consent**



## Letter of consent

**Title of Study:** Analysing the effects of women in leadership: A case study of the Durban University of Technology.

Dear Research participant, thank you for showing interest in this study.

My name is Akhona Ngcobo, and I am presently completing my Master's degree in Commercial Administration at the Durban University of Technology. In the fulfilment of this degree, my area of research is designed to, through this study, determine what stereotypical and discriminatory perceptions of women exist in leadership. This study will identify and evaluate initiatives to empower women at the Durban University of Technology. The study will further underpin barriers faced by women in leadership and how these barriers can be addressed.

Participation is voluntary, and no employee will be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way for choosing to complete or not complete the questionnaire. Anonymity will be assured, as there will be no identifying characteristics that will lead to the exposure of individual participant's identity. While questions are asked about your personal circumstances, no identifying information, such as your name or I.D. number, is asked for, and as such, you will remain anonymous. Responses will not be used for any purpose, other than research. Informed consent is assumed by the completion of the questionnaires. However, participants will be able to withdraw from the study until such time as they submit the questionnaires. The information collected will be used to write a research report for my thesis and an electronic copy of the thesis will become widely available. Questionnaires will be stored in the Department of Information and Corporate Management for a period of five years and will thereafter, be shredded.



It is also possible that articles and presentations may be the outcome of the study. All the information about you and your responses will be kept confidential and only my supervisor and I can access it. The findings will be presented in such a way that you cannot be identified.

You will be able to withdraw from the research up until the time you agree with your transcript, by advising me. You can ask any further questions about the study that occurs to you during your participation and you will be given access to a summary of findings from the research, when it is concluded.

Should you wish to discuss this further, please feel free to contact me (073 367 0750, [ngcoboad@gmail.com](mailto:ngcoboad@gmail.com)), or my supervisor Dr KS Ngwane (081 019 8535; [ngwaneks@dut.ac.za](mailto:ngwaneks@dut.ac.za)).

Your assistance will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

Akhona Ngcobo (0733670750)

Student number: 20719987

### **Appendix 3: Questionnaire**



**Analyzing the empowerment of Women in leadership: A case of the Durban University of Technology**

**DURBAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**  
**Accounting and Informatics Faculty**  
**Researcher: Ms. Akhona Ngcobo (073 367 0750)**  
**Supervisor: Dr. K.S. Ngwane (031 373 5652)**

The aim of this study is to find what barriers hinder women from attaining leadership positions and also to identify and evaluate the initiatives to empower women at the Durban University of Technology. The completion of the survey is voluntary and does NOT require your name, address or telephone number. The questionnaire can be completed in less than 10-15 minutes.

**SECTION A**

**(Please mark with (X) in the appropriate blocks and explain where necessary)**

***RESPONDENT'S PERSONAL INFORMATION***

**BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

|                                     |  |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| <b>1. Indicate whether you are:</b> |  |
| Female                              |  |
| Male                                |  |

|               |  |
|---------------|--|
| <b>2. Age</b> |  |
| 20-24         |  |
| 25-29         |  |
| 30-34         |  |
| 35-39         |  |
| 40-44         |  |
| 45-49         |  |
| 50 and above  |  |

|   |  |
|---|--|
| <b>3. Please indicate your work experience in the higher education sector</b> |  |
|---|--|

|             |  |
|-------------|--|
| 0-5 years   |  |
| 6-10 years  |  |
| 11-15 years |  |
| +15 years   |  |

|                        |  |
|------------------------|--|
| <b>4. Race:</b>        |  |
| African                |  |
| White/European         |  |
| Coloured               |  |
| Indian/Asian           |  |
| Other (please specify) |  |

|   |  |
|---|--|
| <b>5. What position do you hold at the Durban University of Technology?</b> |  |
| Leadership (Management, Supervisor, Team leader, HODs).                     |  |
| Middle team (Officers, Lecturers, Administrator).                           |  |
| First Entry Employees (Interns, In-services training, Tutors).              |  |

|  |  |
|--|--|
| <b>6. What gender is your current leader in your department?</b> |  |
| Male   |  |
| Female   |  |

**SECTION B**

**(Please mark with (X) in the appropriate blocks to a statement that best suits your choice (opinion) about women empowerment in leadership at the University of Technology**

- SA - Strongly Agree (1)
- A - Agree (2)
- N - Neutral (3)
- D - Disagree (4)
- SD - Strongly Disagree (5)

**Q1: To determine what stereotypical and discriminatory perceptions of woman in leadership exist**

| <b>Statements</b>   | <b>Strongly Agree<br/>1</b> | <b>Agree<br/>2</b> | <b>Neutral<br/>3</b> | <b>Disagree<br/>4</b> | <b>Strongly Disagree<br/>5</b> |
|---|-----------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|
| Women leaders and managers at the Durban University of Technology are treated and respected equally as male leaders or managers |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |
| Women in leadership at the University of Technology are promoted by merit and not just by following protocol or gender quotas   |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |
| Women leadership at the University of Technology are more productive than males in leadership                                   |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |
| In my opinion, women are better communicators than men  |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |
| Cultural notion that women are not supposed to lead, influences women position in leadership in the higher education            |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |

|   |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| Gender does not have a direct influence on the success of educational leaders |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|

**Q2: To identify and evaluate initiatives to empower women at Durban University of Technology**

| <b>Statements</b>   | <b>Strongly Agree<br/>1</b> | <b>Agree<br/>2</b> | <b>Neutral<br/>3</b> | <b>Disagree 4</b> | <b>Strongly Disagree<br/>5</b> |
|---|-----------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|
| Durban University of Technology does provide an opportunity to empower and develop women in leadership and management positions   |                             |                    |                      |                   |                                |
| Women leaders at the university of Technology are emotional and make decision based on emotions   |                             |                    |                      |                   |                                |
| There is an enabling environment at the Durban University of Technology, where women are provided with opportunities to meet the employment criteria of management positions. |                             |                    |                      |                   |                                |
| I believe that there is adequate commitment from the Durban University of Technology to drive gender equity.  |                             |                    |                      |                   |                                |
| Female employees at the Durban University of Technology are encouraged to participate in initiatives that promote gender equality.  |                             |                    |                      |                   |                                |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| I feel as though women have achieved equal status in both the recruitment and hiring process of educational leadership |  |  |  |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|

**Q3: To identify barriers faced by women in leadership and how they can be addressed**

| <b>Statements</b>  | <b>Strongly Agree<br/>1</b> | <b>Agree<br/>2</b> | <b>Neutral<br/>3</b> | <b>Disagree<br/>4</b> | <b>Strongly Disagree<br/>5</b> |
|--|-----------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|
| There are more males occupying management positions than females at the University of Technology   |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |
| Women are able to cope with leadership position and also be able to take care of their families at home  |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |
| It is important to establish management development programmes, specifically for women employees   |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |
| Women are increasingly given more opportunities at the Durban University of Technology to be in more challenging positions that were previously held by men. |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |
| In my opinion are there hidden difficulties in my department, which women face that prevent them from moving to higher positions.                            |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |
| I plan to postpone/have postponed applying for an  |                             |                    |                      |                       |                                |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| educational leadership position for marriage   |  |  |  |  |  |
| Women personality trait of strictness influences women from rising to the managerial level                                       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Maternity leaves and other feminine responsibilities are impediments to selecting women as administrators in higher institutions |  |  |  |  |  |

**Section C**

**Please answer these questions and fill in the answers in the provided lines.**

**1.1 Please list barriers that you think affect women leadership in the workplace**

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

**1.2 What initiatives or programmes can be used to improve women leadership and management at the University of Technology**

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

.....  
.....

**1.3 You views, opinions and comments on female leadership**

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

**Thank you for your co-operation and assistance.**



#### Appendix 4 Descriptive Statistics

|   | Chi-Square | df | Asymp.<br>Sig. |
|---|------------|----|----------------|
| Gender  | 0.373      | 1  | .541           |
| Age   | 20.657     | 6  | .002           |
| Work experience in the higher education sector  | 21.522     | 2  | .000           |
| Race  | 60.224     | 3  | .000           |
| What position do you hold at the Durban University of Technology?   | 46.955     | 2  | .000           |
| What gender is your current leader in your department?  | 0.134      | 1  | .714           |
| Women leaders and managers at the Durban University of Technology are treated and respected equally as male leaders or managers   | 17.818     | 2  | .000           |
| Women in leadership at the University of Technology are promoted by merit and not just by following protocol or gender quotas   | 17.429     | 2  | .000           |
| Women leadership at the University of Technology are more productive than males in leadership   | 4.906      | 2  | .086           |
| In my opinion, women are better communicators than men  | 12.426     | 2  | .002           |
| Cultural notion that women are not supposed to lead, influences women position in leadership in the higher education  | 6          | 2  | .050           |
| Gender does not have a direct influence on the success of educational leaders   | 39.969     | 2  | .000           |
| Durban University of Technology does provide an opportunity to empower and develop women in leadership and management positions   | 48.031     | 2  | .000           |
| Women leaders at the university of Technology are emotional and make decision based on emotions   | 10.636     | 2  | .005           |
| There is an enabling environment at the Durban University of Technology, where women are provided with opportunities to meet the employment criteria of management positions. | 24.388     | 2  | .000           |
| I believe that there is adequate commitment from the Durban   | 35.313     | 2  | .000           |

|  |        |   |      |  |
|--|--------|---|------|--|
| University of Technology to drive gender equity.   |        |   |      |  |
| Female employees at the Durban University of Technology are encouraged to participate in initiatives that promote gender equality.                           | 45.262 | 2 | .000 |  |
| I feel as though women have achieved equal status in both the recruitment and hiring process of educational leadership                                       | 16.625 | 2 | .000 |  |
| There are more males occupying management position than females at the University of Technology  | 65.569 | 2 | .000 |  |
| Women are able to cope with leadership position and also be able to take care of their families at home  | 91.6   | 2 | .000 |  |
| It is important to establish management development programmes, specifically for women employees   | 67.373 | 2 | .000 |  |
| Women are increasingly given more opportunities at the Durban University of Technology to be in more challenging positions that were previously held by men. | 13.642 | 2 | .001 |  |
| In my opinion are there hidden difficulties in my department, which women face that prevent them from moving to higher positions.                            | 2      | 2 | .368 |  |
| I plan to postpone/have postponed applying for an educational leadership position for marriage   | 9.71   | 2 | .008 |  |
| Women personality trait of strictness influences women from rising to the managerial level   | 1.524  | 2 | .467 |  |
| Maternity leaves and other feminine responsibilities are impediments to selecting women as administrators in higher institutions                             | 1.968  | 2 | .374 |  |
|  |        |   |      |  |

|  | Chi-Square | df | Asymp. Sig. |
|--|------------|----|-------------|
| Gender   | 0,373      | 1  | ,541        |
| Age  | 20,657     | 6  | ,002        |
| Work experience in the higher education sector | 21,522     | 2  | ,000        |
| Race   | 60,224     | 3  | ,000        |

|   |        |   |      |
|---|--------|---|------|
| What position do you hold at the Durban University of Technology?   | 46,955 | 2 | ,000 |
| What gender is your current leader in your department?  | 0,134  | 1 | ,714 |
| Women leaders and managers at the Durban University of Technology are treated and respected equally as male leaders or managers   | 17,818 | 2 | ,000 |
| Women in leadership at the University of Technology are promoted by merit and not just by following protocol or gender quotas   | 17,429 | 2 | ,000 |
| Women leadership at the University of Technology are more productive than males in leadership   | 4,906  | 2 | ,086 |
| In my opinion, women are better communicators than men  | 12,426 | 2 | ,002 |
| Cultural notion that women are not supposed to lead, influences women position in leadership in the higher education  | 6      | 2 | ,050 |
| Gender does not have a direct influence on the success of educational leaders   | 39,969 | 2 | ,000 |
| Durban University of Technology does provide an opportunity to empower and develop women in leadership and management positions   | 48,031 | 2 | ,000 |
| Women leaders at the university of Technology are emotional and make decision based on emotions   | 10,636 | 2 | ,005 |
| There is an enabling environment at the Durban University of Technology, where women are provided with opportunities to meet the employment criteria of management positions. | 24,388 | 2 | ,000 |
| I believe that there is adequate commitment from the Durban University of Technology to drive gender equity.  | 35,313 | 2 | ,000 |
| Female employees at the Durban University of Technology are encouraged to participate in initiatives that promote gender equality.  | 45,262 | 2 | ,000 |
| I feel as though women have achieved equal status in both the recruitment and hiring process of educational leadership  | 16,625 | 2 | ,000 |
| There are more males occupying management position than females at the University of Technology   | 65,569 | 2 | ,000 |
| Women are able to cope with leadership position and also be able to take care of their families at home   | 91,6   | 2 | ,000 |

|  |        |   |      |
|--|--------|---|------|
| It is important to establish management development programmes, specifically for women employees   | 67,373 | 2 | ,000 |
| Women are increasingly given more opportunities at the Durban University of Technology to be in more challenging positions that were previously held by men. | 13,642 | 2 | ,001 |
| In my opinion are there hidden difficulties in my department, which women face that prevent them from moving to higher positions.                            | 2      | 2 | ,368 |
| I plan to postpone/have postponed applying for an educational leadership position for marriage   | 9,71   | 2 | ,008 |
| Women personality trait of strictness influences women from rising to the managerial level   | 1,524  | 2 | ,467 |
| Maternity leaves and other feminine responsibilities are impediments to selecting women as administrators in higher institutions                             | 1,968  | 2 | ,374 |