

**WOMEN IN TOP ACADEMIC MANAGEMENT IN TECHNIKONS:
A FEMINIST NARRATIVE INTERPRETATION**

By

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**Thesis submitted in compliance with the requirements
for the Doctoral Degree in Technology: Education (Management)
at Durban Institute of Technology**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere thanks and appreciation go to the following:

- My Saviour, Jesus Christ, for strength and endurance: "I can do everything through him who gives me strength" (Phil. 4:13).
- Mrs Prosser, my supervisor, for guidance, expertise and continuous patience.
- Prof. Gawe, my co-supervisor, for her support and assistance.
- Pat Coxon, a dear friend, for her never failing encouragement, motivation and care.
- Sharon Elam, for being helpful and willing with the technical aspects.

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I declare that this thesis is my own work and that all sources I have used have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

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FEBRUARY 2004

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ABSTRACT

This study focused on women in Technikons who hold status positions as Dean or higher in the academic management hierarchy and aimed at uncovering those attributes which contributed to their success in breaking the "glass ceiling". The gender imbalance in their career paths highlighted the need to identify those attributes so that ways could be found to increase the representation of professional women in leadership and management position.

The experiences and struggles of women in Third World Countries, such as South Africa, unfold in a very different context from those of women in First World Countries. As this research is about women for women and gives "voice" to those women who participated in this project, attention must be paid to the knowledge and theory that incorporates women's experience and perspectives. It is therefore appropriate to view the marginalisation of women and hence their struggle for equality of opportunity in Technikon management from a feminist viewpoint.

Narrative enquiry using primarily semi-structured in-depth interviews provided the data which was processed in terms of a categorical-content perspective. The relevant themes identified were interpreted by the researcher and used to formulate grounded theory.

The results of this research study drew attention to the importance of the possession of emotional competencies and attributes, that is, the importance of emotional intelligence as an empowering attribute for women managers in academe. This is of special significance in that these attributes can be learned. It is imperative that women in management be provided with opportunities to develop these qualities and

practise these skills associated with them. Technikons should investigate mechanisms and strategies to bring about a new way of managing which will offer women the opportunity to participate in top academic decision-making positions.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CGE	Commission of Gender Equality
CSD	Commission of Sustainable Development
(ed).	Edited by
EI	Emotional Intelligence
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
(On-line).	On-line articles in electronic media
SADC	Southern African Development Community Region

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CHAPTER ONE

"If the first woman God ever made was strong enough to turn the world upside down all alone, these women together ought to be able to turn it back and get it right-side up again. And now that they are asking to do it, the men better let them."

(Sojourner Truth in Bristow)

TITLE

**A STUDY OF: WOMEN IN TOP ACADEMIC MANAGEMENT IN
TECHNIKONS: A FEMINIST NARRATIVE INTERPRETATION**

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The report of the Secretary General , United Nations Commission on the Status of Women: Priority Themes: Equality(1995:9) states that worldwide: "In virtually all organisations – public or private, large or small, national or international, rural or urban- women are entering the lower ranks of management but rarely advancing to the top." The statistics quoted show that women represent an estimated 40% of the workforce but less than 20% of management and 6% or less of senior management.

In addressing the positions of women academic managers in higher educational institutions the position is no different from that in industry and commerce in terms of the under representation of women in senior management positions.

Catherine Ward (September, 1998) refers in her article to the May 1998 report issued by the International Labour Organisation which reveals the following figures about business women: women in South Africa hold less than 5% of top jobs in big corporations; a survey of 70,000 of the largest German companies shows that 1% - 3% of top executives and board members are women ;in the United States women

hold just over 2% high-ranking positions in 500 of the largest companies. Nevertheless, these figures represent an explosion in the number of women in the past two decades who have become major players in the global market.

Despite the reality of the "glass ceiling," women are breaking through to top management positions, but very slowly. Gina Wisker (1996: 75) refers to the "inspiring number of women higher education vice-chancellors and other leaders 6VCs in all" in the United Kingdom.

Lund in Onsongo (2002) reveals in a Commonwealth Higher Education Management Service survey report that across the Commonwealth, the average percentage of women employed as full-time academic staff, was 24%. An update done of the survey in 2000, according to Onsongo (2002), reveals that the status of women in senior management and academic positions in Commonwealth universities had improved only marginally.

Table 1: Distribution of Men and Women by Occupation Category in Commonwealth Universities in 1997-2000

Status	1997			2000		
	Women	As%	Total	Women	As%	Total
VCs	50	8.3%	600	54	9.0%	602
DVCs	NA	NA	NA	329	19.8%	1664
Heads of Admin	96	18.8%	511	79	14.9%	531
Finance Officers	34	10.1%	337	45	12.0%	374
Deans	238	13.0%	1827	308	14.3%	2160
Heads/Directors	1234	15.2%	8123	2686	17.9%	15017
Librarian	108	36.5%	296	126	37.2%	339

(Singh in Onsongo, 2002: 4)

Key: % = Academic Staff (percentage)

Total = Male and Female

Onsongo states that there was no discernible difference between the First World Countries of the Commonwealth and their counterparts in Third World Countries.

In the same survey, Kenyan Universities (Kenya being a Third World Country of the Commonwealth) both private and public, were found to have no women Vice-Chancellors, nor Deputy Vice-Chancellors. There were only two female Deans of Faculty. The situation remains the same in 2002 in most Kenyan public and private universities.

Table 2: Status of Women in Management in Kenyan Public Universities as at July 2002.

Position	M	F	T	%
VC	6	0	6	0%
DVC	13	2	15	13.3%
Registrar	14	0	14	0%
Principal	7	2	9	22.2%
Director	42	18	60	30%
Dean of students	3	2	5	40%
Dean of faculty	38	5	43	11.6%
Finance Officer	6	0	6	0%
Librarian	6	0	6	0%
HOD	208	35	243	14.4%
Council members	119	18	137	13.1%

(Onsongo, 2002: 5)

Key: M = Male

F = Female

% = Percentage of Academic Staff

**Table 3: Status of Women in Management in Four Kenyan Private Universities
as at July 2002**

Position	M	F	T	%
VC	3	1	4	10%
DVC	8	1	9	11.1%
Registrar	2	3	5	5%
Human resource manag	2	1	3	33.3%
Director	2	1	3	33.3%
Dean of students	2	1	3	33.3%
Dean of faculty	11	1	12	8.3%
Finance Officer	4	0	4	0%
Librarian	2	2	4	50%
HOD	35	17	52	32.7%
Total	71	28	99	100%

(Onsongo, 2002:15)

Statistics from the world's principal associations of universities stress the need to improve the presence of women at the top in higher education:

Table 4: Statistics from the World's Principal Associations of Universities

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 ¹ %
Association of French-speaking Universities	270	5-7%
Association of European Universities	497	6-8%
Association of Universities of Asia and the Pacific	140 ²	5%-
Inter-American Organization for Higher Education	350	5% ³
Union des Universidades de America Latina	177	47

¹ 10 in non-Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) member universities

² founding member universities

³ 14% in Brazil

(UNESCO Secretariat, 1998: 10)

References are being made in this study to First World Countries and Third World Countries. First World refers to Europe, North America and Japan in which societies have developed economically, socially, politically and technologically. These highly industrialised countries are technotronically orientated, utilising computers and information technology. Third World refers to Africa, Asia and Latin America which are in the process of developing economically, politically and socially from rural to industrial societies. These are not exact definitions as there are enclaves of more highly developed sections of the population in these developing countries. In the context of this study, South Africa, although a Third World Country, does have First World enclaves.

Data on the position of women in South African universities in senior management positions reveal that only 2,1% of Deans of Faculties are women (UNESCO Secretariat, 1998). Of the 21 universities in South Africa only three have women as Vice-Chancellors. Technikons have one. Regardless of government policies on gender equity, female university academics still face the "glass ceiling". A request for data from the 21 universities by **The Teacher** (Macfarlane and Groenewald, 2002) to show how many female academics are employed at each level in South African universities, revealed that women account for between 30% and 40% of all full-time staff. About 40% of the staff at the lecturer and junior lecturer level are women but at the other end of the scale, only about 10% of women are members of senates – the most senior of academic bodies.

Table 5: Gender Inequality: Post Allocation at Universities Around South Africa

	Full-time academic staff	Part-time academic staff	Senior Manage ment	Senate	Deans	Heads of Dept/Sch ools	Professor s Associate Professor s	Senior Lecturers	Lecturers / Junior Lecturers
Wits	499 (1167)	298 (739)	1 (11)	Approx 20 (230)	0 (37)	11 (37)	58 (281)	* (1)	380 (673)
Stellenbosch	243 (754)	* (1)	0 (9)	11 (218)	0 (9)	* (1)	* (1)	* (1)	* (1)
UCT	209 (648)	434 (930)	1 (5)	37 (261)	0 (6)	9 (64)	59 (378)	97 (242)	229 (420)
Pretoria	502 (1243)	* (1)	1 (8)	24 (166)	1 (8)	21 (67)	67 (354)	143 (339)	236 (1378)
North West	61 (197)	* (1)	1 (2)	18 (70)	2 (5)	9 (41)	1 (27)	6 (36)	49 (88)
Zululand	90 (1255)	12 (37)	0 (5)	15 (88)	2 (7)	* (1)	7 (34)	17 (62)	64 (152)
Potchefstroom	176 (526)	92 (260)	0 (7)	11 (110)	1 (9)	6 (47)	20 (179)	59 (159)	97 (162)
Natal	272 (738)	34 (100)	0 (9)	* (1)	0 (10)	14 (96)	48 (284)	79 (235)	154 (279)
Rhodes	99 (313)	35 (69)	1 (13)	19 (103)	0 (7)	12 (52)	14 (101)	23 (78)	97 (201)
Durban-Westville	136 (349)	48 (131)	2 (5)	46 (160)	0 (4)	6 (20)	10 (57)	18 (59)	108 (233)

* figures
unavailable

Women

Total

(Macfarlane and Groenewald, 2002: 17)

The newly appointed Vice-Chancellor of the University of North West, Ngoato Takalo, has stated: "The absence of women in top decision-making and influential positions and structures in higher educational institutions (S.A.) is critical". She believes that the "right" combination of academic and administrative skills, which she possesses, is needed for "the new breed of Vice-Chancellors" (Takalo, 2001: 10). The Department of Education released Personpower Statistics (Pretoria Dec., 1998), a headcount, according to personnel category, of Technikon personnel (excluding Technikon SA) with permanent appointments. The Category 1.2 labelled Executive/Administrative/Managerial professionals includes top management personnel across all ambits, with a total of 35 women and 306 men. To ascertain the accurate numbers of women in top academic management, i.e., Deans or higher in the academic management hierarchy, the writer telephonically contacted each Technikon (Sept. 2001). Only nine women held such positions in Technikons in South Africa: two at Technikon Natal; two at M.L. Sultan; two at Cape Technikon; two at Port Elizabeth Technikon (one of whom was in an "acting" capacity at that time); one at Witwatersrand Technikon (2001). It should also be noted that in 2002 Technikon Natal and M.L. Sultan Technikon merged as the Durban Institute of Technology. Judging by the information supplied above there is clearly a need to improve the status and representation of women in top academic management positions in Technikons. This is an area worthy of attention and in keeping with the necessary empowerment and equity of women in Third World Countries, a position supported by the South African Government which, in its affirmative action policy, emphasises the centrality of gender equality in all institutions.

1.2 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study will focus on women in Technikons who hold status positions in the academic programme framework of Dean or higher in the academic management hierarchy and on determining and uncovering the factors that contributed to their success in breaking the "glass ceiling", the invisible barrier which mitigates against women's advancement to senior management positions. The investigation of males who hold these positions will not be included in this study. As men are the gatekeepers to positions of promotions, there is no point in investigating their attributes from a feminist perspective. Any generalisations and conclusions reached in this study could provide opportunities for further longitudinal studies and research of women in other fields of endeavour.

Only Technikons are to be investigated for two reasons: firstly, the criteria for status promotion positions is very differently rated and achieved in them in comparison with other kinds of tertiary institutions; secondly, as research data will also be accumulated through participant observation of personnel in Technikons, the researcher's lengthy and extensive experience in these institutions is significant. The progress of this group of women in promotion positions who are in the minority has been slow but progress is being made. New laws are affecting change but legislation in itself is insufficient to explain why women are moving at such a slow pace to positions in academic top management and leadership positions in Technikons. Nevertheless, legislation has been the starting point in sensitising people to gender issues.

Thus, since 1994 South Africa has witnessed the setting up of an Office on the Status of Women in the State President's office, the Commission of Gender Equality (CGE) a Parliamentary Committee On The Improvement Of The Quality Of Life And The Status Of Women as well as a system of "Gender Focal Points" in government departments and ministries. There are also many women's organisations and Non-Government Organisations concerned with gender matters in South Africa.

Studies in First World Countries indicate that not only political factors, but also cultural, personal and social reasons are among the contributing factors to an awareness of gender issues. Information of this kind would also be of importance to educational institutions in South Africa because facilitating the educational preparation of women for positions of top management will assist in correcting institutional gender imbalances (the under-representation of women) in management. Women academics in Technikons experienced prejudice in the promotion stakes exacerbated by male dominance in courses offered in which few women participated, e.g., engineering and science. Black women also found themselves in a disadvantaged position in Technikons and it is only because of government demands for equity that the "glass ceiling" for them has been broken. The empowerment of South African women, through a process of social and educational transformation, has been considered imperative since the ending of apartheid in 1994. Accordingly, this study will also attempt to identify strategies that women can personally embark on, enabling them to seize opportunities and to face challenges from experiences uncovered by this research .

1.3 NEED FOR THE STUDY

Over the past 20 years more women have been entering the workplace and moving at all levels into decision-making positions. Yet the Report of the Hansard Society's Commission on **Women at the Top** (1990) in the United Kingdom and the **Glass Ceiling Commission** under Civil Rights Legislation (1991) in the United States of America reveal that, despite trends in progress, women are still largely absent from top decision-making and management positions, both at national and international levels. In fact, globally, the call to promote gender equity in the workplace has been approached only by formulating legislation and distributing policy documents but not by effective action.

Nevertheless, it is admitted that the focus on promoting the economic and political empowerment of women in developing countries has begun. Various agencies, under the auspices of the United Nations, have been developed to promote the advancement of women. This initiative has been followed by many countries, including South Africa, all concerned with addressing the under-representation of women in top management positions and devising strategies for women's empowerment.

Research on gender in educational management in Technikons is sparse (Greyvenstein and van der Westhuizen, 1992). A report commissioned from the Gender Equity Task Team, to report on aspects of gender equity in South Africa (1996), highlights the need to identify the means of correcting gender imbalance in career paths and finding strategies for increasing the representation of women in professional leadership and management positions.

The personnel audits conducted in 1996 by the Task Team on Education Management, which had been set up by the Department of Education in Pretoria, emphasises the need for further research on "women in management": The dearth of studies and the limited information available relating to this field, is of concern. In studying these reports, the researcher was faced with a central question: to what do women in top management positions (in Technikons, for example) attribute their success in breaking through the "glass ceiling"? Was this: the "right" mix of skills; "tokenism"; affirmative action; political and cultural factors; personality traits or leaders' styles? If South Africa is achieve gender equity then we shall have to discover the secret of why some women have made it to the top. A study on a microlevel in Technikons may provide valuable information. In the writer's view, engagement in narrative enquiry with the primary sources via a feminist approach, is the most reliable means of unearthing the reasons why some women have succeeded in achieving high executive status in Technikons. This, it is hoped, will help other women to do the same and so organisations will be able to correct the gender imbalance in senior management positions.

The UNESCO/Commonwealth Secretariat study entitled **Higher Education and Women: Issues and Perspectives** (1998) identifies the principal barriers preventing the participation of women in the decision-making arena, among which are:

- discriminatory appointment and promotion practices;
- alienation from the male culture and continued resistance to women in management positions;
- propagation of the "glass ceiling" syndrome, which hinders the advancement of women in management.

This study also refers to their finding that "the presence of a critical mass of women in the decision-making process in higher education remains vastly inadequate". This report, prepared for the **World Conference on Higher Education (1998)** lists as one of its chief aims to put forward "...measures to ensure that highly qualified women will participate fully in the decision-making process and thus strengthening their leadership capacities becomes vital." In addition, it recommends that by 2010, 50% of all Rectors/Vice-Chancellors should be women and that 50% of higher education governing bodies (e.g. Senates, Councils in higher education institutions) should also be women.

The United Nations Commission on the Status of Women (UN, 1995: 20) focuses on two Priority Themes, that is Equality and Development. In both, the main aims are to: "promote research and studies, on all aspects, of women in management" and to "establish supportive mechanisms to enable women to be more active politically and in leadership roles". The Commission further states that administrative reforms are necessary to increase the number of female principals, administrators and planners at all levels.

The United Nations Report on the "**Women and Economic Decision-Making in International Financial Institutions and Transnational Corporations**" (1996), states that a "critical mass" of women should be represented at all levels in decision-making processes in all organisations. It defines "critical mass" as "at least one third representative of women". The Report also refers to the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing (1995), which identified the representation of women as "negligible" in top positions in influential institutions and organizations and requested commitment and action to achieve the access of women to such positions.

At Beijing Dr Ariane Berthoin Antal, the United Nations consultant, referred in her paper to the fact that "women in management" is a "recent topic" for research, therefore information is "weak". She proposed that the meeting should set about ways to bring about change. In addition Ms Dawn Mokhobo referred specifically to women in South Africa, reminding those present of President Mandela's address of May, 1994, when he stated: "Freedom cannot be achieved unless women have been emancipated from all forms of oppression" (1995:8). She stressed that the workplace environment was limiting to women and that there were "few women in the pipeline for management" in all organizations in South Africa(1995:9).She further stressed the need for women to work together to overcome the obstacles they faced.

Women need to find ways of getting to the top in management and decision-making positions, thus enabling them to compete more effectively for senior roles. According to a preview by Sadie (2001:67-75) of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action by Governments in the Southern African Development Community Region (SADC), African women have made little progress in accessing decision-making since the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing (1995). In a review of women's power and decision-making, she presents a summary table of women in the Southern African Development Community Region (SADC):

Table 6: Summary of Women in Decision-Making in the SADC Region

Country	Parliament		Women Parliament %	Women Cabinet %	Women Deputy Ministers
	Seats	Women			
Angola	220	36	16.4	12.9 (4)	14.3 (6)
Botswana	44	8	18	14.5	?
DRC	-	-	-	-	-
Lesotho	80	3	3.8	?	0
Malawi	193	16	8.3	9	22.9
Mauritius	62	5	8	8	-
Mozambique	250	75	30	?	?
Namibia	72	18	25	?	?
South Africa	4000	119	29.8	29.6	61.5
Seychelles	34	8	23.5	25	No such posts
Swaziland	65	2	3.1	?	-
Tanzania	275	45	16.4	13	13
Zambia	158	16	10.1	8.3	7.3
Zimbabwe	150	15	10	4.8	-
TOTAL	2003	366	18.3		

(Figures updated for all elections held up to 30 June 2000)

(in Sadie, Agenda, 47, 2001: 71)

These figures show that the average figure for women in parliament for the SADC region is 19%, a figure which outstrips the Americas and Europe. However six, nearly half of the SADC countries, have only 10% or less representation by women.

Sadie (2001: 72) writes, "The variance in the numbers of women represented in parliament may be explained by a number of factors, one of the most important being deeply entrenched patriarchal attitudes". It appears that the representation of women at local government level in SADC countries is even lower than at national levels concerning the decision-making situation of women.

Statistics on the Status of Women (2001) quote the 1994 World Survey on the Role of Women in Development, which calculate that it would take 475 years for women to reach equality with men as senior managers. Perhaps Sadie's statistics (Table 6) will be slow to change in women's favour!

The need to encourage women to move into management is supported by the Commission of Sustainable Development (CSD) NGO Women's Caucus which, in addressing **Women and Sustainable Development for 2000 – 2002**

(February 2000: 14), identified gaps and emerging issues. One of the three pillars of sustainable development is categorised as "social equity". This refers to incorporating a gender perspective in all planning and decision-making processes. The Women's Caucus feels that of great importance is the outreach into academic communities, which can contribute to the initiative of engaging women in gender issues and support women's collaboration with research.

Recently nine high population countries, the E-9 countries (Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria and Pakistan) were surveyed by UNESCO in terms of the progress made in past years in education and the social empowerment of women. The Report states that these "... nations have applied some ingenious policies that could be models for other countries" (Khouri-Dagher, 2001: 10).

The presence of women teachers in these countries has played a big part in meeting the needs of their communities. The Report also reveals that in E-9 countries there are a large number of women in primary education, fewer however, in secondary schools and only a small number in teaching positions in universities.

The statistics quoted in the six tables presented in this section are from universities, on which most of the focus in tertiary education has been in South Africa. Statistics are scarce for Technikons. Nevertheless, from 1995 when Technikons were granted degree-conferring status, both types of tertiary establishments (Technikons and universities) hold equal rank in higher education so it can be assumed that the statistics for universities will become applicable to Technikons.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The overall aim of this study is to trace what women in top academic management regard as those significant changes, events and turning points which acted as the pivotal points in their attainment of top management posts in Technikons. How did they get there? What contributed to their success? What attributes do they consider important for women in top academic management to possess? What do they see as the responsibilities of Technikons in facilitating such opportunities? What has it taken for women in Technikons to break through the "glass ceiling" in to top management? Their narratives concerning their specific and detailed professional experiences, as seen through the filter of the researcher's interpretation, will offer a view of how the the irreplaceable role of women in top management positions in Technikons may be achieved. This is a feminist interpretation which answers the call for women to reflect on feminist ontology, epistemology and methodology, formulated from the experiences of women in a Third World context relevant to this study.

The sharing by these Third World Women of their professional experiences in gaining promotion to top management positions will provide information for all sisters on what is needed to break through the "glass ceiling". Professional women, on similar career paths, may thus be able, through their common experiences and aspirations, to share their knowledge with others. This exchange of information should serve generally to encourage women, empower them and support them in their struggle. In this way the barriers to women's advancement may be removed and their status and representation improved.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Approaches to feminist methods and perspectives are diverse, but the writer, in the context of this study, will focus on the need for equality of opportunity in the promotion stakes. By exploring an offering of participatory feminist perspective and interpretation (a view which is crucial in challenging the dominant power culture in Technikons) such academic reflections and insights can provide valuable information for women in a field where quantification of opportunities is difficult, if not impossible. Chapter Two will expose in full the approach the researcher has taken. As this research is about women and for women, in granting voice to women, who are the subjects of this research, attention must be paid to the knowledge and theory that best incorporates women's experiences and perspectives. "Among other similarities, participatory and feminist research agree that knowledge which is socially constructed, is power, and both are committed to empowering oppressed peoples" (Maquire in Park *et al.*, 1993: 163).

The reality of economic, political and technological changes, which characterize life today, necessitates a new form of feminism for women in Third World Countries.

The struggle for equality of opportunity in the workplace in a Developing Country, such as South Africa, is central to the aspect of feminism embraced by the researcher. There is a need to construct definitions of feminism that allow for autonomy and equality which have relevance to Third World Women. South Africa with its multi-cultural society is unique in its cultural differences and historical backgrounds. Thus, South African "feminism" will emerge as very different from that anywhere else in the world.

The experiences and struggles of women in Third World Countries, such as South Africa, unfold in a very different context from those of First World Countries (C. Johnson Odum in Mohanty *et al.*, 1991: 314). It is therefore imperative that the marginalisation of women and hence their struggle for equality of opportunity in Technikon management is viewed from this Third World and South African perspective. Moreover, it is time women academics involved themselves in such research (Padayachee, 1997), developing findings to empower women in their movement up the managerial ladder. Through the process of feminist interpretation women subjects in this research will, in essence, be contributing to constructing a body of relevant feminist theory. Dr Dolina Dowling (1997: 17) states: "We need a theory that recognises the unique difference as well as the wide diversity of South African women's backgrounds and experiences."

As the number of subjects, who qualified for this research, were few in number (Department of Education, Personpower Statistics, Pretoria, 1998) the most appropriate feminist research methodology to be applied was that of narrative enquiry. As feminist researchers seek to reduce the power imbalance inherent in the relationship between researcher and subject, the subjects became Participants in this search for knowledge as they and the researcher interacted on a non-hierarchical plane (Townsend, 1992).

Feminist research was suitable for the following reasons. Firstly, it was appropriate for studying topics about which little was known especially for example, where women are central to the issues. Secondly, their life histories indicate what the Participants themselves considered relevant to the research project. Thirdly, this approach helped in the understanding of time and place in the social context of each Participant. Finally, by analysing data from the lived experience of the Participants, the researcher began to understand how they constructed their worlds and the dynamics of their relationships.

The detailed, specific information of a very personal and unique nature, required in this research, was best gained by the women's "stories", in a real context. The researcher selected to report in the third person in keeping with traditional research but each Participant told her story in her own words and so provided information about the factors contributing to her success. This was then used by the writer, reporting in the third person to answer the central question of this research, what factors, do they believe contributed to their success in breaking through the "glass ceiling".

Narrative enquiry, which has been increasingly implemented in the past fifteen years in the social sciences, can be used in both basic and applied research. Support for the use of narrative research began as far back as Freud, in the discipline of psychotherapy. In the 1940s it was supported, in principle, in the laboratory work of researchers such as Michotte, Heider and Simmel (Giovannoli, 2000). After World War 2 and throughout the 1960s it dominated the field of psychological enquiry. Narrative enquiry is "stories lived and told" in the investigation of real life problems. It is a method of explaining and understanding the inner world of individuals. Lieblich *et al.* (1998: 2) offer the following definition: "Narrative research ... refers to any study that uses or analyses narrative materials. The data may be collected as a story (a life story provided in an interview or a literary work) or in a different manner (field notes of an anthropologist who writes up his or her observations as a narrative or in personal letters). It may be the object of the research or a means for the study of another question. It may be used for comparison among groups to learn about a social phenomenon or historical period or to explore a personality". In this study semi-structured, in-depth interviews will be used with, if necessary, follow-up interviews later, to provide further clarity. Reissman (1993) advises a mixture of open-ended and close-ended questions or self-administered questionnaires in the interviewing process.

Qualitative data, which aims at discovering the meaning events have for the individuals who experience them, is interpretive by nature. A characteristic of qualitative research is that it demands samples of people who are situated within their specified context.

Triangulation, the mixing of qualitative and quantitative methods, will be used to explain the richness and complexity of the data by studying data from more than one standpoint and so, in contributing to the verification and validation of the data collected, heighten their credibility. Stories will be taped, with permission of the Participants. For convenience, those Participants, who are comfortable with the use of electronic mail, can communicate via that medium.

As has already been stated the number of Participants is small so purposive sampling will be used which is consistent with an approach where the number of Participants is less important than the issues being investigated (Berg, 1998:45).

1.6 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

After the interviews have been transcribed, the researcher will set about identifying the relevant themes using primarily the inductive approach, because it is the most fundamental approach in developing themes and codes, particularly when the data is seen through the filter of the researcher's own experiences. The stories will be processed in terms the categorical-content perspective developed by Lieblich *et al.* (1998). A discussion of these results will be used to formulate "grounded theory" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) to address the issues in this study, especially as narrative research does not attempt to develop generalisable laws. Grounded Theory as a qualitative research method relies on textual data (Foster, 1994:93) so fits well with the aims of this study to uncover the qualities or competencies which female leaders in Technikons have which may be indicative of the qualities necessary for promotion to top academic management. These qualities ,which fall within the realm of emotional intelligence, will be discussed fully in this study as they emerge from the data.

Narrative methodology does not lend itself to a standardised set of technical procedures and neither does it attempt to develop generalisable laws that remain consistent if replicated. The interpretation cannot aim at production and control but does become grounded in a way that the results are valid and accepted theory. Grounded theory, developed by Glaser and Strauss(1967), is a method of revealing the basic social and structural processes that account for most of the variation in behaviour. The theory developed from this process is called a theory because it explains or predicts something (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:31).

The practical application of grounded theory requires the development of theory that will encompass at least four highly related properties: the theory must fit the field in which it will be used; it must be easily understandable by laymen in the field in which it will be used; it must be sufficiently general to apply to the specific field; it must provide the user of the theory partial control over the situation in which it is to be used (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:237). Such theory Glaser states "gives a conceptual grasp by accounting for and interpreting substantive patterns of action which provide a sense of understanding and control and an access for action and modicum changes."(1992:14).

1.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has set the parameters of this research study. The Chapter to follow, Chapter Two, will discuss in full the methodology applied in this study.

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CHAPTER TWO

"It is better to light a candle than to curse the darkness"

(Ghanaian Proverb)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As referred to in Chapter One, this study will employ a feminist approach in method, methodology and interpretation. In the context of this study when researching the attributes of women in senior management positions in Technikons, who have broken through the "glass ceiling" in the promotion stakes, a feminist perspective is not only desirable, but appropriate as such an approach takes women's experiences, needs and interest into account. The aim of the feminist perspective in South Africa today is not to invest women with special privileges but to empower women in academic management positions by applying a process of social and educational transformation. Feminists (Bowles and Klein, 1983; Mohanty, Russo and Lourdes, 1991; Bell, 1993; Alcoff and Potter, 1993; Delgado, 1997; Gamble, 1997) believe that traditional theory has failed to provide a useful and effective model to identify women's development and progress, hence, the emergence of feminist theoretical assumptions and practices which have relevance and value for their research.

2.2 INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH IN GENERAL

Research is systematic inquiry to discover and interpret new knowledge that will add to the domain of knowledge. Theory is an organised way of thinking about a subject which tries to explain and predict behaviour on the basis of its concepts. The definition of the concepts, upon which the theory will depend comes from our experiences which differ from one social context to another. Theories originate from the imagination, creativity and speculation and must be able to withstand criticism if we are to accept them as truths of reality. Reality is explained by cause-and-effect relationships. This reality is approached through language.

“Science” is the term used to refer to a specific body of knowledge that has evolved over time by scientists who are involved in scientific enquiry and research. Scientific knowledge and theories cannot be conclusively proved but rationality permits theories to be accepted if they can withstand criticism, which is objective in nature. Using scientific objectivity allows researchers to stand at a distance and gain knowledge through empirical study. Objectivity does not imply neutrality. It arises from shared, intersubjective agreements about the norms of enquiry and the standards of rationality. What is important is that decisions are made in an open critical community where there is freedom to criticise and entertain a plurality of views and where all can participate equally in the process.

Objectivity in research means taking decisions and making judgements to avoid bias and error during each stage of the research process. Problems which arise from practical experiences are subject to scientific enquiry to discover the truth, to produce knowledge or to solve social problems. In searching for the valid or truthful

conclusions objectivity is a precondition. In addition, the key criterion for data collection is reliability which demands consistency in the method of data collection.

The qualitative approach to research is used to understand and describe the world of human experience. Central to this approach is the belief that people give meaning to their world through their experiences which are studied in a historical and social context. There can therefore be multiple realities. Qualitative researchers look for enlightenment, understanding and extrapolation to similar contexts. Corbin in Strauss and Corbin (1990) supports the use of the qualitative approach when one needs to understand occurrences or persons about which little is known or when one needs to gain new perspectives about occurrences about which much is known but where more in-depth information is needed which cannot be conveyed quantitatively when description or interpretation is required.

Qualitative research uses the natural context of the data which the researcher observes, describes and interprets. The researcher becomes an integral part of the research process not only in the collection of data but also in the interpretation and description of the material which emerges from the experiences of the researched. Inductive data analysis is used mainly. Research data is recorded using expressive language and "the presence of voice in the text" (Eisner, 1991: 36).

Qualitative research is criticised for its lack of objectivity and generalisations but the primary goal of qualitative research is the generation of theory rather than theory testing. Glaser and Strauss (1967:62), in their "grounded theory" approach, view theory as an "error-developing entity" and say that if theory is "grounded" it can be applicable to a multitude of different situations within the substantive (empirical) area.

This form of qualitative research is designed to discover meaning and understanding and not to verify truth or predict outcomes therefore it needs to meet two demands of justification: the truth of the findings and the accountability of the researcher. Van der Mescht (2002) draws attention to the importance of understanding that reality is socially constructed (humans make their own reality), contested (they have different views and understandings), unstable (experiences are constantly changing) and value-bound (we all attribute different values and views to our interactions). In consideration of these attributes, qualitative research is as valid and authentic as the quantitative approach.

The conflict between quantitative and qualitative research is not necessarily a real conflict (Mouton, 1996). Most researchers accept that both approaches are trustworthy and that the choice for their inclusion in a project is determined by the specific research problem. Moreover, it may be appropriate at times to combine an empirical approach in methodology with a qualitative approach in developing theory. Both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are valuable in social science research and able to reveal the richest data in a setting or situation; both start from the interests of researcher: the topic and the field; both approaches search for the "truth". In addition the qualitative approach, by including the Participants in the process, ensures that the data will be accurate and representative of the reality of the situation. The outcome of research should always be to capture the best representation of social reality.

2.3 FEMINIST RESEARCH

Feminist researchers challenge traditional social science research. They argue that qualitative and quantitative research models are biased because they present distorted knowledge about the world. They point out that feminist research is concerned with challenging gender inequalities in the social world and is thus concerned with the real life stories women present about themselves. Cook (1983:37) sums up feminist methodology as having four basic characteristics: it acknowledges that there are gaps in social knowledge about women's issues; it stresses the importance of the feminist researcher; it is constantly aware of the need to reformulate existing concepts to take into account women's experiences; it understands how the kinds of questions asked influence research results.

Such an approach suggests that how and why research is done is determined by male bias and that bias shapes the interpretation of the data. Harding (1987: 9) states that what makes feminist research "feminist" is studying women from their own perspective by a researcher, who becomes part of the researched subject and whose interpretation of the data is considered credible.

Kelly *et al.* in Maynard and Purvis (1995: 32-44) discuss what have become the key "definers" of feminist research:

Firstly, "Feminist research is research on and with women". It involves direct contact with women from whom information is obtained directly.

Secondly, "Feminist research uses qualitative methods." This involves face-to-face in-depth interviews. In addition, triangulation is used to capture a more holistic portrait of the Participants.

Thirdly, "Feminist research should be empowering for the Participants." It should bring about transformation, create individual change and thus provide understanding of women's issues.

Fourthly, "Feminist research is directed towards social change." Of importance here is consciousness raising and the creation of useful information to deal with women's struggle.

What makes research "feminist" is not the methods but the framework within which the methods are situated and the way in which they are used. Feminists use a multiplicity of research methods which are written in a way to reveal the process of discovery or the emergence of truths from the answers to the questions asked. These methods are used singly and sometimes in combination. Many of the methods used called "feminist" have not been created by feminism, for example, in-depth interviews and grounded theory – both have non-feminist origins and histories in social science. Reflexivity, that is reflecting on the process of research practised by feminists, is a well-known process in the history of social research.

Traditional research, central to the History of Science, is formal, when it is empirical, objective, rational, rigorous, systematic and communicable. One of the "major" issues facing feminists engaged in empirical research is the question of objectivity: traditional research is focused on scientific objectivity and accuses feminist research of subjectivity. Jayaratne and Stewart in Fonow and Cook (1991: 98 – 100) point out the flaws in this argument and highlight the following: "Objective" science has often been sexist in its purposes and effects, so not objective. The focus on "objectivity" has imposed a controlling relationship on the researcher and those being researched.

They refer also to the fact that emphasising objectivity has meant that "... (it) has excluded from science significant personal subjectivity-based knowledge and has left that knowledge outside of science" (1991: 98).

This question of objectivity and validity is a question faced not only by feminists but also by social scientists. Ramazanoglu (1989:430) writes that what is more important is the soundness and reliability of feminist research. It should be rigorous, politically persuasive and meaningful to other than feminist researchers. She further suggests that feminists need to explain the ground on which interpretations have been made by making explicit the process of and the logic of the method used to fully describe women's issues, not only from the researcher's point of view but from the readers' view as well. Eisner (1991) points out that all research, qualitative and quantitative, is immersed in inequalities and that there are so many ways to represent an understanding of the world. Empirical rules do not hold true in all interactions and even logical, empirical science relies on the concept of experience, of empiricism, to verify its own results.

In *Education as Change* (2002:43-51), van der Mescht writes that the weakness of poor qualitative research lies in the absence of four kinds of rigour: ontology, epistemology, internal rigour and scientific rigour. In feminist enquiry the researcher's subjectivity, if approached in a positive way, becomes an asset. It is crucial that the researcher maintains integrity, trustworthiness and open-mindedness. Personal involvement and objectivity are not a betrayal of rigour in research but may be inclusive of it. A major strength of such an approach is the descriptions written (Yin, 1994).

Women as researchers bring their own experiences into the role of the researcher and the research process but feminist research is not just about having women as researchers but it is also about taking women's experiences and standpoint grounded in their social and political realities. In the past research questions asked were asked by men, from a male perspective, in a world defined by males.

The researcher is as much the active agent in the world as is the researched. Referring to the researched as "Participants" and not "subjects" recognises the flexibility of the feminist researcher as an active agent in the research. The researcher and the researched stand on the same critical plain in the content of experiences and views being researched as women in a unique social situation. The research relationship is that of trust so there is the reciprocal recognition of the Participants at the very starting point as the experts and authorities in the research process dealing with their own experiences. The Participants and the researcher work towards the same end, to end oppression and to engage in transformation. Both researcher and Participant share a common placement in the social world on the basis of their gender.

In short, mainstream research aims to reveal human experiences and to understand human behaviour; feminist research aims to remove the covers obscuring knowledge about women and the behaviours of women that have traditionally been silenced by mainstream research. Women should be allowed to give their particular perspective by describing and informing, in their own words and language, their views of reality.

Feminist research studies women and grants voice to those being studied. It is both theory and practice. The feminist researcher is located on the same critical plane, as those subjects being researched and the research methods must reflect feminist epistemology and methodology. Thus, research becomes a means of sharing information with the aim of creating and initiating social change. This is important in the South African context where legislation has now made this possible but where marked change is not a visible reality. Women require information to empower themselves to bring about transformation in a society in which they have been marginalised, both socially and politically.

Feminist research and mainstream research also differ in their assumptions concerning research. The former maintains consistency among the assumptions made by feminist researchers. Cook (1983: 127) states that no matter what the discipline, feminist research displays four major assumptions that may be considered as a critique of mainstream research. These are: widespread lack of information about the worlds of women; bias in the under- representation of women in research; a need to investigate previous studies to include women's experiences and a need to realise that the kinds of research questions asked have vital outcomes for results and practical actions. Murray (2001: slide 3) in his presentation of *Feminist Research* lists similar elements in his assumptions: "centrality of critical analysis of gender relationships in research and theory; focus on the detrimental impact of patriarchal power and control; appreciation of the moral and political dimensions of research; view that women are worthy of study in their own right; recognition of need for social changes". Mainstream research is not seen as representing the experiences of women.

If women are to move to top academic management in Technikons they must not only be able to identify what is needed to do so but must have institutional support to enable them to achieve this goal.

Much criticism has been levelled at feminist research for being too qualitative and biased and not scientific enough. The ongoing debate between qualitative and quantitative social science research has merely fuelled this fire, yet both seek to uncover the richest possible information from a situation and both share a common methodological and epistemological agenda: CONTROL. In quantitative research this is referred to by the belief that there are certain variables which must be controlled. Qualitative research searches also for the best representation of reality, albeit a social one. Feminists suggest there is no difference between the two since both are biased, the quantitative as a result of its androcentric perspective which presents a distorted knowledge of the world and the qualitative because of its unavoidable subjectivity. Fundamentally the claim by traditional mainstream qualitative research that it is objective is flawed because it does not realise that bias lies inherently in the choice of a topic and the final presentation of data. Ramazanoglu (1989: 440) in reference to Harding (1986) writes, "Since science is seen as the historical construction of male knowledge through the exercise of male power in the interest of dominant men, it is also seen as creating and legitimating aspects of the oppression of women." She writes further, "We need to claim scientific status for feminist knowledge, ...(it) is the only basis we have for claiming that feminist knowledge constitutes a challenge to male-centred social theory and is a basis for feminist social transformation."

Reinharz (1992) writes that feminist research differs from traditional research for three reasons: it actively looks for ways to remove the power imbalance between research and subject; it is politically activated and plays a major role in changing social inequality; it starts with the experiences of women and topics that concern them, from women's perspective.

Despite the analytical differences in feminist theory concerning First World feminism and Third World feminism, the summary by Mohanty in Mohanty, Russo and Lourdes (1991: 10) on the focus of Third World feminism writing and feminism, shows clearly the link between feminist and political liberation movements and reinforces the consistency of assumptions made: "... (1) the idea of the simultaneity of oppressions as fundamental to the experience of social and political marginality ... (2) the crucial role of a hegemonic state in circumscribing their/our daily lives and survival struggles; (3) the significance of memory and writing in the creation of oppositional agency; and (4) the differences, conflicts and contradictions internal to third world women's organisations and communities."

Through the narratives of the few women holding top academic management positions in Technikons, this research project will develop grounded theory from the interpretation of their experiences to assist in breaking these barriers that hold women back in the promotion stakes.

2.4 AN OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF FEMINISM

There are so many diverse and contradictory theories of feminism that it has become appropriate to speak of "feminisms" in the plural. Despite the fact that feminisms are diverse and dynamic, most feminists agree that the movement is not only a political/emancipatory one but that it is also an intellectual process for theorising

about the situation of women in all societies. Historically these many feminisms are grounded in a variety of philosophies, theories and practices. Dating from the mid-Nineteenth Century in Europe, feminism is defined as "advocacy of the rights of women" (Andermahr, Lovell and Wolkowitz 1997: 76). Hooks in Kemp and Squires (1997: 25) rephrases the definition and writes, "Feminism is a struggle to end sexist oppression". Regardless of the stance taken, the general consensus of feminist activists and advocates is that "feminine" focuses on the diversity of women's social and political reality where a pattern of male domination has universally been the norm.

It is conventional, when discussing periods of feminism to refer to the "waves" of feminism. The first two waves date from 1960 to the present. Nevertheless, the term "postfeminism," which originated in the early 1980s, is an unpopular trend sometimes referred to as the third wave. It is a term showing little or no agreement among those who use it and "... (it) tends to crystallise around issues of victimisation, autonomy and responsibility" (Gamble, 1997: 43). Gamble (1997: 52) refers to an editorial by Heywood and Drake in which they "... maintain that the primary difference between third wave and second wave feminists is that the third wave feminists feel at ease with contradiction". It is a movement considered not being within the traditional forms of feminism and such is viewed warily by traditionalists and the researcher.

The current traditional forms of feminisms, that is first wave and second wave, emerge from women's movements, including the suffragette and trade union movements. The first wave 1830 – 1920, in Europe and the United States of America was characterised by its foundation on a classical liberal rights view (based on the philosophy of Rousseau and Locke) and focused on the movements for

women's enfranchisement and the extension of civil rights to women in the context of a male dominated society. The book by Mary Wollstonecraft, written in 1792, *Vindication of the Rights of Women*, is historically considered to have begun the feminist movement (Hagdman, 1967) and started the many debates which were to follow concerning the rights of women in the Western World.

The 1850s, a decade of major feminist activity, marked by concerns for the legal position of married women and the limited opportunities for women, led to the introduction of important legislative and social changes for them. In 1869 John Stuart Mill Gamble (1997), a liberal theorist of Victorian England, who presented the first woman-suffrage petition to the English Parliament, published his essay, *The Subjection of Women*, in which he linked women's suppression to society and politics. This writing became the framework against which to discuss women's oppression in society by educated women in Europe, America, Australia and New Zealand. This was followed by the late Nineteenth Century and early Twentieth Century writings of early feminists intent on speaking out about the injustices suffered by women. Charlotte Perkins Gillman wrote of the enforced passivity of women in a patriarchal society. Catharine Beecher and Harriet Beecher Stowe too wrote of women's struggles (Huth, 1995).

In the early 1900s Freud began his work in psychoanalysis, holding the view that femininity emerges out of a masculine period which is compulsory for both genders (1943). He believed that a human being's drives are instinctual and biologically determined. This view shows a disbelief in human goodness and personal growth. Among those who questioned his assumptions was Karen Horney (1939). Her emphasis was on feelings and attitudes which she believes are determined by

culture. Horney's belief lay in the strength of the self to deal with inner conflicts and the ability to use one's own behaviours to be a "decent person". This infers that people can change. This has positive implications for the education of women for success. She published radical works, as early as 1917, declaring that women needed to be seen as different from men, but little notice was taken of her views by women campaigners and activists. First wave feminism of this period was successful in drawing attention only to the social and political plight of women.

From the 1920s to the 1960s little is on record in the realm of feminist activity but the book by Betty Friedan, "*The Feminine Mystique*" (1963) published in America, is said to have set the second wave rolling. Her book drew attention to the oppression of women and sexual discrimination in the social and political arena. At about the same time, *The Second Sex* (1949) by Simone de Beauvoir, a Frenchwoman, was published which exhorted women to seize opportunities to achieve economic and social equality. These two books greatly influenced women who at that time, felt marginalised and exploited by prevailing social attitudes. Professional women's informal liberation groups sprang up fired by the need for "consciousness – raising", a process described by Anne Koedt in New York City (Thornham in Gamble, 1997: 30). The 1960s, in Britain, was characterised by firstly, Equal Rights Groups, made up not of professional women, but of working class women. This was followed by women working against political and social injustices and led to the introduction of legislation favouring equal pay, the introduction of birth control and wider education opportunities for women.

The 1970s witnessed the development of feminist theory in France and an explosion of feminist theoretical writing in the West. In this period, Germaine Greer wrote of misogyny and violence against women in her book, *The Female Eunuch* (1971). Feminists such as Nancy Chodorow (1989), Carol Gilligan (1982) and Jean Baker Miller (1986), in their research, drew attention to the differences, based on gender between men and women, highlighting specific gender role experiences common to women. Feminist ideology took a more structured form, rooted in women's experiences in an ever-changing world in which they were beset with many contradictions rooted in gender.

Feminism, in the past thirty years, has also been given an academic voice: "Although there is little systematic, theoretical and politically informed study of FEMINISM in the academe, empirical studies grounded in an EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES perspective document women's advantage in changing conditions of academic practice"(Marley and Walsh in Andermahr, Lovell and Wolkowitz, 1997:7). Changes register gendered differences in access to degree courses and to posts, to promotion and remuneration.

Briefly then there are two main categories of feminist thought, termed liberal and radical both differing in theory and in practice existing in each wave. Liberal feminists believe that oppression of women is an accidental characteristic of society and can be removed by women taking a greater part in traditional male roles. Such feminists desire to improve the situation of women by creating increased opportunities for them. Radical feminists advocate revolution: as society is misogynistic, they believe that only a redefinition of roles will result in a more just society. Equal participation for women is not enough to solve the problems of society. Among those expressing

a broader view of feminism, thought to be more inclusive of diverse female experiences, are Naomi Wolf (1991), who addresses the issues of adolescent women's sexuality and women's self concept; Elizabeth Cramer(1995) who gives voice to the lesbian feminists and Margaret Walker(1997) , who discusses how class and colour affect young Afro-American women.

In South Africa, a Third World Country, the elimination of the oppression of women has taken a different route. Oppression began here with a different emphasis from that in First World Developing Countries. The energies of South African women, before 1994, were concerned with a general struggle against racial and political oppression. Women's issues were not seen as separate from that of men. This only came later in South African history. Yet women for many years had suffered discrimination in educational and occupational status, trends in economic changes, property rights, domestic status, types of work sites, wages and benefits. These became the primary determinants of their struggle. In the 1970s and 1980s, international women's movements raised the issue of inequality in the workplace, in a way that influenced women union organisers in South Africa. This initiated a shift in the way gender had been viewed and gender now assumed a different position politically from that of race and class exploitation.

The first democratically elected parliament in 1994 drew attention to the plight of women in this country. In the First South African Report: Part 2 (2002: 1) concerning all forms of discrimination against women, a judge of the Constitutional Court said, "... it is a sad fact that one of the few profoundly non-racial institutions of South Africa is patriarchy." Furthermore, the Report in Article Three states, as one of its focal

points, the advancement of women by providing them with fundamental rights on an equal basis with men.

In February 1994 the Women's National Coalition, established to protect women's rights, adopted a charter to work towards effective equality for women. This was one of the first of several extensive projects undertaken to see to the needs and demands of women in South Africa. Since then other bodies as well as government structures have been established to oversee women's rights. These include the Office on the Status of Women (OSW) 1997, located in the Office of the Executive Deputy President and the Commission on Gender Equality (CGE) 1997, an independent body reporting to Parliament. In addition to these there are provincial, civil and independent bodies for reaching women who have been marginalised.

Worldwide, the 1990s had seen the emergence of highly successful feminist academics who became influential in both traditional and interdisciplinary scholarly studies. This move is particularly significant as academia is now the context in which feminist theorising and debate occurs, especially over issues such as: What are the goals of feminist theory? What is feminist epistemology? Is there a specific feminist method and methodology? How can feminist knowledge be used to transform perceptions of femininity? Is there a universal sisterhood of women?

This last question, concerning the universal sisterhood of women, needs to be addressed at this point, since South Africa is the context of this feminist interpretative study. Despite the fact that Western feminist discourse is not uniform in its goals, interests or analyses, is there something that is homogeneous with the discourse of Third/Developing World feminisms? Do they have a common agenda and if so, are

such feminisms appropriate in the South African context? The answers to these questions are worthy areas of future research but for the purpose of this project, the researcher has taken the following stance.

Third World women, like First World feminists, cannot be defined as an organised, coherent group. Yet both groups although divided by religion, sexuality, history, ideology, economics, race, culture and class, are situated in a common context, that is women's social and political struggle against domination, oppression and marginalisation in all its forms. Indeed, the history of First World feminism and that of Third World women is not very different: feminism has emerged in reaction to women's struggles. The diversity of women's circumstances is a reality but so too is the commonality of their suppression. Delgado (1997:69) says that although a global feminism or universal sisterhood is seemingly impossible, the common goal of feminists is to engage in organised activities to end the oppression that hinders the progress of women politically and socially everywhere, "the need to build alliances across the recognition of differences – of heterogeneity among women – in relation to multiple axes of subjectification and oppression as the common feature for transitional feminist theories."

South African women, although not a homogenous group, face a multiplicity of problems but common for all of them is discrimination and marginalisation in the workplace. It is imperative that women stand together and recognise their commonality rather than their differences, that they establish social and political alliances to bring about transformation. African World Press, in a review of papers presented at the Women in Africa and the African Diaspora (WAAD) conference 1992, quotes from Angela Miles: *North American Feminism/Global Feminism:*

Contradictory or Complementary?: "Transformative feminists from all parts of the world challenge the dominants of class, race and colonialism as well as gender ..." and further, "...allow feminists to use diverse women's specific work life experiences, concerns and values as resources to challenge dominant male presumptions and structures and definitions of humanity".

Feminist research cannot speak for all women but it can deliver new knowledge grounded in women's experiences and realities and so bring about structural changes and improvements in women's social and political worlds. Despite the differences and wide diversity of backgrounds, South African women (in this context women of colour and White women are grouped together) particularly in top academic management, need a specifically feminist critical theory to interpret their situation and to provide a basis to overcome the system, which denies them access to opportunities in the promotion stakes. The writer has chosen women in this research study to represent a microcosm of all women in South African academic positions in Technikons. "South African women academics inhabit social, political, cultural and academic contexts which differ from those of other countries, yet there are patterns in common across higher educational institutions around the world" (Tothill, 1998: 1). Universally women academics are under-represented as managers in all sectors of education. (See Chapter One for statistics). They face a "glass ceiling" which limits their advancement in educational organisations. What does it take in South Africa as well as elsewhere to break through this attitudinal barrier created by males?

2.5 EPISTEMOLOGY

Epistemology is a category of philosophy concerned with theories of knowledge and the critical study of the validity and methods of theories that is, who legitimises knowledge. This leads inevitably to the next question for feminists: is there an authorising powder-gender aspect? Feminism maintains that there are multiple views of the world and of experiences other than the dominant male perspective and that these different realities should be examined critically. Feminist epistemologies refer to women's ways of knowing and women's knowledge. Implied in feminist epistemology then is the acknowledgement of the multiplicity of women's voices and the theories of knowledge that legitimate women as knowers. The objective is to establish the relationship between social structure and everyday life. This will enable women to provide explanation and understanding of their gendered world. Such an understanding is basic to the position when change will become a social reality and oppression and marginalisation a thing of the past.

The researcher accepts that an epistemology should also address and focus on the ways in which knowledge is influenced by social values and political implications. For feminists of prime importance is whose knowledge is being validated. Alcoff and Potter (1993: 13) state the feminist view of epistemology: "For feminists, the purpose of epistemology is not only to satisfy intellectual curiosity, but also to contribute to an emancipatory goal: the expansion of democracy in the production of knowledge". This implies that for feminists the purpose of epistemology is not only to make known how knowledge is authorised but also whom it empowers. Mies in Fonow and Cook (1991:101) maintains that feminist research must be integrated into social and political action for the empowerment of women.

Feminist epistemologies have developed in three broad traditions: Empiricism, Standpoint Theory and Postmodernism (Harding 1986). Each is progressively more radical in its epistemological commitments. Feminist Empiricism rests on data that is collected from women's real life experiences, the findings of which are used in a critical way. This approach highlights a perspective brought by women researchers to the research process which places emphasis on the discovery of valid representation.

Jane Flax (in Kemp and Squires, 1997: 177) says feminist theorists concerned with knowledge and the production of knowledge are faced with a fourfold task: "We need (1) to articulate feminist viewpoints of/within the social worlds in which we must (2) think about how we are affected by these worlds; (3) consider the ways in which how we think about them may be implicated in existing power/knowledge relationships and (4) imagine ways in which these worlds ought to/can be transformed". The crux of feminist epistemology is male domination in the production of knowledge. Can women, from a marginal position in society, produce knowledge which is valid for that society? Have they, marginalised as they are, the ability to exercise their intellects and have they the recourse to knowledge? This leads to the next inference: can women, without education and experience, produce knowledge simply by being oppressed? Is it enough to only seize political power? The above quotation provides the foundation for this research project. Is it enough if women are given power or allowed to share in domination with men? The researcher was concerned that so few women in Technikons hold decision-making positioning in top academic management in comparison to men and felt that the problem needed to be investigated if transformation was to become a reality in the workplace. Democracy surely refers to

that position when neither men nor women have an epistemic advantage – that is gender justice.

Feminist Empiricism challenges traditional empiricism in the following ways. Firstly, it questions the assumption that the social location of the observer is irrelevant, suggesting that women as a group are more likely to choose representative problems. Secondly, Feminist Empiricism observes that norms have a particular meaning for “science” so are biased. With the inclusion of women in all phases of the research process, gender bias can be removed and objective knowledge achieved. Thirdly, it argues that there is a political dimension in “science”, referring to the politics of manipulation. Feminist empiricists do not reject mainstream research but try to do it better. They recognise that the social identity of the researcher is relevant to the validity of the knowledge produced by research.

Empiricism asserts that the world exists as the object of knowledge, independent of the human knower. It proposes that experience provides the primary justification of all knowledge. Feminist Empiricism’s concern is what is done with the data collected, that is, with the interpretation of the material and argues that its view exposes patriarchy in society. Feminist Empiricists maintain that when more women are involved in the interpretation of and the development of theories, these will make this knowledge more scientific and less biased.

Standpoint Theory states that women’s experience of this world is different from that of men and that there is a need to position women’s accounts and experiences within a gender-stratified society. This Theory views women’s marginal position in society as a potential benefit rather than an oppressive situation for them(Jaquette in

Stiehm, 1984). Its methodology is interested with what the position of the knower is to the sources of the data. In addition, it discourages the thought that the condition of all women's lives and the ways by which they construe their experiences, are the same. Bart (1998: 4) writes, "There is no homogenous women's experience and hence no singular woman's standpoint". Standpoint Theory fails to explain why some women become aware of the truth, yet others do not. If this is so, how do we know which view is the truth? This view remains controversial. "Standpoint theories become controversial when they claim epistemic privilege over socially and politically contested topics on behalf of the perspectives of systematically disadvantaged social groups, relative to the perspectives of the groups that dominate them" (Anderson, 2001: 9).

Postmodernism challenges the assumption of the two epistemologies discussed above. The universal claims of all sciences are viewed suspiciously. Harding in Maynard and Purvis (1995: 19) says of feminist postmodernism, "Its focus instead is on fragmentation, multiple subjectivity, pluralities and flux." This theory rejects women's conditions and oppressions. Postmodernists claim that what we think of as reality is discursively constructed, that is, actions and practices are linguistic signs. This view is criticised for "the rejection of 'women' is a category of analysis and the infinite fragmentation of perspectives" (Anderson, 2001: 16).

The last ten years has seen a blurring of distinction among these three approaches. The common ground in all three approaches is the integration of women's knowledge with their experiences. All three embrace pluralism. All three reject the traditional epistemological project of validating epistemic norms from a transcendent viewpoint because they believe such a viewpoint does not exist. Feminist epistemologists still

argue that our *womaness* or *maleness* affects how we view the world and that a better understanding of women's lives is to be achieved by a multiplicity of women's voices. Feminist analysts are called upon to provide concrete reasons in specific contexts justifying their existing social and political positions. Such justification implies an evaluation of which approach or approaches feminist analysts are prepared to perpetuate. The responsibility of evaluation from an array of positions indicates initial clarification, a realistic apprehension of alternatives and relevant considerations on the part of the feminist epistemologist.

In this study the researcher supports feminist empiricist epistemology which has as its starting point issues that are important to women. Feminist empiricism attempts to bring feminist criticism of scientific claims into the existing theories of scientific knowledge (Harding, 1991). Feminist empiricists believe that sexist and androcentric ways of knowing result from bad science. They recognise that bias is introduced by the nature of the context and recognise that social identity (for example, gender) as relevant to the validity of the knowledge produced. Social theories traditionally have been established by men and feminist empiricism in resisting that and in justifying the elimination of social biases, maintaining that the context of the enquiry is as important as the content. Thus, Feminist Empiricism argues that women as a group are more likely than men to produce claims which are unbiased. Scientific norms have been established, constructed by men to answer the questions men ask, so they are biased and prejudiced against women. While the methodological norms of science have been adequate, what is needed when researching women is a better science. It is important therefore for women and feminist researchers to be involved in research of and for women because only they can uncover and provide alternative knowledge free from bias. The result of research conducted by men is based on

hypotheses generated by men, so their claims of strict neutral (unbiased) scientific method are invalid.

It is vital therefore that women investigate matters related to women's experience and women's source of knowledge and then through grounded theory interpret the perspectives and "voices" of the Participants. This is possible because the power imbalance between researcher and researched can be removed. The researched become the Participants and sometimes the researcher, the researched. Such research is socially and politically motivated to improve the inequalities and oppression experienced by women and so leads to emancipation.

2.6 METHODOLOGY

2.6.1 Introduction

Research methodology in general addresses theoretical questions about the story of research and how research is done. It is "... the study of actual techniques and practices used in the research process" (Fonow and Cook 1991:1). Feminist methodology is based on distinct feminist epistemological assumptions (discussed above) and reflects clearly that there is a feminist way or perspective of doing things in feminist research; there are women's ways of knowing.

Reinharz (1992: 40) defines feminine methodology as being "... the sum of feminist research method". She identifies ten themes in feminist methodology. Firstly, she offers a controversial view that feminism is a perspective and not a method. Is this merely a matter of semantics? She justifies this by the fact that women are viewed, in such research, as individuals and as a social category. Secondly, she

demonstrates that feminist research reaches into all disciplines. By using a "multiplicity" of methods, feminists are able to combine aspects of mainstream theory into a wider framework. Thirdly, she puts forward a further theme, that of its "openness to being transdisciplinary". Fourthly, feminist research continues to uncover the ways in which previous research and knowledge have been distorted by andocentrism and is therefore able to reform knowledge of women, by women, for women. Underpinning this is her fifth theme that feminist empirical research is guided by feminist theory. Her sixth theme is connected to social change. In so doing, feminism acknowledges the seeming contradiction that despite diversity, all women are similar in some ways. Her last three themes deal with the issues of the identification of the researcher with herself, her Participants and the reader of her enquiry.

Research methods are the tools used to collect data. Methods are considered feminist if the researcher identifies herself or is identified by others as a feminist. It is also accepted that what makes "feminist research" feminist are the methods used by the researcher: these are consciousness-raising, creating group diaries, drama, genealogy and network tracing, the non- authoritative research voice or multiple person stream of consciousness, narrative conversation, using intuition or writing associatively, identification, studying unplanned personal experiences, structured conceptualisation, photography or the taking pictures technique and speaking freely into a tape-recorder or answering long, essay-type questionnaires (Reinharz, 1992: 214 – 238). These "feminine" research methods are also viewed as being associated with qualitative research and are not only feminist research methods but should reflect basic feminist epistemology, if used in the feminist way to benefit women.

2.6.2 The Narrative Method

The research method considered most appropriate for this feminist study is that of narrative enquiry as referred to in Chapter One. Life stories and oral histories which are being used increasingly in a wide range of disciplines (regardless of the scepticism of the protagonists of the narrative research methodology), have become well established in the social sciences. The narrative approach organises experiences and memories of human events into a version of reality. This makes human lives understandable and gives significance to events within a time frame. "Narrative provides a symbolised account of actions that includes a temporal dimension". (Polkinghorne, 1988: 18). The process also involves reflection and this enables explanations, descriptions and interpretations to be made of everyday events. The construction of these stories has cognitive and social consequences – they can influence beliefs and actions in the future, "Thus, narrative thinking can alter the content and the organisation of a person's world knowledge and beliefs" (Sarbin, 1986: 116).

Bruner(1991), a cognitive psychologist, proposes that narrative understanding is one of two basic intelligence or modes of cognitive functioning: the paradigmatic mode, which searches for universal truths and the narrative mode, which searches for connections between events. In focusing on the narrative mode, he states that the important point here is how this mode operates as an instrument of the mind in the construction of reality.

He provides ten features of a narrative (Bruner, 1991: 6 – 17). The narrative is an account of events occurring in a time frame, "narrative diachronicity" which refers to particular events; "Particularity", narratives are about people acting according to

relevant beliefs, theories and values; "intentional state of entailment" by which is provided the basis for interpreting, providing reasons for, not only the causes of the events that have occurred; "hermeneutic composability" implies the dependence of the human capacity to process knowledge; what happened and why it is worth telling is the feature Bruner calls "canonicity and breach"; "referentially" refers to the fact that the whole of the story referentially of its component parts; the provision of using the mind is guided by the use of enabling language, Bruner refers to as "genericness"; "normativeness" is the norm required of the narrative, whether it be, for example, age, culture or circumstances. The ninth feature is "context sensitivity and negotiability". This feature makes possible the coherence and interdependence of narrative accounts. The last feature is that of "narrative accrual": how are the stories pieced together to make them into a whole of some sort? These ten features describe some of the characteristics of reality constructed according to narrative principles.

Van Rensburg (2002: 88 – 90) discusses the five aspects of the narrative (as a research tool) which emerge from the literature he reviews:

- "The epistemology generated by the narrative
- The methodology followed by the narrative as a research tool
- The implications of the narrative for research analysis
- The narrative as research report genre
- The politics of the narrative as a research tool."

In his discussion, he highlights points which he considers important, these being: it is important to remember that knowledge is constructed by the researchers themselves; the narrative is a trustworthy and reliable tool for research enquiry. Denzin and

Cuba, in van Rensburg (2002: 89), describe the narrative as a way of "remembering/eliciting/constructing/reconstructing experience". Van Rensburg (2002: 90) refers to the use of personal experience in the narrative form as vital "for generating social knowledge", "enabling social transformation" and a "means of personal and professional *empowerment*".

The narrative technique using semi-structured interviews focuses in this study on aspects relevant to the Participants' lives. It is a significant means of discovering the personal, social and political experiences of women by encouraging them to talk openly without feeling intimidated and exploited. Their stories will highlight the significance of particular decisions and events in their lives which have significance for this study.

The narrative approach has value too in that: "The research process may make the Participants of the research think about things they have never thought about before or indeed think about things in a different way" (Cotterill and Letherby, 1993:77). Women's experiences are differently situated in context to those of men. The feminist ideology of compassion and understanding coincides too with the subjective-reflective nature of the narrative (Josselson and Lieblich, 1995). The narrative provides a way in which women can make sense of their world in context, providing resources for feminist transformation of society and validation of their subjective experience as women. The process and the participation with the researcher allow for the reflection on and explanation of their experiences. The narrative technique is a significant means of discovering the social experiences, of "silenced women" (Geiger, 1986: 35), that is women who have been marginalised and disadvantaged, politically and socially, particularly in the South African context where women in

academia in Technikons have experienced sexism and prejudice in the workplace. The Participants of this research project have in their narratives given "voice" to their experiences.

2.6.3 The Interview Process

Interviews have become the principal and most popular means by which feminists are able to access ideas, thoughts, memories and experiences from other women in their own words, by their "telling" (Reissman, 1993). It is a process that is versatile in covering a vast array of topics affecting women's lives. By listening to women speaking, feminist researchers have uncovered much that has been misunderstood and neglected in the realm of female experience.

Mainstream research has not and does not represent the experiences of women. Feminist researchers want something different from that which has already existed and has silenced women. Oakley (in Roberts, 1981:75) writes that there is a contradiction between objective "scientific" intervening and the needs of feminist research (openness, trust and interaction on a common plain) where the primary concern is the validation of women's subjective experiences. Reinharz (1992:84) proposes that feminists work towards those needs of feminist research ensuring that the interview process offers opportunity for intimacy, reflection and self-disclosure on the part of the Participants and the researcher. This non-hierarchical process is supported by Acker *et al.* (in Fonow and Cook, 1991:102) who show concern that the Participants in research should not be objectified or exploited.

The researcher of this study, in the light of the above, sought to establish an interview situation which encompassed these feminist requirements where the researcher was supportive, engaged in active-listening, allowed time for reflection and reinforced the aspect of confidentiality regarding all information disclosed. There was a sharing of feelings and attitudes between the Participants and the researcher without interference from the researcher. The Participants were encouraged to respond in their own language which was adhered to in the transcripts of their narratives. This research project was concerned with verbal interaction, not a speech or talk. "For our purposes, an interview will refer to a face-to-face verbal exchange, in which one person, the interviewer, attempts to elicit information or expresses an opinion or belief from another person or persons" (Maccoby and Maccoby, in Mishler, 1986: 9).

Listening to the way in which women use language to convey their experiences as women is important to feminists because they live in a world where knowledge is defined and valued from a male perspective. In turn language shapes the concepts and views of society so therefore also shapes actions and expectations.

2.6.4 Analysing the Narrative

The transcripts of the taped interviews and the electronic mail replies were submitted to analysis.

The goal of the analysis of data was to uncover common themes in the experiences of the Participants. The emphasis in the interpretation of the narratives was on accepting that the story has something to say about the experiences recorded, that it has something to say about these particular events in relation to the society in which it takes place and that it has relevance to the Participant and the researcher.

The analysis model used was that stabilised by Lieblich *et al.* (1998), based on the work of Bruner (1990). He relates narrative analysis to "how protagonists interpret things" following his two modes of cognition, namely, paradigmatic and narrative. The paradigmatic stream is generated during this process in a circular motion as proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1967:95) in their concept "grounded theory". The work conducted is interpretative and dynamic.

2.6.5 Grounded Theory

Grounded theory, a qualitative research method emphasises theory development and is appropriate when little is known about a topic. As it is considered a form of social criticism, it fits well the characteristics of a critical feminist perspective and therefore considered by the researcher of this project as the best method for developing theory in this study.

These common underpinnings of feminist theory and grounded theory follow. Women's experience is a legitimate source of knowledge and through the application of theory development women's voices and expressions can be studied. The Participants, the women of this study, are experts concerning their experience and although their experience is subjective, it is valid data. Grounded theory is developed from data which is often a mix of interview and observational material. In this project the interview process was the method used to collect data. According to grounded theory, grounded theorists are responsible for the interpretation of the material. Feminist theory reinforces the importance of textual analysis and the narrative stream tells the story in context. Lieblich *et al.* (1998: 13) recognises these two views and names them categorical and holistic. Each of these dimensions has a

firm-based model (which looks for the plot or structure of complete life stories) and a content-based model (which places portions of the text into previously defined categories). The categorical-content model was used for the interpretation of the data pertaining to the study, more familiarly known as "content analysis". "Categories of the studied topic are defined and separate utterances of the text are extracted, classified and gathered into categories/groups" (Lieblich *et al.*, 1998: 13). Three steps are followed: selection of the sub-text, definition of the content categories and then drawing conclusions from the results.

In this research project, data was broken down into manageable units which were organised and synthesised to discover meaningful categories and information. The resultant research report was that a rich account "closely approximates the reality it represents" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990: 87).

In narrative research there are usually not *a priori* hypotheses as is the case in this study. The directions of the study emerge from the researcher reading the collected material and analysing the data. Grounded theory was developed from the feminine perspective in this study.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) believe that the primary goal of qualitative research is the generation of theory rather than testing or mere description, and "ever-developing entity" or process. The procedures involved in developing grounded theory are those of open coding where constant comparison is made of incidents to establish uniformity in the varying conditions. This is followed by theoretical sampling which involves searching the transcripts for emerging categories that characterise the narrative and which are seen as significant. Saturation is achieved when all the

information fits into two established categories or codes: substantive, which conceptualises the empirical substance of the research, or theoretical (formal), which conceptualises how the substantive codes may relate to each other as hypothesis (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) present a series of questions which can be applied to the research product to examine its empirical grounding and so check for empirical rigour.

2.7 Conclusion

The researcher of this project is of the opinion that in the world patriarchal values and beliefs shape how knowledge is determined and interpreted. Traditional social science research, although claiming to be objective (in both qualitative and quantitative methods), is flawed because it does not recognise how these biases impact on women's ways of knowing. Women's experiences and standpoint in the social and political context of their lives needs to be investigated in working towards societal change and in transforming the sexist culture of Technikons.

Although absolute objectivity is not possible, feminists advocate that some types of objectivity do have potential to protect against bias. The researcher feels that feminist researchers must be critical of both qualitative and quantitative research used against women when used in researching women's issues and they must be able to pursue the best possible methodology in the implementation of their research to ensure the production of research which will positively affect women's lives.

The use of reflexivity by feminist researchers in the narrative process as a means of providing insight and consciousness raising, allows for the examination, exploration and analysis of data about women for women. This information is important to add

to the body of limited existing knowledge regarding the experiences and views of women in top academic management in Technikons.

There is more than one way of knowing and the multi- methodological feminist approach provides thick, rich data to answer the question raised in this research project: What attributes or qualities are important for women to possess in order to break through to academic top management in Technikons?

The use of semi-structured interviews has become the primary means which feminists use to involve Participants in the research process in the construction of data pertaining to their experiences in top academic management. The features of a narrative, referred to in Bruner (1990) earlier in this Chapter, were integrated into the design of the in-depth questionnaires used (Addendum 6 and 7). By using the semi-structured questions, the researcher guided the Participants into talking of their experiences in "education" and "management", allowing them time to reflect on and clarify their accounts. This was followed by a short open-ended questionnaire (Addendum 8) which allowed the Participants the opportunity to offer any other meaningful material which they felt had not been covered elsewhere. "Multiple interviews are more likely to be more accurate than single interviews because of the opportunity to ask additional questions and to get corrective feedback on previously obtained information" (Reinharz, 1992: 37).

The validity of the narrative approach used is based on the understanding of well-grounded and supported conclusions. The interpretation of the data and the conclusions reached are corroborated by the inductive reasoning of the researcher from the data obtained, providing evidence for the results derived in the context of

this research project. However, conclusions of narrative research always remain open-ended. Narrative research does not require replicability of results but requires ongoing explanation of text against interpretation as well as integrity on the part of the researcher.

In this project the researcher investigated the problems scientifically as they arose from the practical experiences of women in top academic management and derived from these problems arrived at theories grounded in the realities of their actual practice, that is, the formulation of theories as to why career progress was made by women with certain attributes, qualities and experiences.

Managerial research is not the application of theories developed for other areas of social science, for example, socialisation or motivation, among others, but has as its objective generation substantive theories that are grounded in the complexities of practical reality not distorted by imposing formal theories that would predetermine what the relevant research categories and problems are. The concrete practical experience of the Participants of this research project were the testing ground and the subject matter of this theoretical enquiry. The theory derived can only be tested from their practical experience in their active participation in this research. Based on grounded theory, the researcher was able to arrive at concepts and theories which were "scientific" and based on rigorous critical reflection.

2.8 Summary

The Participants represented a good microcosm of South African women and their experiences in top academic management in Technikons reflected similar experiences of marginalisation and prejudice in a patriarchal environment. The narrative method of obtaining information through the interview process provided the Participants with the opportunity to express their views and experiences in a non-threatening environment where confidentiality and trust were established. Grounded Theory, as a research strategy, permitted understanding of their experiences which led to the formulation of theory, grounded in their predicted realities in top academic management. The substantive theory which emerged can be seen as a bridge between the data and the final theory. This theory revealed that the competencies of emotional intelligence were vital for women to possess in order to move to top management positions in academia in Technikons. Of great importance are the claims Goleman (1995) makes that these competencies and abilities can be learned.

The next Chapter, Chapter Three, will deal more specifically with the collection of data and its analysis within the parameters of the methodology discussed above.

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CHAPTER THREE

"Developing a qualitative study positions the author as artist, interpreter, and composer."

(Price in Josselson and Lieblich)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this study was on determining and uncovering the factors that contributed to the success of women, who have risen to the position of Dean or higher in the academic management hierarchy in Technikons, in breaking through the "glass ceiling". In keeping with the previous premises of grounded theory, the researcher started with the practical experiences of women in top academic management which the researcher wished to explore. The researcher began with a set of interview questions and not preconceived hypotheses. The questions were directed to the Participants to elicit their experiences in management. Using grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) the problems which emerged from the data were interpreted and given meaning by analysing the categorical-content method developed by Lieblich *et al.* (1998).

3.2 DATA COLLECTION

Between 7 February 2002 and 7 March 2002, letters requesting permission were sent by the researcher to the Vice-Chancellors of all Technikons in South Africa in which women in top academic management positions (Dean and higher) had been identified as possible Participants for interviewing for this study. All replies received

were in the affirmative, but conditional on the identified Participants' agreement. During the month of March, letters outlining the nature and purpose of the project, were then sent to all the Participants during the month of March requesting their assistance (see Addendum Two). A letter of information (see Addendum Three) was sent to each identified Participant requesting her participation. Each letter contained an assurance that no names of persons or institutions would be used and that any information of a highly personal nature would not be made available to anyone. These points were reiterated in the Informed Consent Form (Addendum Four) to be completed by each Participant.

In the initial communication with the Vice-Chancellors of each institution (Addendum One), when permission was requested by the researcher to approach identified women in top management, total confidentiality was promised. An assurance of this kind was necessary because of the sensitive nature of the research project which would involve feminism and the idea of the "glass ceiling", both considered controversial in the academic world.

According to Lee and Renzetti in Renzetti (1993:5), "a sensitive topic is one that potentially poses for those involved a substantial threat, the emergence of which renders problematic for the researcher and/or the researched the collection, holding, and/or dissemination of research data". They further explain that sensitive topics of research can result in, among other unwelcoming consequences, stigmatisation, mistrust and marginalisation by colleagues and/or institutions. Sieber and Renzetti in Renzetti (1993:14 – 27) claim that in research sensitive topics raise wide issues related to ethics, politics and legal aspects. This research topic was considered

sensitive and thus all Participants and institutions remain unnamed in the data collected and analysed.

Participants were also informed that the researcher would welcome responses to the semi-structured open-ended questionnaire made by electronic mail in place of face-to-face interviews if Participants so preferred. Using electronic mail would mean less pressure on those who preferred to answer in their own time, at their own leisure.

Prompt responses, indicating their willingness to participate in the research project, were received from six of the Participants. However, two of the eight identified Participants (who in fact held the highest positions of all those approached) declined to become involved. One gave as her reason, "due to my tight schedule" and the other refusal was, "because of a particularly busy schedule". Despite repeated approaches to both regarding the value of the project to women in Technikons and emphasising their options regarding the method of responding, both declined using the same reasons originally cited. It is unfortunate that the researcher was not able to make use of their expertise and experience.

Lee and Renzetti in Renzetti (1993:6) believe that, based on their experience, there are a number of areas where research is possibly more threatening than in others:

- (a) where research intrudes into the private sphere or delves into some deeply personal experience,
- (b) where the study is concerned with deviance and social control,
- (c) where it impinges on the vested interests of powerful persons or the exercise of coercion or domination, and
- (d) where it deals with things sacred to those being studied that they do not wish profaned."

Perhaps this could explain why two of the women approached to participate in this project refused to become Participants.

Although there is little research data regarding women supporting other women in research careers or business, what there is, is very revealing of women's relationships with other women. Literature on management, however, stresses the importance of women assisting other women in getting to the top, whether it be through tips, mentoring, or merely encouragement. Marshall (1995: 192), in her research on women managers in business, reveals that women are not automatically allies or supporters of other women in similar positions. Successful women often feel uncomfortable and undermined by women whom they perceive as "over-adaptive or having used a sexualised self-presentation", so treat them warily. Marshall suggests that perhaps they, themselves, may have experienced "hostility and ambivalence" by women managers, when lower down in the hierarchy and so had developed defence mechanisms against such displays of power.

This belief is supported by an article in *American Woman: Road and Travel* (2002, 2, on-line) titled *Women: Their Own Worst Enemy?* It suggests that women who climb the corporate ladder, often without realising it, leave behind their peers "who experience jealousy, envy or resentment". This jealousy can be professional or personal and is a reaction to the success of a colleague. Those then who make it to the top may well have experienced how difficult the climb was and in turn unconsciously manifest the same behaviour.

Furthermore, female saboteurs are on the increase in the workplace, writes Briles (1999), a psychologist and recognised authority on women's issues. In a study she conducted, 33% of the female respondents said they preferred to work for a man rather than a woman. Of the respondents, 75% reported being the subject of sabotaging behaviour by a woman. Briles believes that insecurity, jealousy and envy lead women to sabotage other women. She also believes that many social and psychological factors that begin from the time women are little girls, continue throughout their at-work relationships and lead to such covert and discriminating competitive behaviour in the workplace. She suggests that women should move from "competition to completion", i.e., to awareness, open dialogue, discussion and action which will lead to a better working environment for all. Women need to find a way to interact effectively with one another and should mentor other women to achieve top positions in the workplace.

Feminist writer, Chesler (1999) supports Briles. She reports that the subtlety of the sabotage is why it is so destructive: that gossiping slander, competitiveness and envy have serious consequences for women in the workplace leading even to job loss and deep depression. She warns women of the danger of revealing private things to

other women as these can be used against them. She cites the example of Monica Lewinsky, United States Presidential intern, who told colleague Linda Tripp that she was having an affair with Bill Clinton.

Mabokela (2002: 15) in a research paper, which examines the workplace experiences of senior women administrators in South African universities, refers to the expression used by one of the administrators described as the "P.H.D. syndrome", that is, the "Pull Her Down" attitude. This was the experience of the women she interviewed in her study and is an acronym used to describe how women do not always support each other, especially if one is more successful. She writes, "This lack of support from other women places the senior administrators in a tenuous position."

The obstructive attitude of women towards other women in Technikons is revealing in this research:

Participant One said bluntly:

"Women don't support each other. When women are in power they turn against others."

Participant Six regretted this failing:

"I think women don't support women, not because they are jealous of each other, but because each woman has such a load herself that there is no time, physically. As far as emotional support is concerned, I don't think we do it enough. We may support women but we don't say it enough. I think we need to verbalise that more and we need to be doing these things. I think we find it difficult to find the time but we need to change how we support people emotionally."

Walton, in the American Psychological Association edition: *Women in Academe: Two Steps Forward, One Step Back* (1997: 4, on-line), writes that some female colleagues believe that women who have "made it" as academic administrators (managers) must have "sold out" or "betrayed" other women. Walton suggests that because women, generally are not seen as being able to lead or manage, those women who are successful are believed by their colleagues or subordinates to have achieved their positions by inappropriate means, "affirmative action hire or inappropriate sexual favours".

In the same article, Park (1997:5) suggests that perhaps women fear developing social relationships with women in parallel positions as that could be seen as using "social relationships politically" which they, in turn view as compromising their integrity and putting themselves inappropriately in competition against other women. Powney, in the same article, states that many women managers are taught to distance themselves from their staff and so isolate themselves.

The researcher expresses disappointment that the two women with the highest positions, who would have had so much to offer, declined to participate in this study. There are several factors in the foregoing that perhaps help to explain the attitudes of and reasons why the two women approached, who had achieved the highest positions in the male-dominated Technikon system, refused to participate in this study. Nevertheless, their rejection has been a source of disappointment and frustration to the researcher, not only because of the value of their contribution from their lofty positions but also because of the necessary small sample – the result of so few women in top management positions in Technikons.

It is to be regretted that research and observation indicates that women do not support women as they climb to top positions. One element that most women at the top have experienced is the difficulty in climbing the ladder and the isolation. Who better to assist women on the path than those women who have already made it and in so doing signpost the way. So few women have broken through the "glass ceiling" in academic educational management that they are the only role models we have and alone able to be mentors for those who wish to pursue their goals in a work environment, which is more competitive than most.

As indicated above, all the Participants were given the choice of responding to the structured, open-ended in-depth interviews via face-to-face interviews or by electronic mail. Three of the six Participants selected the face-to-face interview as their work schedule allowed them, at the time of the data collection (April 2002 - July 2002), to time - table this form of interaction. They were also comfortable with having the interview process taped. The other three Participants preferred the electronic mail response, as this provided them with the opportunity to participate in their own time and at their own convenience but within the time frame requested by the researcher. As a result of the academic positions they held, all had offices with computers so access was not a problem.

There are both advantages and disadvantages to using electronic mail as a research tool. Using electronic mail facilitates communication between individuals who are separated in time and by distance and is low in administrative costs. It is fast and immediate and allows easy accessibility to formerly often unreachable subjects.

The greatest advantage is that electronic mail requires no additional transcription so saves time and money. Any errors in incorrect transcription are eliminated and the

"conversation" remains in its original form. This allows for the researcher and Participant to reflect on replies and questions and therefore allows for further follow-up or elaboration, as required.

Although criticism has been directed at electronic mail as ignoring the human factor in interviews (Boshier, 1990:52; King in Richardson, 1996:61), such interviewing has an advantage in that it can reduce problems caused by shy Participants and the problem of "interviewer" effect which can result, for example, because of status differences between interviewee and interviewer. Some Participants too prefer to remain at a figurative distance from the researcher in the familiarity of their own domains and have control over what they communicate and when. Nevertheless, the use of electronic mail does establish a vital link between the researcher and the Participant in that both become bound by an emotional intimacy that develops as a result of sharing personal experiences, often common to both.

As this study involved the interpretation of data in which themes were identified using the categorical-content approach (Lieblich *et al.*, 1998) non-verbal gestures, pauses and tonal qualities were unimportant. Although to date, the study of electronic mail as a research tool is limited, current literature suggests electronic mail should not be overlooked and that its p:431; Coomber, 1997:2).

The three Participants, who agreed to face-to-face interviews, also agreed to having their interviews taped. The transcription of the tapes was a time consuming process. Complete transcripts of everything on the tapes were undertaken by the researcher herself in the interests of the accuracy of the research. Transcribing time was six and a half hours per tape. When the first draft of each tape was completed, the

researcher then relistened to each tape while reading the transcript to ensure that everything had been transcribed correctly the first time. The interviewees were too busy to read the transcripts so these transcriptions became the final drafts of the narratives.

The two different methods of interviewing employed, i.e., face-to-face for three Participants and electronic mail for the other three, did not make for any difference in maintaining the goals of the study. Edwards in Renzetti(1993:194) states, "Researchers conducting in-depth interviews should not be so concerned with making sure that what goes into an interview is the same to ensure 'reliability' and 'validity'. They should, instead, work toward ensuring that what comes out is the same quality. That is, not in terms of content but in terms of gaining a validly re/constructed re/presentation of 'what is' for each subject's situation and her understanding of it."

At the outset of the data collection process, the Participants completed a Data Gathering Questionnaire (Addendum 5). The replies to this are presented and analysed in Chapter Four. Following the Data Gathering Questionnaire the interviewing process, which made use of open-ended questions followed. This process remained open but focused. As answers were received from the Participants, whether in a face-to-face situation or by electronic mail, it was possible for the researcher to develop expansive questions using the Participants' own use of language to explore meanings and to provide clarification. The semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to explore and probe issues which arose within the predetermined enquiry areas. The flexibility of the design of the study allowed for focus on areas of particular importance, as they arose, so the Participants were able

to validate and voice ideas which had not emerged before. Central to this qualitative approach is the belief that people give meaning to their experiences in a social context and so there can be multiple realities. This dialogical relationship between Participants, who became co-researchers and the researcher was open-minded and open- hearted. This made possible cycles of reflection and sharing between the two which became important in the interpretation of the data by the researcher.

In some cases there was a need to follow up the initial interview, particularly when electronic mail was the method used to obtain information. Reinharz (1992:37 – 38) writes: "Multiple interviews are likely to be more accurate than single interviews because of the opportunity to ask additional questions and to get corrective feedback on previously obtained information . Multiple open-ended interviews are well suited to understanding how a woman develops her ideas. This can be done, however, only among interviewers who have time to invest in the process."

The interview questions were divided into three sections. **Section A** (Addendum 6) dealt with personal information regarding the Participants' early development and family background. **Section B** (Addendum 7) dealt with their "management experience" and **Section C/Conclusion** (Addendum 8) provided the Participants with an opportunity to share their views and provide comments within the context of the study, which had not been covered elsewhere in the questionnaire.

The narrative method of enquiry uses the qualitative data-gathering technique of interviews, which have become "the principal means by which feminists have sought to achieve the active involvement of their respondents in the construction of data about their lives" (Reinharz, 1992: 18). The interviewing processes are strongly

defended by social scientists as it provides the researcher with people's experiences and memories in their own words and so is compatible with feminist concerns (Reinharz, 1992; Belenky *et al.* in Reinharz, 1992; Cotterill, 1992: 594; Ribbens 1989: 579).

Despite this confirmation, the particulars of interviewing vary widely. Feminists themselves differ over a number of issues, the prime one being the dimension of power and control in the interviewing situation. Many writers suggest that the interviewer must establish control while others seek a balance of power between the interviewer and the interviewee.

Oakley in Reinharz (1992:54) writes that a contradiction exists between interviewing scientifically i.e. objectively and that of feminist research, which desires openness and intimacy. She believes that the relationship between interviewer and interviewee should be equalised to achieve a feminist ethic of commitment in research.

Lynda Measer in Cotterill (1992:514) called interviews "unnatural" as the balance of power will vary according to how structured the situation is and how specifically interviewees become part of the research process. She experienced difficulty in asserting control over interviews with older people.

Ribbens (1989: 581) suggests that, "The balance of power within the interview has all sorts of implications, including the effect of questions asked, and the involvement of the Participants." Altering the balance of power might affect both the Participants and the interviewer. For example, an interviewer might terminate, untimely, an interview as a result of feeling some discomfort.

Some researchers have paid little attention to the power issue between women, assuming that the researcher will always be more powerful than the interviewee because of her knowledge and status (Stanley and Wise, 1983). Conwell (1984) also supports this view. Cotterill (1992: 604), however, suggests that the balance of power shifts between the two during different interview situations but that "the final shift ... is balanced in favour of the researcher, for it is she who eventually walks away." Wise in Ribbens (1989: 94) acknowledges the power issue but says feminists need to learn to deal with it wisely. Ribbens (1989: 590) sides with this view and states that researchers do have power in the interview situation so, "While we may seek strategies to minimise this power, groups without power more generally in society are not in a position to assert power over the research process either, which is the essence of vulnerability."

The researcher supports the view that total objectivity cannot be achieved in the interviewing process and that although strategies can be put in place to reduce subjectivity, the research remains the researcher's project, a process engaged in to bring about social and political change .

Reinharz (1992: 28), in reference to Oakley, writes, "She suggests that feminist interviewing involves commitment on the part of the researcher to form a relationship, and on the part of the interviewees to participate with sincerity." Thus, the researcher made every effort to establish a sincere rapport with the Participants and to gain their trust so that together they felt at ease exploring the objectives of the project, within the promise of total confidentiality which is in keeping with feminist research tradition.

3.3 ANALYSIS OF DATA

The analysis of qualitative data, according to Wolcott (1994), has three different emphases: description, explanation or interpretation. By interpretation he refers to the asking of what the data means. Interpretation is always personal, partial and dynamic and as narrative research does not require replicability of results, the researcher's wisdom, skills and integrity are vital. Also required is the ongoing examination of text against interpretation. The analysis of the data involved a systematic process of collection, organisation and the division into manageable units and searching to identify the patterns or themes against the aims of the project.

As already referred to in Chapter Three, the researcher used the categorical-content approach (Lieblich *et al.*, 1998) for the analysis and interpretation. Themes were identified in the texts of the narratives and they were sorted into categories for each of the three sections of the questionnaire, i.e., early educational and family experiences (sociological/psychological categories), the "management experience" (identification of intrinsic and extrinsic factors affecting this experience) and voluntary contributions from the Participants to this study.

3.4 CONCLUSION

After the analysis of the data, interpretations were then made against the themes identified. Responsibility for the interpretation lies in the hands of the researcher (Cotterill, 1992; Ribbens, 1989; Stanley and Wise, 1983). Grounded theories were generated while reading and analysing the data, in accordance with the circular motion proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Charmaz (1990: 38) emphasises how grounded theorists construct theory from data, "By starting with data from the lived experience of the research participants the researcher can, from the beginning attend to how they construct their worlds. That lived experience shapes the researcher's approach to data collection and analysis. In comparison, more traditional logical-deductive approaches explicitly derive hypotheses from pre-existing theories, that fundamentally structure both the data collection and analysis toward verification of refutation of these hypotheses." The discussion of the interpretative conclusions and the emergent theories follow systematically in Chapters Four and Five.

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CHAPTER FOUR

*"And, if he then should dare to think
Of the fewness, muchness, rareness,
Greatness of this endless only
Precious world in which he says
He lives – he then unties the string".*
(Robert Graves in Malan)

4.1A DEMOGRAPHIC PORTRAIT OF THE PARTICIPANTS OF THIS STUDY (WITH REFERENCE TO THE DATA GATHERING QUESTIONNAIRE, ADDENDUM 5)

The collection of data relevant to this study ran from April 2002 to July 2002. The personal details of the Participants are recorded in the summarised table, which follows, with reference to **Questions 1 and 2**. (Personal details and Present Post held):

Table 7: Demographic Portrait of Participants

Demographics	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six
Participant's number						
Title	Miss	Mrs	Mrs	Prof	Prof	Prof
Position held	Dean	Dean	Dean	Dean	V-P	V-P (+ acting V-C temp)
Time in current position	10 mnths	3 yrs	2.5 yrs	6 mnths	4 yrs	4.5yrs (5 mnths)
Highest Academic Qualification	M.A.	M.Sc	M.F.A.	D.Ed	D.Ed	D.Phil
Age	30 – 39	50 – 65	50 – 65	40 – 49	50 – 65	40 – 49
Marital Status	Unmarried	Married	Married	Married	Married	Married
Children ?	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

The Participants of this study were representative of the White, Black and Indian race groups in South Africa. Their ages ranged between 30 - 65 years. Three had Master's Degrees and three had Doctorates. Four of the Participants were Deans, having held the position for a period ranging from six months to four and a half years. Two were Professors; one of whom was also acting Vice-Chancellor at the time. Of the six Participants, only one did not have children and of the six, only one was unmarried but had children. This information regarding children was obtained indirectly from **Section B, Question 10** of the semi-structured interview

The information had more significance in this section of the Data Collection for the establishment of an overall profile of the participants. Recent research provides contradictory results when attempting to establish a description of the domestic profile of female managers. Tharenou and Conroy in Kirchmeyer (1998:6) find female managers are more likely to be unmarried and childless. *Japan Access* (2002), in a discussion of the Japanese Plan for Gender Equality, 2000, refers to the increasing number of women who want to work after graduating from higher education on an equal basis with men. As a consequence of this, fewer Japanese women are making marriage their main focus. Forty-four percent of women who were of marriageable age in 1995 remained unmarried, seeing holding a job and raising children as incompatible with marriage.

According to Yerushalmi's thesis on *Women in Management* in Lichtman (2001:1), the majority of women senior managers in Israel married and had children "while climbing the corporate ladder". She says that this is in contrast to American women who tend to remain single and childless until they are established professionally

Homans in *Different Priorities* (2002), a study on the hiring of scientists and technical staff for the National Health Service (England), found that underlying the selection procedures was an assumption that women would leave to have babies and so it would not serve a long-term purpose to hire them. Only women interviewees were asked questions regarding their married status and number of children. Homans feels that this influenced perceptions of who could be a manager.

Davidson and Cooper (1987) state that women, who advance as managers, are less likely to be spouses or parents. This is supported by Ragins and Sundstrom (1989)

who propose that a spouse and children interrupt women's work experience and thus reduce promotion prospects. This view that women managers are more likely to be unmarried and childless than male managers is supported by Alban (1987) and Rowney and Cahoon (1990).

Further research (Basil and Traver, 1972; Larwood *et al.*, 1980) show that in comparison with male managers, women managers are less likely to get married and have children. Kane, Parsons and Associates, in Ragins and Sundstrom (1989:105), refer to a study of 107 women presidents of companies in the United States of America which revealed that only half had maintained successful marital relationships and only one in three had children.

An article in The New York Times (Bumiller, 2002:1) announced the resignation of Karen Hughes, an influential Counsellor to President Bush and one of the most powerful women to serve in the White House since 1994, on the grounds of the problems she was encountering balancing family and work. She stated, however, that she did not believe that women could not balance a high-powered career and domestic life.

The data from the researcher's project on women in top management in Technikons, is in contrast to that assembled concerning women's experiences in England, Japan and the United States of America that women in top positions are married and have children. This reveals the different view in South Africa women in academe. South African society is still very traditional in the sense that women are mainly seen as caregivers who are usually responsible for family and domestic concerns. They are

therefore seen to balance their domestic role in the home with their economic role in the workplace.

Question 2.2, 2.3, 2.5

(Is this your first appointment with your Technikon? If yes, where was your previous post and what position did you hold? Was your present post advertised?)

Participants Four and Five had previously held positions in universities in South Africa and had responded to external advertisements for their positions, as had **Participants Three and Six**. Only **Participants One and Two** had been appointed via internal advertisements.

Question 3

(What type of tenure does the post hold?)

Participants One, Two and Three held contract posts. **Participants Four, Five and Six** held their posts until retirement.

Question 4

(Would you consider your present post as being a promotion on your previous post?)

All of the participants considered their current posts (held at the time of the data collection) as being promotion over their previous positions and recognised the advantages provided.

Question 5

(Advantages of present post)

Table 8: Advantages Experienced.

Advantages	Participant
Improved Academic status	Participants One and Six
Job satisfaction	Participants One, Two, Four and Six
Financial reward	Participants One, Two, Four and Six
A combination of the above	Participants Three, Five and Six
Other (specify)	Participant Four viewed her position as having provided her with more power and authority than previously experienced.

Question 6

(Have you ever had a Performance Review?)

It was interesting to note that although Technikons have common internal structures and processes, only **Participant Three and Six** had ever had a performance review. They were in Technikons in different provinces.

Question 7

(Have you been encouraged to apply for a more senior position in your present institution?)

Only **Participants Three and Six**, once again, had been encouraged to apply, within their institutions more senior positions (their current position).

Question 8

(What department/faculty committees do you serve on?)

All Participants served on committees, which involved them in management decision-making and gave them status in their Technikons. Although the names of the committees varied from Technikon to Technikon their core functions were the same, that is, decision-making in academic matters, policy processes, human resources and student issues.

Questions 9 and 10

(Does your institution have an equal opportunities statement? Does it have an Equal Opportunities Committee?)

Participants One, Two and Five indicated that their institutions had an "Equal Opportunities Statement" but none of the institutions, where Participants were employed, had an Equal Opportunities Committee so Questions 10.2, 10.3 and 10.4 were not applicable in this study.

4.2 Background Information of the Participants with reference to Section A of the Semi-Structured Interview Questionnaire (Addendum 6)

This section of the questionnaire dealt with aspects of the early educational and family backgrounds of the Participants. The information obtained from this section contextualises sociological/psychological aspects which the researcher felt would provide understanding of the Participants' experiences prior to their completion of secondary education and which might have relevance for this study.

As a point of clarification for the reader, in the text selected and quoted from the Participants' correspondence, that is from those who communicated via electronic mail (**Participants Three, Four and Five**), the researcher has corrected typographical and spelling errors that do appear when using this medium of correspondence. In addition, the researcher has used ellipse followed by the word "omission" in bold font in brackets, for sensitive information that was omitted from the Participants' narratives, for example, names of persons, places and institutions. Apart from those changes the narratives remain unaltered.

The replies to **Questions 1 - 9** from **Section A** of the Semi-Structured Interviews, for each participant follow:

PARTICIPANT ONE

Q1 What did your parents do for a living?

I am from an extended family. My grandparents raised me. My grandmother was a nursing assistant and my grandfather was a sickly person so he had retired early but he opened a small business.

My mother did work for my grandfather then moved on and became self-employed as a dressmaker, which she still does.

My father passed away when I was 8 days old so that's why I was raised by my grandparents. My mother had another house and got somebody else. I am from a very big family.

Q2 Did your parents encourage you to work hard at school?

At home, not really, as a big family. They were just concerned that we went to school but what we did about homework and so on, no support structures. You did your own thing. When we came home from school we had to do our normal chores. I was the eldest among the young cousins and had to cook. My brother was the oldest male so we shared the chores. Nobody checked our homework. We played before dark and then I had to do the cooking. If I do my homework; if not I go to sleep and then do it first thing in the morning.

Q3 Were you rewarded for working hard at school by your parents?

Was to certain extent. No big deal. Known factor that I came in first 5 top 10. So first years they expected it. My brother was really smart so I got scolded because he was always top of the class. He never fell lower than third place. But I was a hard worker.

Q4 Was excellence in academic achievement considered important by your school?

Not every teacher was inclined towards academic excellence. Just a few. For these you wouldn't mess up. Wouldn't do homework quickly in the morning, but in time. Those enthusiastic teachers we really looked forward to. The focused ones we really looked forward to.

Q5 Did you enjoy school?

Very much. Growing up in a township my level of English not good. Then before I started school my grandfather was a principal in a bible school in Swaziland so just before I started school I stayed with him there. There were just English speaking people so when I went to the township ... (omission) I spoke English like a first language person so going back to the township school with that level of English the teachers were always impressed with my level of English so I know when I went to school, if there was something to be interpreted, they would call me. So I was really looking forward to school and meeting all those sorts of friends. Also while there a moment I wouldn't be responsible person at school or at home. I was the eldest and had to be responsible. So I could be child again at school, so I really looked forward to school.

Q6 Did you participate in extra-curricular activities in your school-going years, which helped you develop leadership and interpersonal skills? (e.g., youth activities, church youth groups, girl guides, etc).

Not really. The school principal lived about 5 hours from my home and every so many months he took us to the girl guides to the (omission) Gardens, I never understood what it was all about but we enjoyed the good food and playing nice clean places, the ...(omission) Gardens as opposed to the streets of the township. Nice clean place and we had the feeling we were going to an up-market area. For us, the focus on what we were doing. I don't know if they had that vision but for them it was seeing us happy. We enjoyed it very much.

Q7 Were there teachers at school or adults other than your parents who influenced you as far as having a career is concerned?

To focus on a career just came within me. [Participant incorporated further details for this question into Q8)

Q8 Did your parents encourage you to study further after leaving school?

Growing up and suffering in an extended family and we were poor. My grandparents tried hard to make ends meet. I said to myself I have to get education. I don't want to end by being like others. In family I just wanted to break through. No one in my family was a graduate. I am first one in my family to be a graduate. I felt that being raised by the grandparents, I had to get something to actually make my life good so when others came into my life the support was really in applying for bursaries and when I wanted them to stand surety for me, they would support. Especially the school principal I referred to. He would support me and say I must work hard. But really it was self-motivation. I never had enough time to play. I always had to do chores. So I started to sew. I hate sewing. I don't sew anymore as a result. Even now I leave sewing, fixing this and that to when my mother comes. Housecraft at school I hated. I was told my stitches were terrible. I hated sewing and coupled with my background, I said I am not going to be a dressmaker like my mother. I wanted to be educated and be a lawyer. After completing Matric. I did not have the money. I applied for a bursary to go to University of ... (omission). I didn't know And I phoned the bursary people before I left for ...(omission) for confirmation as I didn't have a piece of paper. They said no worry, go. I arrived at ...(omission). I

stayed for a week doing orientation, as I was to do B.Proc. After a week, no money. My grandparents said stay and they will pay. I know that as my extended family that would put me under pressure and I wouldn't be focused on my studies as I would be focused on. If I fail this would affect my grandparents as they would have no food and other things. So I didn't tell them. I just took the next bus and went straight home.

My cousin had just started up a building construction company – a female who had just broken through so I went and worked with her for a while. Then my grandparents said they would pay for me to do a secretarial course so for six months I did this and thereafter I did another one-month course. Then I worked and helped my cousin as a secretary and I worked part-time at Edgars. Eventually I applied for bursaries. I got one from ...(omission) Fund but my grandmother didn't want anything to with the ...(omission) so I got another one. I had lost hope. I matriculated in 1986; 1987 did secretarial courses and in 1988 did nothing. I got a bursary from South African Council of Churches and phoned University of ...(omission) and my first choice was Proc. But I shifted from that. My grandfather as a priest, a Christian, said you cannot do law and my grandparents discouraged me from that.

My second choice, do social work and help other kids who started like me, or become a teacher. So when I phoned for social work at ...(omission) they told me they were full. They had 600 applicants and were gong to take 200 so they put me through to Education. The one fella who I spoke to there said "Come." So I took a train first time to Durban. I had a feeling that God had a reason. If my grandmother didn't want me to be a lawyer. 1989 I started. I never dreamt of being a

lecturer. I though I would be a teacher and go back home and teach there.

But I was approached by a lecturer as I specialised in method, second language at University of ...(omission) who needed tutors for Zulu 1 students, second language students, so I became a tutor and got a contract but never dreamt of being a lecturer and going in that direction. July 1997 I joined a Technikon.

Q9 Who paid for your education after high school?

My education was paid for by bursaries by South African Council of Churches, for B.Paed. Degree. But for my Honours, I was approached by the Department of Education, University ...(omission) who said they would pay my fees and give me an allowance. For my Masters I paid myself.

I never ever taught in a school – only for my teaching prac. In my first degree. I would like to have taught at school, high school not primary level.

PARTICIPANT TWO

Q1 What did your parents do for a living?

My father was a clerk on the ...(omission) and my mother a housewife. I come from a large family of six children. We were relatively poor and there was no money for education.

Q2 Did your parents encourage you to work hard at school?

Yes.

Both my mother and father did make it clear that there was no money available for education, car, clothes etc. Once I had finished school; even though I could stay at home, I would have to be self-supportive.

Q3 Were you rewarded for working hard at school by your parents?

Yes, both verbally and psychologically. I was praised, supported, encouraged and monitored.

Q4 Was excellence in academic achievement considered important by your school?

Yes. Prizes were given for Dux and merit awards for academics. I was identified as being an achiever and so was encouraged. I went to ... (omission) High School.

Q5 Did you enjoy school?

No, in the sporting areas and areas other than academics.

Yes, in academics and schoolwork. I liked the structured academic environment. My peers considered me a nerd. I was useless at sport and the like but my peers wanted me on their team if there was an academic or scholastic quiz or if they wanted help with their homework. I was always considered by my peers as strange. I suppose I could consider myself as being then a square peg in a round hole.

Q6 Did you participate in extra-curricular activities in your school-going years, which helped you develop leadership and interpersonal skills? (e.g., youth activities, church youth groups, girl guides, etc).

No. I was useless at sport but I was often asked by my teachers to help my peers with academic things they didn't understand, for example in maths. If pupils in my class couldn't understand, the teacher would ask me to explain them.

I was made Head Girl not because, I think, I was popular, because I wasn't, but because the teachers recognised my academic abilities so I often had to present speeches and help organise events. Basically the position was forced on me. I was very shy and quiet at school and did nothing assertively to become Head Girl and a prefect but I suppose that and helping teach my peers gave me some interpersonal skills. I was always an obedient pupil and the teachers recognised me as being responsible so I was given responsibilities such as prefect, teaching others, monitor and such like.

Q7 Were there teachers at school or adults other than your parents who influenced you as far as having a career is concerned?

Yes. There were teachers who encouraged me but the Head of the school stands out. When I was in matric my father had lined up a job for me in the ...(omission) as there was no money for education. But the Head thought I would be a good teacher and encouraged me. She said I would be able to get a bursary so I applied for ...(omission) College, thinking that it would be easier to get money. My Head tore up my

application and said, "No. You are going to University". I said, "How?" She said that I would get bursaries and I did. I completed a B.Sc (Maths and Science) and then went straight on to a B.Sc (Hons.), and then immediately to a Masters (B.Sc.). I then began teaching. I was firstly a grad assistant then part-time lecturer at ...(omission) University. Thereafter I was the only Biology teacher at ...(omission) College. Then later joined Technikon...(omission).

Q8 Did your parents encourage you to study further after leaving school?

Yes, although they reiterated that there was no money and I would have to apply for bursaries.

Q9 Who paid for your education after high school?

I had bursaries for my initial degree, Honour and Masters. The institution where I worked paid for my H.D.E. (Higher Diploma in Education) which I completed later.

PARTICIPANT THREE

Q1 What did your parents do for a living?

My father was an accountant/bookkeeper; my mother a housewife, although she held clerical positions from time to time.

Q2 Did your parents encourage you to work hard at school?

Not particularly, although they obviously did not want me to do badly.

Q3 Were you rewarded for working hard at school by your parents?

I was quite rebellious at school – not a model pupil – and got very involved in work I was passionate about, esp. Art, English. When I wasn't achieving wonderful results my father threatened to take me out of school in Std. 8 (in those days they had the Junior Certificate and many school kids left at that time). The threat was enough to make me pull up my socks and achieve credible matric results. So no carrots, but the stick.

Q4 Was excellence in academic achievement considered important by your school?

Yes, they took great pride in their academic achievements. Had history of high achievers who made good after school.

Q5 Did you enjoy school?

I only enjoyed those aspects that I was passionate about – otherwise chafed at the bit and tended to get up to mischief as a result. Found a lot of school quite boring and not particularly challenging. A few teachers, however, made a difference.

Q6 Did you participate in extra-curricular activities in your school-going years, which helped you develop leadership and interpersonal skills? (e.g., youth activities, church youth groups, girl guides, etc).

Again I tended to initiate projects and get involved in activities that really interested me – school magazine, coordinating decorations for functions, etc. I was never considered prefect or leadership material –

didn't toe the line or achieve enough. I found organisations like girl guides too 'ra-ra' for my liking.

Q7 Were there teachers at school or adults other than your parents who influenced you as far as having a career is concerned?

One particular art teacher adopted a completely different interactive methodology in the Art History classes. As a result we had 7 Art distinctions that year in our matric class. She challenged us and opened up the whole visual language or art and design history, which certainly partially influenced my subsequent career choice.

Q8 Did your parents encourage you to study further after leaving school?

Not particularly. My parents were not well off and university education represented considerable financial sacrifice. In addition, my father didn't really believe in careers for women – he wasn't against but I think he saw it as a lost investment since women get married anyway and don't have careers. I was the one who pushed for further study and they were then supportive.

Q9 Who paid for your education after high school?

My father contributed to about 60% of my living expenses, but I covered the rest and worked my way through university.

PARTICIPANT FOUR

Q1 What did your parents do for a living?

My father is a general practitioner and my mother was first a housewife and later a museum curator.

Q2 Did your parents encourage you to work hard at school?

Yes, but not excessively.

Q3 Were you rewarded for working hard at school by your parents?

Not really, it was just accepted as normal.

Q4 Was excellence in academic achievement considered important by your school?

Yes, there were prizes at the end of each year and also regular indications of who was coming 1st, 2nd, 3rd in class, etc.

Q5 Did you enjoy school?

Yes, I actually did. It was a very vibrant school with lots of activities and interesting teachers.

Q6 Did you participate in extra-curricular activities in your school-going years which helped you develop leadership and interpersonal skills? (e.g., youth activities, church youth groups, girl guides, etc).

I was on the SRC (we were one of the few schools who had such a thing in those days) and played a bit of sport and participated in drama.

Q7 Were there teachers at school or adults other than your parents who influenced you as far as having a career is concerned?

Yes, as I indicated, the teachers at our school were interesting people. They gave me a sense of wonder about the world and its people which in the end translated into a career in education.

Q8 Did your parents encourage you to study further after leaving school?

Yes, definitely, but not in the area I later pursued,

Q9 Who paid for your education after high school?

Partially my parents, partially a loan from the Department of Education.

PARTICIPANT FIVE

Q1 What did your parents do for a living?

My father was a priest and my mother, a teacher.

Q2 Did your parents encourage you to work hard at school?

All the time. When school reports came at the end of each term these were discussed in detail. My performance would be studied and compared to the previous terms.

Q3 Were you rewarded for working hard at school by your parents?

I was encouraged and motivated but there were no material rewards.

Q4 Was excellence in academic achievement considered important by your school?

Definitely, there were debating societies, high achievers' names were put on notice boards and at the end of the year the school held a prize giving ceremony.

Q5 Did you enjoy school?

Very much. I grew up knowing that education was the only key to success and therefore, I had to persevere no matter what.

Q6 Did you participate in extra-curricular activities in your school-going years which helped you develop leadership and interpersonal skills? (e.g., youth activities, church youth groups, girl guides, etc).

I was an athlete, girl guider, a sportsperson, prefect and sports captain.

Q7 Were there teachers at school or adults other than your parents who influenced you as far as having a career is concerned?

Most of my teachers motivated me to continue with my studies.

Q8 Did your parents encourage you to study further after leaving school?

All the time. My father had already paid the first instalment at university when I was offered a bursary to do a teachers' course at a ...(omission) Training College.

Q9 Who paid for your education after high school?

Bursaries.

PARTICIPANT SIX

Q1 What did your parents do for a living?

My Dad was a Psychologist. My Mom was a nurse and subsequently a housewife. My Dad headed Psychological Services for Department of ...(omission) and was a lecturer at the University of ...(omission). He also started Teacher Education at the Technikon.

Q2 Did your parents encourage you to work hard at school?

Yes. Always in all ways.

Q3 Were you rewarded for working hard at school by your parents?

I was rewarded in various ways, which were appropriate to the situation.

Q4 Was excellence in academic achievement considered important by your school?

Yes very much so. I went to ...(omission) School in my junior years and ...(omission) High School, in the area where I lived. I excelled in sport at this school, which was one of the few black schools in those days with sporting facilities.

Q5 Did you enjoy school?

I loved school. I liked the blend of academic enterprise and the sporting facilities. I am a sportswoman and at that stage represented South Africa in swimming and gymnastics and represented Province in netball. There was academic excellence and deep commitment of the staff. They showed personal interest in us so rare to find now which some schools don't have. I enjoyed the warmth and personal interest of the teachers.

Q6 Did you participate in extra-curricular activities in your school-going years which helped you develop leadership and interpersonal skills? (e.g., youth activities, church youth groups, girl guides, etc).

I think I covered that in the previous question.

Q7 Were there teachers at school or adults other than your parents who influenced you as far as having a career is concerned?

Always been my parents. My father took us abroad. I was one of those fortunate people that had been allowed to travel. I come from a mixed background. My Mom was Scottish and my Dad was Indian. My life experience was different and so as a result I had broad life experiences. We were never forced to do things but by example my parents, the role they played in community life and in political life provided examples. We were brought up on a diet of voluntary work and sport and academic excellence. We followed.

Q8 Did your parents encourage you to study further after leaving school?

Encouraged very much to further education.

Q9 Who paid for your education after high school?

I was fortunate. In my first year at University my Dad paid. Thereafter I had scholarships. I was very fortunate. I married early and have a husband whom I call a feminist; he is more feminist than some women I know. He has been very supportive and said go out there and do what you want. I studied abroad as well as here.

Questions 1, 2, 3 and 8 from Section A focused on the parents: their occupation; their support and encouragement in academic matters. The findings of these questions follow.

In summary, the fathers of Participants Three, Four, Five and Six were professional men. The father of Participant One had died when she was eight days old. She was then raised by her grandfather who was a church priest. Only the father of Participant Two, a clerk, did not fall into the category of professional men.

The occupation of the mothers of the Participants did not follow any pattern. The mothers of Participants Two and Three were housewives; the mother of Participant Four was initially a housewife then went on to become a museum curator; the mother of Participant Six was a nurse, then became a housewife. The mother of Participant One was self-employed, as a dressmaker.

Data reviewed on the level of parental education and the correlation between employment of women in male-dominated occupations (Lemkau, 1979:232) shows that such women tend to have fathers who are employed in professional or

managerial positions and that their mothers tended to be as well educated as their fathers and employed outside the home. Where they were not employed, they tended to be involved in family business or activities outside the home. In addition, research shows that such parents tend to be supportive of each other and encourage their children, emphasising hard work, achievement and education. The positive effect of a father's educational level on a child's academic achievement has been supported by Eshel and Kurman (1991) and Maqsud (1983).

The findings of this research study concur with the literature reviewed (Lemkau, 1979; Peluchette, 1993). Except in the case of one of the fathers of the Participants were all professional men. Four of the mothers of the Participants were employed outside of the home. The two mothers not employed were involved in family activities in the home.

Question 2 (Did your parents encourage you to work hard at school?) revealed that all parents were encouraging and supportive of the importance of working hard at school, with the exception of the parents of **Participant One** who were “not really” but nevertheless, were not entirely indifferent and the parents of **Participant Three** who were “not particularly” but “didn’t want me to do badly”.

The literature reviewed supported the importance of parental support. Where parents were supportive and encouraging in their children’s education, pupils’ scholastic achievements improved. (Hennig in Lemkau, 1979; Kysel *et al.* in Hemmings, 1996; Sternberg *et al.* and Hendrikson in the WEAC Report accessed 2002).

Question 3 referred to the “rewards” from parents for working hard at school. Although “reward” was differently interpreted by the Participants, the common factor which emerged was their parents’ interest in their academic progress. As can be seen in the Table below, which records replies of Participants, rewards were given, except in the case of **Participant Four** but this was clarified by her answer that her parents were concerned with her progress, hence, “the stick” if she did not work hard.

Table 9: Parents’ Interest in Academic Matters

Participant	Answer
One	To a certain extent. Not a big deal.
Two	Yes. Verbally and psychologically.
Three	No carrots – but the stick.
Four	Not really, it was accepted as normal.
Five	I was encouraged and motivated but there were no material rewards.
Six	I was rewarded in many ways that were appropriate to the situation.

Research shows that children, raised in homes where parents are supportive and encouraging in academic schooling (as was revealed in the previous question), tend to be students who achieve at higher levels than those who do not experience such encouragement and expectations. Hickman (1999:1) refers to the evidence found by Mosteller and Maynihan (1972) in their re-analysis of the Coleman Report (1966) that one-third to two-thirds of the variance in school achievement could be accounted for by home variables rather than school variables.

Hendrikson in the Wisconsin Education Association Council’s Report(WEAC) (2002:7) stresses the importance of parental involvement for student achievement. She says, “When parents are involved, children do better in school ...” Swap in the same article (2002:8) argues that parental involvement is “a necessity”. A study

conducted in Wisconsin by Allen and Kickbusch, (WEAC Report, 2002:12) also reveals that the most academically successful students tend to have parents who are demanding and involved in their children's education.

Parental involvement should be the basic support for the holistic development of children. In South Africa the essential functions of the family have been radically disturbed (Mundaly in Donald *et al.*, 2002:98). Different family compositions (nuclear, extended, grandparents, other relatives) affect the upbringing of children. Uzoka in Donald *et al.* (2002:102) also refers to the disturbances of Westernisation, urbanisation and value conflict which, combined with poverty, have a great effect on parenting in Black communities. The stability of White and Indian families has also been as severely affected by these factors although these parents are seen to be able to provide a more stable home life where education is supported and encouraged. In the context of this research project this was seen to be the case. **Question 8** showed that **Participants Two, Four, Five and Six** were encouraged by parents to pursue further study. Although **Participant One** was not discouraged, no positive reinforcement was given. In her own words, the desire to continue, “just came from within me”. It is interesting to note that the father of **Participant Three** did not believe in careers for women. Her parents were “not well off” and education represented “considerable financial sacrifice”, yet when she “pushed for further study”, her parents “were then supportive”.

In the South African context attitudes to further education seem to be class related, that is middle class value education more than do members of the working class. As was discussed in **Question 3**, economic factors do play a role in parenting. Poor living conditions which are the result of inadequate economic

resources make the need for employment paramount. Where a family's income is sufficient and where the value system supports the importance of education, children are encouraged to further their studies. In this research it can be seen the importance of further study was recognised by parents even though the pursuit of such studies may not have been initiated by them.

The importance of parents' support (or the lack thereof) has been shown as a factor in affecting children's decisions to stay at school or leave without furthering their education (Kysel, West and Scott, 1992:89). Studies show a strong correlation between parental involvement and a child's success at secondary school. Parents are very influential in providing secondary school children with concepts that will help them in the process of their career development (Herr and Cramer, 1992:47).

Ainley, Sheret and Paxman in Hemmings (1996:15) show that high parental expectation is positively correlated with continuing secondary school enrolment. Hemmings (1996:3) pinpoints the importance of family background as a construct that should be included in the study of school achievement. Clark and Horan (2001:11) refer to the work of Gustafson and Magnusson (1991) which shows that parents who wanted their girls to attend college and believed they were capable, were more likely to have high achieving daughters in school than parents who had low expectations of their female offspring. Trusty in Clark and Horan (2001:2) suggests that active parental involvement predicts positive attributes towards school and the future, including better career decision-making skills. In parental involvement he includes their involvement in their children's grades, activities and emotional well being.

The findings of the writer's research were in keeping with reviewed data from relevant literature in showing that parental influence, support and encouragement affect children's learning and academic progress. The Participants of this study revealed strong parental support for further study.

Participant Two answered, "Yes,. (encouraged)"

Participant Four replied, "Yes, definitely..."

Participant Five responded "All the time."

Participant Six said, "Encouraged very much..."

Participant Three said that her father "didn't believe in education for girls", and Participant One stated that finally her grandparents did support her.

Question 4, 5, 6 and 7 dealt with matters related to the school (Was excellence in academic achievement considered important by your school?) and revealed that academic achievement was considered important in the secondary school attended by the Participants. In all schools, prizes and awards were made to those pupils who excelled in academic achievement. Participants felt that such reinforcement of pursuing academic excellence acted as a motivational factor in pursuing academic excellence for those students who were academically inclined.

Question 5 (Did you enjoy school?) The answers to this question showed that all Participants had really enjoyed school. Each responded differently in her identification of the source of that pleasure.

Table 10: School Enjoyment

Participant	Answer
One	Very much. I enjoyed friends. It was a place where I could be a child.
Two	Yes – academics and school work. I liked the structured academic environment.
Three	I only enjoyed those aspects I was passionate about – otherwise I chafed at the bit.
Four	Yes, I actually did. It was a vibrant school.
Five	Very much. I grew up knowing that education was the only key to success.
Six	Loved school. I liked the blend of academic enterprise and the sporting facilities.

Hemmings (1996:3), in his theoretical model of school achievement, lists thirteen constructs that influence senior secondary school achievement, one of which is what he terms “academic integration”. This construct includes “the enjoyment and values of learning” and the importance of “teacher assistance and approachability”. This point was further supported by the answers of the Participants in **Question 7** to be discussed later.

Question 6 investigated participation in extra-curricular activities which might have helped in the development of leadership and interpersonal skills. Only two of the Participants, **Five** and **Six**, had participated in extra-curricular activities which they considered had helped; **Participant Five** had been a girl-guide, a spokesperson for the school, sports captain, prefect and athlete. **Participant Six** had represented

South Africa in swimming and gymnastics, as well as her province in netball. The other four Participants had only dabbled in the things in which they were interested.

Question 7, dealing with the influence of teachers on participants in choosing a career rendered a unanimous response: teachers were motivating factors and role models in influencing the selection of careers.

Perrone (2002:1) refers to the Social Learning Theory of Career Decision-Making (SLTCDM) of Krumboltz (1981) which emphasises the importance of role models in career decision-making. The theory declares that individuals are most likely to benefit from a supportive high quality role model relationship when making decisions concerning career choice. Anderson and Ragins in Perrone (2002:2) show an association between career decidedness and the influence of role models. Having a role model is not sufficient in itself. It has to offer and establish a supportive relationship.

Betz (1989:139) states that exposure to a role model is insufficient in facilitating positive career development. She says that there are two key characteristics of a role model: supportiveness and relationship quality. When these characteristics are present role models have great influence on the selection of careers.

The following quotations have been taken from the narratives of the Participants of this study, showing how supportive they found their teachers:

Table 11: Teachers' Influence On Career Selection

Participant	Answer
One	... the Head Master did influence me.
Two	Yes, there were teachers who encouraged me but the Head of the school stands out.
Three	One particular art teacher adopted a completely different interactive methodology ... She challenged us ... which certainly partially influenced my subsequent career choice.
Four	Yes ... the teachers at our school were interesting people. They gave me a sense of wonder about the world and its people which in the end translated into a career in education.
Five	Most of my teachers motivated me to continue with my studies.
Six	I enjoyed the warmth and personal interest of the teachers.

As can be seen from the above Table 11, all the Participants acknowledged the positive influence that teachers had on their career selection.

Participant One and Two referred to the positive influence of Principals of their schools .Davidoff and Lazarus(1997), with reference to South African schools, stress that one of the important tasks of Principals of schools is maintaining healthy relationships and caring for their pupils, They indicate too how important it is for the Principal to foster a supportive psychosocial environment for each pupil.

Participant Three, Four, and Six commented on the personal characteristics of their teachers which they felt had influenced them. These characteristics of warmth, interest and enthusiasm presented them with role models which had inspired them.

MacAulay(1990) and Hamachek(1995) identified these very characteristics ,among others, as being important in influencing pupils positively.

Participant Five referred to the motivational aspect of most of her teachers.Studies showing the positive influence of motivation from teachers as an important factor in success in school and in creating higher educational aspirations, have been conducted(WEAC Report,2002).

Question 9 dealing with who paid for the Participants' further education revealed that Participant One, Two and Five had received bursaries which paid for their tertiary education. The father of Participant Three paid for about sixty percent of her fees, she paid for the remainder by working part-time while at university. The fees of Participant Four and Six were paid partially by their parents and partially by a loan and a bursary, respectively. A common factor was that neither parents nor students (with one exception) paid entirely for the Participants' further education. Access to higher education among those who have been disadvantaged or those who experience financial difficulties in the payment of fees, has been made easier in South Arrica by the availability of loans and bursaries by the relevant institutions.

4.3 CONCLUSION

This Chapter presented a demographic portrait of the Participants from the Data Gathering Questionnaire (Addendum 5). It contained factual details relating to personal and job related information, Section 4.1.

Section 4.2 covered the information obtained from Section A (Addendum 6) of the Semi-Structured Interview, providing insight into parental and school influences in the secondary school stage of the participants.

The findings were as follow:

- Fathers of the Participants but for one, were employed in professional positions.
- Mothers were employed outside the home or when not employed ,were involved in activities in the home.
- Parental interest and encouragement in school performance had been experienced by the Participants.
- All Participants had loved school.
- Parental and teacher expectations affected and influenced positively pupil learning and career decision-making.
- Parental support for further study had been shown.
- Fees for further education had been paid partially by parents and partially by loans or bursaries.

The following Chapter, Chapter Five will present the findings and discussion of the two parts of **Section B** of the Semi-Structured Interview Questionnaire (Addendum 7): the “management experience” (**Question 10 – 15**) and the Conclusion (Addendum 8, **Question 16 – 18**).

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CHAPTER FIVE

"A long habit of not thinking a thing wrong gives it the superficial appearance of being right."

(Thomas Paine)

5.1 SECTION B OF THE SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

This Chapter deals with Section B(Addendum 7) of the Semi-structured interview, which focused on the management experiences of the **Participants and Section C, Conclusion(Addendum 8).**

Question 10 was concerned with the aspects they had found most difficult when balancing career and domestic cycles. Their responses were as follows:

Q10: What aspects did you find most difficult when balancing career and domestic cycles, e.g., partnerships, marriage, parenthood ,etc?

Participant One

Not what I have found but what I am finding. I am a single parent. I was about to get married but my partner is in ... (omission) and I was meant to go there. He is a teacher but was battling to get a job. We agreed to settle in ... (omission) so that we could get away from the family. But unfortunately that didn't happen. He was stuck in ... (omission) and I took a permanent job.

Before I took this one I had three job offers. We sat down to decide which one to take. We liked ... (omission) so I decided to take that one so the person who

must move is him because we took my job based on his decision. I said I did not mind going back home to ... (omission) but it was a case of choosing between the ... (omission) Department of Education and here ... (omission). He made it easy because he said he likes ... (omission). I thought that was fine. I like ... (omission) and for me it was an opportunity in a new field so I took this one ... (omission). Then he didn't get a job this side. He was a community figure involved with ... (omission). We discussed it and finally I moved down.

The difficulty now is that I have twins. Initially I battled with them and a nanny until my mother came to stay with us for a year and then for a year they went and stayed with her at home. But then I took them now in the second year but I was still fighting with my mother and my grandmother because they feel as a career woman I can't cope. I took the twins back with me.

There are times when I think if I had a partner or was married it would help. But now we are staying with my brother. He is a lawyer. He has just finished his articles. So at least I have somebody at times as a father figure. But the twins are four years old, turning five in December. They can bath themselves and have each other to play with. They have to take out their clothes. Every morning it is a battle. Every evening I have to go home and cook. At crèche they have a meal and only need a snack at night but it is me who needs the meal in the evening. Going back home after work, I leave the campus at about 4/4.30 because I have to pick them up from crèche by 5.15 so I like to pick them up by 5.00. I don't like them to be left late so at times, in this office, you can only work nice and quietly in the afternoon when people are tired and they don't want to come here.

When I was younger, I was a workaholic. When I was at ... (omission) University, I didn't have any family so when I was bored and everyone had left, the only thing I could think of was studying and so on. Over the weekends I used to go to the campus because I didn't have children or family so I could work. But now I am so busy with children and I think I want my life back. But each time when I pick them up from school whether I am stressed or angry, as soon as I enter the school and pick them up and they shout "Mummy", you love them all the way – it takes just a second. They are my greatest joy that's why I wouldn't leave them. But the extra duties, being a workaholic! On a Saturday when I bring them with me to work, I have to make sure they have something to write on and something to do – but they are a bundle of joy. But that's what I miss. The difficulty of being a single mother of twins – when you have one and you get an extra free one.

Participant Two

Initially in my lecturing career and as HoD, my husband was not supportive. When I wanted to mark or prepare lectures in the evenings, he said I should put it away as this was home time. Now I am in management, he is also now in management so there is greater understanding and we can chat about issues. We don't have children. Also the work in management is different – not so much preparation but rather policy making and thinking over strategies etc. which is the experience we now both have in management.

Participant Three

Parenthood: My first husband and I went to Paris, France on scholarships. We already had one young child, and had another while there. The marriage broke up shortly thereafter, my husband returned to SA and I continued on with the two children for another three years in France. Have operated as a single parent family since 1967 and at times I worried that I wasn't giving the children enough attention. I tried to make quality time and in retrospect seem to have succeeded – my daughter recently confessed that she had had a childhood rich in experiences, which made me feel good. Partnerships were not really a problem. I had a partnership for 18 years but we operated with a large degree of independence. However, on occasions, the demands of my work did start to put a slight strain on the relationship.

Participant Four

Parenthood is tough. You have to be constantly available, have lots of responsibilities. I am extremely lucky to have a very supportive husband and healthy, outgoing children whom I don't need to really worry about beyond the normal routines.

Participant Five

Parenthood and a difficult marriage.

Participant Six

I consider myself lucky that I have a partner who supports me, who is very much into affirmative action and women and gender issues. He has really

supported me through my studies and let me go ahead. He takes care of my children and cooks. He is very Indian. Many Indian men are very patriarchal.

Participants One, Three and Five cited parenthood as an area of concern in terms of their own perceptions of what being a good parent meant to each one, personally. Nevertheless, in retrospect Participants Three and Five felt that they had been successful parents.

Participant Three said,

"I tried to make quality time and in retrospect seemed to have succeeded."

Participant Five's response to Question 10 was,

"Parenthood" (but in the context of a difficult marriage).

She did not elaborate – but in retrospect felt she had coped well.

Participant One had experienced the difficulty of having twins (currently five years old) but added that,

"They are my greatest joy that's why I wouldn't leave them (to extended family to care for."

She went on to say,

"There are times when I think if I had a partner or was married it would have helped".

This perception is supported by Cook in Lemkau (1979:225) who says that single parents have a double duty to perform and that married parents are less loaded.

Both **Participants Four and Six** had experienced no problems with parenthood and were grateful to their spouses for support. **Participant Four** said, "I am extremely lucky to have a supportive husband and healthy out going children."

This was a view supported by **Participant Six**,

"I consider myself very lucky that I have a partner who supports me, who is very much into affirmative action and women and gender issues and has really supported me through my studies and let me get ahead. He takes care of my children and cooks."

Participant Two, who had no children, had experienced difficulty sharing time with her husband in the evenings but this soon changed when he moved into management so "... there is greater understanding and we chat about issues".

A study by Carroll in Wallace (1994:37) shows that one of the biggest problems female executives have to deal with is in coping with the conflict between career and family. Tothill (1998: 1 - 2) in a survey of women academics in Technikons and Universities in South Africa, reveals that family commitments were reported as a "major problem" by 13,9% of the respondents and as a "problem" by 28,7%; 26% said they were "no problem at all." In the area of family support concerning childcare, respondents were fairly divided between "strongly supportive", "supportive" and "fairly supportive" (under 30% each). Black women were more likely than White respondents to report their families as being "strongly supportive". This is perhaps owing to the fact that traditionally the extended family is characteristic of Indian and Black cultures in South Africa. The extended family consisting of three generations (grandparents, parents and children) is characterised by the mutual dependence of

its members. This means that in Black and Indian cultures, in particular, there are other family members to share domestic and child rearing duties.

In this research study, the writer found no problems which directly affected the Participants' juggling of home life and career. Spouses in particular were very supportive of their wives' careers.

Question 11(a) examined five qualities, which could be of importance for women to possess in order to get ahead in top academic management positions. Participants were asked to rate these qualities numerically one being the most important and five being the least important. "Spiritual values", "ambition", "academic qualifications" and "prepared to take risks" were the four qualities frequently referred to in the literature reviewed as being important for getting ahead in management. The fifth quality "being in the right place at the right time," was one which the writer had frequently heard mentioned by men in the Technikon hierarchy as a reason for women's advancement in management.

Question 11(a): (1 – most important, 5 – least important)

Table 12: Important Qualities

Participants	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six
◦ Spiritual values	4	2	3	5	4	4
◦ Ambition	2	4	5	3	2	3
◦ Academic qualifications	1	1	4	4	1	1
◦ Being in the right place at the right time	5	5	2	2	5	5
◦ Prepared to take risks	3	5	1	1	3	2

The results for “spiritual values” (relating to the spirit or soul, not religion) showed that three of the six Participants felt that spiritual values were important. **Participant Six** stressed that by “spiritual values” she was referring to morality. The process of learning or managing requires a set of morals, beliefs and assumptions and this demands the maintenance of new realities in dealing with power and people (Leadership, 2001). The application of spiritual or moral principles was seen to be important by the Participants. They felt that attaining a balance between material, intellectual and spiritual values was important in their situations where conflict and disharmony often prevailed. These internal principles, were for them, private and personal and related to their own integrity and value system, “individual pace stems from an inner state supported by a spiritual or moral attitude” (Rouhani, 1997:10).

The replies to the importance of “ambition” ranged across the five point system. Each Participant rated its importance, or lack thereof, differently in their experience.

The literature reviewed, however, does rate ambition as important to succeed. In a study by Bagihole (1993:263) on women academic staff in British universities, 62% of the established staff indicated ambition as important. Siddiqi (2000:1) writes that women's ambitions are much the same as men's and quotes a survey which revealed that 60% of women as against 62% of men, in the workplace are ambitious. Literature contradicting this is that of Ragins and Sundstrom (1989) who found that women had lower aspirations than men but qualified this by saying that perhaps this was a result of barriers to women in the workplace.

"Academic qualifications" was rated as most important by four of the Participants. Judge *et al.* (1995:487) conducted a study to investigate what predicts executive career success. They concluded that there is a positive relationship between level of education and career success but that evidence suggests that women and minorities have lower levels of success than male executives. Tharenou *et al.* (1994:921) also found positive correlations between education and career success at managerial level. They write that education is likely to improve managerial advancement as it provides the necessary knowledge and skills to succeed in top management positions.

Melamed (1995:38) writes that educational attainment is a key determinant of access to high status jobs. Although this is true for men and women, Melamed states that women are assessed under more strict criteria than men and have to show more rigidly than men that they have the required skills and qualifications to be successful at their jobs. This view is supported by Davidson and Cooper in Reay and Ball (2000:148) who believe that women who make it to the top in educational institutions have had male role models, the consequences of which are that they are then judged

within a male frame of reference which creates stress for them as they try to emulate male identities.

Powney in Eggins (1997:53) suggests that senior managers in educational institutions who want to gain promotion should "get qualified". Tothill (1998:9) in her study states that women academics have a lower proportion of Ph.D.s than men. Brooks in Tothill (1998:10) indicates that United Kingdom women academics with Ph.Ds were appointed at lower levels than their male counterparts. The researcher of this current study has shown that although only eight women were in top academic management in Technikons at the time of the data collection, of the six who agreed to participate, three had qualifications at Doctorate level and three at Masters' level. Current philosophy in Technikons, at present, seems to support a preference for a doctorate at top management level.

In South Africa legislation has focused on gender equality and the attempt to draw more women into the workforce. This has been addressed by the implementation of "affirmative action" and "learning on the job" which has gone a long way in recognising and addressing women's concerns of a "glass ceiling" preventing career advancement. However, women have succeeded in using these laws to effectively improve their working conditions. This can be attributed mainly to the social and cultural environment of the workplace.

Despite these tendencies, the Participants of this study did not regard themselves in their current positions as products of such policies: this was reinforced by their views to the next question of "being in the right place at the right time?" The Participants

and the researcher were of the opinion that academic qualifications are important to succeed to top levels of senior management and not advantageous positioning.

In fact the Question referring to "being in the right place at the right time" elicited strong comments from three Participants as being decidedly sexist.

Participant One responded,

"Being the in 'right place at the right time' is unacceptable. Sounds like a man's point of view"

Participant Two had this to say,

"Being in the right place at the right time' – ridiculous. A man's point of view?"

Participant Five scoffed at the suggestion and Participant Six elaborated,

"'Being in the right place at the right time', I don't like. That's a male assumption. Males think that's why women get the job. They won't change their attitudes. Covert behaviour to punish women, not to promote them."

The researcher noted that this sexist view, which she had personally previously encountered, had also been experienced by women in top academic management throughout the Technikon system. An example of this is the comment made by a male member of a Technikon's Research Committees on this question: "Perhaps you (the researcher) may find that all the Participants of your study are in top positions for that very reason!" Women managers still experience sexism through being patronised. Such prejudice and stereotyping will be referred to in more detail in the discussion of replies to **Question 13(a)** concerning the factors which the Participants had the most difficulty overcoming in their career paths.

Four of the Participants rated the quality of "prepared to take risks" as moderately high. **Participant Two** did not consider it important here but in Question 11(b) when Participants were asked if there were other qualities which they regarded as important, **Participant Two** stated, "prepared to take risks at face value" (Table 16). The Participants contextualised "risk taking" as taking a calculated risk based on reliable information and knowledge. Within these boundaries they were prepared to act when there was a good chance of making a correct decision. Gibbons (1998) writes that it is important in the workplace to take risks which are smart, that you understand and which make sense.

Lam in Gibbons (1998) has developed four questions for helping executives to assess the level of risk. He uses the acronym "RISK";

- "R" is for return: Are we achieving an appropriate return for the risks we take?
- "I" is for immunization: Do we have the controls and limits in place to manage downside risk?
- "S" is for systems: Do we have the systems to measure and report risk?
- "K" is for knowledge: Do we have the right people, skills, culture and incentives for effective risk management?

Following **Question 11(a)** was that of **Question 11(b)** which asked whether the Participants regarded any other factors as important. The responses given indicated what had impacted greatly on and linked strongly with the responses to **Question 15** ("What factors or philosophies do you attribute to your personal success in breaking through the "glass ceiling"?). The significance of these responses in this research project has led the researcher to link them to both Questions 11(b) and 15 when

analysing and interpreting the data. These will be discussed at the end of the Section B, that is after the findings of Questions 12, 13 and 14 have been presented.

Question 12 was designed to investigate whether the Participants had had any management training and if so, whether it had been formal or informal in nature.

Table 13: Formal / Informal Management Training

PARTICIPANTS	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six
Management degree/ diploma/ certificate						
Workshops/seminar/conference	√		√	√	√	√
Mentoring	√	√		√		
Networking	√	√	√	√	√	√
No formal training		√	√	√	√	

Question 12

None of the Participants had a qualification in management. Participant One had had formal training in an Australian programme conducted in South African higher education institutions for a small group of women of colour.

She said,

“I have training in management but not a management degree. I was trained in an Australian programme for women in tertiary positions. We were trained for two weeks in South Africa and had to do assignments for six months and implement the training in the workplace. Two people from each ... (omission) Institutions were involved in the programme”.

Participant Six answered,

"I have had management training at Harvard University".

The other four Participants had had no formal training.

The Participants' suggestions for empowering women in the patriarchal environment of Technikons and the factors and philosophies they attribute to their success in breaking through the "glass ceiling", point the way to developing the skills critically needed in top academic management. Women in academic management, once identified at middle management level, should be trained to develop the abilities needed to succeed at top management level, thus empowering them to break through the "glass ceiling". The Participants of this study revealed in **Question 12** that only two of them had had any formal managerial training: for **Participant One** as part of an Australian venture and for **Participant Six** as a result of her own initiative in the United States of America. Nothing formal had been offered to women by the Participants' institutions.

Smith (2002: 295) refers to an extensive study conducted by Deem, one facet of which was the examination of the appointment process of academic managers in the United Kingdom Universities. This study found that, "Only one-third of our sample had received any formal training". The survey evidence of that study supported the following suggestions "... the provision of appropriate training or development opportunities for, and feedback on the performance of, managers at all levels" (Smith, 2002: 309).

In contrast to this, in the South African context, Niemann *et al.* (2002: 132) report that in research into the field of training programmes in management, only Rall (1987) indicates that training programmes have a significant impact on management

development. Niemann et al. (2002:135) state that no research on this issue in the educational setting has been undertaken in South Africa. From the answers to the question regarding this issue, it can be seen that none of the Participants of this study had been offered any management training from their institutions.

However, Tharenou and Conroy (1994: 9) in their research on Australian managers state clearly that, "Training helps develop managerial skills, which women may have fewer opportunities than men to gain through experience." Wisker (1996: 77) in support of this states, "Crucial to women's empowerment in higher education is women – only training". Wisker's suggestion makes sense as women have different needs because of the abilities they possess (see Chapter Six) and have not been exposed to the same managerial experiences or training as have men in Technikons.

On the basis of the findings of this research project on women in top academic management in Technikons and according to the literature reviewed, the writer supports fully the proposal that women managers in Technikons be given formal management training while occupying middle management positions, that is before they move up the managerial ladder to more senior positions. Terborg and Zalensy in Tharenou and Conroy (1994: 9) state that career encouragement and training is "... especially important for women to become managers". Women tend to be overlooked when training is offered in institutions and because top management is seen as a male domain, women are not exposed to the same workplace experiences as men. Such programmes should allow those women aspiring to top management, the opportunity to be involved in a learning process that engages experience and knowledge of educational processes in an interactive way, without being forced to "learn on the job" where mistakes costly to individuals and institutions can be made.

This training should then be followed by continuous INSET (In-Service Training) and strong networking. Management training provides the trainee with credentials and credibility. Ragins and Sundstrom (1989: 61) support the notion that, "Training may be seen as a source of expertise and therefore aid promotion".

The Participants were questioned as to whether they had attended workshops/seminars/conferences (while in their present positions) which they felt had been of assistance.

Participant Two replied,

"I have attended no workshops / conferences / seminars in management training but would like to have. When I was an HoD, although I wanted to attend such presentations and training, I was not permitted by the then male Dean."

Participant Three had found them to be unsatisfactory,

"I am very cynical about the quality of most workshops / seminars that are offered. I have yet to attend one that gave me any new insight. They tend to be very pedestrian, non-challenging."

The other Participants were desirous of management training but were unable to offer views on the quality of such workshops as they had not participated in any.

In this research "a mentor" is someone already experienced in a role new to the mentee and who can therefore guide, advise and support the mentee. Only three of the Participants had experienced any mentoring and that had been at an informal level. Despite the large body of research on the importance of the mentorship

relationship (Hackney and Bock, 2000; ATHENA Development Project, 1999; Blake-Beard, 1999; Catalyst in Wallace 1994; Henning and Jardim, 1977), the Participants did not express any support for the system of mentors but felt very strongly the need for and importance of, networking.

Participant Six, who had not experienced mentoring, expressed the view that women don't support women, an issue addressed in Chapter Four, in which the writer expressed strong feelings regarding the lack of support from two top academic women managers who had refused to participate in this research project.

The six Participants felt so isolated in their positions in top management. They had not met any other women, on their way to the top who could or would mentor them. At the time of obtaining the data for this project, no formal mentoring was in operation in Teknikons. Any informal mentoring in management was organised by the initiatives of the women concerned. This was not the case for the Participants of this study.

In addition, the chilly patriarchal climate in Teknikons (Turnbull-Jackson, 1999) where male managers marginalised and covertly excluded women from top decision-making activities, had also excluded them from any male managerial support on their way to the top. The gender prejudice and stereotyping which denied them mentoring from men will be discussed when dealing with Question 13(a) which focuses on the difficulties the six Participants had to overcome in their career paths. Although mentors may be considered essential for the advancement of female managers in organisations (Ragins and Sundstrom, 1989; Ragins, 1989; Brass, 1985; Kanter, 1977) these Participants had not experienced any meaningful and supportive

mentoring in breaking through the "glass ceiling" and neither did they see such practice as a realistic future possibility in Technikons because of entrenched male bias and attitudes. They felt that women needed to take control for and of themselves to break through the strong attitudinal barrier they encountered and that mentoring was therefore unnecessary. Tothill (1998: 7) refers to Sadler who characterises as a myth the notion that mentoring is necessary. Sadler states that if an environment is sufficiently "nurturing" the need for mentoring is reduced.

The Participants viewed networking, which is a process of linking people to each other as career resources, as critical. All six Participants had initiated contacts, formally and informally, within their own educational organisations and across educational organisations, to overcome their isolation and gain access to information necessary to assist them in career advancement. No formal networking system existed for women in Technikons hence the Participants' proactive stance.

Participant One said,

"I practise networking in this job ... "

Participant Two supported this,

"I consider networking important and have only had such experience in my Faculty".

Participant Three elaborated,

"I regard networking as the single most important organisational strategy and networks as a very important organisation principle. Networking provides a means of enlarging one's potential reserves, broadening perspectives and

being exposed to new challenges to receive wisdom, new ideas and opportunities. I have learnt a lot from fellow networkers."

Participant Four replied,

"Networking? Yes, lots".

Participant Five said,

"Practise informal networking".

Participant Six added,

"Networking is very important for women and that is why I started to establish this Gender Forum and was hoping to get more men in that is why I called it "Gender" Forum because it's a nice way to encourage men to debate and become involved in discourse. Doesn't always work and there is resistance. Networking should be for specific purposes. Human beings are strange. They don't want to just meet and chat. Need to find a new way for women to network. Men go to the golf course. What is it that women like to do together? Need to establish that. Don't have girl / women clubs. Men have them. Seems to be a male thing. We women need to look at what brings women together and what prevents them from coming together. If we can find what prevents them from coming together then we can look at what brings them together. Women need to share, across cultures."

This idea of bringing both sexes together in a non-threatening way to enable men and women to work towards transformation in the workplace by providing a forum for discussion could be profitable. It was encouraging to note that

some men on campus were slowly joining the Forum in an effort to be noticed as "supportive of women's issues".

The realisation of the importance of networking for women in higher education began in the United Kingdom with the formal launch in January 1990, of the networking "Through the Glass Ceiling" (King in Eggins, 1997:35). Approximately forty women managers (heads of departments, Deans and professors in higher education) came together to formalise and extend a support network to assist women to break through the "glass ceiling". When women move into a predominantly male world where different perceptions and assumptions exist and where women are excluded from male networks, they need to develop mutually beneficial relationships.

O'Brien (1995), a career coach and consultant on women's leadership development in the United States, emphasises the importance of networking for women. She refers to a Catalyst Survey (1995: 2) in the United States of America which "... found that 70% of women's networks with Fortune 500 companies serve as a means to communicate women's issues to senior management". She adds that these networks enable female managers to share best practices, learn from each other and enhance their career development. Businesswomen in South Africa have access to networking via the Executive Women's Club of South Africa.

Ragins and Sundstrom (1989: 67) state that although there is little empirical research on the relationship between gender, networking and power, literature concerning informal networks indicates that networks are important for the development of power. It would follow then, as indicated by the researcher, that vital to top academic

women managers in Technikons is the development and maintenance of networks with a view to gaining information and power and improving job performance.

In summary, **Question 12** revealed that:

- Workshops/conferences/seminars attended were not considered successful in having taught anything new.
- Mentors were not considered vital in breaking the “glass ceiling”.
- Networking had been the critical factor in gaining information and power.
- Formal management training was a necessity while at middle management level, thus providing the skills and knowledge necessary for promotion to top management positions.

Question 13(a) was designed to elicit from the Participants the most difficult factors they had had to overcome in their career paths. The results were as follows; (One - most difficult, five – least difficult)

Table 14: Obstacles to Career Success

PARTICIPANT	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six
Institutional hindrances	3	3	5	4	3	3
Gender prejudice / stereotyping	2	2	1	1	2	1
Domestic responsibilities	4	1	5	2	1	5
Racial prejudice	1	4	4	3	4	2
Financial difficulties	5	5	5	5	5	4

Beginning from the bottom of the Table and reading upwards, it can be seen that "financial difficulties" were rated as the least difficult factor encountered. This is borne out by the replies to **Question 9** of **Section A** of the Semi-Structured Questionnaire in which the Participants indicated that finance had not been an issue in their higher education or in their selection of a career.

Three Participants indicated "racial prejudice" as significantly high, ranging from One to three. This factor was not explored any further in this project as nowhere else in this study was the problem raised and the results were not considered pertinent to the aim of the study. It has been noted, however, that one Participant was White in an institution where staff demographics needed to be addressed as part of transformation while the other two Participants were in a merged situation where two different cultural groups were perceived as jostling for control so perhaps this was the only context considered worthy of noting the presence of racial prejudice. It is widely accepted in the workplace in South Africa that racial discrimination is illegal and socially unacceptable.

The responses to "domestic responsibilities" were wide spread and in the light of the answers to **Question 10** (regarding the juggling of work and domestic affairs and whether families were supportive) this did not seem to warrant further attention. Significantly high were the responses to "gender prejudice/stereotyping" which was ranked One or Two by all Participants.

Throughout their narratives and particularly in response to **Question 14** ("Is there any special advantage to being female in a top academic management position?"), the Participants complained about the marked patriarchal nature of the Technikon

structure and climate which marginalised women, especially those in management positions (Turnbull-Jackson, 1999; Greyvenstein and van der Westhuizen, 1992). Many women managers experience a tolerance, rather grudgingly, from their male counterparts and are not seen as serious employees in management. The "old boys network" and attitudes of superiority towards women in senior positions reinforce male dominance.

Participant Six said, with reference to the attitudinal difficulties encountered by women in teaching in the 1970s and 1980s,

"Women in those days were not permanently employed if you were married".

Once in top management in Technikon ... (omission) she refers to the difficulties encountered with regard to the hostile, patriarchal environment,

"The work environment is hostile towards women in top management

Once women get to the top, they are still a single voice ... it is a lone battle ...

Women are still few and far between."

At this point it is appropriate to record the responses of the Participants to Question 14 as they unanimously replied that there was no special advantage to being female in a top academic management position in Technikons. Interwoven in their responses and discussion of experiences they underwent are examples of stereotyping, prejudice, marginalisation and sexism.

Table 15: Advantages to Being Female in a Top Academic Management Position

Participant	One	Job wise, not really. Problem – people are less likely to listen to you or your points just because you are female. No special advantage. It is rather a disadvantage until the mindsets are changed towards women in this job.
	Two	Not really. I don't play power games and don't play the helpless female – thing and use feminine ruses. I consider myself one of the group, buddies, peers, work colleagues.
	Three	One is that one has the opportunity to speak with some authority for what is normally a marginalized group and to bring this voice into the highest councils. There are numerous disadvantages – women in top management are as scare as hen's teeth so we tend to land up on every committee/grouping in the interests of representativeness, stretching us very thinly indeed! This can impact on one's effectiveness.
	Four	No, and I object when people say "you can use your charm". This is sexist and not true.
	Five	Except for the fact that women are protected by the constitution, there are no advantages. Men still continue to disregard women.
	Six	I am often asked : "What does it feel like being the only women at this level?" Perhaps all my life everything I did was in a male world. I did swimming, sport in the male world so I have never been uncomfortable with men. The only advantage: I could at least get them to hear the woman's point of view and to see how successful we can be. I think that for me was a big thing that they could see we can manage. Perhaps it put them on their guard but at least they could see women from a different perspective. They don't want to take notice most of the time but at least they see women manage very differently. We base it on a nurturing aspect.

Question 14

There is an abundance of literature supporting the prejudice and stereotyping that affects female managers. Negative stereotyping is still held by men about women's capabilities, skills and management styles in Technikons.

The domain of management is seen as traditionally that of the male and so leadership is embedded with masculine qualities and abilities) Reay and Ball, 2002; Morrison and Glinow, 1990; O'Leary, 1974). Women managers are expected to conform to the male norm in the workplace (Eggins, 1997; Blackmore, 1992). Women managers are patronised, criticised, overlooked and silenced because of their gender (Turnbull-Jackson, 1999; Wisker, 1996; Tannen, 1995).

In a survey of gender and power in organisations, Ragins and Sundstrom (1989) reveal a consistent difference favouring men in accessibility to positions of power and show that women occupy proportionately fewer positions of power in organisations. Their findings are supported by Tharenou and Conroy (1994). This situation is reflected in many Third World Countries, including South Africa, where women do not occupy positions that enable them to influence policies. Onsongo (2002) found that sex stereotyping, exclusion from male networks and hostile working environments are major factors negatively affecting female managers in higher educational institutions.

The final point in **Question 13(a)**, Table 13, refers to "Institutional Hindrances" which was given a rating of Three by four of the Participants. The theoretical perspectives offered as to why sexual differences exist within management link "stereotyping", "prejudice" and "institutional hindrances" into three categories. Firstly, is the theory postulating that women's characteristics, behaviour, attitudes and socialisation make them inappropriate or deficient as managers (Reiger and Galligan, 1980:903). This theory assumes that sexual and racial differences handicap women and minorities in managerial positions because both groups suffer weakness in personality and skills.

Secondly, is the theory referring to bias and stereotyping that are considered the cause of women's slow progress up the managerial ladder. The most suitable and appropriate manager is still seen as masculine (Powell and Butterfield, 1989:220). Thirdly, is the theory which focuses on structural, systemic discrimination as the cause of differential treatment (Thomas and Alderfer in Morrison and Glinow, 1990:202). Factors such as recruitment, selection, evaluation, career development and promotion may all be the impediments which may marginalise women and prevent their progress in institutions.

Bagihole (1993: 273) says, "It is important to recognize the part played by institutional factors in the process of excluding women from full participation and success in the academic profession". Feminist theory adds to these exclusionary mechanisms the idea that social structure and social processes are gendered, thus underlying organisations are gendered sub-structures constructed on the foundation of male domination (Acker, 1990).

Question 13(b) asked Participants whether obstructive factors other than those presented in **Question 13(a)** (that is "Institutional Hindrances") had come to mind. The responses follow:

Table 16: Additional Factors which might be Obstacles to Career Success

Participant	One	Peer Pressure. Social and cultural hindrances.
	Two	Personality differences (e.g. considered a threat from previous female Dean) ... she jealously guarded her power and position.
	Three	This is probably part of gender stereotyping, but I have found male colleagues (the "old school") to have extremely low expectations of women in management positions and to be very patronising until they realise you have something valuable and different to contribute. However, overcoming this obstacle requires great energy and perseverance, lack of which, could be a severe obstacle – personal and internal rather than external hindrances, but important nevertheless.
	Four	Personal problems e.g. a severe illness which meant I was off work for nearly a year. This upset my confidence quite a lot.
	Five	Lack of opportunities.
	Six	I had no mentoring or coaching or support from colleagues. It is very difficult to get support from women. I think women don't support women not because they are jealous of each other but because each women has such a load herself that there is no time, physically. As far as emotional support is concerned, I don't think we do it enough ... I think we need to verbalise more ... Networking is very important for women.

The responses were mixed but referred again to stereotyping and the importance of networking. (Participant One, Three, Five and Six).

Participant One, a Black woman, referred to cultural hindrances as a possible problem. In context she was referring to traditional views about appropriate male-female roles in the workplace. Her experiences follow:

Social and cultural hindrances because society perceives you in certain ways and your family have expectations about you and the culture can be abused, as a woman. At graduation held recently, an honorary doctorate was given to a very important man, the ... (omission). Culturally you, a woman, if you know about my culture, cannot just stand and address him directly. As a female, you are supposed to bow or be seated but in my position I had to stand side by side. Difficult.

In a meeting, you find this elderly male. In our culture we are supposed to be submissive to whatever they say and accept everything but I find now that rally is a problem. When I disagree, job related, the culture rally blocks me. I feel this person is old enough to be my father and I must be respectful so it is a problem.

I am a combination, a mixture of ... (omission) and ... (omission). Also peer pressure. There are certain expectations. With this job, it is alienating me from people. You have to live double standards, work and home which is difficult. Not always easy to practice what you preach.

When I strongly disagree, for example, at Senate, these things play through my mind. I feel others may think I'm disrespectful when I put up my hand to say something. I still have to deal with that – how, I don't know. At ... (omission) University people used to be victims where people abuse culture. As a student I worked in the same department with people I am now an equal to. Then, I was

sent here and there, doing this and that for them. I had to run around. I realised this was abuse of culture.

Response from **Participants Two and Six** also drew attention to the issue discussed in Chapter Four, that is the lack of support encountered from other women in the climb up the managerial ladder. Booysen, a clinical and research psychologist at the University of South Africa, in Horning (2003: 168) states there is growing evidence of a "Stiletto Ceiling" where women who have made it to the top, keep other women down.

Responses to **Question 11(b)** ("Are there any other qualities which you regard as important?") and **Question 15** ("What factors or philosophies do you attribute to your personal success in breaking through the "glass ceiling"?") were strikingly similar to each other. Very strongly emphasised and repeated were the qualities of knowing self which involves motivation, self-confidence, being firm and knowing one's self, strengths and weaknesses; having empathy and the ability to work with and relate to people; displaying commitment, hard work and perseverance; possessing good communication and social skills.

Table 17: Other Important Qualities (to add to Question 11(a) which was:What qualities are most important for women to get ahead in top academic management positions?)

Participant	One	To be very firm in taking a decision or in doing whatever you're doing and not be a doubtful person or hesitant. Also to be direct. If you have to tell a person where to get off, then just tell them so. But you have to do it at the right time ... I don't let people intimidate me ... being firm, direct and having confidence is very important. Have your chin up high because this is the world.
	Two	Prepared to take risks at face value, but there is another dimension of this which I would note as important, that is the ability to go for something, and try it, based on reliable data. Being honest. Being persevering and bouncing back. Don't be put off when things go wrong. Try another approach. Don't allow yourself to be intimidated.
	Three	Determination, good analytical and communication skills, strong focus on critical areas in a chosen career, strong awareness of strengths and weaknesses, not being scared to show ignorance and being willing to learn.
	Four	Self-confidence and an ability to be self-reflective.
	Five	Integrity, assertiveness.
	Six	Important for women to know their limitations, know what you need to learn and make sure you keep sharpening the sword. This for me is critical. Go to every course you can lay your hands on. The more you sharpen it, and the more you speak out, rather than silence which women use generally as a sign of protest.

Participant One and Participant Four spoke of the importance of being "firm" and having "confidence". Participant One also referred to not allowing herself to be "intimidated" as did Participant Two. Participant Five referred to "assertiveness" and Participant Three too a "strong focus". Participant Five felt it important to "turn weaknesses into strengths". In essence these qualities fall into the category called

"self-management skills" which Goleman (1995) incorporates into his Theory of Emotional Intelligence, a set of competencies which characterise effective leaders. (This will be developed later in the Chapter). This view of attributes important for top female managers to possess has been reflected in the work of other researchers including Bar-On(1998) and Cherniss and Adler(2000).

White *et al.* (1981:156) in their review of the adjustment of women managers to the managerial role, link achievement and "self-confidence" to leadership abilities. White *et al.* (1992) writes of the importance of women managers being strong enough to challenge the male norm of power in management. Wisker (1996) emphasises the importance of assertiveness and confidence building in empowering women managers, as does Reis (2002). Moffet in Berman (1999: 3) writes that managers must "explore and develop their awareness of the barriers and enhancers" they possess. Other qualities listed which women managers should possess are those of "good communication and analytical skills", "integrity", honesty and reflexivity. These attributes are among the categories of empathy and social skills developed by Goleman (1995) in his Emotional Intelligence Theory to be discussed later in the Chapter.

Question 15

Table 18: Factors/Philosophies which Attributed to Personal Success

Participant	One	My personality. I relate well to people but also what I criticise myself with and people actually take as an attribute, I always say be direct. When time is right, tell a person where to get off. Life goes on. At times I open up and I have a big mouth. I think that probably being a hard worker is important. If I say I am going to do something, some due day, I do it. I can be stubborn at times. I have changed a lot. If my family and my grandparents could hear how I speak to people sometimes, they would probably disown me. I used to be the quiet, silent one. I think I have suffered much in life such that I realise being quiet is not going to help and you have to tell a person don't do that. But give a person a chance. I believe that give a dog a long rope to hang itself and then it will.
	Two	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Honesty. ◦ Being firm and resolute. ◦ Having empathy. ◦ Persevering. ◦ Hard working. ◦ Don't use or manipulate people.
	Three	I have never been driven by ambition in a personal sense, but rather a desire to achieve certain things in areas of interest and based on a principled approach to everything I do. As a result I have been very focused, have developed extensive networks, been able to mobilize a wide and disparate set of resources to achieve particular goals, and achieve a degree of credibility and a reputation for making things happen. I also believe that it's important that one is prepared to roll with the punches and to never see problems, but seek solutions. I believe that we can all take charge of our lives – we do not have to be passive victims, where we allow ourselves and our interest to be defined by others. There is always a positive way of approaching difficulties. Even the most negative situation can be turned into a positive experience.

	Four	The fact that I was personally approached to apply for the job. I would never have applied off my own bat. Also the person who approached me said, "Women always think they can't do things", which struck me as true, and a challenge to overcome. Another factor is that I have a good support network, and was able to ask people's advice about whether to apply for / take the job. Everyone said I should which also boosted my confidence. A further factor is that I have observed others doing a job like this, and could not really say that they were doing such a wonderful job, so I thought "Well, if they can do it, so can I."
	Five	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Hard work. ◦ Efficiency. ◦ Commitment to your job. ◦ Being true to yourself
	Six	I am not afraid – probably because of the way I was brought up. I think it is unfair to say to someone else, "be like her" if you haven't had the same background but I do believe they can be coached in time. I should be sharing my experiences with others and saying to them don't be afraid – it's not as bad as you think. This is what you do. And I don't believe you can empower others but people empower themselves but we can give them sufficient knowledge and data and assistance to empower themselves. Some skills can be learnt.

Table 18 indicated the factors and philosophies which the Participants felt had attributed to their personal success. Many of these overlapped with the qualities provided in, Table 17, such as "honesty", being "focussed", "firm", "being true to oneself" and having "confidence" – all of which may also be categorised as "self-management" skills (Goleman, 1995). Participant One spoke of her realisation that "being quiet" was not going to help in dealing with women's issues. Wisker (1996: 104) writes of the importance of speaking out at meetings and being assertive. This is supported by Colflesh (2000) who refers to women leaders "using voice to

empower others to work towards common goals". **Participants Two and Five** felt that "hard work", "efficiency" and "perseverance" were important. These qualities link with the values of "honesty" and "commitment" which may perhaps be defined as "Spiritual" values discussed previously in **Question 11(a)**. The attributes or qualities mentioned above suggest Goleman's Theory of Emotional Intelligence as well as strongly demonstrating Colflesh's (2000: 2) identification of the attributes of feminist leadership. She provides the following qualities: a strong caring ethic; competence and trustworthiness; communication skills; ability to get the job done through collaborative and participatory styles of leadership; ongoing learning from a variety of sources and empowering others to work towards common goals.

The Participants of this study felt that having emotional competence in dealing with self and others was vitally important for women in top academic management. They reiterated that this competence or ability can and should be learnt by women who wish to break through the "glass ceiling". As **Participant Six** stated, "**Some skills can be learnt**", while Participant Three added, "**being willing to learn.**"

Although cognitive elements are important in managerial positions so are abilities in the affective domain. The Participants referred to abilities such as being self-reflective, able to empower one's, being positive and facing challenges: all being essential to possess. All the attributes they regarded as important focused on the more functional aspects of interpersonal and personal strengths, linked to educational and career achievements. (Chapter Four provided the demographic portrait of each of the Participants).

In reviewing the literature to investigate the possible link between emotional abilities, educational achievements and managerial competency, the researcher encountered Goleman's Theory of Emotional Intelligence (EI) (1995). At this point it is worth noting the developments which led to the formulation of Goleman's EI Theory. Emotional Intelligence refers to the ability to recognise and regulate emotions in ourselves and others and has been referred to as social intelligence or social and emotional learning. Regardless of the term used, the domain into which such concepts fit is that of the affective domain. The roots of the Emotional Intelligence psychology, go back to the beginnings of the intelligence test period. Thorndike, a professor of educational psychology at Columbia University Teachers' College, was one of the first to identify an aspect of Emotional Intelligence which he called "social intelligence". In 1937 Thorndike and Stern tried to measure the concept "social intelligence", but found great difficulty in that they had to concede that it consisted of a complex of several different abilities.

Although Wechsler (1952:22) referred to "affective capacities" in formulating his intelligence quotient test, it was not until about fifty years later that Gardner (1983), in his Theory of Intelligence drew attention to Emotional Intelligence, when he referred to the affective domain consisting of two types of personal intelligence: interpersonal and intrapersonal.

In 1988 Bar-On used the term "emotional intelligence" to refer to the capacity of well-being. Salovey and Mayer (1990) developed a theory of emotional intelligence as they felt it important to distinguish between this intelligence and social abilities or characteristics. Salovey subsumed Gardner's intelligences of the interpersonal and personal intelligence in his basic definition of emotional intelligence. He expanded

these abilities into the five main domains of: "knowing one's emotions", "managing emotions", "motivating one's self", "recognising emotions in others" and "handling relationships" (Salovey and Meyer, 1990:185-211).

In 1995 Goleman proposed a theory of performance which could predict effectiveness at work and in leadership, which he built on the basic EI model of Salovey. He synthesised a broad range of findings and theories in psychology and integrated them into his concept of Emotional Intelligence. He states that people having EI exhibit the following attributes (1995:33-111):

- Self-awareness shows itself as candour, an ability to speak openly and accurately and to be able to assess oneself realistically.
- Impulse control or self-regulation means creating an environment of trust and forgiveness, suspensions of judgements, listening and seeking information, being reflective, having integrity and being able to say no.
- Self-motivation is recognised by high levels of achievement, optimism and organisational commitment.
- People skills or empathy is revealed in the dealings with other people and the retention of talent.
- Social skills means being adept at managing teams, building bonds, managing relationships effectively, being expert persuaders and collaborators.

The following extract from Goleman (1998: 101 – 102) provides the Definition and Hallmarks of “The Five Components of Emotional Intelligence At Work”:

Definition:

Self-Awareness	The ability to recognise and understand your moods, emotions, and drives, as well as their effect on others.
Self-Regulation	The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods
	The propensity to suspend judgment to think before acting
Motivation	A passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status
	A propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence
Empathy	The ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people
	Skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions
Social Skills	Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks
	An ability to find common ground and build rapport

Hallmarks

Self-Awareness	Self-confidence
	Realistic self-assessment
	Self-deprecating sense of humour
Self-Regulation	Trustworthiness and integrity
	Comfort with ambiguity
	Openness to change
Motivation	Strong drive to achieve
	Optimism, even in the face of failure
	Organizational commitment
Empathy	Expertise in building and retaining talent
	Cross-cultural sensitivity
	Service to clients and customers
Social Skill	Effectiveness in leading change
	Persuasiveness
	Expertise in building and leading teams

Goleman(1995) states that although IQ and Ei are equally important, they are important in different ways. He believes that IQ contributes about 20% to the factors that determine life success and the remaining 80% will determine one's destiny in life, dependent upon having the skills that make up Emotional Intelligence. Goleman sees

IQ as representing a set of competencies that determine whether a person can hold down a job in a given field, but he feels that such cognitive abilities do not alone determine whether a worker will or can be a good manager or leader. He states that emotional competencies, in his research, are twice as prevalent as other distinguishing capacities and that the higher the position in a profession or job one occupies, the more EI matters (1998).

Goleman (1998) examined the relationship between EI, affective performance and desirable attributes of leaders in the business sector and has developed a theory (1955, 1998) which he believes can promote Emotional Intelligence in organisations by training leaders and managers in the four dimensions and competencies (Cherniss and Adler, 2000). Goleman's research (1998b) among those at top levels of management and leadership in nearly two hundred large, global companies in the United States of America, reveals emotional intelligence to be an essential requirement for effective performance and a predictor of excellence in job performance. Emotional Intelligence, although not innate, is born in a brain's limbic system which learns through motivation, practice and feedback. This requires individualised training to break old behavioural habits and establish new ones. It is a process that requires commitment and a sincere desire to develop. This aspect of development is essential for managers and leaders to be effective and as it can be learned, there are important implications for the training of women for leadership positions.

He offers counter views of emotionally intelligent men and women (1995:43).

Emotionally intelligent men are:

- socially poised
- outgoing and cheerful
- committed to people and causes
- responsible
- ethical in outlook
- sympathetic and caring
- comfortable with themselves

Emotionally intelligent women are:

- assertive and expressive
- live life meaningfully
- outgoing
- adapt well to stress
- reach out easily to new people
- accept themselves
- open to sensual experience, spontaneous and playful
- rarely feel anxiety or guilt

Goleman(1998) refined his original model into a framework of four dimensions and nineteen emotional competencies. The four broad dimensions are: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills. The following has been extracted from Cherniss and Adler (who were assisted by Goleman in making training in Emotional Intelligence effective), foreword by Goleman (2000: 10-11), outlining the four dimensions and nineteen competencies associated with Emotional Intelligence

which were developed by Goleman (1995). (Goleman points out that different people have aspects of each dimension to varying degrees, combinations and intensities).

DIMENSION 1: SELF-AWARENESS

Knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources, and intuitions.

1. Emotional self-awareness: Recognising one's emotions and their effects.
2. Accurate self-assessment: Knowing one's strengths and limits.
3. Self-confidence: A strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities.

DIMENSION 2: SELF-MANAGEMENT

Managing one's internal states, impulses and resources to facilitate reaching goals.

4. Adaptability: Flexibility in handling change.
5. Self-control: Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check.
6. Conscientiousness and reliability: Taking responsibility for personal performance; maintaining standards of honesty and integrity.
7. Initiative and innovation: Readiness to act on opportunities; being comfortable with novel ideas, approaches and new information.
8. Achievement drive: Striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence; persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks.

DIMENSION 3: SOCIAL AWARENESS

Awareness of others' feelings, needs and concerns.

9. Empathy: Sensing others' feelings and perspectives and taking an active interest in their concerns.
10. Service orientation: Anticipating recognising, and meeting customers' needs.
11. Organizational awareness: Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships.
12. Developing others: Sensing others' developmental needs and bolstering their abilities.

DIMENSION 4: SOCIAL SKILLS

Adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others.

13. Leadership: Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups; aligning with the goals of the group or organisation.
14. Influence: Wielding effective tactics for persuasion.
15. Change catalyst: Initiating or managing change.
16. Communication: Listening openly and sending convincing messages.
17. Conflict management: Negotiating and resolving disagreements.
18. Collaboration and building bonds: Working with others toward shared goals; nurturing instrumental relationships.
19. Team capabilities: Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals.

The views and philosophies which the Participants attributed to their success (Question 15) and "other important qualities" (Question 11a), which they volunteered, have been categorised under the four broad dimensions of Goleman's

EI Theory(above) to show the link between the two views. This follows, using the words of the Participants.

**Table 19: Participants' Responses to Question 11a and Question 15
Categorised under Goleman's Four Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence**

Participant	Dimension 1 : Self Awareness
One	Having confidence; firm; direct; stubborn
Two	Being firm; resolute
Three	Being focused; being positive; awareness of strengths and weaknesses; determination; strong
Four	Self-confidence
Five	Being true to self
Six	Know your limitations

Participant	Dimension 2 : Self-management
One	Don't let others intimidate me
Two	Prepared to take risks; honest; persevering; don't let others intimidate me; hard working
Three	Making things happen; being willing to learn; principled approach
Four	Taking a challenge; being self-reflective
Five	Integrity and assertiveness; hard working; efficiency.
Six	Keep sharpening the sword; not being afraid; learn necessary skills

Participant	Dimension 3: Social Awareness
One	Give other people a chance
Two	Having empathy
Three	Desire to achieve things of interest
Four	No comment
Five	No comment
Six	Give sufficient knowledge, data and assistance to others to empower themselves

Participant	Dimension 4 : Social Skills
One	Tell a person where to get off; relate well to others
Two	No comment
Three	Good analytical and communication skills; seek solutions
Four	Have a good support network; prepared to ask others for advice
Five	Commitment to the job
Six	Sharing experiences with others

In the above Table 18 a breakdown of each Participant's view of what they considered as the attributes and qualities necessary to succeed to top management was categorised under the four dimensions associated with Goleman's refined model of E1 (Cherniss and Adler, 2000). An examination of this Emotional Intelligence framework revealed attributes or qualities which the Participants had in common, that is, competencies which they all felt were important.

Within the first dimension, "self-awareness", common qualities were those of having "self-confidence", being "firm", "being assertive". "Knowing one's strengths and

weaknesses" was expressed by **Participants Three** and **Six** but was also implicit in the responses of the others, for example, "being reflective" and "true to one's self".

Goleman(1995) writes that the people possessing this"self-awareness dimensions" are recognised by their self-confidence and knowledge of self. Lowe (1996: 4) states that self-confidence is one of the key predictors of career success. Into this category she includes knowing one's strengths and skills and writes that confidence is a "self-fulfilling prophecy" if you have it you will do better in your career.

The importance of being confident and self-assured is affirmed by Wisker (1996:106) who sees this quality as characterising a leader who is able to ask questions and admit weaknesses. Berman (1999) writes too of the importance of self-confidence for effective leadership. "A good self concept is an essential element of successful management:. (White *et al.*, 1981:561)

Goleman's(1995) second dimension of emotional competencies is referred to as "self-management" which encompasses the ability to control and channel emotional impulses. The result of such an action creates trust and fairness, reveals a propensity for reflection, enhances integrity and seeks out new information. Beatty (2000) writes that emotions are powerful and for that reason leaders need to be emotionally controlled. She elaborates by saying that emotional control is to be equated with strength. The researcher found that the **Participants** felt "integrity", being "honest" and "working hard" important. **Participant Three** used the phrase "principled approach" for "honesty". The sentiment of "not being afraid", said by **Participant Six**, was echoed by **Participant One** and **Two** who talked of "not being intimidated" and **Participant Four** spoke of not being afraid to "take a challenge".

Egins (1997) and Parkhouse (2001) write of the importance of female managers in facing the challenge of breaking through a masculine dominant society.

The third dimension in the framework of emotional intelligence competencies is that of "social-awareness". Goleman relates here to the awareness of others' needs and concerns. He says that these people are recognised by the help and encouragement they extend to others and how they seek ways for better performance. **Participant One** felt it important to "give other people a chance". This was reflected in the words of **Participant Three** who spoke of the "desire to achieve other things" and **Participant Six** who talked of "data and assistance to others to empower themselves". **Participant Two** used the word "empathy" in reference to the acknowledgement of the needs of others.

"Social skills", the fourth dimension, is referred to by Goleman as "friendliness with a purpose" (1998: 8) with regard to people, the product or strategies in the workplace. The Participants were unanimous in their support of the importance of this skill in top management and referred to certain competencies within this category. **Participant One** felt it important to "relate well to others" as did **Participant Six**, "share experiences with others". **Participant Three** spoke of having "good analytical and communication skills" when dealing with "others". **Participant Four** also used the key word of "others" when she spoke of being "prepared to ask others for advice". Peluchette in Watkins and Subich (1995: 3) refers to this skill as "networking" and lists it as a predictor of career success.

Other attributes referred to as important but not common to all, were: "Commitment to the job" (**Participant Five**) and being "prepared to take risks" (**Participant Five**). These points were raised by the Participants and discussed when dealing with **Question 11(a)**.

5.2 Conclusion" Section of the Interview – Open Ended Questions

The "Conclusion" Section of the interview presented the Participants with three open ended Questions – **Questions 16, 17 and 18** – designed to elicit any other significant information which might not have surfaced in **Section A and Section B**. The answers and information recorded from these three Questions corroborated and supported the insights gained from the investigation. This showed that the **Semi-Structured Questions of Section A and Section B** had been searching and had achieved their aim.

The answers to **Question 16**, "Do you have any advice for women who wish to break through the 'glass ceiling'?" confirmed and substantiated the importance of EI (Emotion Intelligence), that is the qualities of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills as defined by Goleman in Cherniss and Adler (2000:10-11).

Question 16

Table 20: Advice

Participant	One	<p>People must be ambitious and say that is life, this is what I want for my life and don't let any obstacle sidetrack you. Just focus and achieve what you want to do in life and the advantage that they have now. If they want support they should approach people who are in the position to support them if we don't have such support structures. Unfortunately some people you ask have their own hidden agendas and also they have to be patient. I did Matric about 3 times – not that I was failing I was not getting the opportunities but I said I am not going to be dressmaker like my mum. I wanted education.</p>
	Two	<p>Always be straight and honest. Don't be aggressive but be firm, positively. Be empathetic. Consider where others are coming from and see if there is something in what they have to say. Listen as opposed to just hearing. Being able to communicate is very important. Show them they can trust you being consistent.</p>
	Three	<p>Believe in yourself. Don't allow yourself to be defined by others and always be guided by principle in your approach.</p>
	Four	<p>Have confidence in yourself. Don't let small-minded males make you feel small. It is their problem, not yours.</p>
	Five	<p>Get the necessary credentials, apply for top jobs and not the ones you think men would consider for you. Be bold and clear about your facts and what you can do in the job situation. Most of all be yourself.</p>
	Six	<p>Have your heart in it. If you want to be successful you must believe in it; you must love what you are doing, and you just go out and do it. That for me is the most important – Passion.</p>

The answers to **Question 17** ("Please share any personal information you have that would benefit this study.") served to consolidate the information already gleaned from **Section B** of the interview.

Question 17

Table 21: Personal Information that would Benefit this Study

Participant	One	Women don't support each other. When people in power, we turn against others. Attitudes must change. Must support others when we have been there.
	Two	Nothing much to add to what I have already shared. Perseverance is very important. Show that you can bounce back and don't hold grudges. I think that this earns respect. Show that you do not expect to have the easier jobs or need to be coddled – I think that males could become resentful if they end up with the less convenient tasks because their colleague is a female.
	Three	Nothing else to add to that already discussed.
	Four	As I indicated, a very supportive husband and parents.
	Five	Women tend to be modest about their abilities and men take advantage of that weakness. Women empowerment workshops should be held continuously. If places like the US, UK etc. still see the necessity for workshops of this nature, South African women need them even more.
	Six	I think I have answered this throughout my replies.

Generally speaking, the Participants felt that they had shared what they considered important issues, such as the repeated theme of the importance of women supporting women in their isolated positions in the chilly, patriarchal environment of top

academic management, discussed in Chapter Four. The importance of formal management training for women in academic management in institutions in South African – in this study, Technikons – was repeated.

In brief, **Question 17** highlighted the following:

- The negative stereotyping of women in top management
- The positive support from family for their careers
- The dearth of support for women from other women managers
- The need for “empowerment workshops” for women.

The concluding **Question, Question 18**, questioned whether, with hindsight, the Participants felt that there were aspects of their career that they would like to have changed.

Question 18

Table 22: Envisaged Career Changes

Participant	One	I focused on linguistics and was going to go the scholarly route but since I joined the Technikon movement my thinking has changed a lot and I see a lot of opportunities. I think that if I could have done it different I could have gone a long way and contributed a lot to the community and to the society. The Technikon band. I only discovered now. When I started here I thought perhaps I was lowering my standards because it was different from the University. I would have gone the Technikon route if I had my time again.
	Two	Not really, except that I would like to have had some formal management training. I have read a lot in this area but it does not replace the hands on guidance of someone in the field e.g. conflict management. I would have liked some formal training in this area. One doesn't get the essence by purely reading about it.
	Three	My history has been one of a range of experiences, which have been very valuable in providing me with a range of skills and experiences (business world as well as academia). The one thing I would redo is perhaps returning to the world of art and design a little sooner; I'm running out of time for all the things I would still like to achieve! I would also give more time to spiritual aspects, which often get marginalized through having a singular focus – tunnel vision.

	Four	This is always a difficult Question. But actually I am happy with the way things have happened. I have been very fortunate in being part of a history in a dynamic way – child in '60s exposed to certain values; a student in the apartheid days of the '70s and exposed to many debates; an activist and teacher in the '80s and involved with many interesting and committed people; a university lecturer in the '90s, able to promote my ideas to others. What more could one want?
	Five	Not really, Maybe I should have got into this position at the same age as a man would have been considered.
	Six	I would have done a course in finance before I came into this job because I had to learn a lot of things on the job and I had to learn quickly. This is why I say "know your limitations before you get into it". It makes you better prepared earlier on rather than later. The management course I did 2 years ago I would have done much sooner. Study the field and know the work before you get there.

From the answers of the Participants it was obvious that despite the problems they had encountered in breaking through the "glass ceiling" and the current problems which were part of the position they occupied, all were positive in attitude and experienced job satisfaction. These characteristics and the views which follow reinforce Goleman's (1995) description of the characteristics possessed by emotionally intelligent women, which also are distinguishing capacities of good leaders. These attributes were listed earlier in this Chapter in the discussion of Goleman's Theory of EI.

Comments on the above:

Participant One was sorry she had not joined the Technikon movement earlier, "I would have gone the Technikon route ..."

It was interesting to note that she had not understood earlier in her career that Technikons are concerned with vocational training and are therefore different in what they offer and "inferior" to universities. She refers to, "perhaps I was lowering my standards" when joining the Technikon. In terms of legislation in 1995 granting Technikons degree conferring status, both types of tertiary institutions hold equal rank in higher education. Only after joining the Technikon route did this Participant realise her mistaken view.

Participant Two regretted not having had formal management training, "I would like to have had some formal management training."

She gives as an example of "conflict management" training. Perhaps this has importance for the work experiences of women in top academic management who experience prejudice and exclusion from their male counterparts in Technikons. Such management training may be useful to women in management positions when faced with prejudice from their male colleagues.

Participant Three felt that she would have liked to have broadened her artistic skills sooner and have focused more on spiritual aspects, "The one thing I would redo is perhaps returning to the world of design sooner..." and "I would also give more time to spiritual aspects." The importance of possessing spiritual aspects by women in top academic management was expressed by the Participants of this study in Question 11(a), Table 12.

Participant Four felt happy with her career route, "... I am happy with the way things have happened."

Her reference to the chronological events she experienced depict vividly the social and political processes undergone by academia in South Africa. Implicit in this account is the "dynamic" role educationists played in their role as "teachers". Top academic managers have to be aware of change particularly in a South African context where transformation is desirous ,not only in education but also socially and politically.

Participant Five felt that perhaps if she had been male she would have reached her position sooner, "Maybe I should have got into this position at the same age as a man would have been considered." Throughout this Chapter, the Participants of this study referred to the stereotyping and marginalisation they experienced from their male colleagues which made difficult their attempts to break through the "glass ceiling".

Participant Six wished she had had training in areas where she had not had experience, before reaching her top position, " ... I had to learn a lot of things on the job and I had to learn quickly." – negative side of not having had in-service training. The answers to Question 12, Table 13 of this study ,clearly indicated the importance of management training while in middle management positions and that this be continued while in service. This was seen to be particularly important for women whose needs are very different from those of male managers (Tharenou and Conroy,1994:9).

Thus the **“Conclusion”** Section of the interview cemented the insight and information already gained in **Section A** and **Section B** of the interview process.

5.3 CONCLUSION

The analysis of **Section B** and the **“Conclusion”** of the interview revealed the following information concerning women who had broken through the “glass ceiling” to top academic management in Technikons:

- Balancing career and domestic cycles had not been a major difficulty for the Participants as families, particularly spouses, had been supportive.
- Academic qualifications were considered of great importance.
- Networking was considered to be vital for survival in obtaining information and making decisions.
- Mentoring was not seen in the future, as viable in the patriarchal culture of Technikons.
- The importance of women supporting other women in management was stressed.
- Formal management training was regarded as mandatory for women while in middle management positions and as preparation to the higher echelons of management.
- INSET or further on going training was considered vital once in top management positions.
- Gender prejudice and stereotyping was seen as the most difficult factor encountered in their career paths.

- No advantages were seen to being female in top academic positions.
- The recognition of the importance of emotional intelligence and the identification of those requiring or wanting training was considered crucial.
- Life-long learning of the qualities necessary to break through the "glass ceiling" i.e. the emotional competencies, was emphasised.

The researcher strongly believes that Goleman's Theory of Emotional Intelligence and the suggestions it contains for selecting, promoting, and training of managers at the top levels of organisations, provides a most useful model for the preparation of women for top academic managements positions in Technikons. The Participants of this research project identified the affective abilities of Goleman's Theory as being crucial to their breaking through the "glass ceiling". The researcher's viewpoint is that the key partially to success in promotion for women in academic management in Technikons, may be found in attributes which have been defined by the researcher as Emotional Intelligence. This has important implication in that if such identifications, commitment and training were to take place at middle management level for women in educational institutions, promotion to top management would be followed by the next natural step. Education can contribute to the learning of affective abilities, competencies and skills which can be done in schools, in pre-service or in-service training. The final Chapter, Chapter Six will provide a discussion and conclusion to this study.

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CHAPTER SIX

"My point is: We don't have to be perfect. We just have to know what we're trying to accomplish. And we have to try".

(Annette Kolodny)

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study explored what it has taken for women, in top academic management in Technikons, to break through the "glass ceiling". To investigate the problem, the researcher by means of in-depth interviews, was able to view the topic through the Participants' narratives concerning their views and experiences. These were examined in the context of feminist interpretation, allowing for a researcher-participant relationship consonant with feminist empirical research. The active voices of the participants were heard in transcript form and through quotations, that is giving them "voice" (Acker *et al.*, in Fonow and Cook, 1991:6). As women do not have much of a formal "voice" in literature in South Africa, the narrative approach is important in allowing them to shape their thinking, make sense and order of their experiences. The outcome of these "stories" should lead to social and political transformation.

These narratives were then examined in the context of feminists interpretation, allowing for a researcher-participant relationship consonant with feminist empirical research. By analysing the data from the lived experiences of the Participants the researcher was able to understand how they perceived their experiences and the meaning they ascribed to them. As links in the data merged inductively theory was

generated from the data, grounded in the practical realities of the managerial experiences of the Participants who actively participated in the research process. There are three common underpinnings to both grounded theory and feminist theory: the experiences of women as knowers; the acceptance of women as experts about their experiences; the contextual and relational aspects of their experiences. This makes grounded theory well suited to feminist theory and enquiry, particularly as both employ a mix of interview and observational material. The end product of the analysis and interpretation of data develops a theory which may be used as a vehicle for change (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Although globally the emergence of high profile, successful women academics is visible within institutions of higher education, women are still marginalised and exploited in the promotion stakes. Women need, through a feminist agenda, to be given the opportunity to voice their ways of knowing, their knowledge and their experiences so that they may be empowered to work side by side with men in positions of power. It is important therefore that feminism keeps its grip on its emancipatory commitment.

6.2 DISCUSSION

To what did these women in top academic management attribute their success in breaking through the "glass ceiling"? This study and the related literature reviewed have confirmed that these women, like the Participants in this research who have broken through the "glass ceiling", possess personal attributes and skills, which are intrinsic to them but which can be learned. This research also revealed that the Participants had also taught themselves certain skills, which they identified as being important for their top management positions. They also felt that they had the essential emotional competencies, practised stringent networking and had

empowered themselves. In fact, they had identified and taught themselves what they had perceived to be crucial to breaking through the "glass ceiling".

The Participants consistently referred to the importance of knowing one's self; "self-confidence"; "awareness of strengths and weaknesses"; "believe in yourself"; "know your limitations"; "be true to yourself". They talked of the importance of being empathetic and the ability to manage relationships: "be honest", "have integrity"; "listen"; "be able to communicate"; "show them they can trust you"; "be positive"; "don't use or manipulate people" (Refer to Table 18 and 19, Chapter Five).

The literature reviewed indicates strongly that for women to succeed in their careers, they need to have a strong self-concept, be aware of self and be self-regulating (ATHENA Development Project, 1999; Gupton and Slick, 1998; Bailyn and Etzion, 1986; Orlofsky and Stake, 1981). Training and development and career encouragement are increased by self-confidence: (Tharenou *et al.*, 1994: 905). Self-confidence appears as an important trait which impacts upon women's motivation and self-assessment of how well they perceive themselves conducting tasks in senior management. Senior women in management have to constantly face sexism and marginalisation by men in the workplace so need self-confidence to urge themselves forward in the face of little encouragement from the male hierarchy. Goleman (1998) believes that these competencies, referred to by the Participants, typify senior managers and leaders in the workplace. Self-awareness and self-esteem are signs of emotional well-being which he feels are important to motivate, lead and inspire others.

Other skills the Participants referred to were: "not being afraid"; "prepared to take risks"; "have passion"; "hard working"; "persevering". These abilities Goleman (1998) incorporated into what he refers to as "self management skills" which in turn refer to self-awareness, self-regulation and the motivation of self. He states that this category of competencies is vital for optimism and organisational commitment both of which are fundamental to managing an organisation.

All the skills and abilities referred to by the Participants are encapsulated in Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Theory (1998) discussed in Chapter Five. His primary role as an EI theorist was to propose a theory of performance that built on his EI theory so that personal effectiveness at work and in leadership could be predicted. His theory describes five components of emotional intelligence at work: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. Goleman has refined this original model into a framework of four dimensions and nineteen emotional competencies (See Chapter 5) namely: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills (Goleman in Cherniss and Adler, 2000). These competencies he believes are the essential requirements of effective leaders. He believes that these competencies are more closely linked to life-long success than is IQ (Intelligence Quotient) and he believes that schools should begin the educational process of teaching children how to recognise and manage emotions.

Goleman (1995) emphasises the importance of integrating social-emotional programmes (which will teach Emotional Intelligence) into the curriculum and the life of the school. He stresses the importance of educating the whole child, that learning must embrace hearts as well as minds. He proposes that schools should teach children how to handle and express their emotions appropriately as school is a place

where pupils can learn something about the social behaviour which will be expected from them in the future.

It is suggested that the school curriculum be enriched to involve pupils in work that they will perceive as meaningful and motivating, both in academic and occupational domains. Goleman is adamant that emotional literacy programmes improve children's academic achievement scores and school performance. What are these emotional skills that can be taught? Goleman provides the following outline (1995: 283 – 284).

“Emotional Self-Awareness”

- Improvement in recognising and naming own emotions.
- Better able to understand the causes of feelings.
- Recognising the difference between feelings and actors

Managing Emotions

- Better frustration tolerance and anger management.
- Fewer verbal put-downs, fights and classroom disruptions.
- Better able to express anger appropriately, without fighting.
- Fewer suspensions and expulsions.
- Less aggressive or self-destructive behaviour.
- More positive feelings about self, school and family
- Better at handling stress.
- Less loneliness and social anxiety.

Harnessing Emotions Productively

- More responsible.
- Better able to focus on the task at hand and pay attention.
- Less impulsive; more self-control.
- Improved scores on achievement test.

Empathy: Reading Emotions

- Better able to take another person's perspective.
- Improved empathy and sensitivity to others' feelings.
- Better at listening to others.

Handling Relationships

- Increased ability to analyse and understand relationships
- Better at resolving conflicts and negotiating disagreements.
- Better at solving problems in relationships
- More assertive and skilled at communicating.
- More popular and outgoing; friendly and involved with peers.
- More sought out by peers.
- More concerned and considerate.
- More "pro-social" and harmonious in groups.
- More sharing, cooperation and helpfulness.
- More democratic in dealing with others.

Goleman(1995) feels that parents should be involved at all levels and says that the parents' degree of emotional skills goes far toward determining their children's level of Emotional Intelligence. The community at large could assist too in promoting the

development of Emotional Intelligence skills by introducing community-based activities such as artistic activities, girl guides/scouts, drama activities and clubs of various kinds. Goleman also proposes the teaching of EI in overt and covert curriculum of the school; for example, during breaks where perhaps conflict management could be taught. Also important is the creation of networks that address academic and personal needs such as mentoring programmes to support pupils; programmes that create partnerships between parents and school (parent-teachers' associations); and service programmes that reach beyond the school to the community to assist with substance abuse and juvenile crime.

The acquisition of such emotional competencies has a long-term positive effect on achievement in life. Emotionally intelligent people are more likely to succeed in everything they undertake (Goleman, 1995 and 1998b). A clear understanding of oneself, abilities, interests, limitations and strengths and the learning of social skills are very important in school and can affect positively academic achievement. A summary of the findings of Section A of this research follows.

Parental influence:

- Fathers were professional men. The positive effect of a father's educational level on a child's academic achievement has been supported by Maqsud(1983:220) and Eshel and Kurman(1991:190).
- Except for one mother, mothers were either employed or housewives, but if the latter, were involved in family activities inside and outside the home. Lemkau(1979:230) and Peluchette(1993:202) show that this was so in their study on the correlation of parental education and the employment of woman in male-dominated occupations.
- All parents were encouraging and supportive of the importance of working hard at school.
- All parents showed interest in their daughters' progress at school.
- Although one father did not believe in a career for women, the other parents encouraged further study after school.

"Parental encouragement of education is thought to enhance self confidence ...(and)... thought important in the early socialisation of women who gain gender atypical goals" (Tharenou *et al.*, 1994: 905).

Influence of the School:

The findings of this study and the literature reviewed with regard to the influence of the school were discussed in length in Chapter Four of this study, the main points of which follow.

- Academic activities were considered important at the schools attended by the Participants.
- Reinforcement for good achievements was given by the schools and the parents.
- All the Participants had enjoyed school.
- Participants were unanimous that their teachers had been motivating factors and role models in influencing their selection of career.
- Only two Participants had participated in any extra-curricular activities, which they thought had helped in developing leadership and interpersonal skills.

A study conducted by Wang et al. (2000) in Taiwan, confirmed the importance of teaching emotional skills at school level. Their study explored the development of children's emotional intelligence. The Taiwanese study yielded the following results:

- Children's emotional and reflective reasoning were higher than their emotional expressive ability.
- The Emotional Intelligence of girls was significantly higher than boys.
- The relationship between intelligence score and I score of children was positive.
- Both the intelligence score and Emotional Intelligence score were significant predictors of children's school academic scores.

The findings above indicate the importance and benefits of teaching Emotional Intelligence competencies at school. This has relevance for the training of girls for

career success particularly as Goleman(1995) stresses that these competencies can be learned. Although the Participants of this study had not had any training in EI, they acquired the skills which they perceived as important to get in to top management through their own efforts.

Of concern in the teaching of these skills to children there is a need for teachers to be trained while in pre-service in "emotional literacy" (Goleman, 1995: 279). To date in South Africa, there is little in the standard training of teachers to equip them for this task. It is crucial that this be addressed with a focus on emotional skills listed earlier in the Chapter (Goleman 1995, 283 – 284) which can be taught.

This also necessitates in-service education and training (INSET), for teachers at all levels, in this field. Pre-service training is insufficient as staff development is an ongoing process for every educationist so it is essential that training in Emotional Intelligence continue. This could be promoted by supporting teachers' attendance at full-day conferences, short courses during vacations or by short projects conducted at schools. This training should become part of the staff development profile of each teacher and involves the grounding of teachers in new principles, the introduction of new methods and materials and the participation of staff in decision-making and problem solving skills. Educators must also model Emotional Intelligence in caring, respectful interactions with children. To sum up, emotional literacy programmes should begin early in a child's development. It should be age-appropriate, run throughout their school years (linking the involvement of school, parents and community) and become a life-long learning process.

"The effective communication of emotion, then, is a critical capacity for effective leadership" (*Wharton Leadership Digest*, 2002). This is the belief of Goleman (Cherniss and Adler, 2000:9-29) who writes of the importance of promoting emotional intelligence for leaders and managers by in-service education and training (INSET) in organisations.

Cherniss and Adler(2000) found that promoting EI in the workplace, because it is a new concept, was often unsettling to many people in organisations. They developed a model with accompanying guidelines to help practitioners toward EI training. The following four phases(illustrated on pages 67-129) provide guidelines to assist in doing this:

Phase 1: Secure Organizational Support

1 Move when the timing is right

2. Find a powerful sponsor

3. Link EI to business need

4. Recruit emotionally intelligent leadership

5. Give the initiative plenty of autonomy

6. Use research

7. Maintain high quality

8. Infuse EI training throughout organization

GUIDELINES 1 – 8

GUIDELINES 9 – 14

Phase 2: Prepare for Change

9. Assess organizational needs

10. Assess individuals and deliver results with care

11. Gauge readiness of learners

12. Set clear, meaningful, manageable goals

13. Make learning self-directed

14. Building positive expectations

Phase 3: Train and Develop



15. Foster a positive relationship between trainer and learner



16. Use "live" models



17. Rely on experiential methods



18. Provide practice and feedback



19. Inoculate against setbacks

GUIDELINES 15 - 19

GUIDELINES 20 - 22

Phase 4: Encourage, Maintain, and Evaluate Change



20. Build in support



21. Create an encouraging environment



22. Conduct ongoing evaluation and research

The above guidelines are intended for adult workers and target one or more of the emotional and social competencies associated with (EI (Emotional Intelligence) listed above. Cherniss and Adler(2000:151) believe it is possible to become more emotionally intelligent at any point in life and state clearly, "Emotional intelligence can make the difference between success and failure for both individuals and organisations". The researcher strongly supports the suggestion that women managers should be offered training by the institution in which they work in any of the competencies, which they themselves identify as being an area of need.

Identifying potential top academic managers at middle management level and providing them with training to develop their emotional competencies and abilities, was felt by the Participants of this study as being vital in assisting them to break through the "glass ceiling" (Refer to Table 17, Chapter Five). Participant Six said,

"And I don't believe you can empower others but people can empower themselves but we can give them sufficient knowledge and data and assistance to empower themselves. Some skills can be learnt."

Mayer *et al.*, (2001) have developed an assessment tool called the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) to measure EI as they feel that Emotional Intelligence is important in various areas of life. Pool (1997: 4) reinforces this, "Emotional Intelligence matters for school achievement, job success, marital happiness, and physical health". Goleman (1998) in his research studies indicates that Emotional Intelligence is the bedrock upon which to build other intelligences and that is more closely linked to life-long success than is IQ (Intelligence Quotient). Goleman *et al.* (2002) say that recognising the importance of EI will help managers

become leaders. They refer to the emotional task of the leader as being "primal", that is the most important task of managing and leading. If leaders fail in the primal task of driving emotions in the right direction, nothing that they do will work well. It is a skill, which can be taught and learned.

Formal training should take place while those seeking promotion are in middle management positions. Once having been promoted, training should continue formally or become part of INSET (In-Service Training) to enable top managers to continue with life-long learning relevant to the nature of the work. Wisker (1996) feels that such training should focus on what women identify as their needs. She suggests that senior women in leaderships positions are the people who best know what training is needed in management. Mainiero in Johnson(2003:6) posits that managers pass through four stages of "political maturation" namely: "political naiveté", "building credibility", "refining a style" to finally "shouldering responsibilities". Thus, women in senior management positions would have experienced all of these stages and "... would seem to be in a unique position to suggest the needs for training which they see as critical." The EI model encompasses these attributes.

Wisker (1996) feels that crucial to women's empowerment in higher education is women-only training. She writes, "Women often report feeling silenced in groups dominated by men" (1996: 77). Women- only training programmes could provide a supportive environment in which the Participants could learn to cope with the demands and drawbacks suffered by them as a result of stereotyping and prejudice in patriarchal institutions and exclusion from male networks. Willis and Daisley in Wisker (1996: 78) have this to say, "It is not about taking a group of women who have

a 'problem' and patronizingly giving them a women's development course to make them feel better".

Although there is the disadvantage that women – only training programmes may further isolate and marginalise women in top management, women do have different styles of management to men and so perhaps the advantages of such training would outweigh the disadvantages (Reay and Ball, 2000; Turnbull-Jackson, 1999; Wisker, 1997; Eggins, 1997; Tharenou and Conroy, 1994; Kanter, 1977.) Davies (1985: 168) urges the need for change in management courses for women to recognise the need for women to include feminine characteristics and behaviour into their leadership roles in maintaining that. "This is the challenge for management development courses to develop a strategy which will facilitate the combination of individual power and structural constraints".

Although training is important for men and women's managerial advancement (Tharenou and Conroy, 1994) it is thought to be especially important for women to become managers. Women tend to be sidelined when training courses are offered in institutions and organisations (Tharenou, et al., 1994; Eggins, 1997; Wisker, 1996) as the Participants of this study revealed. They were excluded from male networks and mentoring systems and received little encouragement in the promotion stakes. Training helps develop management skills which women have fewer opportunities to acquire than men in Technikons where a patriarchal structure exists. Kanter (1977:206) suggests that women's advancement is influenced negatively in organisations because managerial hierarchies are mostly male and therefore automatically advantage men.

The Participants of this study had empowered themselves within the academic context of top management and had equipped themselves with skills that would enable them to take part in the decision-making process within the male – dominated domain of the Technikon structure. **Participant Three** said:

“I believe we can all take charge of our lives”.

The advice from Gallagher (2000: 2), a prominent United States of America researcher, is that, “Instead of trying to break the ‘glass ceiling’, women need to find their own personal window and climb through it”. Feminists as early as Horney(1939) have challenged women to bring about social and political changes in their own realities. Senior Women managers need to develop personal strategies, which they can employ to enable them to surmount the barriers of the “glass ceiling” in the workplace. A determined, motivated effort is required to tackle consciously this reality. Top women managers must ensure that they have the necessary leadership and management skills for the position. Accredited training and professional development are vital attributes, which they identify as necessary in the workplace, particularly those that are emotionally based (Emotional Intelligence). A range of developmental programmes are available for women in leadership positions to improve their knowledge, skills and competencies.

Leadership is not merely a position but requires the effective execution of management tasks, which can and should be mastered by leaders. These skills and techniques can be acquired through leadership programmes. These programmes should be promoted and backed by the institution and provide the participants with some form of accreditation. This would ensure that women’s leadership styles and

management skills are formally recognised. **Participant Three (Question15)** endorsed this,

"... I have ... achieved a degree of credibility and a reputation for making things happen."

"Training has a positive link to women's advancement". (Tharenou *et al.*, 1994: 904).

Women managers have less training than men in the workplace and fewer opportunities to gain expertise in managerial skills than men.

6.3 IMPLICATIONS

This study has attempted to add to the knowledge of women in top academic management in Technikons and thereby fills a gap in the literature in that it exposes what it has taken for such a small number of women to break through the "glass ceiling" to top management. Literature on women in South Africa in top educational management is scanty and what exists focuses on women in universities. Since 1995 Technikons have been granted degree-conferring status and now stand side by side with universities in tertiary education. There is a need then to include Technikons when examining why there is a scarcity of women in top academic management. Any issue hindering women's advance to such top positions taken alone seem minor but interwoven creates a situation, which mitigates against women's promotion.

This study has also drawn attention to the importance of the possession of emotional competences and abilities (EI) for women in top academic management. Although possessed by the women in this study who were self-taught, these abilities can and should be learned (Goleman, 1998) as discussed earlier in this Chapter. Goleman writes that EI competencies play an increasingly important role in top management in

organisations. How leaders and managers handle themselves and their relationships determine to a large extent whether an organisation flourishes or withers. It is imperative that women in management be provided with opportunities to develop and practise their skills and competencies.

This research revealed that Technikons should revisit their policies and practices. Women should be given formal leadership and management training separate from that of men. They have special qualities, which should be developed as this research has shown. This is important as educational institutions, particularly Technikons are most often controlled by men and thus managerial roles have become defined in masculine terms. Women have to work their way through the stereotype of what a manager is supposed to be (which is always in male terms); they have to face prejudice, preconceived ideas and the expectations of men. Number promotion, that is, laying down quotas, mandating minimum numbers of women in senior posts and tokenism will not help in the long run. As "glass ceiling" processes and effects are socially constructed, social, cultural and attitudinal conditions in education institutions need to be changed to enable women to break through the "glass ceiling in Technikons.

Another important aspect of this study was the opportunity to engage in dialogue and interact verbally with the Participants. This in-depth approach provided rich data and allowed the Participants to give "voice" to their experiences. The use of semi-structured interviews allowed the Participants to recount and reflect on their views and philosophies in the context of their managerial experiences in Technikons. "Stories make experiences meaningful, stories connect us with one another; stories make the characters come alive; stories provide a renewed sense of organisational

community." (Boje and Dennehy, 1993: 156). The narrative approach to this research enabled the Participants to provide personal accounts of events in their climb to top academic managerial positions. The Participants located themselves within the patriarchal culture of Technikons but were able to identify their marginalisation within the wider context of South African society where women are disadvantaged as managers and leaders.

This study revealed the importance of the electronic media for networking and for gathering important data for informed decision-making. The electronic media was found by the Participants to be an essential support system for them. As a result of their isolation and exclusion from the male hierarchy, networking in this way and being able to gain access to information important in their managerial positions, empowered them by providing them with confidence and effective management skills. The Participants were so comfortable with this communication process that three of the Participants selected to use electronic mail to answer the questionnaire rather than a face-to-face conversation. A special benefit to the researcher was that this was a great value in transcribing tapes, which was very time consuming.

As can be seen in this study, the number of women in top academic management in Technikons is small. This should be an area of concern as women have particularly valuable attributes which they can bring into education management but as they are denied access to and opportunities in leadership positions these attributes are lost to the Technikon system. Women in top management are still perceived in organisations as inferior or "the other", that is, having no special identity, an old habit, which is difficult to destroy at the individual, organisational and societal levels. (O'Leary and Ryan in Tanton, 1995:98). Gender transformation is not simply

employing personnel commensurate with female staff numbers in Technikons but making it possible for women to rise to top positions in management.

6.4 CONCLUSION

The under-representation of women in management in Technikons remains a reality despite legislation. Although the Constitution of South Africa is one of the most progressive in the world, the reality is that the majority of women continue to face marginalisation and discrimination in the workplace. Despite the fact that more and more women are employed in academic faculties in Technikons, their gender is nowhere near demographically commensurate in top management positions. As this study revealed, in February 2002, only eight women occupied the position of Dean or higher in the top academic management hierarchy.

Vital is a change of attitude by men in top management. Their hostility towards women in management, their practices of excluding women from decision-making processes and their behaviour needs to be addressed. They need to be sensitised to gender issues and accept that both men and women can play an important professional role in academic management. There is a need to recognise the importance of gender equity and work toward solving the problems arising from gender discrimination. Recognition needs to be given to the special attributes and skills, that is the emotional attributes of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills which the Participants possessed but which can be taught to all women academic managers since "Great leadership works through the emotions" (Goleman *et al.*, 2002:49).

The transformation of the organisational culture of Technikons is also crucial. The sub-cultures, informal male networks and patriarchal hierarchies impede the promotion prospects of women to top management. Itzin in Johnson (2003: 5) in her research confirms that a "gender culture" exists in organisations and that it is important to move from an understanding of gender dynamics of an organisation to a strategy for change which infers that strategies have to be reshaped continually.

Cox in Johnson(2003:4) traces the cultural transformation in organisations through five stages. Applied to the South African scene:

- **Stage One** of the organisation was "unawareness of exclusion of women (based on false notions of women eg. they are "emotional").
- **Stage Two** was the opening up of organisations in response to a growing feminist movement, so some White women challenged White men for power but still found it difficult to gain upward mobility.
- **Stage Three** was when perhaps the organisation put in place some support systems for women which led to the identification of the "glass ceiling".
- **Stage Four** set the emphasis in the organisation for the inclusion of women. It is at this stage that she sees so many South African organisations stuck and feels that they need to confront "the contradiction between the expressed value of diversity and their failure to empower black and white women".
- **Stage Five** is where integration occurs and no group is excluded. To achieve this stage, informal networks have to be embraced to establish the multicultural organisation, which thinks, looks and acts differently.

Technikons seem to be located at Stage Four where the plight of women in management is noted but where in reality nothing has progressed from Stage Three. Perhaps Technikons should investigate mechanisms and strategies to bring about a new way of managing which will offer women the opportunity to participate in top decision-making positions and so reach Stage Five. Technikons must make a commitment to action, that is, to change culture, habits and perceptions to permit aspiring women the opportunity to play their part, alongside men, in top academic management positions.

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ADDENDUM 1



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7 February 2002

The Vice-Chancellor

Technikon

Dear Prof .

I am currently undertaking a research project leading to a PhD which will focus on women in technikons who hold positions in the academic framework of dean or higher, to determine and uncover the factors that have contributed to their success in breaking the "glass ceiling", the invisible barrier which mitigates against women's advancement to senior management positions.

I need to interview those who have attained such an eminent position in your institution. Such an interview will take about one hour of their time with a possible follow up later. The information will be used only for research purposes and will be **totally confidential**. **No names of persons or institutions** will be used and personal information will not be available to anyone. Confidential data will only be retained until the thesis has been examined and will then be shredded.

Please may I have permission to interview women who fall into this category in your institution, if they are willing to participate. Your willingness to allow me to do so will be most appreciated.

Sincerely

CAROLYN TURNBULL-JACKSON
HoD : EDUCATION

ADDENDUM 2



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25 March 2002

I am currently undertaking a research project leading to a PhD which will focus on women in technikons who hold positions in the academic framework of dean or higher, to determine and uncover the factors that contributed to their success in breaking the "glass ceiling", the invisible barrier which mitigates against women's advancement to senior management positions.

In February this year, I requested permission from Prof Khaopa to be allowed to interview eminent women who fall into this category. He replied giving his approval, on condition that the women concerned were prepared to participate.

Would you be prepared to participate in my research, which is totally confidential? I know that you are a busy woman and that the interview situation might be difficult for you to schedule. Alternatives are the use of the e-mail by which I could send you questions and you could reply within a reasonably flexible time frame. All information will be **totally** confidential. No names of persons or institutions will be revealed.

As an eminent woman in the academic framework of technikons, a rare position, your input would be most valuable in women's advancement to senior management positions. To date, only 8 women in Technikons in S.A. hold such positions.

Your willingness to participate by spending approximately 1½ hours, with a possible short follow-up will be most appreciated (early next term, if possible).

Yours faithfully

CAROLYN TURNBULL-JACKSON
HoD : Education

ADDENDUM 3

LETTER OF INFORMATION

TECHNIKON NATAL : DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

TOPIC OF RESEARCH: **Women in Top Academic Management in Technikons : A Feminist Narrative Interpretation**

Dear Participants,

I am currently undertaking a research project which will focus on women in technikons who hold status positions in the academic framework of dean or higher, to determine and uncover the factors that contributed to their success in breaking the "glass ceiling", the invisible barrier which mitigates against women's advancement to senior management positions. Currently only nine women hold such positions. My overall aim is to trace what women in top academic management regard as the most significant changes, events and turning points which helped them to rise to top management posts in technikons.

As you are one of those who has attained such an eminent position in your institution, I should be most grateful if you would agree to participate in my research project by allowing me to interview you. This interview will not exceed an hour (with a possible short follow-up later).

The information you give will be used only for research purposes and will be totally confidential. No names of persons or institutions will be used and personal information will not be available to anyone. Confidential data will only be retained until the thesis has been examined and will then be shredded.

I hope that my study will help to open up promotion possibilities for women in top management positions in technikons.

Your willingness to cooperate will be most appreciated.

Yours faithfully

CAROLYN TURNBULL-JACKSON
HoD : Education

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ADDENDUM 4

INFORMED CONSENT FORM
(To be completed by subject)

Date:

Title of Research Project: **Women in Top Academic Management in Technikons: A Feminist Narrative Interpretation.**

Names of Supervisors : Prof. N. Gawe (B.A. (Hons.); M.Ed.; D.Ed.
Mrs J. Prosser (B.A.; HDE.; B.Ed.; M.Ed.)

Please circle the appropriate answer		YES	NO
1.	Have you read the research information sheet?	Yes	No
2.	Have you had an opportunity to ask questions regarding this study?	Yes	No
3.	Have you received satisfactory answers to your questions?	Yes	No
4.	Have you had an opportunity to discuss this study?	Yes	No
5.	Have you received enough information about this study?	Yes	No
6.	Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from this study?	Yes	No
	a). At any time		
	b). Without having to give any reasons for withdrawing		
7.	Do you understand that :		
	a). No names will be used in this research project		
	b). No personal information will be made available to anyone	Yes	No
8.	Do you agree to voluntarily participate in this study?	Yes	No

If you answered no to any of above, please obtain the necessary information before signing.

ADDENDUM 5

DATA GATHERING QUESTIONNAIRE

1. PERSONAL DETAILS

1.1 Your Title:

Prof

☐

Doctor

☐

Mrs

☐

Miss

☐

1.2 Position held:

Dean

☐

Vice-Principal

☐

Vice-Chancellor

☐

1.3 Age:

30 - 39

☐

40 - 49

☐

50 - 65

☐

1.4 Qualifications held:

2. **Present Post:**

2.1 How many years have you held your current post?

2.2 Is this your first appointment with your technikon?

Yes

No

2.3 If yes, where was your previous post and what position did you hold?

2.4 If no, what position did you previously hold in this technikon?

2.5 Was your present position advertised?

Yes

No

If yes,

Internally

Externally

3. What type of tenure does this post hold?

3.1 until retirement

☐

3.2 contract

☐

3.3 other

☐

(If other, specify)

4. Would you consider your present post as being a promotion on your previous post?

Yes

☐

No

☐

5. Has your present post/position given you

– improved academic status

☐

– job satisfaction

☐

– financial reward

☐

– a combination of the above

☐

– other
(specify)

☐

6. Have you ever had a PERFORMANCE REVIEW?

Yes

☐

No

☐

7. Have you been encouraged to apply for a more senior position in this present institution?

Yes

☐

No

☐

Elaborate: _____

8. Which department/faculty committees do you serve on? LIST THEM.

9. Does your institution have an equal opportunities statement?

Yes

☐

No

☐

10. Does it have an equal opportunities committee?

Yes

☐

No

☐

If yes:

What type of issues does this committee address?

How many members does it have?

☐

How many women serve on this committee?

☐

ADDENDUM 6

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW: OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

SECTION A

1. What did your parents do for a living?
2. Did your parents encourage you to work hard at school?
3. Were you rewarded for working hard at school by your parents?
4. Was excellence in academic achievement considered important by your school?
5. Did you enjoy school?
6. Did you participate in extra-curricular activities in your school-going years which helped you develop leadership and interpersonal skills? (e.g. youth activities, church youth groups, girl-guides, etc.).
7. Were there teachers at school or adults other than your parents who influenced you as far as having a career is concerned?
8. Did your parents encourage you to study further after leaving school?
9. Who paid for your education after high school?

ADDENDUM 7

SECTION B

10. What aspects did you find most difficult when balancing career and domestic cycles .g. partnerships, marriage, parenthood, etc.?
11. a) What qualities are most important for women to get ahead in top academic management positions? Rank the following in order from 1-5, 1 being the most important, 5 being the last important.
- spiritual values
 - ambition
 - academic qualifications
 - being in the right place at the right time
 - prepared to take risks
- b) Are there any other qualities which you regard as important?
12. Have you had any management training? Indicate which apply: management degrees/diplomas
- workshops/conferences/seminars
 - mentors
 - networking
 - no training in management

13. a) What was the most difficult factor you have had to overcome in your career path? Rank the following in order from 1-5, 1 being the most difficult, 5 being the least difficult.

- institutional hindrances
- gender prejudice/stereotyping
- domestic responsibilities
- racial prejudice
- financial difficulties

b) Do any other factors come to mind?

14. Is there any special advantage to being female in a top academic management position?

15. What factors or philosophies do you attribute to your personal success in breaking through the "glass ceiling"?

ADDENDUM 8

CONCLUSION

16. Do you have any advice for women who wish to break through the "glass ceiling"?
17. Please share any personal information you have that would benefit this study.
18. If you could have your time over, are there any aspects of your career that you would like to have changed?