THE DYNAMICS OF GENDER DISPARITY IN ZIMBABWE: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF FACTORS THAT IMPEDE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN INTO MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN TEACHERS’ TRAINING COLLEGES

BY

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THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

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ABSTRACT

The rationale of this study was to establish the factors that impede advancement of women into higher echelons of management in Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe. While Zimbabwe is signatory to a number of international and regional protocols on gender equality, and two decades of gender equality activism have since passed, it is saddening to note that the involvement of women in the higher echelons of management has not diffused to other sectors of the economy. One such particular area is the management of tertiary education institutions and this thesis took a predilection into the management of Teachers’ Training Colleges. Females tend to be reaching the ceiling at Principal Lectureship, and hardly do they break through into the senior top management positions. Despite government declarations and policies, the management of these institutions tend to be male dominated. Data were collected through questionnaires distributed to female Principal Lecturers who were the affected lot that was due for promotion into administration of Teachers’ Training Institutions. The qualitative thematic treatment of the findings was done and computer-aided quantification of the unstructured responses ensued to help in the triangulation of the analysis, presentation and discussion of the research findings. Reliability of the research instruments were tested using the Cronbach’s Alpha based on the open-coded dataset and the results indicated that the research instruments used for this study were reliable enough, implying also the research findings there from. From the analysis of the findings, it was established that patriarchal cultural system was the major impediment factor. Generally, the critical areas which women should look into in order for them to be able to make inroads into the higher echelons of management were: support/empowerment, assertiveness, academic advancement, lobbying for recognition, applying for advertised posts, high self-esteem and high self-confidence. Finally, this study outlined recommendations for practice by women, tertiary institutions and policy architects.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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DEDICATION

I affectionately dedicate this work to Nobuhle Gillian, my dear wife, and the kids – Primrose Martins, Samantha Martins, Nonzile Adellaide, Thandeka Bukayi and to my twin boys Martins Jnr and Benson Jnr whose love drive my working spirit. To my parents Mr Michael Mbuzo Dube and my late dear mother, Mrs Ester Bukayi Dube nee Ndlovu – your love, dedication and support to my development have always motivated me. To the late Honourable Vice President of the Republic of Zimbabwe, Dr. John Landa Nkomo, this is for you. You taught me to turn vision into reality. To my late sisters, Rebecca and Rosemary and my late brother, Bhekimpilo, your demise is still a void.

I also dedicate this work to my friend and colleague, Mr. Mlisa Jasper Ndlovu whose love for continuous reading and learning is profound.
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

Throughout the global village, women constitute a larger segment of the available managerial talent, yet, their representation at top-level managerial positions, be it in business or in public administration, is still rather obscure (Rosener, 2009). This same authority states that women hold more management positions today, yet most of these positions are at the middle management and lower levels. This study, therefore, sought to analyse the impediments that women encountered in their quest to higher echelons of management. It focussed on the education system in Zimbabwe, specifically the tertiary institutions that train teachers.

In the United States of America, based on the latest capitalist figures, women constituted 11% of Fortune 1000 company board seats, and 25% of Fortune 1000 companies still had no women on their boards (Rosener, 2009). The African Executive magazine quoted studies by Evetts (2000) which highlight that women were absent in the upper echelons of organisations as well as specific professions such as technical and commercial sectors. The few who made it to the top were viewed as sitting on ‘dangerous cliffs’ or ‘greasy poles’ and, in the African context, earned labels as ‘unfeminine’ or ‘social males’ (ibid).

Rosener (2009) argue that there was reluctance, in early 2000, to add women to the board as many Chief Executive Officers only added women as a response to public pressure. Today, there is a greater demand for women because it is increasingly acknowledged that boards should reflect the country’s population and its customers – not just because it is the right thing to do, but because it makes good business sense (ibid). If it made ‘good business sense’, then there was a pressing need to find out why
there were so few female managers. According to Rosener (2009), the response given by most male Chief Executive Officers as to why they did not have women on their boards was that they could not find them. Rosener (2009) writes that, when she made a follow-up question as regarding the kind of women the male Chief Executive Officers were looking for, responses provided qualities that many of the sitting male board members did not possess.

Similarly, when asked by a media journalist soon after swearing-in ceremony of his new cabinet in September 2013, why there were only three female cabinet ministers out of a total of twenty four ministers in his 2013 Cabinet, His Excellency – the Zimbabwean Head of State and Government and Commander-in-Chief of the Zimbabwe Defence Forces, President Robert Gabriel Mugabe told the nation that there were no women who had the requisite credentials for appointment. This may explain the fact that although women were in the majority, very few possessed the educational and relevant professional qualifications for appointment to the higher echelons of management (Rutoro et al., 2013).

In a similar observation, a situational analysis conducted by Women in Local Government Forum (Ncube, 2007) revealed that in the 27 urban local authorities in Zimbabwe, with a total of 270 Councillors and Mayors, 42 Councillors were women and none of them was elected Mayor. Thus, in the words of Rodger Mozheinty, the current Secretary General of the Zimbabwe Local Government Association (ZILGA), “The push to have more women in leadership positions follows realisation that while women are the majority in the country, they only accounted for 16% of elected councillors,” (The Herald, 22 June 2009). This phenomenon was not really easy to comprehend. For example, numerically, with women in the majority, their participation in voting for men into top management positions may be interpreted to mean that
women did not have confidence in themselves, hence the challenges faced by other women who happened to be in lesser positions of management.

The Zimbabwean government acknowledges that women are marginalised by creating a stand-alone Ministry of Women’s Affairs solely to look at the issues of women empowerment as envisaged in the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZIMASSET) policy framework where one of the strategies is to avail and increase the economic opportunities for women (GoZ, 2013).

According to the 2010 population census, women accounted for 54% of Zimbabwe’s population and yet, ironically, they were still under-represented and marginalised in management and decision-making positions (ZIMSTAT, 2012). The mere signing of statutes on the International Convention on all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) by Zimbabwe, among other countries in Southern and Central Africa, did not automatically guarantee women equal opportunities (Paradza and Matovu, 2002).

The researcher observed that, in the Zimbabwean society, despite the increased sensitivity and the promulgation of gender sensitive legislation, women continue to face barriers to their aspirations of participating in politics and/or higher echelons of leadership and/or management positions in diverse institutions.

One of the broad objectives of the inclusive Government in Zimbabwe was to promote public participation and it, therefore, followed that women needed to be made visible and felt on the socio-political and economic map of Zimbabwe (GNU, 2008). It was, therefore, actually a paradox that the benefits of women’s participation in Zimbabwe are still not clearly understood by both women and men. The researcher’s experience in Zimbabwe’s Higher Education exposed him to numerous situations including political and administrative context in nature, where women were marginalised especially in
positions of governance and management. The researcher observed that, at times some, women were outclassed, outmanoeuvred and even manipulated by some male characters into giving up their efforts at creating a niche for themselves at lower or middle management levels. Faced with the predicament, it became apparent to the researcher that, women encountered gender disparity challenges in management and that they were not respected wholesomely compared to their male counterparts at same managerial levels.

1.1 Background to the Study

This researcher was once a Principal Lecturer in the Teachers’ Training Colleges where he observed this disparity and felt motivated to understand what causes the perpetuation of the phenomenon. He observed that the absence of female Vice Principals and female Principals prevailed in all Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe. The fundamental question was ‘what was the main reason for such gender disparity in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe’? The researcher’s experience with female managers at lower, middle or top management level support the authenticity and validity of his research through observation and interface.

In Zimbabwe, at the time of carrying out this study, there were fourteen (14) Teachers’ Training Colleges and of these, only five (5) were managed by women, with only two (2) on substantive appointments, the other three were in acting capacities. Those on acting capacities had been acting for more than two years or more and it became a cause for concern why they were not being confirmed substantively. The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development seemed to be giving females long periods of acting so that, during the lengthy process, they would
make mistakes that would provide authorities with opportunities to replace them with male principals. This indicated that, perhaps there were jobs fit only for males and any female seen to be in those male positional worlds would be considered as a ‘social misfit’. However, one question that this study continuously raises is, *who says women do not make good managers?*

The teacher education system in Zimbabwe comprises Primary Teachers’ Colleges and Secondary Teachers’ Colleges. Primary education is attended by younger children, whereas secondary education by pupils who are older and more mature. All the five female Principals were heading Primary Teachers’ Colleges which probably was an indication that female managers in tertiary institutions were relegated to managing institutions that were related to producing teachers for primary school children; while Secondary Teachers’ Colleges were all being managed by male principals. Although this arrangement could be coincidental, it became factual when observed from the perspective of the challenges of the two institutions. Females were relegated to Primary Teachers’ colleges because they are generally considered less complex. By so doing, Teacher Education system was further endorsing the gender discrimination ironically implying that women were less competent to handle challenging positions than men.

From an attitudinal point of view, the psychology of dealing with children is generally regarded as less challenging than that of dealing with pupils who are at adolescent stage. The curriculum at Primary Teachers’ Colleges is patterned, that is, all students did basically the same subjects whereas at the Secondary Teachers’ Colleges, there is specialisation and a very wide spectrum of subjects which required specialised lecturers with deep understanding of the subject contents. The question that still requires answers is *why are women managers relegated to managing less challenging institutions and*
not being given an opportunity to manage challenging institutions? Is it because women are considered soft targets who should manage simple tasks while their male counterparts are the only ones who can manage heavy tasks? It is this gap which the researcher intended to understand why it existed.

While this researcher zeroed in on Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe, the same could be deduced in broader perspectives of institutions and organisations around the country. According to available literature, academic women encountered numerous obstacles as they advanced to positions of leadership and management in the academic world (McTavish & Miller, 2006). Research contends that academic women in first world countries as well as developing countries experienced obstacles to advancement (Blattel-Mink, 2007 & Fanghanel, 2012). As observed by Gaidzanwa (1998), academic women in Zimbabwe also face obstacles related to their advancement, although only very few studies have, so far, documented this. It was, therefore, one of the main aims of this study to identify the major reasons for the low participation of women in the management of Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe. To this effect, the researcher persistently asked respondents to identify and describe what they viewed as the reasons.

The glaring disparity and marginalisation of women in management and decision making roles in Tertiary Institutions in Zimbabwe was significant from the parent Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development. The Minister of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development has always been a man from the 1980s up until 2014. The Deputy Minister has always been a man and the Permanent Secretary also always been a man.
In these three top posts in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe, there has never been a woman since the Ministry was created. At the time of carrying out this study, the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development had six (6) Directors, of which five (5) were male and only one was female. Out of ten (10) Deputy Directors, seven (7) were male and three (3) were female (Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development HR Department: March 2013). It was very clear, from the onset that females were glaringly out-numbered at the Head Office of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe (refer to Table 1.1 on gender representation in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development).

Table 1.1: Gender representation at Ministry of Higher Education in Zimbabwe in 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of Post(s)</th>
<th>Number of posts</th>
<th>Number of males</th>
<th>Number of females</th>
</tr>
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<td>Hon Minister</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Directors</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Directors</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principals: Secondary Teachers Colleges</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principals: Primary Teachers Colleges</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Principals: Secondary Teachers Colleges</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Principals: Primary Teachers’ Colleges</td>
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<td>8</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


Principals of Tertiary Institutions in Zimbabwe are equivalent to Deputy Director Grade in the Zimbabwe Civil Service. There are fourteen (14) Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe of which three (3) are Secondary Teachers’ Training Colleges and eleven (11) are Primary Teachers’ Training Colleges. All the three (3) Secondary Teachers’ Training Colleges are currently managed by male principals. Out of the eleven Primary Teachers’ Training Colleges, five (5) are managed by male principals and six (6) by female principals. Perhaps, female principals are reserved to manage Primary Teachers’
Training Colleges considering that Primary Teachers’ Training Colleges train and prepare students to teach in primary schools where there is need for motherly approach or that primary education is considered simpler and thus relegated to women.

Society generally view women as people who are patient who tolerate children because they spend most of their time looking after them. From this context, it could also be true that the majority of students who enrolled at Primary Teachers’ Training Colleges are female and that most Primary Schools in Zimbabwe have an influx of lady teachers and headmistresses. A snap random survey conducted by this researcher at eight Teachers’ Training Colleges, six (6) Primary Teachers’ Training Colleges and two (2) Secondary Teachers’ Colleges with regards to gender disparity in the academic staffing revealed the imbalance that exists in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development’s Teachers’ Training Colleges as shown in Table 1.2 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of College</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Number of Lecturers</th>
<th>Female Lecturers</th>
<th>Male Lecturers</th>
<th>Disparity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hillside Teachers’ College</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belvedere Teachers’ College</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>-41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United College of Education</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>+19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JMN Teachers’ College</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>-05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seke Teachers’ College</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>-05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marymount Teachers’ College</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morgen Zintec College</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madziwa Teachers’ College</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>726</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>-80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Teachers’ Training Colleges’ Human Resources Departments - Zimbabwe*
Table 1.2 above indicates that there were more male lecturers in Zimbabwe’s Teachers’ Training Colleges than female lecturers. This was the basis of the researcher’s intentions, to highlight and interrogate this existing disparity and exploring the reasons for that. The pool from female lecturers was small from which managerial material could be tapped. Table 1.2 above reveals gross underrepresentation of women in the governance of the fourteen (14) Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe together with the management team at its Head Office, a situation which warranted an enquiry into the causes thereof.

The glaring gender disparity in the top management was indeed a cause for concern for this study. It could coincidentally had been by design that women were underrepresented or women were, themselves, not interested in occupying such positions of responsibility. Madziva Teachers’ College, a rural college, had more male lecturers than females and United College of Education, an urban College, had more female lecturers than males (Teachers’ Training Colleges’ Human Resources Departments – Zimbabwe, 2013). This could mean that female lecturers shunned rural colleges because, largely, women preferred to work in urban settings probably because they were married and preferred to live with their husbands who were largely employed in the industries in urban cities.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In Zimbabwe, while women constitute 52% of the general population, and also that Zimbabwe is signatory to international protocol on gender emancipation, the feminine gender representation and participation in higher positions do not reflect their numerical power, women’s reality and government political commitment to the international protocol on gender emancipation. Moreover, one of the principal objectives of the
Zimbabwe National Gender Policy (2004) was to promote and balance advancement of women and men in all sectors. Policies have been enacted for women empowerment but the women themselves might not be bothered about such laws.

Women might be content with the status quo where men are leaders and managers. Could it be that women are satisfied by providing the necessary support for men and considering managerial positions as extra loads of responsibilities on their shoulders? This, in essence, exacerbates the social, political and economic conditions of women who, in their own right, should be entitled to equal treatment.

This research, therefore, seeks to find out the factors that impede the advancement of women into management positions in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish the factors that impede the advancement of women to higher echelons of management in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development’s Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe.

1.4 Research Objectives

To help address the problem, the research sought to explore the following objectives:

1. To identify the factors contributing to absence of females at higher echelons of the management ladder in Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe.

2. To identify the challenges that women managers encounter in their quest to manage Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe.
3. To determine the extent to which opportunities exist for women in the fulfilment of their aspirations and contributions to national development in Zimbabwe.

4. To establish the extent to which women are willing to respond to advertised managerial vacancies in light of their encouragement to apply.

5. To identify the reasons why promotion prospects in Teachers’ Training Colleges are seemingly in favour of the male candidates.

1.5 Research Questions

With regard to the above research objectives, the study, thus, intended to find answers to the following questions:

1. What factors contribute to the absence of females at higher echelons of the management ladder in Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe?

2. What are the challenges that women managers encounter in their quest to manage Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe?

3. To what extent do opportunities exist for women in the fulfilment of their aspirations and contributions to national development in Zimbabwe?

4. In light of the encouragement for women to apply for advertised managerial vacancies, to what extent are they willing to respond?

5. Why are the promotion prospects in Teachers’ Training Colleges seemingly in favour of the male candidates?

1.6 Assumptions of the Study

The assumptions made in this study were that:

i) women were also interested in increasing their participation in the management of Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe;
ii) the sample of female Principal Lecturers selected for this study, was representative and reflective of the situation obtaining in all Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe;

iii) female Principal Lecturers had the same or even better qualifications to hold top management positions as compared to their male counterparts in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe and

iv) promotion procedures in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development were in sync with the dictates of the Zimbabwe National Gender policy.

1.7 **Significance of the Study**

Apart from fulfilling the academic requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree, this study sought to advance the causes of women in Zimbabwe in the following manner that:

1. women had not made significant in-roads when it came to management positions in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe especially in the Teachers’ Training Colleges;

2. there were no official data on the situation of female managers in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe. This study, therefore, complemented the efforts of women and brought awareness of their absence in managing Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe;

3. women would benefit socially, politically and economically if they took advantage of their numerical advantage in the national process.
This study generated information on the status of women in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe and their involvement in the management of Teachers’ Training Colleges which could be used by the Civil Service Commission in making informed decisions on future appointments thereof.

The issue of marginalisation of women in Higher and Tertiary Institutions in Zimbabwe was further compounded by the Zimbabwean ethos of patriarchy and dominance by the male culture. It was, therefore, critical for the study to investigate the extent to which the Zimbabwean culture determined and influenced this myth.

This study was, therefore, seen as a positive contribution to the dearth of literature related to the Zimbabwean women managers in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

This study covered seven (7) Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe out of a total of fourteen (14) and comprised three (3) colleges in Harare Province, one (1) in Mashonaland Central Province and three (3) in the Matabeleland Region. Of this sample, two (2) were Secondary Teachers’ Training Colleges out of a total of three (3) and five (5) Primary Teachers’ Colleges out of a total of eleven (11). The seven (7) Teachers’ Training Colleges were selected because of their proximity and easy access by the researcher who was employed full time as a Principal Director in the Office of the President and Cabinet and frequented these three provinces.
1.9 **Limitations of the Study**

This researcher conducted face-to-face interviews and administered questionnaires with key respondents in the seven (7) Teachers’ Training Colleges selected for the study. Where circumstances did not permit, telephone interviews were used.

In order to cut down on transport, fuel expenses and time, face-to-face interviews with respondents were conducted where the researcher visited a particular Teachers’ Training College and camped while generating necessary information. The researcher’s experience and exposure in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development came in handy and hence the facilitation of interviews was conducted with minimum difficulties since the interviewer was not a new face to most of the respondents. Some respondents were not outright free and honest when giving responses but the researcher made every effort to make them feel at home and assured them that no names would be recorded on the questionnaires or record of personal interviews.

The researcher visited all the selected colleges and personally interviewed and administered questionnaires to all the female Principal Lecturers who were possible candidates for promotion to upper echelons of management of Teachers’ Training Colleges including female Vice Principals.

1.10 **Ethical and Legal Considerations**

Confidentiality was essentially over-emphasised when dealing with issues that invoked emotions. Interviewees were protected from any form of identity and that the data collected were treated in utmost confidence. Anonymity in completing the questionnaires was exercised. The names of the Teachers’ Training Colleges were not
to be divulged to anyone outside the thesis confines except for the supervisor of this research project. No one was forced to take part in the study against their will.

1.11 Definition of Special Terms and Expressions

Definitions of these special terms and expressions are to be interpreted according to this thesis document only and not in their general use.

**Gender** – Gender refers to socially constructed and varied roles that women and men play in their daily lives (Ludvig, 2006; Sharp, 2011). In this study, this term refers to relations between men and women which are reflected in their roles, responsibilities, access to resources, constraints, opportunities, needs, perceptions and views.

**Gender Equity** – it refers to the legal, social and political capacity of men and women to mobilize and manage resources of household, community, national, regional and international levels on an equal basis.

**Glass-ceiling** – situation in which progress, especially promotion, appears to be possible but restrictions or discriminations create a barrier that prevents it.

**Leader** – an individual in a position to influence others and has the capacity to transfer vision into reality.

**Leadership** – For the purpose of this study, it refers to the capacity to transfer vision into reality.

**Manager** – one who is required to facilitate and coordinate the efforts of others to achieve organisational goals.
National Gender Policy – it refers to an instrument which was drawn up by the Government of Zimbabwe in 2002 which provided guidelines and the institutional framework to engender national sector policies, programmes, projects and activities at all levels in society and economy.

Participation – refers to the act or conditions of taking part in social, political and economic activities of women in order to shape their destiny.

Power – a leader’s ability to get things done in a way s/he wants them to be done in order to transfer vision into reality.

Stereotypes – these are commonly held public beliefs about specific social groups or types of individuals.

Strategic planning – it is a disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions and action that shape and guide what an organisation is, what it does, why it does it, with a focus on the future.

Strategy – it is the direction and scope of an organisation over the long term, which achieves advantage for the organisation through its configuration of resources within the changing environment and to fulfil stakeholder expectations.

Women Executives – women who are in strategic decision making positions, for example, Managing Director, General Manager, Principals.

1.12 Organisation of the Study

In Chapter I the researcher discussed the background, the problem statement, research objectives, the research proposition, the justification for carrying out the research and the research scope. Chapter II explores the relevant intellectual debate surrounding the gender equality problem in the management of teachers’ colleges. It analyses views,
debates, propositions, arguments and work carried out by researchers. Chapter III touches on the methodology, the research design, research philosophy governing the research framework, data collection methods, presentation, analysis tools and research limitations. Chapter IV will present the research findings and discussions. Conclusions and recommendations from the analysis will be drawn up and presented in Chapter V.

1.13 Chapter summary

This chapter provided the introduction and the background for this study, described the purpose of this study, discussing the theoretical basis and stated the research questions. The significance of the study was discussed and the researcher enunciated his observations while he was a Principal Lecturer at the Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe, stating his motivation for carrying out this study. The glaring disparity in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development’s Head Office was discussed together with that obtaining in the Teachers’ Training Colleges. The rational for carrying out this study was also explicitly explained. Assumptions and limitations of the study were provided and definitions of special terms and expressions, as used in this research thesis, given. Chapter 2 discusses the related literature and what other scholars have researched on related to this study.
CHAPTER TWO

Review of Related Literature

2.0 Introduction

The previous chapter introduced the research problem, highlighting the outline of this study, covering the background and statement of the study, the research questions, the significance, delimitations and limitations of the study and the methodology and design applied. This chapter seeks to review, appreciate and critique contributions of various researchers on the topic under investigation.

Review of current thinking is regarded by Cronin and Coughlan (2008) as the process of logically evaluating and academically blending literary evidence from various philosophies, constructs and schools of thought with a view to obtaining a more reliable review that will contextualize the research within the body of knowledge.

This study identifies countermeasures that could be successfully implemented by female lecturers in their quest for the higher echelons of management. This chapter, therefore, helps to review the relatable literature that aims at providing a summary of current scholarly vantage points on gender disparity and equality. In this study, the available literature on women’s involvement in the management of Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe was, for the purposes of analysis, categorised into the following four broad themes from the objectives and these include:

1. Factors contributing to the dearth of females managers
2. Availability of opportunities for females and their uptake
3. Challenges encountered by women managers
4. Strategies to overcome the barriers to women’s participation
2.1 Factors contributing to dearth of females managers

This section presents the factors generally accepted by scholars as being the reasons for the poor presentation of women in the higher echelons of management. These comprise gender constructs, theories and development approaches.

The term “gender” is one of the most abused and least understood phenomena in social sciences and in real life. Gender refers to socially constructed and varied roles that women and men play in their daily lives (Wirth, 2001). A distinction could be made between sex and gender. Sex refers to the biological make up of a human being, that is, one is born either male or female whereas gender is acquired and constructed by society (ibid). In the same vein, Koda (1993), in Rwabangira (1996), brought out the cultural perspective in the definition of gender. Rwabangira (1996) describes gender as a distinctive quality of each sex that was culturally determined. According to literature, gender relations emanate from social relations between women and men, which portray inherent gender inequalities (ibid). Hence, for those two scholars, gender issues revolve around power relations between women and men in terms of allocation and control of resources.

Wirth (2001) goes on to say that gender has to do with roles that are assigned to females and males by society and are reinforced by custom, law and specific development policies and initiatives crafted by people and developed over extended periods of time. Thus, gender also refers to a structural relationship of inequality between men and women, which are manifested in markets, political, economic, social structures and in the household, (Ward, 1996). Also, Wirth (2001) concurred with McTavish, & Miller (2006) in viewing gender as relations between men and women which are reflected in their roles, responsibilities, access to resources, constraints,
opportunities, needs, perceptions and views. In other words, men and women differ on the resource allocation and their control thereof, hence the disparity in Teachers’ Training Colleges.

Wirth (2001) further argues that gender is not a synonym for women but considers both men and women and their interdependent relationships. Contrary, gender, as an inclusive concept, entails what roles women and men play in society and how they relate socially; but also embraces cultural ideas about their ‘maleness’ and ‘femaleness’ and the structural inequalities which emanate from those differences (Terjesen, & Singh, 2008). This study, however, focused on why the male gender had more power than their female counterparts in terms of opportunities, share and control of resources; and why the playing field appears uneven. According to the available statistics of top leadership in Ministry of Higher education positions, men seemingly dominated over the females.

Buckingham-Hatfield (2000) also argues that gender is a society’s interpretation of maleness and femaleness and that society would determine what should be male and female characteristics and roles. Therefore, boys and girls growing up in that society are encouraged to adopt these characteristics and to fulfil their respective roles. They were rewarded for being appropriately feminine or masculine and this in turn helped to reinforce the status quo. According to findings by Buckingham-Hatfield (2000), one example of the context is that of Judeo-Christian male characteristics which are assertiveness, dominance, competitiveness, aggressiveness and logic. This generally gave a description of the dominance of men over women.

A little dig at the annals of history reveals how women have been treated by the society in general. Thus, for Wood (2005), at birth, every woman is endowed with sexual
characteristics finding expression in her erotic and reproductive roles which are generally considered different and inferior from those of their male counterparts. Wood (2005) argues further that a woman adopts social attitude that clearly defines her as a woman and certain characteristics of which must have no apparent relationship with women’s special physiology. He further asserts that usually from childhood upwards, women are given special tasks and duties and that in essence, all of these characteristics adds to a kind of social sex which defined women’s place in society just as much as did her biological sex (ibid). In other words, the roles and character of any human being is determined by their physiology.

2.1.1 The Socialisation Process

Gender roles develop through internalisation during childhood, argues Buckingham-Hatfield (2000). According to Hyden (2000) and Brush (1999), the socialisation process is responsible for delineating the gender roles performed by males and females at an early age. Brush (1999) defined socialisation as the process by which an individual learns the rules, roles and relationships deemed appropriate within their culture. Buckingham-Hatfield (2000) cite a renowned theorist Sigmund Freud who postulates that biology determined gender through identification with either the mother or the father. In other words, a boy is defined a male because he resembled the father’s physiology and same would be said for the girls.

While Buckingham-Hatfield (2000) agrees with theorist Sigmund Freud on this assertion that the development of the gendered self was not completely determined by biology, but rather by the interactions that they experiences with their primary caregivers. Buckingham-Hatfield (2000) contends that, from birth, parents interact differently with their children depending on their gender. Accordingly, it is through
these interactions that parents instil gender specified values or traits in their children on the basis of what were normative for their sex (ibid). These approaches to internalisation of gender norms include the choice and allocation of toys. For example, toys regarded feminine toys often reinforce interaction, nurturing and closeness, whereas masculine toys reinforce independence and competitiveness that parents consciously develop in their children. Thus, education plays an important integral role in the creation of gender position assignments and social roles.

In the United Nations Training Manual of 1987 on policy development for increasing the role of women in management, it is noted that through the intentional and unintentional socialisation processes, women and men learnt their stereotypical behaviour roles. Women were confined to the home as opposed to men being active outside the home. Both genders were socialised from cradle to the grave. Society has certain key role and behaviour expectations of the boys and girls, from which deviation is not an option if one is not described as feminine or masculine.

According to Kinnear (2002), in Sierra Leone, for example, men are socialised in the competitive spirit, because as boys, they establish hierarchies in their game. These hierarchies can be in the form of the best thrower, the fastest runner, the strongest fighter, the most skilful hunter or fixer. They are encouraged to exert themselves, the more strenuous the exercise, the greater the stamina. Men often talk about their prowess, how good or better they are than their competitors and their popularity against the next man. Popularity depends on how courageous they are and the amount of risk that is involved in executing the roles (ibid).
In the Sierra Leonean context, according to (Kinnear, 2002), the ‘boys-to-boys’ and ‘girls-to-girls’ syndrome is demonstrated by the type of games and toys each group are assigned. For example, boys are assigned to play with balls and girls played with dolls or practice cooking roles. Rules include that neither group could be seen swapping roles. Kinnear (2002) supports the view that the most strenuous activity girls are allowed to engage in was to hop, skip and jump. Men are socialised not to express emotion, for example, if they are heard crying at a funeral they are told to ‘be a man’ if they cry (ibid). This means that certain behaviours are used to define the characteristics of gender in a society.

Alternatively, women, on the other hand, are socialized into becoming supporters, helpers, sympathisers, empathisers and diffusers or smoothers of conflicts or pain among men. This is typical in the interior of Sierra Leone where women are hired as loud mourners at funerals. Women are encouraged to openly express their feelings. According to researched literature findings, if a girl is caught climbing up a tree, playing drums or kicking ball, the girl is described as a “Tom boy”. When women meet, they sympathised with each other citing examples of similar problems and experiences (ibid). In other words, women are expected to be endowed with gender sensitive understandings that when performed among themselves, they are definitive of their culturally standardized expectations as prescribed by their society (Kendall, 2004).

In a study to reveal how society shapes female and male roles, Kendall (2004) discovered that gender rules consist of those activities, tasks and responsibilities that are considered by society as designed for women or men. For example, traditional gender roles could call for women to be housewives and mothers while men are the breadwinners. Individuals learn and accept these roles through the processes of
socialization (ibid). Therefore, this study argues that gender virtues are not static since they change over time.

Kendall (2004) postulates that people learn gender-appropriate behaviour through the socialization process with parents, teachers, friends and the media, all serving as gendered institutions that communicate to people the earliest and often most lasting beliefs about the social meaning of being female or male, and/or thinking and behaving in masculine or feminine ways. She points out that, peers help children learn prevailing gender roles stereotypes as well as gender-appropriate and gender inappropriate behaviour. Most writers agree that young adolescent peers are often stronger and more effective agents of socialization than adults. Gender socialization continues as women and men complete their training or education and join the workforce. To that extent, women and men are taught the ‘appropriate’ type of conduct for persons of their sex in a particular job or occupation, both by their employers and by fellow workers (Kendall, 2004). While this could model the gender sensitive behaviours for the different individuals, it means that they have to copy the behavioural traits from those that are in practice.

Wirth (2001), a renowned sociologist, argues that conformity to traditional roles takes toll on both men and women, and research has proved that those who conformed most fully to gender role expectations experienced a range of negative consequences. He further argues that traditional gender roles deny women access to public world of power, achievement and independence (ibid). Generally, it does not mean that the trait that one is expected to tape from those ahead of them is the correct one. Behavioural traits can be learned through experienced although this can be over a period of time.
2.1.2 Development Approaches/Theories

Doss et al., (2008) argues that theories and development approaches in gender studies and social sciences are necessary as they guide gender analysis, training, project planning and implementation. Doss et al., (2008) writes that theories that focus on women and gender in development have changed over the years. They further assert that preferences have shifted from Women in Development (WID) approaches, whose main focus was on women to the Gender And Development Approach (GAD) which also focussed on the social relations or power relations between women and men in whom the former were powerless. It is important, therefore, to embrace these developmental approaches and/or theories and use them to guide social development initiatives. This current study investigated gender issues comparing men and women in their quest to manipulate the resources and how they use power to their advantage. These approaches and/or theories guided this research on how to treat these initiatives as a means to advance arguments for/or against the discussion on the existing disparity.

2.1.2.1 Poverty Reduction Theory/Gender And Development Theory (GAD)

The Gender and Development (GAD) approach gradually replaced the earlier Women in Development (WID) approach which typified the way in which women’s concerns were addressed in environment and development projects in the 1960s and 1970s as portrayed by Doss et al., (2008).

Gender And Development (GAD) is an approach to development based on the premises that all policies, programmes and projects should reflect the needs, priorities, roles and the differential impact of development process on women and men. This approach aimed to increase women’s access to and control over resources on equal terms with men (United Nations Development Programme, 1995). Buckingham-Hatfield (2000)
also argues that these development approaches tend to pin women’s concerns on the existing policies, rather than to acknowledge the complex social interactions between women and men. However, the Gender and Development theory sounds to have originated from the Third World and considered cultural factors in addition to economic factors to explain causes of women’s disadvantaged positions.

As Kaber and Subrahmanian (1996) argues, the Gender and Development Approach represents a shift from the marginal position of “women issues” to the centre of development agenda, in both institutional and theoretical terms. This paradigm shift, also as further argued by Kaber and Subrahmanian (1996), has led to the re-thinking of institutional structures, rules, priorities and goals, and to a substantial redistribution of resources. Overall, Gender and Development Approach focuses on social relations between women and men, and aimed at equitable and sustainable development with men and women as decision makers, which it hopes will to transform gender relations (Kendall, 2004). This, therefore, entails that development is considered a process through which women and men, with varying degrees of external support, increase their options for improving quality of life. Development is based on women and men’s mobilization, utilizing local resources to the utmost in a process in which their needs are met, their organisations strengthened and the environment preserved.

Kabeer (2005) argue that development is one of the most compelling concepts in the history of mankind. The two writers take development as a euphemism for change, modernization and growth. Kendall (2004) brings in the issue of gender as a development issue when by pointing out that women are sometimes affected by the development process, and a gap exists between women capabilities, participation and political and social power between genders.
This development is a normative concept that implies choices about goals for achieving what Prime Minister Indira Ghandi once referred to as the realization of the human potential (Kabeer, 2005). Tadaro (1982), a Development Analyst and Social Scientist, indicates several qualities of development by concluding that it was a “multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes and national institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of absolute poverty”.

Although the Gender And Development Theory (GAD)/Poverty Reduction Approach came about as a result of satisfaction with the Women In Development (WID), it is more accepted and appreciated by men as it could be applied to all developmental work to promote equitable benefit for the poor; and women to increase control of their lives (Baker, 2006). This study favoured Gender And Development approach because its emphasis is on both men and women which was the focus of this study unlike Women In Development approach which basically concentrated on women only.

2.1.2.2 Women and Development (WAD) Theory/Dependency Theory

The Women and Development (WAD) Theory, also known as the Dependency Theory, is associated with radical feminism (Baker, 2006). Feminists describe men’s power as a system of patriarchy—that is an organised social structure whereby men, as a group, hold more power than women do (Wirth, 2001). The Dependency Theory assumes that women are oppressed and exploited by men, by virtue of their dominating the economic, political and social structure. It also assumes that men will never help women to develop or change their social position. This is so because all institutions are established by men and for men.
The Dependency Theory also uses an analogue of exploitative relationships between the South and North. In other words, the relationship that led to the dependency of the South on the North are used to describe the relationship between women and men. The dependency theorists also believe that women in developing countries develop by breaking ties with the exploiters who are taken as men. The proponents of this theory believe that the solution to the exploitation of women by men is to separate development for men and women and cut ties with and/or avoid men. Hence, the remedy is to cut the umbilical cord and embark on women only projects running parallel to those of men, in other words, to explore separate but equal development opportunities (Baker, 2006). The Dependency Approach has been widely criticized for being rigid and resulted in overburdening of women. It also leads to the marginalisation of women issues and confinement of women issues to certain sectors.

2.1.2.3 Women In Development Approach (WID)/ Modernisation Theory

Women in Development Approach (WID) or the Modernization Theory is developed by Western American feminists and focused on women. Its emphasis is on including women in development projects in order to make the projects more efficient (Baker, 2006). The approach is concerned with increasing women’s participation in order to achieve effective development by increasing opportunity and equality between women and men within society without changing the status quo (Kabeer, 2005). Women in Development approach deals with welfare, anti-poverty, equity, efficiency and empowerment issues through women only projects, integrated projects having women components or units to increase women, productivity, income and ability to look after their households (ibid).
The modernization approach has been criticized for accommodating capitalists’ and imperialists’ economic and social systems and for failure to pay attention to structural factors of dominance and subordination that caused exploitation and oppression of women. Just like the Dependency Theory/Women and Development Approach (WAD), the Modernization Theory/Women in Development (WID) Theory has received condemnation on its failure to recognise women’s socio-cultural factors and hence is viewed as unable to lead the improvement of women’s lives. It is not distinct in its objectives and thus may not satisfy the needs of women.

2.1.2.4 Motivation: The Driving Force

Many psychological theories are based on the assumptions that individuals difference in the strength of their motives, their tendencies to need and to seek particular outcomes. Both the achievement and power motives have been structured energetically by psychologists looking for clues to explain individual differences in behaviour. The achievement motive is defined as a general personality disposition to strive for success in any situation where standards of excellence are applied (Dejardin, 2009). Power motive is defined as the levels to strive to feel that one is having impact on others (Winter, 2007). Both motives are measured using the Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT), a projective test in which the respondent is asked to tell stories about a series of pictures (Mc Cleland et al., 2014). The stories are then scored for the presence of themes indicating an orientation forward or concern with achievement or power.

2.1.2.5 Achievement Motive Theory

Goltz (2005) suggest that in men, achievement motivation could be shown to relate to performance in competitive situations, that is, the laboratory as well as later career performance. Their study also reveals that man’s achievement motivation scores tend to
rise often dramatically when subjects are given achievement involving tasks, that is, instructions that stress that subject performance reflect their intelligence, organizational ability or leadership capacity.

2.1.2.6 Fear of Success Theory

The motivation to achieve, which is, aroused in a given situation, depends on three things; the strength of the person underlying achievement motivation, the probability of success and failure or reward value in that situation, argues Atkinson and Feather, (1996). Using this approach, it can be seen that, even if a person has a very strong motivation, to achieve that motivation may not be aroused in a particular situation. For example, if an individual perceived that the consequences of such success was negative, then the culture value of success was low (Priola, 2004).

Mavin, Bryans, & Waring (2004) hypothesizes that since the achievement in many areas is considered inappropriate or at least unusual for women, a woman achieving in one of the areas could feel she was losing some aspect of her femininity. Thus, success for a woman would be an ambivalent experience having both the positive consequences of self-respect and external recognition and the negative consequences of the real or unimagined disapproval of others for being unfeminine.

Horner’s theory arose from her own observations that successful career women often seem to feel the need to demonstrate that besides being successful in their vocational spheres, they are also able to be ‘real’ women in that they are loving mothers, devoted wives, marvellous cooks and irreplaceable housekeepers. These women perceive that society finds it unacceptable for a woman to be outstandingly successful at her career and that that success led her to give a short shrift to her ‘proper’ role (Horner, 1968).
In a summary of 64 studies, Paludi (1984) found that the proportion of females showing fear of success longed from 6% to 93% with a median of 49%, while the proportion of men ranged from 7% to 95% with a median of 45%. The reason of the wide variation could lie partly in the short cases used. Conroy et al., (2007) found out that men indicate more fear of success when they wrote about nursing school than medical school whereas the reverse was true for women. Fear of success then could be a situational rather than a motivational variable, with women or men showing more fear depending on the particular situation described. In fact, when no situation was described and subjects were merely told that Anne or John succeeded, no difference in fear of success was seen between male and female stories (Leitenberg, 1990).

In summary, there is no reason to believe that women and men differ in the strength of their basic motivation towards success. However, these researches, as stimulated by the fear of success concept, have shown clearly that individuals were sensitive to the social consequences of their achievement behaviour and that such consequences were perceived to be different for women and men in particular situations.

2.1.2.7 The Power Motive Theory

For both women and men, high need for power is associated with acquiring formal institutional power through leadership roles or offices and with choosing careers that involved having direct legitimate interpersonal power over others (Winter and Stewart, 1978). Once again, it appears that the difference in men and women’s ascendance to positions of prestige and influence may not be attributed to gender difference in motivation variables (Winter & Stewart, 1978).
No doubt that many women have found that they face fewer negative and more positive arguments consequences for achievement when they avoided competition with men and when they supported the achievement efforts of their families rather than themselves. Certainly, women in professional and social careers experience the negative responses and exclusion that sometimes accompany competition with men. For example, in a survey of top-level female executives in the USA, the majority of the respondents said that an important factor in their success was adjusting their personal style so they would not threaten male executives (Grimley, 1996). One respondent to the survey summed up the narrow path she saw as necessary for a woman in her position as:

- Don’t be attractive;
- Do not be too smart;
- Do not be assertive and
- Pretend you are not a woman.

Men believed that competition and winning were core aspects of masculine role. Thus differing styles of achievement for women and men reflected, to some extent, a reaction to social expectations imposed by gender roles.

2.2 Primary Factors contributing to the dearth of Female Managers

Having addressed the theoretical underpinning of this research, the summative indication of the explored theories point to two principal factors that formed the backbone of this study. In essence, the conceptual framework is characterised by two primary issues, that is, the glass ceiling and the patriarchal problem.

2.2.1 The Concept of Glass-Ceiling

‘Glass-Ceiling’ is a term that refers to invisible barriers for women into opportunities. These invisible barriers may impede the acceleration of women to progress to
managerial level. This phenomenon has attracted considerable interest in academic research (Melamed, 1995). Women are still concentrated in the most precarious forms of work throughout the world and breaking through the ‘glass ceiling’ still appears elusive (Brooks & Mackinnon, 2001).

The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2014) data clearly shows a pattern of women holding a smaller proportion of management positions compared with men in most countries for which statistics were available. Women typically hold between 20 to 30 per cent of legislative, senior official and managerial positions (Brooks & Mackinnon, 2001). This is further justified by the 2015 Women in Business and Management ILO Global Report, which identifies Zimbabwe as having a percentage share of 20.6% share of women as managers in the private and public sector.

‘Glass Ceiling’ is a term which was coined in the 1970s in the United States of America to describe the “invisible barriers, created by attitudinal and organizational prejudices, which block women from accessing senior executive positions” (Brush, 1999). Whether this ‘glass ceiling’ occurs in the work place or in politics, it is essentially a reflection of social and economic gender inequality. The achievement of educational parity and changes in societal attitudes about women’s and men’s roles, has somehow assumed that women should quickly move up the career ladder. For instance, this has proved hard to achieve and no more than at the top, where the prevalence of male executives tended to perpetuate the ‘glass ceiling’, women find themselves without the right matrix and mix of corporate experience required for senior executive positions (ibid). To this end, it could be further argued that a major source of discrimination stems from strongly held attitudes and beliefs towards women’s and men’s social roles and behaviour. Thus, if one compared the effective roles played by
women and men rather than looking at women as an isolated group, “it became apparent that each had different access to resources, work opportunities and status” (Brush, 1999:106).

The consequences of gender inequality include women being crowded into the narrow range of occupations where there was less responsibility or lower pay or having to work part time, where there are fewer opportunities for advancement and promotion. Buckingham-Hatfield (2000) argues that gender equality demands interventions to close gender gaps in all sectors that exist between females and males. Equality could usually be legislated but equal treatment does not produce equal benefits (ibid). Thus for Foleman (1999), gender equality reflects an equal sharing of power between women and men in their equal access to education, administration and managerial positions, equal pay of equal value among others.

The foregoing arguments compare favourably with what obtains in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development’s Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe as in Local Government in Eastern and Southern Africa as revealed by a research conducted by Paradza and Matovu (2002). Their research reveals that in all countries in Eastern and Southern Africa, the number of women in Local Government was pyramidal in that it tapered off sharply significantly towards up the top most of the hierarchy in Local Authority. In their findings, this situation was found to be true for both elected and appointed officials and the result was that, in the case of elected officials, there were very few or no women heads of committees. Hence, in the case of appointed officials, women employees are substantially concentrated in the lower hierarchy of clerical posts and even then, they
were concentrated in the stereotypical departments of cleaning, nursery school and health (Paradza and Matovu, 2002).

An international study carried out by the International Labour Organisation in 1999 reveals that women are still concentrated in the most precarious forms of work throughout the world and breaking the ‘glass-ceiling’ still appeared elusive for all but a selected few. Women hold a mere 1 to 3 percent of top executive jobs in the largest corporations around the world. Some progress had been made in the United States of America with women, in 1999, obtaining 5.1 percent of executive management positions in the 500 largest companies compared to 2.4 percent in 1996. For women who also experience race discrimination, the barrier to top jobs seems to be made of unbreakable Plexiglas (Bush, 1999).

The hurdles faced by women aspiring to management positions could be so formidable that they sometimes abandoned efforts to make it to the top of large firms. They often take their energy and expertise to smaller and more flexible companies or set up their own businesses (Bush, 1999). In Sweden, by 1996, approximately 20 percent of start-up companies were being run by women and by 1999 in the United States of America, 38 percent of all firms were run by women. In Australia, women made up 35 percent of the country’s million small business operations, and the growth rate of female small business operations from 1995 to 1997 was three times that of men (ibid).

While women have captured an ever-increasing share of the labour market, improvements in the quality of women’s jobs have not kept pace, argues Brush (1999). This is reflected in the smaller representation of women in management positions, particularly in the private sector, and their virtual absence from the most senior jobs.
Wage differences in male and female managerial jobs stem from the reality that even when women held management jobs, they were often in less strategic lower-paying areas of a company’s operations. They are also linked to the fact that women managers tend to be younger on average, as most senior jobs tend to be dominated by older men (ibid).

Despite the persistent inequalities at managerial level, the continuous entry of women into higher-level jobs had been noted, although they remain under-represented in senior management. With few expectations, the main challenge appears to be the sheer slowness in the progress of women into senior leadership positions in organisations, which suggests that discrimination is greatest where the most power is exercised. The importance of gender equality for economic growth and the welfare of families is, however, being increasingly recognised.

The effective management of organisations and firms today depend on ensuring a balance mix of so-called ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ attributes. An increasing number of organisations are adopting measures to attract and retain women to benefit from their qualifications and talent in a competitive environment. In addition, the growth in entrepreneurship and increasing numbers of women running their own businesses, both large and small, herald a different future for societies. The economic pore gained by women will play a key role in the struggle to sweep aside gender inequalities in all occupations.

According to a survey that was conducted by Women Presidents’ Organisation in 1993, nearly half of women-led business owners said that they were on level playing field with men in business. But 41 percent of those polled said that men had the upper hand, while another 6 percent cited inequities with men only as far as accessing capital was
concerned. Some women who worked in traditionally male-dominated fields said that being accepted by clients was a tall task.

The ILO (1999) also revealed that over the last few decades, women have attained educational levels comparable to those of men in many countries and had been increasingly hired in jobs previously reserved for men. They had responded to expanding opportunities and invested themselves particularly in business, administration and finance.

According to ILO (2014), women today represent over 40 percent of the global workforce and have been gradually moving up the hierarchical ladder of organisations. Yet, typically, their share of management positions does not exceed 20 percent, and the more senior the positions involved, the more glaring was the gender gap. National survey revealed that in the largest and most powerful companies worldwide, women’s share in top positions was limited to a mere 2 to 3 percent.

The term ‘glass-ceiling’ illustrates the point that, when there is no objective reasons for women not rising to the very top as men do, there exists inherent discrimination in the structures and processes of both organisations and society in general. Qualified and competent women looked through the ‘glass-ceiling’ and could see what they were capable of achieving, but invisible barriers prevented them from breaking through.

The ‘glass-ceiling’ existed in organisational structures and this was commonly represented by a ‘pyramidal’ shape. In some countries or companies, the ‘glass ceiling’ could be closer to the corporate head, while in others it could be at junior management level or even lower (Melamed, 1995).
The nature of women’s career paths is a major factor blocking women from top positions. At junior management levels, women are usually placed in functions which were regarded as ‘non-strategies’, for an example, human resources and administration, rather than in-line and management jobs that led to the top. Often, this is compounded by women being cut-off from both the formal and informal networks that are necessary for advancement within organisations. For women with family responsibilities, upward movement can further be hampered as they struggle to satisfy the needs of both career and family.

In the last two decades, improvements in the educational qualifications of women, and the fact that many women have increasingly been delaying marriage and child bearing, have created a pool of women worldwide both qualified and ready for professional and managerial jobs. At the same time, growth in the public sector and the services sector and the introduction of equality laws and policies in many countries has provided opportunities for qualified women to occupy lower and middle level management posts (Tassier, 2008). These changes paved the way for their taking up and aspiring more senior management positions.

Women’s interest in professional and managerial work and the predicted shortages of highly qualified managers have not, however, resulted in women obtaining senior executive positions in significant numbers. The ‘glass ceiling’ continues to limit women’s access to senior management positions in those sectors and areas which involved more responsibilities and higher pay.

2.2.2 The Concept of Patriarchism

This thesis is grounded on the Patriarchy Theory. However, there are some theories that have been used in this study to support the grounding theory. Patriarchy Theory,
according to Gaidzanwa (1997), is premised on the notion that male dominance has always been there. It denigrates women to reproductive role. The Commonwealth Secretariat (1998) observed that whilst women were raising children, they were taken away from the ‘mainstream of public life’ for long periods. So, in fact, their prolonged absence from public life gave men an upper hand as they assumed control of most aspects of public life.

The Secretariat (1998) contends that, in gender stereotypes, men and women have perpetuated over a long period of time through division of labour and socialization processes. Men are considered as leaders, strong emotionally, whereas women are taken as physically and emotionally weak, dependent and followers. For Buckingham-Hatfield (2000), patriarchy consists of those institutions, for example, policies, practices, positions, roles and expectations and behaviour which give privilege (higher status, value, prestige) and power to males or what is historically defined as the male gender. These institutions and behaviours constitute the sexiest conceptual framework which in turn sustained and legitimized men.

Patriarchal culture means a male dominated culture in which traditional rules and values were institutionalized in the family, political economy, and social and religious life (Leghorn and Kherrine, 1981). These scholars prefer that the institutions and ideologies which govern the society, also serve to define women’s place and keep women in that place. In the majority of cultures, women’s work is not thought of as work but as an act of love for their families or as domestic duty even if it involves huge amounts of subsistence agriculture (Leghorn and Parker, 1981).

The theory of domination of society and culture is applied in all areas of life, including the work place. Such theories of patriarchal hold that a male-centred culture invest
worth in male values and regards female values and experiences as less significant. People identify the famine paradigm with the accepted of lower positions while the masculine paradigm is proudly equated with an ideal type of management positions. Females are expected to manage in a conventional ‘male’ way. Traditional theories emphasise male cultural domination and the organisational constraints make it difficult for women to achieve equality in the workplace. Equal opportunities to both male and females need to be promoted. Domestic chores refer to the management of duties and chores involved in the running of the household, such as cleaning, cooking, home, maintenance and shopping.

The woman’s work is in the home and participating in the public life makes them lose their dignity, culture forbidden women to speak in public or to go public places. Women are, and are expected to be, the primary care givers, especially of the very young and the very old. Women are expected to perform household duties even if they go to work. Sader et al (2005) noted that ‘women are expected to do child-care, home and family responsibilities, a phenomenon referred to as the double shift’. Domestic issues originate from home and they manifest themselves from within the family situation. Apart from being a manager, women are part of the family and they play a central role in their family development. Women play a key role in the running of the family. Lifanda (2005:23) states that more women than men are faced with challenges of choosing between family and their career.

Lifanda (2005) supports the view that women suffer most by stating that women’s responsibility within the family also limits their job opportunities and career possibilities thus they cannot apply for top positions as it is more challenging and requires them to work long hours. The patriarchal nature of the Zimbabwean society
militates against women to ascend organisational hierarchy. Hakims (2003) states that ‘the pattern of female employment is different from that of male employment because more women than men choose to be family centred’.

The double role played by women as managers and as homemakers, places an enormous stress on them. Bush and Middlewood (1997) believe that the twin demands of career and family affect women most as they often carry the major responsibilities within the home. Giving birth is a challenge to women because it interrupts their service and gives men an unfair advantage. Grint et al., (2006) argue that the child bearing role of the women disadvantages them more than men. Women, by their nature of being female, compromise on their career as compared to men. Grint (2006) further indicated that the dual role that women play will affect them irrespective of their potential and quality.

Women, in a family, are believed to be having more home responsibilities than men, and so they have less time devoted to business management work than men (Dixon 1985). Their responsibility includes taking care of children, cooking and cleaning. This household work disturbs women managers who wish to take their work home. They face the challenge of lack of family support where the family does not support women to leave the household work and go to the office. They also resist for women working till late in office which hammers the performance of the woman and this also affects their promotion. An example is when a promotional position is not in the same city, the female manager cannot leave her family for a promotion away from home.

Traditionally, women are socialised differently from men because of the strong cultural awareness of putting family, children and partners instilled in them. Women are,
therefore, taught from an early age to be submissive and discouraged to see themselves in positions of authority. Parents are the main transmitters of culture in any society and children are socialized at a young age to learn that power and prestige are awarded on a gender basis. It was noted in Gaidzanwa’s study in 1998 where she observed that, culturally, women should execute their duties irrespective of their ‘other’ responsibilities elsewhere. Men seem to get more respect in society than women and the society also tends to have the perception that women do not see their careers in the same way as men because of the expectations from society of women being mothers and providing support structures while their partners advance in their careers.

The gender imbalance in family roles reinforces gender inequalities in career development. Women with demanding work and family commitments often lack time for the networking and mentoring activities that are necessary for advancement. In principle most men support gender equality, but in practice, they fail to structure their lives to promote it. Women continue to shoulder the major burden.

Working mothers are held to higher standards than working fathers and are often criticised for being insufficiently committed, either as parents or professionals. Those who seem willing to sacrifice family needs to workplace demands appear lacking as mothers. Those who take extended leaves or reduced schedules appear lacking as leaders. These mixed messages leave many women with the uncomfortable sense that whatever they are doing they should be doing something else.

Large scale research generally finds that women slightly outperform men on all but a few measures. Some studies find superior performance by female managers, given the hurdles that they have had to surmount to reach upper level positions and the pressures
that they have faced to constantly exceed expectations. According to Marshall (1994) he identified complementary male and female values as follows:

**Male values:** Self-assertion, separation, control, competitions, focused perception, clarity, rationality, analysis, discrimination, activity, reaching out and trusting.

**Female values:** Affiliation, Receptive/inceptive, cooperation, awareness of partners, wholes, contexts, intuition, emotional tones, synthesis, being, ground/holding and containing.

Due to the patriarchal societies that dominated human evolution, it has put much more emphasis on male values at organisational level, while female qualities have been devalued, suppressed and muted (Marshall 1994). Female values are not seen as good/potential candidates for leadership positions. Three levels of artificial barriers to the advancement of women were identified by the Federal Glass Ceiling Commission (2005) and are as follows:

- Societal barriers (which cannot be directly controlled by the organisations)
- Internal structural barriers (which can be controlled by the organisations)
- Governmental barriers (referring to inefficient gender policies adopted and promoted by the state).

### 2.3 Availability of opportunities for females and their uptake

This section presents the literature on the general trends in the unavailability of opportunities for females and their willingness to take up these opportunities.

#### 2.3.1 History of the Movement for Gender Equality

Gender studies trace back to the period BC but were not yet elaborate and pronounced as they have grown to be. For the sake of this study, the researcher had to start from the legacy of ancient misogyny.
2.3.2 Legacy of ancient misogyny

Ostovich and Sauer (2004), informs that women have historically been associated with inferiority in philosophical, medical and religious traditions. Hellenic Philosophical schools, such as Stoicism and Platonism, distrusts all that is corporal, favouring instead the spiritual. The hierarchical dichotomy of body versus soul/intellect is seen to parallel the division of the sexes, with women, due to their child bearing functions and menarche, pejoratively associated with corporeality. The mistrust of the flash extended to sexuality. A common antifeminist trope that developed over centuries is the idea of the woman as temptress, someone who tempted the virtuous male from the true ascetic path of wisdom. With the advent of Christianity, the Old Testament figure of Eve came to embody earlier misogynist traditions. Eve, the sinful Woman (Woman because she in fact represents all women) who condemned humanity by corrupting Adam. Moreover, since Eve was born out of Adam’s rib, the link between Woman’s physicality and debt to Man, was made more manifest.

Even in the medical treaties of the first five centuries, AD, women’s inferiority to men justified by their physiological weaknesses. In Aristotelian physiological tradition, which influenced medieval, early modern and even modern notions of sex and gender, Woman was the imperfect version of Man. She is matter whereas he was form. For the Greek philosopher and medical doctor Galen (AD 129-200), women lacked self-restraint whereas men were characterised by self-control. These traditions intersected and justified the dominant view that women were physiologically, intellectually and spiritually inferior to men (ibid).
2.3.3 Proto-feminism

A successful Italian-born female writer of the French Royal Court, Christine de Pisan (d.1430) was the first proto-modern woman who wrote that gender inequality was not on account of any innate differences between men and women. Instead, she recognized the role of education and opportunities as the main cause when she was quoted by Ludvig (2006: 253) as having said;

If it were the custom to send little girls to school and teach them all sorts of different subjects there, as one does with little boys, they would grasp and learn the difficulties of all the arts and sciences just as easily as the boys.

Christine de Pisan comprehensively critiqued the tradition of misogyny underpinning literary, religious and philosophical discourses while at the same time she reconstructed a new canon of literature and history in which the contributions of women were included. This researcher, however, can comfortably assume that gender arguments trace back to the period BC and, even in modern times, it seems to be as a result of movement from generation to generation. Modern women clamour for 50-50 treaties, but in practical terms, it seems that women may never be equal to men due to the inherent history and Christian belief that women are as a result of men, man being the form and the women the matter. A Woman was created to help a Man.

Dejardin (2009) further argues that the second-wave of feminists campaigning for gender equality targeted new objectives having achieved suffrage and equality in property rights. Feminists, after World War II, broadened their objectives to tackling discrimination in employment opportunities, pay and education reproductive rights and the role of women in the family and household. The second wave deconstructed and criticised power relations between men and women in the realm of the personal as well as the public. Culture, sexuality and political inequalities were intimately intertwined.
thereby subjecting women to discrimination. The key achievements of the second-wave feminists on gender equality in the United States of America included the following:

a. Equal Pay Act of 1963;

b. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964;

c. Title IX and the Women’s Educational Equity Act (1972 and 1975);

d. Title X (1970) health and family planning;

e. Equal Credit Opportunity Act (1974) and


This period also saw international committees and conferences dedicated to promoting gender equality. The United Nations established a Commission on the Status for Women in 1946 whose mission was;

To raise the status of women, irrespective of nationalist, race, language or religion, to equality with men in all fields of human enterprise, and to eliminate all discrimination against women in the provisions of statutory laws, in legal maxims or rules, or in interpretation of customary law.

The commission passed the following conventions aimed at promoting gender equality:

a. Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1952);

b. Convention on the Nationality of Married Women (1957);

c. Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages (1962) and

d. Recommendation on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages (1965) among others.

Under the auspices of the various United Nations agencies responsible for gender equality, the first world conferences on women were held in Mexico (1975), Copenhagen (1980), Nairobi (1985) and Beijing (1995).
2.3.4 Women and Leadership Positions

While women continue to aspire for leadership positions in all spheres of governance, the zeal has not been easy. Women continue to encounter challenges in taking leadership positions with specific reference to African women. Barriers related to culture and cultural expectations seem to be overpowering their aspirations including choice and/or balance between work and family and women’s own fear for success. Although great strides have been made in the political realm, women’s representation is not much visible.

Historically, leadership has carried the notion of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women and this is still common today. Despite an increase in the number of female leaders, they are often named as an afterthought. According to Hojgaard (2002), the societal conventions regarding gender and leadership traditionally excluded women, and top leadership is viewed as a masculine domain. Hojgaard (2002) further argues that the cultural construction of leadership, in itself, instigated difference (ibid). In African societies, there was a strong belief that men lead and women follow (Ngcongo, 1993 in Grant, 2005). In rural villages in Africa, it was not uncommon to find the man literally walking ahead of the woman and this illustrated the deeply held notion of leadership as masculine.

It was once believed that leaders were born with certain leadership traits. Current schools of thought on leadership assume that leadership can be taught and learned, hence the many leadership training programmes. Cheryle de la Rey (2005) gives a list of traits commonly associated with leadership as;

a. effective communication skills
   b. task completion
c. responsibility  d. problem solving

e. originality  f. decision making

g. action taking  h. vision

i. self-awareness  j. confidence

k. experience and power

While these traits are possible to develop in any individual, regardless of gender, in male dominated societies, male leadership and leadership styles predominated and are regarded as the more acceptable forms of leadership, as was often the case in African societies.

Growe and Montgomery (2000:1) define leaders as “people who provide vision and meaning for an institution and embody the ideals toward which the organisation strives”. In this regard, therefore, leaders were alike and genderless. Studies on school administration revealed that schools with female administrators were better managed and on average, performed better than those managed by men. Aladejana (2005) reported similar findings regarding female representation in leadership positions in education administration in South West Nigeria. The only difference could be in the leadership styles of women versus those of men.

Evidence seems to suggest that women lead differently from men (Growe and Montgomery, 2000). Women portray more participatory approaches. They are more democratic, allowing for power and sharing of information. They are more sensitive and more nurturing than men and they focus on relationships and enable others to make contributions through delegation (de la Rey, 2005). Women leaders are also said to be better at conflict management and have better listening skills and show more tolerance and empathy (Tedrow, 1999). While men and women possess different leadership
styles, it could not mean that one was dominant over the other. Men generally view leadership as leading while women view it as facilitating (Growe and Montgomery, 2000). Contrastingly, men led from the front and attempt to have all the answers while stressing task accomplishment, the achieving of goals and the hoarding of information and winning.

Stereotypes of how women lead have made it difficult for women to access or even stay in leadership positions. Tedrow (1999) states that women who seem to ‘make it’ as leaders often end up conforming to the strong male culture in the workplace, and adopt male leadership styles. Women are still under represented in many governments worldwide in positions of power and leadership despite all efforts made to ensure that their representation is achieved at all levels of governance. Sadie (2005) presents statistics on the Southern African Development Community (SADC) parliamentary structures showing that the target of 30 percent representation by women in politics and decision-making structures of member states, which was set by Heads of States and Governments in adopting the 1997 Declaration on Gender and Development that was supposed to be achieved by 2005, is not met except in South Africa and Mozambique.

Table 2.3 illustrates the SADC proportion of women in parliament.

**Table 2.1: SADC Proportion of women in parliament, 2005**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Proportion of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>17.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>32.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the information in table Table 2.3 above only Mozambique and South Africa are the SADC countries that reached the 30% proportion of women mark by 2005. In politics, according to Clarke and Stewart (2005), women have been marginalized because men monopolize the decision-making structures and are in the majority. These scholars went on to say that one underlying problem for women had been the difficulty in dealing with the inherent patriarchal structures that pervaded the lives of people. Women, in many societies, were assigned a secondary place by the prevailing customs and culture. In Kenya it was said that not only were societal customs and attitudes to blame for women’s small part in politics, but their education and training tended to make them accept their secondary status as the natural order of things (Alesina, and Giuliano, 2013 ). Other barriers (implicit and explicit) seemed to be there that made it difficult to attain equity even after policy and legal interventions.

When one looks at gender disparity at higher education world over, the picture that emerges is more distressing. Universities, in general, are traditionally viewed as centres of free thought, change and human development. Literature on leadership in higher education generally reveals that women are less likely than men to participate in upper echelons of administration. Universities are male dominated institutions and leadership in higher education is still a man’s world (Gumbi, 2006). This critic revealed that in 2003, out of 40 000 professors in Higher education in the United Kingdom, 13% were female and 87% were male, while out of 24 630 lecturers, 73% were male and 27% female. Even in the United States of America, admittedly an advanced economy and emulated in many other ways, has not achieved gender equity in higher education with women holding 18.7% of professorship and only 19.3% of Vice Chancellors of colleges and universities (ibid). Evidently, men dominated the governance and management levels of higher education institutions.
Cole (2006) concludes that men had the decision-making power and authority regarding strategic direction, and allocation of resources. However, the researcher was not convinced that women do not have this decision-making power and authority but based his arguments on the power of patriarchism and attitudes that have developed over a period of time regarding gender equality.

Discrimination against women and failure to recognize the value of their contribution to society has been common in both developed and developing countries, particularly before the Second World War. Cultural beliefs and traditional prejudices, often reinforced by laws, resulted in women having less access to resources, lower income, less access to credit, education, employment and decision-making positions. Even though the realization of women as an important human resource had begun to be felt after the Second World War, women enjoyed the right to vote in only 31 countries (Sirleaf et al., 2002). The United Nations initiated change in this situation by focusing the attention of government, non-governmental organizations, academics and individuals on the realities of women’s lives and their contribution to society, as well as adopting international instruments geared towards improving the status of women.

The principle of equality of men and women was enshrined in the United Nations Charter and was later inaugurated in many international instruments and national constitutions. The United Nations Commission held its first session on the status of women in 1947. Between that time and 1967, the major thrust of the commission was the definition, legitimization and promotion of international norms and standards to eliminate all forms of discrimination in a number of fields as follows:
a. The Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriage, 1962;

b. The International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and on Civil and Political Rights adopted in 1966 did guarantee the rights enumerated in their provisions for men and women;


The work of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women culminated when Sierra Leone adopted, in December 1979, the convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women. This convention, having been in force since 1981, was the most comprehensive international legal document to date dealing with the rights of women. The others were not binding on any status for their implementation.

In ratifying the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women therefore, a country entered into a legally binding commitment to work for the elimination of discrimination against women. Each country could decide to embody the principle in their constitutions or in their legislative acts, or established national machinery to enforce the principle and abolish existing laws or practices, which discriminated against women. Thus, a global movement to achieve women’s equality had been ratified or acceded to by 101 states. But this worldwide movement had received an important boost earlier when the General Assembly of the United Nations declared 1975 as International Women’s year and the decade 1976 to 1985 as Women’s decade. The Women’s Year Plan of Action became the blueprint for action by Non-Governmental Organisations, Governments and Inter-Governmental Organisations during 1976 to 1985 period (UNIFEM, 2002).
Although the decade did not automatically result in substantial changes in women’s economic, political and social conditions, campaigns and other initiatives came into being and were given important impetus. Many governments did make commitments to improve women’s lives by means of legislative, economic and social reforms. A voluntary fund was also established by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1976 to offer assistance to women in some of the poorest nations of the world at grassroots, national and regional levels. Another important result of the women’s decade was the information gained on the role and contribution of women in all spheres of economic and social activity. Extensive research was promoted by the United Nations system, Non-Governmental Organisations, Governments and academic committees which helped in planning an action to improve on areas covered by the decade’s themes of equality, development and peace, employment, health and education (Sirleaf et al., 2002).

The decade also saw a lot of conferences and seminars held to promote women’s advancement and created the awareness that women were doing a lot more than they were being acknowledged for. Following the International Women’s Year Conference in Mexico which had adopted the World Plan of Action in 1976, a second World Conference for Women was held in Copenhagen, Denmark in 1980. It adopted the Programme of Action, provided the framework for further contributions towards the advancement of women. A third conference was held in Nairobi, Kenya, in July 1985. This was to review and appraise the achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women and to develop Forward-Looking strategies to the year 2000, for the advancement of Women. The Nairobi Forward-Looking strategies, like the Plan of Action and Programme of Action, addressed not only governments and international and regional organizations but also non-governmental organizations.
International Conference to deliberate on women’s issues thus became periodic and held every five years through Christian organisations like the Young Women’s Christian Association (YWCA) and the World Union of Catholic Women’s Organization (UNIFEM, 2009).

Despite international and regional differences in levels and magnitude, the available literature seemed to concur those women everywhere continuously comprised a disproportionately small percentage of those participating in public decision-making roles, especially at top management levels. Even in the traditionally female-dominated profession, women were in secondary positions relative to men. Hence, it was observed that women were absent from, or vastly underrepresented in the leadership of trade unions, employer organizations, in the judiciary, in important professional groupings, high university positions and in leadership roles in the media (Bird, 2010).

The launching of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2001 once again placed gender issues at the centre of the international development agenda. The promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women, in MDG 3, was treated as a goal in its own right thus underscoring its importance as a core value of development (Wirth, 2004). Among the other important features of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were indicators for progress by 2015 which included reduction of gender disparities in primary and secondary education and increase in number of women in management positions (Wirth, 2004).

Zimbabwe held a National Gender Indaba on 19 March of 2014 to review progress on the SADC Protocol on Gender as the 2015 deadline to meet set targets drew nearer (Herald 14, 2014). Similar meetings took place in 10 SADC countries, culminating in a
Regional summit that was held in South Africa from the 6th to the 8th of May 2014. Regional lobby Gender Links, the Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance, Local Authorities and SADC Gender Unit co-ordinated the country summits under the theme ‘50-50 by 2015 and a strong post-2015 agenda’. All national meetings reiterated the need to fulfil the 28 targets in the SADC Protocol.

With 10 countries expected to hold elections between 2014 and end of 2015, the partners focused mainly on achieving parity in representation in political offices and used the polls to demand Government actions towards the theme. Some of the 28 areas the Zimbabwe summit reviewed included gender-based violence, access to property and resources, gender and climate, equality in education, and inclusion of women in economic policies and decision-making. At an interview conducted by the researcher on the 12th of February 2014 in Harare, the Gender Links Zimbabwe Manager, Ms Priscilla Maphosa, said that in a bid to strengthen the reach and impact of the summit at the local level, all summits in 2014 would be cascaded to local level in 10 SADC countries. The district level summits would serve to verify the work of nearly 200 councils that had developed and were implementing gender action plans through their centres of excellence, as well as strengthen peer learning and sharing at that level (Maphosa, 2014).

One of the post-2015 issues that dominated discussions was the need to increase women’s participation in decision-making. With an average of 26 percent women representation in SADC parliaments and local government authorities, the region was half-way to where it needed to be by 2015. The regional body was now pinning hopes for increased women leadership on the 10 countries that would hold their elections between January 2014 and end of 2015. In Zimbabwe, women’s representation in
Parliament has more than doubled from 17 percent in 2008 general elections to 35 percent in 2013. Zimbabwe was among some 30 countries worldwide that used a special electoral quota to increase women’s representation in Parliament (Zvoma, Zimbabwe Clerk of Parliament, 15/02/2014).

Thus Wirth (2004) contends that the low representation of women among economic and political decision makers at local, regional and international levels reflects structural and attitudinal barriers that needed to be addressed through positive measures. Wirth (2004), criticized governments, private sector, non-governmental bodies, regional bodies and United Nations system for not making full use of women’s talents as top level managers, policy makers, diplomats and negotiators. The World Bank Report (2003) also blamed national, regional and international statistical institutions for having insufficient knowledge of how to present the issues related to the equal treatment of women and men in the economic and social spheres. The World Bank Report of (2003) points out the insufficient use of existing databases and methodologies in the important sphere of decision-making.

What emerged from literature is the constituency with which women and men in organizations viewed differently the causes of women’s reduced numbers in senior management positions. While men (and senior managers) tend to look for reasons in women’s attributes, preferences and live circumstances, women are far more likely to look to the organization itself when they identify barriers to their progression (Leach, 1998).

In Tanzania, the study that was carried out by Zeleza (1988) who notes that women managers constitute a very small minority of up to 20 percent in high and middle level
positions. However, these women are not in top decision-making positions, but served as Personnel and Marketing Managers, Directors of Corporate Departments, Chief Accountants and Financial Controllers (Zeleza, 1988). Only 20 percent of women were in normal employment, the majority of them concentrate in low paying and unskilled activities, mainly in agricultural and service sectors. One study by Zeleza (1988), for an example, notes that by 1982, 93 percent of all persons in secretarial work were women in Kenya. The highest and most authoritative position in the judiciary, which was the court of appeal, has never had a woman. In the prestigious arena of diplomatic and foreign service, there were only two women head of ministries (Permanent Secretaries) out of a total of about 26 Permanent Secretaries.

In Zimbabwe trade unions, the absence of women in top management is equally glaring. For an example, by 1985, of the 33 registered trade unions in Kenya, 17 have never had a woman even as a member of their executive board (Zeleza, 1988). Summon Panned (1970) cited in Paradza and Matovu (2002) argues that the small part played by women in politics merely reflected and resulted from the secondary place which they were assigned by customs and through the process of socialization. They also argue that when people lack confidence and the feeling of being able ‘to constructively change’ their situation, it is very difficult for them to become actively involved in development process (ibid).

It has to be recognized, however, that significant gender differences continue to exist in the nature and quality of education and training (Flood, 1997). This could represent real obstacles for many women; both at the recruitment stage and later in their careers and to that extent, the solution may lie in improving the quality of women’s education. This largely depends on support from the family and community in encouraging young
women and providing them with the same educational and training opportunities as young men.

Floods (1997) argues that the view held in patriarchal societies that educating males was essential because men were supposed to be breadwinners, further complicated the possibility for education and training, when women had classes held at night. This disadvantages women, especially those in the rural areas, coupled with unreliable transport and high incidences of violence and crime. It forces women to stay at home. Furthermore, the cost of training also reduced women’s participation (ibid).

The scenario described above is not peculiar to Kenya alone as Table 2.1 below clearly shows that, in Zimbabwe in 2008, males had slightly higher dropout rates at primary (53 percent) and secondary (51 percent) levels. One contributing factor was the return of females to secondary school after unplanned pregnancies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNIFEM, 2008/9 Report on schooling by gender in Zimbabwe

The increase in the number of females could be as a result of the increase in women population in Zimbabwe which, according to the 2010 National Census statistics, stands at 6 800 000 females compared to 6 200 000 males. The other reason could be that of males who migrate to South Africa to look for employment opportunities due to the melt down of the Zimbabwean economy.
For Brush (1999), not only do men and women have different jobs, but there were also variances in the extent to which they were represented in the hierarchy of positions within jobs. Brush, (1999) argues that even in occupations dominated by women, men usually occupied the more skilled, responsible and higher-paying positions. One example given was in the teaching profession. The majority of teachers were often women but top administrators were men. Similarly, in the health field, doctors and hospital heads were often men, while most of the nurses and support staff were women. This practice is known as ‘vertical gender segregation’. The movement of women upward through occupational categories to take up more responsible and managerial jobs was, hampered by institutional barriers and society’s attitudes. The question that this study intended to answer is, ‘is this the same situation that was obtaining in the Zimbabwe institutions’?

Of the South African population in1994, 51 percent were women but, according to the Business Women’s Association (BWA), men in government departments were still paid significantly more than their women colleagues. Yvette Montalbano, Chief Executive of the Business Women’s Association was concerned for the differences in pay even though 32 percent of the top positions were held by women but were not paid as much as their male counterparts.

The Government of South Africa had put in place measures to promote gender equity within the economy. The most visible consequence of the empowerment process seemed to be the advancement of women in business and the creation of elite Businesswomen (The Herald, 2008). Wirth (2004) defines empowerment as

A process through which women and men in disadvantaged positions are helped to increase their access to resources, decision-making and raised their awareness of participation in their communities, in order to reach a level of control over their own environment. (2004:13)
A common stereotype argument that, ‘when you educate a man, you educate an individual and when you educate a woman, you educate a nation’ basically refers to the high social and economic returns of a woman’s education which transcended into the wider community by empowering other people. Studies have shown that investing in women’s education, at all levels, and contributes significantly to the overall socio-economic development through decreased fertility levels, improved child health and education as well as higher productivity (Abagi, 1999). The 1989 Kenyan census data indicated that 43 percent of the female labour force has no education compared to 33.7 percent of the male employees and this indicates higher illiteracy rates for women than men (Abagi, 1999).

Miller and Razavi (1998) observed that although Kenyan women were gradually joining the civil service and making significant strides to develop careers in the previously male dominated professions, they were still grossly under-represented in senior management and public decision-making positions. In 1998, for an example, Kenya had only four women Permanent Secretaries out of a total of thirty, representing only 13.3 percent of the total establishment. In the same year, there were 38 women Assistant Secretaries Grade III compared to 60 of their male counterparts. Overall, women comprised less than 25 percent of the senior civil servants in Kenya, and thus this under-representation underlined their minority status in policy making management positions (Jacobs, 1994).

Limited participation of women in the public sector at top management levels was linked to a range of social, cultural, political and economic factors. The factors included that women have limited opportunities such as illiteracy and cultural ideologies which prescribed appropriate gender roles (ibid). Beneria and Bisnath (1996) argue that it is
these limitations which have led to growing gender inequalities in accessing distribution of employment opportunities, income and power. Similarly, Jacobs (1994) contends that gender disparity is pervasive in all the other sectors within the civil service, including the judiciary and proffered affirmative action to eliminate gender imbalance in the Kenya Civil Service, particularly in the upper echelons of power and privilege.

A study was done in Sweden by Wright (1995) with comparisons made of men and women aspiring for managerial positions. Results of the study revealed that, even though women have entered diverse work areas, work-life was still influenced by diverse work areas, traditional male norms and values, and the pattern was especially noticeable at management levels. Societal norms define the expected roles and behaviours of men and women and characteristics associated with managers have often been those assigned to men or masculinity in general (Keilman, 1989). These two scholars and others postulated that the female role is traditionally associated with personality traits, motivational needs and behaviour patterns that contradict those of managers. It is then argued that the persistent association between leadership and masculinity could then create specific problems for women entering a leadership position.

Brush (1999) argues that there is no doubt that significant progress has been achieved in furthering the cause of gender equality in the labour market over recent decades. Women have been moving steadily into occupations, professions and managerial jobs previously reserved for men. However, this study notes that the move to recognise women is so slow that their absence continues to be noticed.
The United Nations Fund for Women (UNIFEM, 2009) report reveals how women voters, in a growing number of countries worldwide, have agreed to a basic list of policy priorities to present political partner prior to elections. These typical “women manifestos” called for political partners to sign and reflect women’s demands in their campaign platforms. The UNIFEM (2009:20) report cited the 2001 Irish Women’s Manifesto titled “What women want from the next Irish Government” with these five critical demands:

a. more women in position of decision-making at both national and weak government levels;

b. zero tolerance of violence against women;

c. sharing of childcare and household work;

d. economic equality between women and men and

e. equal respect and autonomy for all women.

The “Who answers to women?” UNIFEM (2009) report eulogizes the action of Botswana for producing the first women’s electoral manifesto in Africa drawn up by a Botswana Women Empowerment Organisation called Emang Basadi (Setswana for ‘Stand up, women’) in 1993. This was done in preparation for the 1994 general elections. Resistance to this manifesto was done through political, education campaigns and in 1999, all parties had changed their primary election procedures to attain for broader participation by members in candidates selection and for more women contestants than ever before (UNIFEM, 2009).

Tarawaklly (2008) proffered that education plays a key role and has an even greater potential for promoting democracy and participation of more women in the affairs of the state. Jayal (2005) concurs when he ascertains that education is the only tool where
women may enter political life with ease and could motivate more women to enter into politics. He further argues that education is also a strong training ground for offices in government.

Women constitute a resource that no country should ignore in terms of their potential. They have a fountain of knowledge and experience to contribute, thereby improving the quality of decisions made at higher level to ensure that they are gender sensitive and are able to support the empowerment of women. Education could be a conduit for women in communities to communicate their concerns and aspirations to the local authorities. In addition to playing a critical role in their advancement, women could use their experience as an opportunity to build a consistent personal stature and confidence to stand for national directive office.

2.3.5 Resolutions on gender equality (1921–2005).

Women’s numerical presence in public office has received increased attention over the past ten years. It represents an indicator for goal 3 of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which is to promote gender equality and empowering women. A 30 percent minimum for women in representative assembles is also a target of the Beijing platform for action (UNIFEM 2008/9 Report). Table 2.2 presents the summary of resolutions on gender equality from 1921 to 2005:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Resolution</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>Recommendation concerning Night work of women in agriculture.</td>
<td>International Labour Organisation (ILO) General Conference in order to regulate Night time employment of women in agriculture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>Convention concerning Night work of women employed in industry.</td>
<td>ILO General Conference in order to prevent women from being employed at Night. This was modified in the Protocol of 1990 to the Night Work Convention (revised).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Resolution</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>Convention concerning Night work of women employed in industry.</td>
<td>ILO General Conference in order to prevent women from being employed at Night. This was modified in the Protocol of 1990 to the Night Work (Women) Convention (revised).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>Resolution on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.</td>
<td>United Nations General Assembly (UNGA); believed to be the world’s most translated document.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1949</td>
<td>Convention for the suppression of the Traffic in Persons and the Exploitation of the Prostitution of others.</td>
<td>UNGA; against the trafficking of women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>Convention concerning equal remuneration of Men and Women workers for work of equal value.</td>
<td>ILO General Conference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>Convention on the political rights of women.</td>
<td>UNGA; for women to vote and hold public office without discrimination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>Convention on the nationality of married women.</td>
<td>UNGA; gave women the right to choose their nationality upon marriage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>Convention on consent to marriage, minimum age of marriage.</td>
<td>UNGA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>Convention on consent to marriage, minimum age of marriage and registration of marriage.</td>
<td>UNGA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict.</td>
<td>UNGA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>Resolution on United Nations day for Women’s rights and International peace,</td>
<td>UNGA; the UN began celebrating women’s day on March 8 from 1975 onwards, but this resolution was for member states to observe it on any day of the year, in accordance with their own historical and national traditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>The Vienna declaration and Programme of Action.</td>
<td>The world Conference on Human Rights; reaffirmed that the human rights of women and of the girl-child are an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rights.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 1993 | Declaration on the elimination of violence                                   | UNGA; to support and complement...
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Resolution</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Jakarta declaration and plan of action for the advancement of women in Asia and the pacific.</td>
<td>CEDAW.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against women.</td>
<td>Organisation of American States (OAS); the Convention is also known as the Convention of Belem do Para.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action.</td>
<td>UN global conference; placed women’s rights, health and empowerment at the centre of efforts for human rights and sustainable development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Resolution on Integration of Older Women in development.</td>
<td>UNGA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Beijing declaration and Platform for Action.</td>
<td>UN Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW); international commitments to equality, development and peace for women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Gender and Development – A Declaration.</td>
<td>The Southern African Development Community (SADC).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Resolution on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Measures to Eliminate Violence against women.</td>
<td>UNGA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Declaration on equal Rights and Opportunity for women and men and gender equity in Inter-American Legal Instruments.</td>
<td>OAS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Resolution on international day for the Elimination of Violence against women.</td>
<td>UNGA; on order to designate 25 November.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Resolution on improvement of the situation of women in rural areas.</td>
<td>UNGA; reaffirming that gender equality is of fundamental importance for achieving sustained economic growth and sustainable development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Resolution on Women in development.</td>
<td>UNGA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Resolution on violence against women Migrant workers.</td>
<td>UNGA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Convention concerning the revision of the Maternity Protection Convention (Revised), 1952.</td>
<td>ILO General conference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Resolution on Adoption and Inter-American Commission of women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Resolution</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
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<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>United Nations Millennium Declaration.</td>
<td>UNGA; sets out an international development agenda, goal 3 is to promote gender equality and empower women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security.</td>
<td>UN Security Council (UNSC); first SC resolution that specifically addresses the impact of war on women, and women’s contribution to conflict resolution and sustainable peace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Resolution in the follow-up to the fourth World Conference on Women and the outcome of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly.</td>
<td>The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP); recommitting to gender equality and empowering women across the Asia-Pacific region.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>The Phitsanulok Declaration on the Advancement of Women in Local Government.</td>
<td>UN ESCAP, at the first ever summit of women in local government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution.</td>
<td>The South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Beirut declaration – Arab Women ten years after Beijing: Call for Peace.</td>
<td>The Arab Regional Conference: on the role of women in peace building.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Improvement of the status of women in the United Nations System.</td>
<td>UNGA; on representation of women within the UN system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Resolution on Trafficking in women and girls.</td>
<td>UNGA.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 1. Year, Resolution, and Notes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Resolution</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Resolution on the elimination of all forms of violence against women, including crimes identified in the outcome document of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly, entitled “Women 2000: Gender Equality, Development and peace for the Twenty-first Century”.</td>
<td>UNGA.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


#### 2.3.6 Advancement of women into educational leadership positions in Zimbabwe

In 1999, the Nziramasanga Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training in Zimbabwe presented its findings noting, among other things, that gender disparities persisted at all levels of education (Nziramasanga Commission, 1999). As a follow up, the Zimbabwe government launched the National Gender Policy in March of 2004 whose goal, inter alia, was “to eliminate all negative economic, social and political policies, cultural and religious practices that impeded equality and equity of sexes” (National Gender Policy, 2004:3). One of the objectives of the policy was “to promote equal opportunities for women and men in decision making in all areas and all levels” (ibid). Responding to the policy, the Public Service Commission, (now the Civil Service Commission) sent a circular G/46/200 dated 30 April 2004 to all government ministries requesting input as to how best gender balance could be attained in the respective ministries. However, the situation never seemed to change for the better with Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe having insignificant number of female principals.

Moss, & Daunton (2006) wrote that concerns about gender disparities in education in many countries focused on student performance, particularly in terms of under-
achievement of girls, differences in access at various levels of schooling, dropout rates in subjects taken. These evoked a range of explanations and policies around gender gaps in educational outcomes. Moss & Daunton (2006) went on to say, however, that the question of gender disparities in the management structures of schools and colleges had received little attention, despite the fact that there was recognition in education of both the importance of equal opportunity and the strengths that women brought to management (ibid).

Under-representation of women in educational management was not only a Zimbabwean story, but in many countries too. Coleman (2001:175) notes that “women in educational management are a minority in the United Kingdom, but they are also in a minority in most other countries, both those in comparable levels of development and those that constituted the newly emerging economies”. Considering this notion, then one is made to believe the common assertion in education that ‘women teach and men manage’ held true despite a multitude of strategies to rectify the gender imbalance in educational management (Greyvenstein & Van der Westhuizen, 1992).

In an effort to redress the situation, researches on under-representation of women in management, had been carried out in some countries throughout the world. Debates and discourse about the principal reasons for the under-representation of women in educational management had been discussed by several authorities such as Dejardin (2009), Doherty & Manfredi (2006), Kloot (2004), Dowd, and Kalpan (2005) and Grint (2006). It was clear, however, that this mainly concerned developed countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America. The issue, in South Africa, had received the attention of some researchers in the past years (Greyvenstein & Van der Westhuizen, 1992). In Zimbabwe, there has been some debates on women and
leadership which led to the development of policies intended to increase women’s participation in decision-making positions generally and in educational management in particular. However, it had not been clearly established why under-representation of women in educational management still persisted.

Attempting to address the gender equality issues in Zimbabwe, the Labour Relations Act was introduced in 1985 which stated that “no employer should discriminate against any employee on the grounds of race, tribe or place of origin, political opinion, colour, creed or sex”. Other legislations included Legal Age of Majority Act, Equal Pay Regulations and Sexual Discrimination Removal Act, just to mention only a few. All these enactments had varying impact at different levels of the education system. Dosey (1996) wrote that by 1993, at school level in Zimbabwe, increment in the enrolment of girls rose by 49.0% at primary school level, 41.4% at Form 4 and 34.0% at Form 6 while Chabaya (1997) wrote that at tertiary level, universities realised an increase of 30.2% while primary teachers’ colleges achieved 50.1% in the enrolment of female students. However, in the area of educational management, women remained glaringly under-represented. Gaidzanwa (1992) points out that, in the case of universities, the University of Zimbabwe provides an atmosphere and opportunities for female academics with little experience to join administration, but the higher levels of university administration remained male dominated”. Evidently, the University of Zimbabwe has never had a female Vice Chancellor since inception, so it was with most state universities in Zimbabwe save for Zimbabwe Open University and Women’s University in Africa.

The government of Zimbabwe introduced the gender affirmative action policy in 1992 in response to the persistent gender disparity in decision-making positions. The Public
Service Commission in turn, responded to the Affirmative Action Policy by coming up with specific policies meant to expedite the promotion of women teachers to headship positions. Public Service Circular No. 11 (1991:2) stated that “heads should identify women who could be promoted to headship grade without reference to seniority and recommended them to be given schools to head”. Public Service Circular No. 22 (1996) and No. 1 (1997) encouraged women to apply for management posts in an attempt to speed up the promotion of more women to educational management. As of June 2004, by contrast, Table 2.4 represents the persistence of gender disparity in primary and secondary schools management in the Masvingo province of Zimbabwe:

Table 2.4: Gender disparity in educational management in Masvingo Province.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Schools</td>
<td>Males Heads</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>94.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(246 Schools)</td>
<td>Females Heads</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male D/Heads</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>96.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female D/Heads</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Schools</td>
<td>Male Heads</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>90.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(693 Schools)</td>
<td>Female Heads</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>9.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male D/Heads</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>91.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female D/Heads</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>8.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 2.4 illustrates that out of 246 secondary schools in Masvingo province, only 14 were managed by women and 232 by men with only 8 female deputy managers and 224 males. The province had 693 primary schools of which only 68 were managed by females and 625 by males with 53 female deputy managers and 640 males. In reality,
females in educational management were invisible. This same scenario was evident in the Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe.

Longwe & Clarke (1999) commented that these figures suggested barriers to leadership that were much stronger and perhaps of a different type to the barriers to women’s education. In relation to the extent to which Zimbabwe had achieved gender equality among its citizens, a 1988 Human Development Report on Zimbabwe described the country as being a ‘highly unequal society’, ranking it 109th in the global gender rates relative to access, control and ownership of economic resources and position of decision-making (National Gender Policy, 2004).

From this analysis, one could conclude that in Zimbabwe, policies and legislations had been enacted to address the problem of women’s under-representation in positions of educational management, yet gender inequalities continued to persist. This is demonstrated by the current scenario obtaining in Zimbabwean Teachers’ Training Colleges where female administrators are visibly absent from the higher echelons of management.

2.4 Challenges encountered by women managers

This section presents the literature on the challenges that are faced by females in management positions. This was called for by the need to answer the research question, “what are the challenges that women managers encounter in their quest to manage Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe?”
2.4.1 Leadership Challenges

Perception is the process by which people translate sensory impressions into a coherent and unified view of the world around them or the way in which something is regarded, understood, or interpreted (Pine 2003). The quality of the manager-subordinate relationship is of vital importance to an employee as well as the organisation. Koshal, Gupta and Koshal (1998) conducted a study on attitudes towards women managers in Malaysia and the results indicated that female managers perceive resistance from both men and women for their advancement and this resistance seem to be more at subordinate levels.

Leaders who hold top positions of responsibility in the organisation need to demonstrate their commitment to their duties and their leadership qualities may be demonstrated in stepping forward and in holding back. Leadership is the ability to take initiative and to act decisively. A leader is characterised by risk taking, openness and growth. They must be able to show the culture of the organisation by both what they say and what they do. They treat people with dignity and respect as well as dealing with problems that may arise.

Managers are expected to influence colleagues with defensive action and to have a clear sense of how decisions can be implemented. They are expected to be exemplary to the staff and to take lead in the care and commitment to the duties of the organisation. They are also expected to be assertive and decisive with regard to the quality of work and effort they expect from the team. They are also expected to have the ability to structure, to lead and to have a vision for the people who are under their management.
Perception greatly affects the attitudes employees have of others and themselves, as well as the decisions they make within the organisation. Female managers are perceived as incompetent and unable by both male and female staff members. According to Weeks (1989:14) female managers continue to face the perception of others which recognised men as more suitable for management positions than women. Conrad and Taylor (1997:82) point out that women’s’ low status is often perceived by both men and women as historically predetermined and fixed.

Despite changes in women’s progress in the workforce, men continue to perceive the managerial positions as requiring masculine characteristics. Male subordinates believe female managers are ineffective especially on decision making. They perceive female managers as emotional and indecisive that is undesirable in the realm of management. Male subordinates have no respect for female managers as stated by Pine (2003). They do not feel comfortable taking orders from female manager as they do not find her credible authority.

One of the biggest career obstacles for female managers is the attitude of males towards female managers. Schein (1976) coined the phrase ‘think manager, think male’ to describe how perceptions of management qualities tend to favour masculine traits. Pine (2003) states that attitudes towards female as managers are less favourable than towards men as managers. Negative attitudes toward women as managers have found to limit the promotion prospects of women.

According to Herbert and Yost (1978) attitudes have powerful influence on the behaviour of people at work. Male subordinates do not effectively adhere to instructions from female managers at the work place and there are situations where the male
subordinates might politely turn down the instructions from their female managers. O’Dennell (1993) argued that the organisational culture is usually a mirror of the dominant culture in mainstream society.

Sometimes the male do not basically applaud the efforts of females, because women are always women, no matter how educated they are, their reputations are still opposed by their male counterparts. Even with equal opportunities and achievements to those of their male counterparts, women are perceived less favourable in terms of their ability and accomplishment. Koshal, and Gupta (1998) conducted a study on women managers in Malaysia and the results indicated that female managers perceived resistance from both men and women for their advancement.

Staff members (both male and female) contribute tremendously towards the ineffective management of women managers. The members of staff hold values which perceive women as inferior to leadership and management positions. It has been noted that men and women who hold values that consider women to be inferior to men are more likely to create difficulties for female managers. Chisholm (1999:3) observed that women in leadership positions are labelled and insulted by both men and women.

2.4.1.1 Who Makes Better Bosses: Men or Women?

A research that was carried out by the Industrial Psychology Consultants (IPC) in 2009 reveals that men are not emotional whilst women are, and that men have a better attitude and are not involved in petty jealousy. However, women are more efficient in completing tasks in the workplace than men and they tend to give employees complements when they do something good. Women bosses are said to have better people management skills; and are seen as using a more energetic relationship oriented
and friendly approach to accomplish objectives than men. The report also cites women to possess strong communication skills which enable them to lead better than men. Considering the revelations put across by IPC, one still wonders why women are not much visible in the higher echelons of leadership in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe.

2.4.2 Prejudices

People have different expectations about female managers and such expectations include stereotypical roles that male and females adopt in management. Such organisational barriers do not only operate against females, but positively favour males. Female managers are often expected to stay at home instead of taking up roles previously dominated by males.

There is recognition in organisation of both the importance of equal opportunities and strengths that females bring to management. However, females are underrepresented in the management of organisations (Grint, 2006). The management role in the organisations is usually perceived by both genders as fundamentally a male role. Females are unlikely to be seen as adequately fitting or meeting the role requirements (Nicholson, 1995:30). In top position management, the majority are most often males and the domination of males’ leaders to discrimination against females (Shakeshaft, 1992). Some males do not like females to be in higher positions than they are. The existence of males in top management is identified as a critical organisational factor limiting the existence of females in top positions.

In most organisations, the interests of females are subordinated to those of males. The gender equality struggle creates opportunities for females to redress gender equality in
the workplace; some males assume that certain gender roles are natural and normal, while females are subjected to a patriarchal culture, where most of the responsibilities belong to male (Bush and Wets-Burnham). In organisation management, there are more males than females in management positions in many departments and in most top positions (Thompson 1992:206).

Females exceed in numbers in organisations while in top positions, females are few. There’s influence working relationships where people prefer homogenous gender groups or express attitudes in respect of gender. Female managers struggle to preserve intimacy and to avoid isolation (Nicholson 1995:3). There is a possibility of females working closely together with other females. The existence of males as ‘gatekeepers’ has been identified as a crucial organisational factor limiting the entrance of female to top positions (Schmuck 1986:179).

Female managers face discriminatory practices which are very common in organisations. They suffer up and downs in their management and sometimes they fail to meet the high standards set by people. The potential of the females is usually underestimated.

Some of the females do not get the back up of authority that would normally be accorded to male managers. They struggle to gain acceptance or recognition as capable managers. Female managers lose their independence when they seek help from males, although they are expected to turn to males for assistance. They may also be expected to be exceptional in their performance and to ‘prove their work’ whereas males may not be expected to perform in that manner (Schmuck 1986:192).
Females have less chances of promotion than males with comparable education experiences. According to the Labour Relations Act of 1995, it states that it is illegal to discriminate against the employment of women’ but women still face discrimination at the work place. Women are simply not promoted in managerial positions because they are women. In general women suffer discriminatory practices when promotions to top positions are considered. They are considered to be incapable and cannot perform in the same way as men do.

Burke et al (2000) states that ‘some firms have a large pool of qualified women but they simply do not consider them for the top positions’. It is noted that existing top management positions are held by men who tend to promote other men who are similar to themselves hence women are left out and face the glass ceiling. The selection for leadership positions involve subjective and confidential judgement, the extent of bias is hard to assess. There is no room for promotions for women to top positions as men are considered best candidates and ideal for these positions.

Women are discriminated in the work employment and there is a tendency to employ attractive females for jobs which are considered to be female oriented, but when it comes to the question of managerial posts, they are not considered as qualified and suitable candidates.

This is a factor which holds them back as they try to break through the ‘glass ceiling’. Both male and female managers are disadvantaged in their leadership by resistance and lack of training. They need to have necessary skills which are relevant to their management positions. Females have additional disadvantages of being female and they are expected to make a vital difference in management.
Women find it difficult to break the glass ceiling which is often attributed to management’s concern that qualified women will leave work to have a baby or focus on family issues. Women’s managerial career aspirations lag behind men’s at every stage of their working lives. Previous studies have noted that leadership historically has carried the notion of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women at work and female managers are often named as afterthought.

In a study carried out by Macarie and Malclovan on overcoming glass ceiling in Romanian Public Institutions Hogaard (2002) was cited noting that the society convention regarding gender leadership traditionally excludes women, and top leadership is viewed as a masculine domain. Ngcongo (1993) is of the view that it is the men who lead and women follow’; this illustrates the deeply held notion of leadership as masculine. There are fears and doubts for women to lead an organization. According to Tedrow (1999) ‘women who display more rational styles of leading are marginalized by their organisations and are viewed as outsiders. They are challenged to lead the way men do as it is considered the norm.

In Macarie’s (2012) study, the questionnaire was the only data collection tool that was used and their focus was on overcoming the glass ceiling and also focused only on women’s perceptions leaving aside men’s perception. This study looked at both women’s perceptions as well as men’s perception.

Baker (1999) states that’ glass ceiling is more of a societal blocker than an individual barrier that creates a huger roadblock preventing women from advancement to top management positions. Men are preferred candidates for promotion, which results in humiliation. Townsend (1998) is of the view that the glass ceiling prevents women
from attaining executive positions due to lack of understanding of barriers women face as they advance upward in organisation. Powell (1994) noted that women are still viewed as not having the requisite skills and ability to upper level management positions. Women have to prove that they are capable before they are permitted beyond a certain point. Men are preferred for executive positions as they are considered to be less affected by family situations.

It is also assumed that some of the males, if managed by a female, usually make poor subordinates. Although females may be willing to share their leadership skills with males, there are indications that some of the males are individualistic and want to keep their leadership skills to themselves.

As a manager, they must get things done through other people. They are therefore, expected to train, motivate and discipline staff. Some female managers face a double battle that entails a battle with the same gender as well as with other gender. There are people who look at female managers with a lot of doubt regarding their ability and others see them as competent and effective managers. Some see them as managing in contradiction to the rules that have been set by the patriarchal culture while others humiliate them and are seen as taking male positions.

2.4.3 Stereotypes
There are widely-held beliefs about the ways in which males and females behave. Females are believed to be incapable. Kleg (1993) defines stereotype as a thought that can be adopted about specific types of individuals or certain ways of doing things. These thoughts and beliefs may or may not accurately reflect reality. Stereotypes can lead to discrimination in the labour markets and other domains. It can affect self-evaluations and can lead to self-stereotyping. Correll (2004) found that specific
stereotypes affect women’s and men’s evaluation of their abilities such that men assess their own task ability higher than women performing at the same level. These stereotype-based expectations may lead to self-fulfilling prophecies, in which one’s inaccurate expectations about a person’s behaviour, through social interaction, prompt that person to act in stereotype-consistent was thus conforming one’s enormous expectations and validating the stereotype (Kleg 1993).

Traditional gender stereotypes still leave women with a double standard and double mind. Men continue to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership. What is assertive in a man seems abrasive in a woman, and female manager’s risk seeming too feminine or not feminine enough. Past perceptions of leadership skills, competence, and assertiveness may hinder the ability of women to succeed in management. A stereotype attributes traits such as sensitivity and being emotional to women while attributing traits such as aggression and rationality of men. These traits describe women as ‘taking care’ of others while portraying men as ‘taking charge’ (Correll, 2004).

An overview of more than a hundred studies confirms that women are rated lower as leaders when they adopt authoritative seemingly masculine styles, especially when the role is one typically occupied by men. Many companies associate masculine characteristics with success and achievement. Eagly & Carl, (2003) asserts that other stereotypes of women include the expectations of being modest, quiet, selfless and nurturing which are seen as non-executive material. Women are expected to be nurturing, not self-serving, entrepreneurial behaviours viewed as appropriate in men are often viewed as distasteful in women. Blackmore (2002) states that “If women are to
succeed in the world of work, they have to overcome their conditioning as women, and develop male aggressiveness, assertiveness and independence.”

According to a study conducted by Constance Zulu (2002) about experiences of women heads of academic departments in South Africa, most organisations are systematically organised for male supremacy, hence they are not gender neutral. Women find themselves playing second fiddle to men because of the male domination and control of the perceived weak group, which are female heads. The same is experienced by female managers in different organisations.

Female marginalisation has been reinforced and perpetuated through the process of gender socialisation resulting in women being domesticated. Having children makes women but not men, appear less competent and less available to meet workplace responsibilities. Blackmore (2002) states that employers assume that a working mother is unlikely to be fully committed to her career, they more easily remember the times when she left early than the times when she stayed late.

According to Jack and Welch (2007), very few women CEO’s and female executives have children due to the effect it would have on their career. Many female managers have voluntarily left their jobs due to family decisions, (Baxter 2000). Female managers put more pressure to perform on the job and being the ‘token’, females in management is a double aged sword, with both good and poor performances being more easily noticed.

Gender inequity and under representation of women in managerial positions in organisations is very common. The Labour Relations Act of 1995 states that it is illegal
to discriminate against the employment of women but women still face discrimination. In practice those jobs that were the stronghold of male employment continued to be so. Although there has been a commitment to secure equity in promotions there are presently less than 30% of women occupying middle management positions and even fewer in top management (Chisholm & September, 2005:146).

Relating to the study carried out by Chuma and Ncube (2010) on challenges faced by female managers in the banking sector of Zimbabwe, their major findings were that stereotyping was implicated as the root cause for the challenges that women in managerial positions face. They noted that women in management positions operate in ‘men’s ‘shoes’ because they were never socialised to be aggressive or discriminating.

2.4.4 Globalisation

Globalisation is defined as the ongoing process that is linking people, neighbourhood, cities, regions, and countries much more closely together than they have ever been before (Bardhan 2005). Maghadam (1999) defines globalisation as a complex economic, political, cultural and geographic process in which the mobility of capital, organisation, ideas, discourses and people has taken a transnational form. Although the women’s role in labour force has changed from traditional agricultural and domestic role, the overall effects of globalisation have proven to be negative to women. For some female managers, joining the global workforce threatens their right ever to have children and for others it means neglecting the children they are working to feed.

Due to globalisation senior level managers and top executives have even more responsibility and higher expectations than before. Due to time pressure and relocations of many businesses, top management have had to move to new towns and cities, and
countries. This is a barrier to many women with families and a working spouse as noted by (Wellington, Kropg, & Gerkovich, 2003). Women find it difficult to leave their family even if it is due to promotion. They would rather reject the promotion and stay back with their family.

2.4.5 Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is an act of expression of dominance and power by one sex over the other without their consent (Wright et al, 2009). Women managers can fall victim of sexual harassment at the work place. Some employers ask for sexual favours from female managers in exchange of promotions. Refusal to give in to the demands of the employer or boss by the female manager will result in the manager losing her job or denial of promotion hence it is difficult for a woman to get promotion to top positions. Issues of sexual harassments are very difficult to deal with if they are reported as it is difficult to prove and the victims fear that they may lose their job, or even their family hence they go unreported.

2.5 Coping Strategies

This section will present the coping strategies that are available for the women in management in their quest for the higher echelons of management.

2.5.1 Education and Training

Bolton & Houlihan (2009) define training as the organised procedure by which people learn knowledge and /skills for a definite purpose, the objective of training is to achieve a change behaviour for those trained, they acquire new manipulative skills problem solving ability or attitudes. Jubenkanda (2004) cited Cronje who defined, education as activities directed to prove moral values and understanding required in the normal cause
of life. Its understanding of the traditions and ideas of the society in which they live, whilst enable them to contribute to the society.

Training and education is an effective tool to increase efficiency and effectiveness of female managers at work. For female managers to grow in their jobs, they require to keep growing and learning. The more they are able to know and the more skills they acquire, the more value they can offer to their organisations. Education and training places them in an upward spiral of growing income and emotional well-being. According to Peters et al., (2005), it is important to become the very best at what one does, by continuing to learn and have one’s skills and capabilities to the point where they become highly regarded and sought after your co-workers and professional peers’.

By continuous learning female managers keep the ‘raw material pile’ of their brains freshly stocked, which enables them to come up with more and better ideas and innovations needed in every organisation today.

Training enables female managers to produce sound results. Training may be in technology as the world is dynamic and the use of advanced technology is commonly used, as this is sometimes a stumbling block in achieving goals hence the need to training. Female managers have adapted to formal leadership training and coaching which help in developing interpersonal styles and capabilities such as risk –taking, conflict resolution and strategic vision. They are getting as much education and training as possible because education is the most powerful secret weapon. A management position presupposes continuous training, interest and responsibility.

They make an effort to adapt to the requirements of the organisation to deal with challenges and to understand the behaviour of its members as well as implementing a
participatory management. They improve and acquiring new knowledge through self-
learning, finding specialisation courses and scholarships, books and electronic
resources. The perceptions of women themselves have changed for the better in the 21st
century and they have managed to attain bachelors, masters, first professional and
doctorate levels. Women are preparing themselves for the world. At present more and
more women are becoming graduates, post graduates, earning professional and
technical degrees and entering corporate life.

By acquiring education and training female managers can compete with their male
counterparts in top management positions in the labour market. With the required
education and experience they can participate in all spheres of life and are able to
execute their duties efficiently and effectively because they have the necessary skills
and training for the job. The higher the degree of education the more confident they
become and want to challenge their male counterparts.

It is also their responsibility as managers to train and develop their staff so that the team
becomes efficient. For better utilisation of employees’ talents, team management and
team spirit must be promoted (Zaccaro et al., 2001). The staff must have workshops to
prepare them to successfully face the challenges they encounter at work. It is the
manager’s responsibility to develop the staff component to its highest possible capacity.

2.5.2 Communication and Mentorship

Communication is defined as a phenomenon of conveying information and meanings
through non-verbal, verbal, or written media. It requires that the communicating parties
share an area of communicative commonality.
Communication is the lifeline of an organisation. With effective communication, all departments are able to know what is happening, how it is happening and the problems that are experienced in an organisation in its functioning. Without regular communication, the organisation may be paralysed. The manager as a leader must be able to communicate with all departments in an organisation.

Multiple means of communication can be employed in organisations to ensure that everyone is well informed and understands the basis for decisions and actions. The ability to interact with all members of the department is a way of promoting understanding, clarity, mutual recognition and genera sense of purpose. Information must be easily available to subordinates and there must be regular and open reporting back.

Female managers’ communication is better than men and they have the ability to build relationships with customers and their subordinates as noted by (Williams, 2003). Women can manage organisations more effectively than men and they have better communication skills. Blackmore (1999:56) noted that “Women’s leadership styles are less hierarchical and more democratic”. Also, they seem to have a softer approach to management, keeping more in touch with what is happening with their subordinates in various departments.

Weiner (1995) as cited in Blackmore (2002:59) postulates that “The inclusion of female characteristics such as, good communication and nurturing nature, into leadership means that all leaders can be expected to call upon the full spectrum of human”. Blackmore (2002) further states that feminist research on women in leadership provides evidence that women managers are more caring, collaborative, communicative,
consultative, and consensus orientated. Also, they seem to have a softer approach to management, keeping more in touch with what is happening with their subordinates in various departments. Female managers feel that traditional male traits such as aggressive behaviour, control and a strong competitive nature are unappealing and not part of the culture they want (ibid).

According to Blackmore (2002), female managers need mentorship in executing their duties. They need guidance and this guidance comes from both role models and mentors. Aspiring leaders need multiple sources of support, contacts and career development opportunities from both men and women and from both inside and outside their organisations. They do socialise and ‘do lunch’ in order to get work done. The most effective mentoring relationships typically arise naturally among individuals who share important similarities. Mentoring occurs more naturally among individuals who share important similarities. They are mentored naturally during collaborative projects and shared activities. They remain reasonable and focused in their needs and make sure that the relationship is mutually beneficial (ibid).

**2.5.3 Planning**

Planning is defined as the process of thinking about and organising the activities required to achieve a desired goal (Carson, 2004). It is one of the four functions of management and planning is a management role which involves organising the activities required to achieve strategic objectives plans for action. Management planning is the process of creating a realistic detailed plan for meeting those goals and it takes into consideration short and long term corporate goals. Female managers who hold positions inside an organisation are required to think strategically and conceptually in order to achieve organisational goals.
According to Carson (2004) planning can allow female managers to be more organised and better prepared before facing a task. It reminds the person of her goals and allows them to consider the decision situation and set behavioural guidelines when visceral impact of the immediate gratification is not in full force (Laibson 1997). Planning their work help them to be guided to avoid twists and turns on their career success. Female managers can decide where they want to be in five, ten and fifteen years. Many female managers have moved from the old mind-set of doing things to a new way of managing and leading the organisation as noted by previous research.

Planning is crucial in coping with the change or transformation in an organisation and through planning female manager directs staff and all other role players, giving them a clear path as to the goal and vision of the organisation and the role that they have to play in this process. According to Lunenburg and Irby (2006:183), “Without this information, staff would not know precisely how to use their time and energies effectively and efficiently.” Female managers have planning skills that enhance them to attain the intended goals and thus good planning includes the proper human planning, team building, training and human development.

2.5.4 Time Management

Female managers set priorities and manage time effectively and this is critical for leadership skills. Female managers keep abreast of all activities at their departments by constantly having regular meetings with the heads of department to monitor what is happening. Lunenburg and Irby (2006:184) noted that the success with which the manager plans, organises, leads and monitors determines how effectively the organisation operates.
The female managers set boundaries, delegate domestic tasks, accept imperfection and make time for relationships, both professional and personal. They go to events that on the surface seem unnecessary but that are in fact important opportunities to ‘see and be seen’ ‘meet and greet’ and ‘show and tell. ‘The female managers have strategic management skills where they formulate strategies to achieve the intended goals. According to Stoner (1995) ‘a strategy is a broad program for defining and achieving goals and objectives of an organisation.

Female managers self-promote themselves and depend on others. William (2003) noted that one of the keys to success is the ability to let others know who you are, what you have to offer and how you make a difference in their organisation. Team spirit is important in organisations thus female managers can make use of the ideas from her subordinates for the betterment of the organisation. Female managers cope up with their work and family stress by enlisting the help of others, such as domestic help, tutors and relatives. They employ domestic workers to help with their domestic work while they concentrate with their management work thus they can cope well with their work well.

2.6 Theory of Transformational Leadership

Woman managers are entrusted with the development of others as leaders. The satisfaction that comes from inspiring others to succeed is the reward awaiting a successful leader. Leaders do not spring into the world fully formed, argue Dennis and Meola (2009). These two philosophers and leadership development consultants, vouched that poor leadership could be downright destructive, causing conflict, turnover and confusion to employees and followers alike.

The earliest views of leadership centred on a belief that leaders were born not made. Ultimately, leadership research expanded beyond an examination of the individual
leader to include the group or culture the leader influenced. One aspect of this research focused on relationships between the leader and followers (Daniels, 2000).

Dennis and Meola (2009), in their writings, showed that certain types of leadership behaviours produced better results in every setting, political, social and business sector. They argued that women leaders could take a deep breath and take good look at their leadership style viz-a-viz their followers. They postulated that whether one worked in a factory or an educational setting, they were leaders who responded to their followers needs, which in turn produced better results. They called these leaders, transformational. Such leaders responded to individual followers’ differences and needs and then empowered each individual to align his/her objectives and goals to the larger organization. A model of leadership influenced by the Theory of Transformational Leadership included five main components for a strong leader; Communicating Direction, Inspirational Motivation, Problem Resolution, Building the Team and Trust. The core of this model was TRUST because this was the foundation of an effective leader (ibid).

The two scholars also revealed that Kouzes and Posner surveyed over 75,000 people around the world on the topic of credibility and found that people consistently said that they wanted leaders who were “honest, forward-looking, competent and inspiring”. If employees believed their leader could not be trusted, they would divert energy toward “covering their backs,” which could detract from employees’ work performance. Good leaders recognised that trust resulted in higher performance and good citizenship. This was supported by the findings of a large meta-analysis of a summarized research over the past four decades.
In that study, both researchers reported that trust could positively impact on an organization with benefits like increased cooperation, more collaboration, more pride in the work, increased innovation, and reciprocity in negotiations, as well as affecting the positive attitudes of the employees, which in turn helped customer relations. Conversely, when trust was not presented or lost through betrayal, the business impact would result in distress and anger in the workforce, which led to decreased productivity. People spent time trying to seek justice or put things ‘right’ rather than on the business mission.

Trust can be hard to foster as part of a regular work group, and it comes as no surprise that when groups work virtually, trust becomes a bigger issue because it is harder to gain and easier to erode when working in locations. Regardless of circumstances, though, people want a leader that they can admire, a leader they can emulate, a leader they can trust. This is the dilemma which female and male managers find themselves engrossed in. Some managers fail to manage such pressure of their requirements and of those who withstand the pressure; most of them are male managers because of their masculine and fearful statures. Female managers are most likely to give in and end up throwing in the towel. Figure 2.1 is an illustration of a model that was influenced by Transformational Leadership theory:
2.6.1 Transformational Leadership Model Components

The components of Transformational Leadership model hinge on the TRUST that each component contributes in the transformation.

2.6.1.1 Communication Direction

The best leaders not only set goals and milestones for themselves and their teams but they also communicate these goals to stakeholders, (Dennis and Meola, 2009). The leaders need to have a vision and to be able to articulate that vision to the other members. Further, when specific details were added to the vision, it helps employees and followers reach both theirs and organizational goals. This direction is critical to successful leadership. The leader also assesses the employees’ understanding of the work and figure out what they need to develop for further understanding of skills. The leader provides personal attention to each person in the group so that everyone’s workplace behaviours are aligned with organizational goals and direction (ibid).
A leader tries to find permanent and universal causes for good events and temporary specific causes for misfortune. Through continuous communication, leaders monitor goals, provide feedback that is both positive and constructive and empower employees while accomplishing organizational goals (Dennis & Meola, 2009).

2.6.1.2 Inspirational Motivation

For individuals to give leaders their best work, they need to feel that the leader truly wants the best for them as individuals. This is achieved by leaders who successfully communicate and thus inspiring their associates. These leaders reward and recognise subordinates for their accomplishments. In addition, they also address the associate's sense of self-worth to engage him or her in true commitment and involvement in the effort at hand (Dennis & Meola, 2009).

When leaders inspire, they are able to motivate employees to do more than those employees originally achieve and often even more than they thought possible. Leaders empower followers and pay attention to their individual needs and personal developments. They help associates to develop their own leadership potentials. Through motivation, leaders are able to encourage innovation in their teams. This is important if setbacks or problems occur along the way (Dennis and Meola, 2009).

2.6.1.3 Problem Resolution

Dennis and Meola (2009) show that one thing that was certain in life is that problems develop. These two researchers proffered that strong leaders could avoid or resolve problems because they have the ability to challenge their own thinking as well as that of the team, to develop new ideas, interesting solutions
and innovative approaches. Leaders know how to ask thought-provoking questions and listen to the answers. They challenge the status quo and stimulate creativity to better handle problems that arise. Effective leaders are instrumental in removing obstacles that impede achievement of organizational goals and seek input from those who are closest to the work (ibid). This could take the form of talking with senior people in the organization to ‘clear the way’ for involvement with another department. It could mean making sure resources were available to the team or that budget is released for the project.

Effective leaders remove barriers to productive work and cooperate to solve both individual and universal problems. This enables the team to move forward. Notice that all the components in this model encompass the development of the individuals on the team as well as the group as a whole. In this way, the team grows as each individual grows.

2.6.1.4 Building the TEAM

If the leader had the luxury of picking his/her team, he or she made sure that they included individuals with the skills they needed for the job and also with the ability to work together with different people. For them, a leader would also help the team develop key relationships and managed any conflicts. Leaders build relationships with all key stakeholders. They thought about actions in terms of the impact on people, groups and systems and then choose actions that would produce the best results for the organisation.

Women constitute about half of the total population of any country in the world and apart from the household activities, they are contributing substantially to
their national economies. In spite of all these achievements, the majority of women world over are yet to be empowered to participate actively in the social, cultural, economic and political life of their respective countries. The policies and programmes of the Government of the day, Non-Governmental Organisations and other institutions do not sufficiently address the need for women’s empowerment (African Development Bank, 2001).

2.7 Chapter Summary

The review of literature related to this study covered eight broad areas: the concepts of gender in general, the gender construct theories and the development approaches. It looked at the history of international and national focus on women issues, history of the movement for gender equality and the resolutions on gender equality from 1921 up to 2005. It also looked at the patriarchy theory which was premised on the notion that male dominance had always been there. Other supporting theories like the capitalism theory and the theory of transformational leadership were also covered. Women and/in politics was dealt with especially in view of internalised oppression. The chapter concluded by looking at the advancement of women into educational leadership positions in Zimbabwe covering the 1999 Nziramasanga Commission on Enquiry into education and training. The next chapter deals with the research methodology and the design used in this research.
CHAPTER THREE
Research Methodology and Design

3.0 Introduction

The previous chapter extensively covered the review of literature related to this study. There were key concepts that emerged that included patriarchal system, transformational leadership and who make better bosses – men or women? In chapter 3, the study dealt with the research design, highlighting reasons why the researcher opted for particular methods of enquiry. The main areas of focus were the research paradigm, the research design/methods, data collection methods, presentation, analysis and interpretation procedures, triangulation and discussion of the ethical issues. The approaches used by researchers to conduct research studies are diverse, each depending on the researcher’s beliefs. Researchers differ in their approaches to viewing and interacting with their research environments.

However, there are research standards and regulations that direct actions and behaviours of researchers, including their beliefs. Those standards are commonly referred to as research paradigms. In this study, to ensure clarity regarding the approaches and reasons, this researcher selected certain methodological approaches. The researcher discussed the paradigm that best fitted the focal point of this study. This is because, according to research literature, all research activities employed in this study were influenced by the research philosophy that guided the researcher’s behaviours in the field during this study—including data generation and collection activities. All the related data analysis techniques were systematically aligned to the focus of the research paradigm that was used in this study (Leedy and Ormrod, 2013; Creswell, 2014).
Research literature defines research “as a systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information (data) in order to increase our understanding of the phenomenon about which we are interested or concerned with” (Leedy and Ormrod; 2013). In other words, research opens the way to innovative methods because it encourages people to adopt new methods with confidence, based on some empirical evidence. It was vital for this researcher to collect the perspectives of Principal Lecturers in order to describe why gender disparity persisted in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe, despite all the efforts taken to eradicate any forms of discrimination against women in educational management positions.

3.1 Research Paradigm—Positivist and Interpretivist Paradigms

As evidenced by the multifaceted nature of the research questions and the objectives, no single research paradigm could be used to deal with the diversity of the expected methods that were expected to meet the requirements of all the aspects. As a researcher, it became apparent and logical to borrow from research paradigms that would combine quantitative/positivist paradigm focus and the qualitative/interpretive paradigm focus. The power of combining both paradigms allowed this researcher to use SPSS computer software to statistically analyse the quantitative data, at the same time using the human emotional factors that influence gender disparity issues. In an effort to balance these aspects, the study used the pragmatist philosophy, which is discussed in the next section, to demonstrate how each paradigm and its methodological approaches was implemented throughout this research project.

3.1.1 Pragmatism

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012:72) say that, with positivism;
There is an emphasis on a highly structured methodology to facilitate replication and on quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis. Positivists believe that reality is stable and can be observed and described from an objective viewpoint. This often involves manipulation of reality with variations in only a single independent variable so as to identify regularities in, and to form relationships between some of the constituent elements of the social world.

Similarly, in their own words, Taylor, Kermode, and Roberts (2007:5), research paradigm refers to “a broad view or perspective of [understanding] something...” meaning that a paradigm exposes how an investigation or study may be impacted and given direction by a selected research philosophy or paradigm. In this case, the researcher understand a paradigm to mean a model of ways of knowing or beliefs and practices that control and/ or determine standards for conducting a study in the context of an area or phenomenon by providing frameworks of thinking and knowing, including the processes regarding how that study should be designed, conducted, and concluded. In this context, therefore, it means that everything about a study is completely nested in the lenses of a paradigm.

Because of the types of data that were collected, the researcher realised that it was important to be guided by the pragmatist philosophy in conducting research. Therefore, in this study, the researcher used the triangulation of research philosophies to guide the development of all approaches that matched the types of data that were needed to collect, analyse and present (Lynch, 2006). Pragmatism involves the use of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies because it was critical to include the different types of data in a broadened approach to understand how things played out in an institution of higher learning. In the beliefs of Punch (2009), to understand a
phenomenon in the education context, it is imperative to be objective and neutral, especially when it involves human emotions and trying to understand the various human dimensions of leadership and power struggles as was the case with this study. Since this study had to address diversity and complexity issues of gender and discrimination, a mixed methodology was indispensable for this study.

The triangulation, therefore, involved using the quantitative methodology which shares its philosophical foundation with the positivist research paradigm (Saunders et al., 2012; Punch, 2009; Weaver and Olson, 2007; Hope & Waterman, 2003). According to Hope and Waterman (2003), in this view, when researchers use the positivist philosophy, it means that they rigidly focus on a single objective of reality, and consequently, in this study, this researcher considered it valid to produce evidence that would be validated by some level of proof that could be traced back to the phenomenon under study and showing that results stand for. In this study, the rigid principles regarding how women are considered in the field of higher education in Zimbabwe exposed themselves more to the quantitative (positivist) ways of discovering knowledge, logic and measurement that were integrated into the final design of this study (Weaver and Olson, 2006).

3.1.2 Interpretivist Paradigm

However, on their own, these rigid beliefs about carrying out research did not have the capacity to accommodate other diverse research aspects that this research had to deal with, especially those related to the social and human’s lived experiences. Cole (2006) adds that the qualitative side of a mixed methods study ensures that researchers confirm their “concern[s]... about uncovering knowledge about how people feel and think in the circumstances in which they find themselves, than making judgments about whether
those thoughts and feelings are valid” (Cole, 2006:26). To ensure that the social and human lived experiences of the participants’ views were reported in their real and actual words, the researcher included the qualitative methodologies to the research design. This was done in order to ensure flexibility and also accounting for the trustworthiness of the data generated during the study. For their part, the qualitative methodologies in this study share their philosophical research beliefs with the Interpretivist Research Paradigm that supports the view that there are many truths and multiple realities, all of which depend on the context and the participants involved. The real focus of the Interpretivist Research Paradigm is that, when doing research, investigators should pay attention to the human perspective of the participants and the factors from the environment because all these are directly related to the people in a social institution, and in this case, a Teachers’ Training College (Creswell, 2014). In this study, through the use of the interpretive paradigm, the researcher intended to give the participants the voice to communicate their concerns and practices of education as the research participants saw them, heard them, smelt them or felt them. This allowed the participants to be heard even long after the study had been concluded (Halcomb et al., 2005).

When undertaking any research, it is important to consider different research paradigms and issues of epistemology and ontology. According to Flowers, (2009) epistemology and ontology define perceptions, assumptions, beliefs, and the nature of reality and truth, and they have the power to influence the way in which the research is undertaken through all the stages from design to conclusions. Therefore, it is important to understand and discuss these aspects in order that approaches congruent to the nature and aims of the particular inquiry are adopted, and to ensure that researcher biases are understood, exposed, and minimised as much as possible (Flowers, 2009). The above
aspects are a part of a series of choices that every researcher should consider further to the fact that these choices must be connected back to the original research problem (Blaikie, 2000). These inherent preferences are likely to shape our research design (James & Vinnicombe, 2002). This section highlights the research philosophy towards building the research process which begins from the methodology set employed to the type of questions. The researcher first clarified epistemological and ontological assumptions.

3.1.3 Ontology

Blaikie, (1993) asserts that ontology hovers around the ‘the science or study of being’ and this description also involves ‘claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other’. Flowers, (2009) looks at the above and summarises it as the general view that is if they are claims or assumptions on the reality. Reality could either be objective reality or subjective reality with the former being reality that really exist and the latter being reality created in our minds (Flowers, 2009). Objective and subjective reality are also referred to as objectivism and constructivism respectively (Long, White, Friedman, & Brazeal, 2000).

From an objectivism point of view, social phenomenon and the categories that we use in everyday conversations have an existence that is independent and separate from the actors (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Therefore, social phenomena and the categories that we use in everyday conversations have an existence that is independent from the actors (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Similarly, constructivism is an ontological position which states that realities are constructed by social actors (Bryman & Bell, 2007) thus social phenomena and their meanings cannot be separated from social actors that create them.

As a result, we all have a number of deeply embedded ontological assumptions which
will affect our view on what is real and whether we attribute existence to one set of things over another. The implication is that if the researcher does not put these underlying assumptions into consideration the researcher may be limited to certain aspects of the study since they are implicitly assumed.

The researcher regarded “Survival strategies for asset management companies during the multi-currency regime” as a social reality that the researcher believes exist in the society and both external and internal to the partners in the asset management field. The researcher, therefore, decided to use the objectivist view of looking at the social phenomenon. The researcher used structured questionnaires in which respondents selected their responses from. The purpose of the research was not to understand each respondent’s perception but to get a general view on the topic. Respondent’s perceptions were classified into different levels where each respondent selected the range where they belong to by using the Likert scale. The researcher used this method since he was convinced that it is the best method which ensures objectivity in the study thereby answering research questions and attaining the research objectives.

3.1.4 Epistemology

Ontology is concerned with the fact that different views exist regarding what constitutes reality, the question about how is that reality measured, and what constitutes knowledge of that reality is addressed with the epistemology concept (Flowers, 2009). The study of knowledge is epistemology. Bryman & Bell, (2007) further explains that epistemology is divided into two main components namely interpretive and positivist with the former being concerned with the definite understanding of human action and not the forces that act on them whilst the latter lays emphasis on the explanations on the understanding and explanations of human behaviour. The researcher used the positivist view of
epistemology in this study. Positivism advocates the application of the methods of natural science to the study of social reality and beyond (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

The researcher used information from previous studies from where he got more knowledge on the subject. The knowledge from this study was developed through objective measurement of perceptions of sampled respondents. Furthermore, all the variables researched in this study are realities that exist outside the researcher’s mind and were studied using methods of natural science., therefore, there is a link between theory and research in this study hence observations were collected in a manner that is influenced by theories that existed prior to this study. However, since some of these theories are not entirely scientific, the researcher had to take an epistemology direction.

In order to make the findings of this thesis fully dependent on the respondents, the researcher limited the interaction with the respondents to mere handing research tools (self-administered questionnaires) to respondents during the data collection process. Secondary data were also used for triangulation purposes.

3.2 Research Design
In this descriptive study, qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques were used including; focus group interviews, survey questionnaires, face-to-face interviews, and the researcher field notes obtained through personal observations and unstructured interviews. Taylor, Kermode, and Roberts, (2007) refer to these forms of data collection as multidimensional ways of understanding of issues under research as triangulation of research methodologies. For this researcher to gain deeper insights into issues of gender disparity affecting women leadership in tertiary education, a descriptive research method was used since the researcher was seeking to describe,
observe, and document a naturally occurring phenomenon. Under normal circumstances, these are not possibly observed under the rigid positivist approach. For that reason, the researcher had to use questions that sought to solicit for explanations of how events play out in order to describe those relationships that influence the outcomes rather than just use numbers to predict those relationships between identified variables.

In this study, data were collected including the demographics, organizational charts, procedures for promotions and the techniques used, and data generated from open-ended questionnaires. The qualitative descriptive approaches were extremely advantageous to this study because they provided data related to experience and knowledge of the participants with the phenomenon. All interviews conducted were incorporated into the study design to ensure that the research design embraced the Interpretivist philosophy’s directions that open ended questions would be carried out in efficient but natural ways to data generation from participants. Interpretivist researchers accept that open ended questions permit participants space to naturally exchange their views and knowledge regarding a phenomenon (Morse & Richards, 2002). The participants, therefore, had the opportunity to highlight the existence of problems which the researcher was studying and it also helped this researcher to identify points for models during conversations that may lead to policy change, as explained in the significance of the study. The intent of stakeholder interviews that lead to policy improvement on practitioner practices is critical for development of education.

3.2.1 Mixed Methods Research Design

Guided by the research paradigm outlined above, this researcher developed methods of approaching the study. Using the pragmatist research philosophy, therefore, means that the two main research designs that the researcher combined and used included the
 qualitative or quantitative meaning to say mixed methods. According to Robertson (2002), the quantitative approach inherently dwells within the positivist paradigm, while the qualitative approach is an interpretivist paradigm. In this context, a research design is an advance plan of the methods to be used in this study. An effective research design is one that yields maximum information in order to make conclusions and it gives an opportunity to discover new aspects.

According to research scholars, the following features should always be present in a good research design; universality, replication and measurement. Murimba and Moyo (1995) argue that appropriateness was the key word when selecting the design for a research study because certain problems may best be solved only by certain designs. This study, therefore, employed the mixed methods research design that ensured that data would bring out the most appropriate information to describe the dynamism of gender disparity issues and fully answer the research questions set out for this study.

3.2.2 Mixed Methods Research Design Approach

3.2.2.1 Qualitative Side of the Research Design

There are a number of qualitative approaches, but for this study, the researcher used the Narrative Research approach to data generation (Daiute & Lightfoot, 2004). According to qualitative research experts, a narrative is a term assigned to a text or discourse used during inquiry in qualitative research to connect an account to a phenomenon under study (Daiute and Lingfoot, 2004; Chase, 2005), especially with those stories that have specific focus on the how individuals view a phenomenon (Pinnegar & Daynes, 2006). In this study, a narrative refers to the specific responses that help this researcher to understand either written or spoken texts that gave value to the issues that the researcher wanted to understand. Collecting of the narratives involved focusing on
studying texts from identified individuals in the form of their responses to the interview questions regarding their individual experiences in relation to gender issues in the tertiary colleges.

Because this research was a mixed methods research design, the qualitative side of the research design focused on the descriptive, explanatory and contextual words of interview data. From the participants, representative sample who were able to provide expertise knowledge from different points of view were allowed to participate in focus group interviews to enrich the data generation processes. This is because of the general belief in research paradigms selected and for the Interpretivist philosophy, the researcher embraced the belief that:

a. many truths and realities exist and these are influenced by the context, culture and experiences of the participants and
b. Different people have different perceptions, interpretations, needs and experiences, and these also impact the way they act, think and respond to situations.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) note that the qualitative approach can be referred to as the phenomenological approach and is based on the way people experience social phenomenon in the world they lived in. For this study, the qualitative side of the study as an approach was inductive in nature as it provided for the development of theory from data collected and employed flexible exploratory methods. It is that flexibility that ensured that this researcher did allow the data and the research itself to follow the direction where the study took the researcher. The qualitative approach is, therefore, a holistic approach which puts more emphasis on trustworthiness as opposed to rigid validity and reliability in the quantitative approach.
Part of the research design, therefore, was qualitative in nature as it dealt with unique social or rather complex numerical values of the situation. It is this side of this research that was, therefore, guided by the Interpretivist Research Paradigm. It allowed for the gathering of qualitative data from the various interested parties at the Teachers’ Training Colleges and permitted the interpretation of this data to establish the factors that impeded the advancement of women into management positions in Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe. Contrary to the beliefs of Patel, Patel and Elliot (2004) who argue that the interpretive research is more inclined towards the understanding of what is happening and why it was happening, this study sought to use the voices of the participants to confirm the views and understandings of the participants.

The major disadvantage of qualitative design methods arose from subjectivity embedded in them—that weakness was viewed, in this study, as an advantage because of the inclusion of the quantitative side of the study which the researcher used to validate the results from the qualitative side, while at the same time the qualitative side used its trustworthiness power to validate the findings from the quantitative side of the study. While it was time consuming and expensive, this researcher found the process fulfilling and motivating which, in the end, cancelled the expenses in terms of time and money. The added advantage of using the qualitative side of the research design was that purposively selected participants completed anonymous open-ended questions which allowed them to share data that was already categorised by the open-ended questions hence simplifying the analysis process. Qualitative data were analysed through conceptualisation or thematic grouping of data while some quantitative tools were used to triangulate validity and reliability.
3.2.2.2 The Quantitative Side of the Research Design

The quantitative data were collected and analysed, was concerned with the measurable outcomes from closed ended questionnaire data, and it was clear and objective. Bryman and Bell (2003) argues that quantitative researchers employ measurement and qualitative researchers do not. In qualitative research, a hypothesis is not needed to begin research. However, all quantitative research requires a hypothesis before research can begin (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Another major difference is the underlying assumptions about the role of the researcher. In quantitative research, the researcher is ideally an objective observer that neither participates in nor influences what is being studied while in qualitative research, the researcher can learn about a situation by participating or being immersed in it (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Qualitative research sometimes focuses too closely on individual results and fails to make connections to larger situations or possible causes of the results. Quantitative research, on the other hand, often forces responses or people into categories that might not fit in order to make meaning (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Those who advocate for qualitative methods often argue that qualitative data allows one to precisely follow events sequentially in a way that allows one to establish relationships between such events. Good qualitative data help researchers get beyond initial conceptions and to generate or revise conceptual frameworks (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Each approach has its own advantages and disadvantages depending on what the researcher’s objectives are. Miles and Huberman (1994) take the view that both methods can be used to complement each other for a thorough analysis of questions. They say that
rather than discounting each approach for its draw backs, researchers should find the most effective ways to incorporate elements of both to ensure that their studies are as accurate and as thorough as possible.

The study, as influenced by the pragmatist research philosophy, had to triangulate a variety of aspects of this research in order for the methods to remain in line with the pragmatist research philosophy that guided the methodology and methods for this study.

3.2.2.3 Triangulation Strategies and Techniques Used

In this study, the researcher accomplished triangulation through a number of techniques used in this study. For the purposes of this study, triangulation was critical as it helped to improve the validity of research findings. Bamberger (2000) states that triangulation is the principle of increasing the validity of the data by looking at different sources or by going back to the same subjects at different periods of time and asking the same kind of questions. This therefore implies that triangulation was imperative in this study for consistency checks and alternative measures of key variables.

In this study, the researcher employed various types of triangulation to assume and ascertain the trustworthiness of the results of this research. The multiple triangulation strategies used in this research project included data sources triangulation; methods triangulation; research paradigm triangulation—where I used two philosophical perspectives to influence data collection, analysis and interpretation; and methodological triangulation that included the use of multiple methods/strategies during data collection. Therefore, in simplest form, triangulation included the use of and the combination of numerous research
techniques in a single research design (Patton, 2002). The use of multiple data sources helped to cross-check and validate the research findings by helping to increase depth and quality of the findings and even conclusions of this study.

Therefore, throughout this study, a combination of methods helped to improve consistency and accuracy data value by providing more robust picture of what was going on with the phenomenon under study (Halcomb & Andrew, 2005). However, as a budding researcher, it was important to consider the advice from Patton (2002) that data from observations, interviews and questionnaires may produce different results. However, that did not necessarily mean that either or all kinds of data are invalid, although that may be the case. For this study, this meant that the different kinds of data would have captured different or wider details of data and so the researcher kept his eye on the data and continuously attempted to understand the reasons for the differences or the increased depth of the data at any given time. This understanding helped the researcher to explain any differences that would manifest themselves in the information that was collected through each form of data collection.

3.2.2.3.1 Methodological Triangulation.

Taylor et al., (2007) suggest that methodological triangulation, when used as a research design strategy in research, may be used to include employing multiple research methods in a single study. This is normally done during the data collection or design level. In this study, using methodological triangulation involves using a number of research methods or strategies in form of qualitative and quantitative methods. In this study, methodological triangulation was used to verify consistency
of findings that were generated by the different data-collection methods. Methods used in this study included self-administered questionnaires and telephone interviews. Questionnaires were distributed to some of the participants to complete while the same questionnaire was treated as an interview guide administered by the researcher to some participants. This approach fully synchronized with the research focus and the instruments that were used for this research project. In this study, the findings that complemented each other from the quantitative and qualitative sides made it more valid and trustworthy to the developing theory and knowledge regarding the phenomenon under study, hence enhancing the researcher’s understanding surrounding the study questions and their objectives (Punch, 2009). Another form of triangulation that the researcher used, was the data triangulation.

3.2.2.3.2 Triangulation of Data Sources.

Roberts and Taylor, (2002) understand data triangulation as the use in that process when researchers use multiple sources of data to obtain answers to the research questions although the views may be differing in relation to the phenomenon under study. For this study, this was critical in that it helped to improve validity and reliability aspects of the quantitative side of the mixed methods study; and to strengthen the trustworthiness view of the findings in the qualitative aspects of the data collection and presentation. Triangulation of sources was used to verify consistency of data sources within the same method. In this study, the researcher used sources of data that included female Principal Lecturers from different Teachers’ Training Colleges. For this study, the
researcher collected and generated quantitative and qualitative data respectively from different sources—interviews, questionnaires and by reviewing institutional documents related to the phenomenon. This helped to validate multiple data sources and findings through investigating diverse views of the gender issues as they relate to the research question (Taylor et al., 2007).

3.2.3 The Exploratory Study

In this study, the researcher also used exploratory studies approach in the sense that the researcher generated ideas about factors that impeded the advancement of women into management positions in Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe, something that had not been adequately or not researched on before. In the exploratory study, the main idea was the discovery of facts and insights through in-depth interviews of pertinent literature on the subject matter. The thrust of this study, therefore, was to elicit the most appropriate information from the respondents, provoking the respondents to share their experiences and inner feelings about their underrepresentation. In the case in point, the researcher allowed the female Principal Lecturers themselves to talk and empty their inner feelings about their position. They were the most affected lot and, therefore, needed to be given their space to be heard.

3.3 Population and Sampling Techniques

First, this study was a mixed methods research design. Therefore, the population selection methods were influenced by the research philosophy where participants were statistically and quantitatively sampled. Leedy and Ormrod (2013) views sampling as a process of selecting from a large population or ground that one wished to make general statements about so that the selected part became a representative of the ground.
Similarly, Cooper and Schindler (2006) understand sampling as a procedure used to select elements of a population that was used to infer characteristics of the population from which the sample was drawn. It was a process of selecting a few from a bigger group to become the basis for estimating or predicting a fact, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group (Kumar, 1999).

Furthermore, Zikmund (2012) points out that, for the quantitative sample, the formulae were developed to assist the choice of efficient sample size in order to limit estimation errors to particular levels. If the sample was large, the error in generalizing was lower and thus the sample became more representative. It was, therefore, essential to draw the sample from a population that would be generalised as it was done in this study. The sample was drawn from a national population of female Principal Lecturers and the results were representative of the population. Studying a sample was preferred to studying the entire population on account of saving on financial resources, greater control over data and accuracy of results, speed of data gathering and availability of population elements in case of distinctive testing (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Zikmund, 2012).

3.3.1 Target Population

The target population of this study was drawn from a population of 525 female lecturers inclusive of administrators. A population is a large pool of cases or elements from which a researcher draws a sample. A sample is a representation of a population. In other words, representative sample has all the important characteristics of a population from which it is drawn. Saunders et al., (2004) described a population as a full set of cases from which a sample is taken as illustrated in Table 3.1.
The target population in this study were female Principal Lecturers including those in management positions who were Principals, Vice-Principals, Heads of Departments/Divisions, Lecturers-In-Charge and Subject Heads in the Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe. The characteristics used were female Principal Lecturers who were the possible candidates for promotion. Table 3.1 shows the distribution of lecturers in the Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of College</th>
<th>No. of Female Lecturers</th>
<th>No. of Male Lecturers</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hillside Trs’ College</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belvedere Trs’ College</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United College of Education</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JMN Teachers’ College</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seke Trs’ College</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marymount Trs’ College</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morgan Zintec</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madziwa Trs’ College</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bondolfi Trs’ College</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masvingo Trs’ College</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morgenster Trs’ College</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyadire Trs’ College</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutare Trs’ College</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mkoba Trs’ College</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>525</strong></td>
<td><strong>671</strong></td>
<td><strong>1196</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: H/R Department: Ministry of Higher & Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development: March 2014

Given that lecturing and management was everyone’s responsibility and part of everyday life in Teachers’ Training Colleges, it was important that the sample was representative of Teacher Education. This meant drawing the sample from female Principal Lecturers who were the possible candidates for promotion into Vice Principals. This is the first promotion post in Teachers’ Training Colleges.

### 3.3.2 Target Sampling

Byrne (2001) defines sampling as the process of selecting a representative subset of observations from a population to determine the characteristics of the random variable
under study. Cooper and Schindler (2006) argue that with sampling, there is a greater opportunity to conduct quality interviews, achieve better supervision of the research team, investigate and verify any missing, wrong or suspicious information. Saunders et al. (2003) further affirm that a sample may be appropriate where there are budgets or time constraints or where it would not be possible to survey the whole population.

Several sampling techniques were adopted in this study and these include:

a) **Purposive Sampling.** Which was used with the sample that the researcher required for the qualitative data generation aspects of the research. In this context, the researcher purposely selected individuals who were rich in data sources for the study.

b) **Convenience Sampling.** The convenience sampling strategy was used with individuals who were also going to provide specific data related to the phenomenon. Such individuals had to have experience with the convenient information regarding the sub questions of the qualitative research aspects of the whole study.

c) **Random Sampling.** To use the random sampling approach, the researcher was looking at the population from a big-picture perspective in quantitative research sampling strategies. Because the researcher needed a representative sample for the quantitative methods section of the data collection processes, the researcher had to ensure all participants had equal opportunities for participating in the study through the random sampling approach.

### 3.3.2.1 Purposive Sampling

According to Saunders et al., (2003), purposive sampling enables a researcher to use his or her judgement to select cases which would best enable him or her
to answer research questions. Robson (2002) argued that this type of sampling technique was highly subjective and researcher biased because the researcher was the only person who knew the features or characteristics. This method is also not statistically representative of the total population (ibid). However, it was employed in this study because the researcher was the only one who knew elements that would provide the most sought responses.

In this study, purposive sampling was used to deal with the people to be interviewed. Purposive sampling involved selecting individuals that would yield the most information about the topic under discussion (Leedy and Ormrod, 2013). Interviewees were selected to own judgement in the case of key people such as the women in management positions at the Head Office of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe. This had the advantage that it targeted people with a lot of information on the subject of discussion such as the female Directors and Deputy Directors in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe.

The rationale for selective sampling was to get information from the women who had made it into the higher echelons of management and who had a traceable inclination into the field of education and who had spoken vociferously on the gender disparities in management in general.

3.3.2.2 Convenience Sampling

In convenience sampling, the researcher selects certain the respondents according to his convenience and no pre-planning is necessary for the selection (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Convenience Sampling involves
selecting persons who are easiest to reach for your sample. The sample selection process is continued until your required sample size has been reached.

In this research, however, this technique was adopted because the researcher sampled from the Teachers’ Training Colleges that were accessible and easy to reach. Out of the three Secondary Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe, the researcher selected two that he could easily access and these were located in Bulawayo and Harare. For the Primary Teachers’ Training Colleges, the researcher selected five out of a total of eleven and these were colleges in and around Bulawayo and Harare.

From the conveniently selected Teachers’ Training Colleges, the researcher drew up a sample from the female Principal Lecturing staff. Female Principals and female Vice Principals of the selected Teachers’ Training Colleges formed the management sample team that was to be interviewed. From the selected Teachers’ Training Colleges, there were two female Principals and three female Vice Principals.

3.3.2.3 Simple Random Sampling

Simple random sampling involves a sample being picked at random from the population. According to Saunders et al., (2012), the advantage of simple random sampling is that of giving an element an equal chance of being included in the sample and also reduces the bias of the researcher because he or she will not be aware of the elements which will be part of the sample. However, the disadvantage of this approach is that it is not convenient if the survey covers a large geographical area and requires face-to-face contact and it is also associated with huge travel costs.
In this study, from each of the selected Teachers’ Training College, a sample was randomly selected from the female Principal Lecturing staff that included middle management. Middle managers in Teachers’ Training Colleges comprised the Heads of Departments (HODs), the Lecturers-in Charge (LICs) and the Subject Heads (SHs). Generally, each Teachers’ Training College had more than three HODs, five LICs and ten SHs. These middle managers were also part of the lecturing staff that happened to be holding posts of special responsibilities over and above their lecturing loads.

From the total of female Principal Lecturing staff from each selected Teachers’ Training College, four were randomly selected and the sample included one Head of Department, one Lecturer-In-Charge and one Subject Head. Where no female Principal Lecturer held a post of special responsibility, a replacement came from the general female Principal Lecturing staff. The selection of the sample was done from the total list of female Principal Lecturers that were provided by the Human Resources Department of each Teachers’ Training College prior to conducting or distribution of the questionnaires.

### 3.3.3 Selecting Sample Elements

According to Zikmund (2012), a large sample consists of thirty or more sample elements while a small sample has less than thirty elements. In this study, the size of the female lecturers’ population was 525. This figure, multiplied by 5 per cent, translated to:

\[
5\% \times 525 = 26.25
\]
This figure, rounded off gave us 27. When divided by 7 it gave an answer of 3.857 rounded off to 4. Therefore, 4 female Principal Lecturers, exclusive of those women already in management, were then randomly selected from each of the selected Teachers’ Training Colleges. The total sample became 28. All the five female Principals and Vice Principals, when added to the 28, provided a total sample of 33. This sample was representative enough of the population and large enough to limit estimation errors.

3.4 Data Collection Techniques

There are two classification types of data sources that is, primary and secondary data. Primary data, according to Wegner (1995) is data captured at the point where it is generated. Such data is captured for the first time and with a specific purpose in mind. On the other hand, secondary data is data collected and processed by others for a purpose other than the problem at hand. Such data are already in existence either within or outside an organisation (Wegner, 1995). This type of data is generally less expensive to acquire and access time is relatively minimal.

**Qualitative Data:** In the study, under the qualitative research design, the researcher gathered primary data through telephone interviews. Telephone interviews were conducted with female Vice Principals and female Principals from the selected Teachers’ Training Colleges.

**Quantitative Data:** On the other hand, for the quantitative side of the mixed methods approach, the researcher used self-administered questionnaires. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to all female Principal Lecturers sampled for this study.
3.4.1 Qualitative Data Collection - Interviews

This data collection method elicits primary data responses through direct questioning. There are three approaches to gather interview data, that is, personal interviews, postal surveys or postal questionnaires and telephone surveys. According to Robson (2002), interviews undertaken for research or enquiry purposes are a very commonly used approach. The author goes further to illustrate that an interview appears quite straightforward and an easy way of finding out things and it allows room for further probing of interesting responses. Other advantages of this method are that there is a higher response rate achieved, data collection is immediate, data accuracy is achieved, non-verbal cues can be observed and generally more questions can be asked.

However, researcher bias and time constraints cannot be ruled out in the use of this method. In this study, the researcher opted for telephone interviews because face-to-face interaction was not easy to conduct because of the busy schedules of the intended lot. However, it is generally the practise that one can say anything he or she wants to say in a telephone conversation which he or she would not have said face-to-face. Face-to-face interviews tend to intimidate the interviewee because of the heavy eye contact and the status of the interviewer.

3.4.2 Quantitative Data Collection - Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a data gathering instrument used to gather data in all interview situations. Saunders et al., (1997) pointed out that a questionnaire is a general term used to describe all techniques of data collection in which each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order. They further classify the questionnaire into two broad categories, the interviewer-administered and the self-administered questionnaire. According to
Collins and Hussey (2003), a questionnaire is a list of carefully structured questions chosen after considerable testing with a view of eliciting reliable responses from a chosen sample. The interviewer-administered questionnaires include the telephone and structured interviews while the self-administered questionnaires include the electronic or on-line questionnaires, postal questionnaires, delivery and collection questionnaires.

Many advantages go with the use of this method of data collection. They permit respondents time to consider their responses carefully without interference from the researcher. It is possible to provide questionnaires to large numbers of people simultaneously, there is uniformity as each respondent receives the identical set of questions, responses are standardized and this can assist in interpreting from large numbers of respondents. It can also address a number of issues and questions of concern in a relatively efficient way with the possibility of a high response rate. They can also be mailed to respondents and they permit anonymity. Bryman and Bell (2007) also asserts that this instrument is administrable to large numbers of people at the same time.

However, there are also disadvantages associated with this method. It may be difficult to obtain a good response rate and often there is no strong motivation for respondents to respond. This instrument is complex and, if badly designed, can be misleading and it can also be unsuitable for evaluation. If probing is required, there is usually no real possibility for following up on answers and the quality of data is probably not as high as with alternative methods of data collection such as personal interviewing. However, the researcher used this method for data generation from female Principal Lecturers throughout this study.
Commenting on some of the disadvantages of this instrument, Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) claimed that the low rate response falls within the region of 20 percent to 40 percent compared to that of personal or face-to-face interviews which has about 95 percent response rate. In this study, the response rate of the questionnaires was 93% and face-to-face interview 40%. Rate of response depended on the status of the respondents and the type of employment respondents are involved in. However, this low interview response rate did not affect the findings of this study because the few who gave the interview were still representative of the sampled lot. More so, the affected lot had participated through responding to the questionnaire.

3.4.2.1 Questionnaire Structure

The questions posed in the questionnaires were meant to cover as much ground as possible that had been raised in the literature review related to this study in an attempt to answering the research questions set in Chapter one. In the process, caution was taken to ensure that the questions did not become too vague and loose meaning in interpretation. Kumar (1999) and Zikmund (2012) underscore the importance of clearly formulated research questions in formulating interview questions. In this research, the questionnaire targeted female Principal Lecturers, middle management and top management of Teachers’ Training Colleges. The questionnaire had three sections structured thus:-

Section A: - bio data that included age; academic level; highest qualification; duration in Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development and post held among other attributes.
Section B: covered awareness of gender disparity issues or gender issues in general in the form of closed – ended questions. These questions were meant to expose the general attitudes of people on gender related issues.

Section C: looked at the relevance of gender discourse issues/discussions and the buy-in from female Principal Lecturers as an important constituency as identified in the literature review and directing responses to answering the research questions. The questions were open-ended.

The main focus of this study concerned women. It was, therefore, prudent to concentrate on women since they were the affected lot and they were the ones who had the most sort information that this study set to unravel, answering to the broad question of their absence in the higher echelons of management of Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe.

3.4.2.2 Open-Ended Questions

These questions elicited true opinions or attitudes and identified how strongly attitudes were held. They were also flexible and encouraged the respondents to answer the way they wished.

3.5 Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation Procedures

After determining the method of collecting data, the researcher discussed how data were to be recorded, presented, analysed and interpreted. The researcher also put forward preliminary ideas for writing up the analysis or representing it in some other format.
3.5.1 Data presentation

According to Saunders et al., (2013), data presentation is a method used to facilitate the summarisation and communication of the meaning of data. The researcher recorded the data in a systematic manner that was appropriate for the settings in order to facilitate its meaning. For this study, the researcher continuously demonstrated an awareness that the techniques for data collection would not intrude excessively on the flow of daily events at any of the selected Teachers’ Training Colleges. The data were presented in raw form, item-by-item and question by question, in order to make the analysis relevant and succinct. The capturing of data were done as the data began to trickle in.

3.5.2 Data Analysis Strategies

For this study, two types of data were collected—quantitative and qualitative. To ensure that this triangulation discussed earlier continued as a research theme, this researcher analysed the data separately first and then compared the findings to discover patterns. For the quantitative data, the researcher used the SPSS with the help of experts in the area. NVIVO software was used to analyse the quantitative data for themes and categories that may be used to confirm what the quantitative data will have discovered. Qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships and underlying themes. It builds on grounded theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1997).

Guided by the model provided by Patton, (2002), this budding researcher used preliminary research questions and the related literature developed in Chapter 2 as guidelines for data analysis. Patton (2002) accepts that qualitative data analysis transformed generated information into findings without the use of a
formula. As data were being gathered, the researcher listed, through the use of a laptop, that data that had been gathered, performing the minor editing necessary to make field notes retrievable, and generally cleaning up what seemed overwhelming.

Responses from each question were recorded under that particular question for ease of analysis. Responses to each question were analysed collectively. The researcher entered the data into a software programme called Nvivo designed for the management or the analysis of qualitative data (Richards & Richards, 1994).

Qualitative methods generate huge volumes of data. Sitting down and making sense out of pages of interviews can be overwhelming. Organising and analysing a mountain of narratives can seem like an impossible task (Patton, 2002). To avert this, the researcher entered the gathered data as it was being received to avoid amassing a lot thereby becoming tedious to capture.

3.5.3 Data Interpretation Procedures

Interpretation refers to the analysis of generalisation and results. Through interpretation, the meaning and implication of the study become clear. The researcher related the research findings to the reviewed literature. The researcher highlighted how the findings were supported by the reviewed literature related to this study. The researcher demonstrated how the findings related to patriarchy theory and other gender supporting theories. The study exposed the challenges encountered by female Principal Lecturers in Zimbabwe’s Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development’s Teachers’ Training Colleges, vis-à-vis, the ideal
situation enunciated in various Government Legislative Instruments such as the National Gender Policy of 2002. The study also sought to increase public consciousness as to the factors that impeded the advancement of women into management positions in the Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe. Thus, any proposals to change or deal with women’s advancements into the higher echelons of management at policy making levels required knowledge of and about women’s existing situation.

3.6 Ensuring Reliability During Data Analysis

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2006), there are as multifarious angles or perspectives of understanding the data. Thus, the issue of validity is rather subjective when dealing with qualitative data. It is upon this light that Patton (2002) suggests the need to triangulate the data to facilitate objective measurements of the data. To this end, to test the reliability of the research instrument that is used, the researcher computed the Cronbach’s Alpha based on the open-coded dataset, the latter of which was regarded by many research scholars as the de facto standard measurement of instrument reliability, that is, Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), Bryman and Bell (2007), and Zikmund (2012). The results are shown in Table 3.2:

Table 3.2: Reliability Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.783</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Zikmund (2012), the lower threshold for an acceptable reliability statistic is 0.70. From the research results, a substantially high Cronbach’s Alpha statistic of 0.783 was computed. This being higher than 0.7, it therefore suggests that the research
The qualitative data emerged from the participants that were purposefully selected. During the purposive selection, the researcher ensured that the participants shared certain characteristics that related to the phenomenon that was under study. The researcher then discussed these characteristics as offered by research literature Kreuger (1994).

3.6.1 Characteristics of a Focus Group

1. The researcher ensured that the group formed the recommended size of focus group of 6 – 10 people. This is because any group fewer than the 6-10 would reduce the potential for the spread of collective information. The researcher did not allow the group to be larger than this size because research experts suggest that it would make it difficult for all participants to interact and add value to the research findings.

2. At every station, the researcher ran at least more than just one focus group in this single research project because he was guided by the strata that he used for the quantitative side of the study. The researcher wanted to rely on the views of more groups for purposes of triangulation as discussed. This helped the possibility of one group being subjected to unforeseen factors beyond the investigator’s conscious knowledge. This strategy helped to reduce findings that would have an idiosyncratic skewedness. In this case, multiple groups helped to provide adequate breadth and depth of information while the smaller group size ensured achievement of detail. According to Kreuger, (1994), researchers should
not place an upper limit on the number of focus group interviews that
could be held although this will be limited by financial resources.

3. All the selected participants for the diverse focus group had something
in common, specifically characteristics which were important to the
topic of investigation. In this study, they were all members of higher
education profession in Zimbabwe and in most cases they were all from
the same institution per group. Participants from each institution knew
each other, including some across institutions and there were some
advantages and disadvantages to both.

4. As may be noted from the research question, the qualitative data that
was collected was related to the participants’ feelings, perceptions and
opinions which tied seamlessly into the research focus of this study
although it was time consuming.

3.7 Validity Assessment

Validity refers to the extent to which we are measuring what we hope to measure vis-à-
vis what we think we are measuring (Shadish et al., 2002; Wohlin et al., 2000; Polit et
al., 2004). Guba and Lincoln (1994) established the criteria for qualitative analysis, and
amongst the most relevant, is the credibility criterion (Shenton, 2004). The credibility
criteria entails that we establish the results of a qualitative research whether they are
credible from the perspective of the respondent. Since from this standpoint, the
intention of qualitative research was to understand the phenomena from the
respondent’s perspective, these respondents were the only ones who could justifiably
establish the integrity of the results (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).
3.8 Ethical and Legal Considerations

This study was very sensitive and it involved and evoked a lot of emotions that could have been misconstrued as political. It was, therefore, essential to convince the participants of confidentiality of identity and information. Conditions of anonymity were over-emphasised and no name of participant and/or even the Teachers’ Training College name were to be written on any of the questionnaires. The researcher was the only one who knew which data were collected from which Teachers’ Training College but he also never knew the individual who had supplied it.

To make sure that each participant understood what they were expected to do, the researcher explained in the introductory part of the questionnaire why the participant was the most appropriate to supply that information. It was really the participant’s involvement in the Teachers’ Training College that was essential in this study because of the experience and the unique positions to critique the gender discourse or rather gender disparity persistence in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development.

All the data collected were only used for the purposes of writing this thesis and publications related to the thesis. The researcher explained the purpose of the study to all the informants and they, in turn, were allowed to ask any questions regarding anything that they wanted to know about the study.

During the study, the researcher scheduled all data-collection sessions in such a manner that the exercise did not interfere with the smooth operation of the selected Teachers’ Training College processes. No participant was forced to divulge any information and those that did not want to participate when they were sampled were free to withdraw.
from the exercise. Relatives, associates and friends of the researcher were not invited to participate since their contributions were going to be biased towards the researcher’s intentions. The participants also had the right not to respond to any questions they felt uncomfortable answering.

3.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter looked at the research methodology describing the theoretical aspects of the research paradigm, research design, population, sampling and data collection instruments justifying, in each instance, the approaches that were chosen. Triangulation was employed in choosing the various sampling and data collection methods. The data collection process mainly depended on questionnaires. The following chapter presents the findings, analysis and interpretation of the collected data from the research.
CHAPTER FOUR
Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

4.0 Introduction

The preceding chapter presented the methodology and the methods which were used to collect the data for this research thesis. Chapter four covers the presentation of the collected data, giving an analysis of it and the interpretation thereof. The qualitative thematic treatment of the findings was done, and computer-aided quantification of the unstructured responses was done as prescribed by Hommer (2012) to help in the triangulation of the research findings. As data were presented, the researcher interpreted it comparatively and contrastingly with the views from the reviewed literature related to this study.

4.1 Summary of the background data of the respondents

4.1.1 Demographic Data

In this research, the respondent profiles were conducted with respect to their age range, highest academic qualification, marital status, and years of service in the ministry. In research, characteristics of the respondents have a very substantial role to play in their respective responses about a problem, for instance, the effects on potential outcomes such as perceptions, levels of awareness et cetera. (Zedeck & Cascio, 1994). In view of the above authority, this study collected the demographic data to help gather knowledge of the respondents in relation to the subject under discussion.
4.1.2 Age Range

From the research outcome, the distribution of the age ranges was characteristically normal, with the majority of the respondents, 44%, lying within the 41-50 year age range. There was an equal distribution of the respondents in the 31-40 years and 51 years and above age group. This data were essential in this study to help the study identify the age range of the respondents who would either be interested in the promotion to management and the reasons thereof. To ascertain the key variables that age range had an influence on, decision tree analysis was run, with CHAID as the tree growing method and the outcome is shown in the following Figure 4.2:
From the analysis above, this researcher deduced that the key variable that was directly linked to the age range of the respondents was their perceptions on cultural male egotism, from which those between 41-50 years were not significantly affected by cultural male egotism, while those between 31-40 years were very affected.

### 4.1.3 Highest Level of Education

![Figure 4.3: Highest Level of Education Distribution](image)
From the figure above, the majority of the respondents (73.1%) had a Master's degree as their highest level of education. Those who had a Bachelor's degree were only 23.1%, with only one respondent having a Diploma as the highest level of education. A lecturer holding a Diploma at a Teachers’ Training College was as a result that the concerned subject area would be a critical shortage area like in Music Education, Physical Education, Art and Design and Theatre Arts where there were no degree persons to tape from. The two female Vice Principals and the female Principal interviewed were all holders of Masters Degrees.

With a view to establishing the key variables that had an influence on the highest level of education or vice versa, decision tree analysis was run, with CHAID as the tree growing method, and the resultant tree is illustrated in Figure 4.4:

![Decision Tree Image]

**Figure 4.4: Highest Level of Education Decision Tree**

From the above tree, it could be deduced that age range was the only influence variable that had an impact on the academic qualifications. Overall, the majority of those who had a Master’s qualification were essentially above 40 years, whereas those who had a
Bachelor’s qualification were within the 31-40 year age group. Age might be a contributing factor to the absence of women in the higher echelons of management in Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe. This could be mainly as a result of the growing need to attain self-actualization as one ages, as people generally tend to advance their education from one level to the next as they grow up. In practice, generally, the academia tend to start with the lower levels of education in their younger years, that is diplomas, then undergraduate level, then post-graduate diplomas, then masters degrees, then doctorate degrees, and they keep on advancing their education.

4.1.4 Marital Status

![Figure 4.5: Marital Status Distribution](image)

From the figure above, out of the 26 respondents, 21 (80.8%) were married. Only 4 respondents (15.4%) were single, and only 1 (3.8%) respondent was widowed as illustrated by Figure 4.5 above. The 26 respondents included the 23 female Principal Lecturers, two female Vice Principals and one female Principal. This illustration shows that the majority of the respondents were married and this might be the reason why they were not keen in taking up promotion that would take them away from their homes. They wanted to remain in their homes with their families. The two female Vice Principals were
both married and had been promoted in the same institutions they had always worked at but the Female Principal was not married and had never been married before. Her first appointment as Vice Principal was at a different College from the one she had worked as a Principal Lecturer. Her appointment as Principal was also at a different College from where she was a Vice Principal.

4.1.5 Years of Service in the Ministry as Principal Lecturers

The greatest distribution of respondents comprised those who had served 1-5 years (36%). The second dominant cluster had served for 11-15 years (24%) followed by those who had served for 6-10 years (20%). However, the least distribution of respondents was those who had served in the ministry for more than 16 years as illustrated in Figure 4.6 above. The duration a respondent had had in the Teachers’ Training College might have been one of the variables that contributed to the absence of female managers.
There is this general belief that the longer one stays at the same place, the less chances of that individual opting to leave it. He or she becomes part of the culture of that place. This information assisted the researcher in coming up with possible reasons for absence of women in Teachers’ Training Colleges management.

The two female Vice Principals had each spent more than twenty years as Principal Lecturers but the female Principal had spent only eleven years as Principal Lecturer before she was elevated to Vice Principal. This female Principal spent another six years as Vice Principal before she was promoted to her present grade. She said that she was appointed Vice Principal away from the College where she was Principal Lecturer and her elevation to Principalship was also to a different college which was rural.

A decision tree model to help explain which variables were influenced largely by the number of years of service in the ministry is illustrated in Figure 4.7:

![Decision Tree](image)

**Figure 4.7: Years of Service Decision Tree**

From the above illustration, it could be deduced that respondents who had worked less years in the ministry had a very positive view of the government providing enough
support to encourage women to participate in the higher echelons of management. However, those who had worked in the ministry for 20 years and above had a negative view, suggesting that the government did not provide enough support. This could also be interpreted as emanating from fatigue and frustration influencing the perceptions of those members who had served the ministry longer. It might also mean that those who had lesser duration could still be hopeful that the situation might change and they get afforded a chance to be promoted.

4.3 **Ability to work anywhere on promotion**

The first question sought to ascertain the willingness of the Principal Lecturers to take up senior positions, and the respondents were asked if they were able to work anywhere in Zimbabwe upon promotion. An overview of the responses from the word frequency analysis of the coded corpus from the responses to this question is illustrated diagrammatically as a word cloud in Figure4.8:

![Figure 4.8: Ability to Work Anywhere Word Cloud](image)

From the assessment of the word cloud, it was apparent that family was taking centre stage in the factors influencing the willingness of the respondents to work anywhere on promotion. Their willingness was rather shrouded with mixed feelings, and three
response categories were coded, that is, those that said yes, those that said no, and those that were indifferent, with conditions. Due to socialisation, women feel a lot more insecure to work far away from their family. Most women regard men as not capable of looking after the home and their absence from home might be disastrous. This one female Principal interviewed said that she had no one to consult on whether to take up the promotion or not but had the freedom to make decisions about her life. The two female Vice Principals interviewed said that they would prefer to be promoted in their current stations because of their marital status.

4.3.1 Wiling Respondents

Table 4.1: Responses from the Questionnaire - Willing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Advancement</td>
<td><em>I am able to work anywhere in Zimbabwe because first and foremost, I believe in career development (self-actualisation) hence no geographical setting would hinder my progress in terms of career advancement.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compliance</td>
<td><em>It is a matter of being conversant with policies governing your position. Where I am needed, I am willing to go.</em> I am a Zimbabwean so I serve the entire nation. I should be able to take up any position anywhere in the country as I have a democratic right to do so!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td><em>I am flexible; Conversant with all the languages.</em> I am able to work anywhere in Zimbabwe. However it has to be pointed out that there are limitations though especially with regards the fact that each community is a unique. Each college has its own ways of doing things.* I am very free to work anywhere around the country now that my children are all in secondary and tertiary education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior-experience</td>
<td><em>I am very much able to work anywhere in Zimbabwe because I have taught in various schools across the country, am conversant with the basic languages of this country and has generally travelled across Zimbabwe mingling with different people/different cultures.</em> I am qualified and competent and very experienced in these institutions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ten respondents were generally willing to work anywhere in Zimbabwe on promotion, and their respective responses are shown thematically in the Table 4.1 above. From the categorizations of the key nodes in Nvivo, there were four main factors that were seen
to be driving the willingness of the respondents, which were: career advancement, compliance, flexibility and prior experience. Career advancement is a preoccupation of all because it satisfies their esteem needs as expounded by Maslow in the Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. However, women are most probably limited by certain familial and cultural obligations such as the care giving and child bearing roles hence their flexibility are rather compromised.

4.3.2 Not Willing Respondents

Table 4.2: Responses from the Questionnaire - Not Willing Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>For fear of establishing a new home at my late age when I am about to retire. Before, I could have gone anywhere in the world, for then I was young and deprived of that opportunity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Commitments</td>
<td>Family commitments require my working in the vicinity of the family home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have a family and children of school going age.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have a family to take care of. It cannot be moved around willy-nilly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Issue of family, that is, spouse and children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Costs in running separate homes and the attending to social problems of living in separation especially if married.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Besides my career there other roles that I play in the family. It will become difficult for me to relocate to a place where my family cannot join me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It would be difficult to work out of town because that would affect my children’s education since I would have to transfer them which would be unlikely.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third classification of the respondents was generally characterised by those respondents who would out rightly reject the promotion, and their responses were shown in the thematic Table 4.2 above. Categorising their responses in Nvivo established two main factors behind the reasons for their not being interested and these were age and family commitments. The latter stood out to be the most significant factor as all but one respondent among those that denied expressly mentioned the family as being the inhibitor. The issue of family commitments seemed to be dominating. It can
be deduced then that women are not easily separable from their families if it meant promotion hence their absence in management of Teachers’ Training Colleges.

Decision tree analysis was run using CHAID as the tree growing method, with the willingness as the response variable and with all other nodes as the predictor variables. From the analysis, it came out that the key variable directly influencing their decision was not linked to any demographical data, or any other variable, but to the reason they gave for being able or not being able to work anywhere.

The decision tree output put forward that family commitments and age were the primary factors in the decision process. This demonstrated that women were most likely to turn down the promotion especially when they had school-going children and heading towards retirement. On the other hand, given that remuneration and conditions of service would take precedence in the decision process, it was most likely that this would be presented as a condition, that is, a marginal to no increment in the remuneration would most likely result in the promotion not being taken up. However, in cases characterized by the need for career advancement, it was most likely that the promotion would be accepted despite any other conditions that may otherwise stand in their way. Over and above, those who were essentially flexible, servile and had prior experience in being placed in several institutions across the country were most likely to take up the promotion.

The summarised findings are presented in the Figure 4.9 below. However, although mentioned, it may not be the case that all of the above mentioned factors really influenced the willingness of female lecturers to work anywhere on promotion.
Figure 4.9: Model - Ability to Work Anywhere on Promotion

Source: Researcher’s Conception

It follows from the analysis that the major factor influencing the willingness to go anywhere in Zimbabwe on promotion was the issue of family commitments. These results were coherent with the literature which specified that women were often faced with tensions between their traditional roles of wife and mother and their career. This was known as ‘role-conflict’. It was a situation where a woman was torn between her 'career and her family' (Tinsley, 1984, Greyvenstein, 2000, Gravett, 2000, Heward, 1996). Consequently a woman’s aspiration to leadership and management could be hampered. Guilt at having to pay more attention to her career rather than to family, partly because societal norms dictated that her first responsibility was to her family,
also played a part. In many instances, married women had to compromise their own promotion prospects and interrupt their careers because of their husband’s job when they moved with him from place to place (Sutherland, 1985). Social mobility (moving from place to place) then became another hurdle for women attempting to be upwardly mobile in their own careers.

4.4 **Response to vacancy notices that will take you out of your present station**

The respondents were further asked whether they would respond to vacancy notices that would take them out of their present station. As with the preceding section, there were three main node classifications that were extracted from the analysis using Nvivo, and these categories included those who would unanimously respond, those who would respond, but conditionally and those who would not respond at all. To further enquire into this scenario, content analysis was done to the qualitative responses and the results are presented below.

**4.4.1 Willing to respond to vacancy notices**

It was worthy to mention that only three respondents were expressly willing to respond to the vacancy notices as illustrated in Table 4.3 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional Growth</td>
<td>Yes I do because that increases my probability of getting to new heights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better Remuneration</td>
<td>In the quest to look for greener pastures.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of those that responded, the major reasons behind them applying were professional growth and prospects for a better remuneration as shown in the Table 4.3 above.
The consolidated illustration of all these factors is presented in the Figure 4.10.

From the results in Figure 4.10, NO and CONDITIONAL outcomes were dimensionally close together, an indication of their rather association. Family commitments as an influencing variable dimensionally lay in-between both possible outcomes suggesting its influence on both outcomes. In spite of the influence of family commitments, it should be noted that the main significant determinant of CONDITIONAL responses in this case was the remuneration and conditions of service for the advertised posts. On the other hand, the main determinant of YES outcomes could be seen to be professional growth. Further correspondence analysis results were presented in the Figure 4.11 below:
Figure 4.11: Correspondence Analysis

The predictor importance of each of the determinants of the willingness of respondents to respond to job posting could be seen from their relative mass computations. The figure above clearly distinguishes the most significant determinants as family commitments, the issue of remuneration and also not having enough qualifications.

4.4.2 Not willing to respond to vacancy notices

This section analysed the responses of those who were not keen to respond to vacancy notices presented thematically in Table 4.4 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td>I used to, but not anymore. Reason being my old age after having failed in my younger days.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family Commitments</strong></td>
<td>As above.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I value family ties and being close to my family, relocation from home would inconvenience the family.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Self-development should not be at the expense of other valuable social values.

Family concerns are a priority. Working out of my present station may limit/hinder progress with regards home development and management. Children are a concern if mother is away from home.

No, family stability, children changing schools, for example those in private schools and out there, there are no such school. Men are not compatible to let wives go out for opportunities but they can leave you at home even if you lose a good opportunity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fear of Change</th>
<th>Not interested in the vacancies.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A new environment brings with it many challenges that affect work. Moving from my current station under the current government conditions of service would be a disadvantage.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not Qualified</th>
<th>Because they usually consider those in acting positions or those who have acted before or are nearer to those positions.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I need to gain more experience in this field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When they last advertised I had not acquired the necessary qualifications and experience required for the posts I so desired.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes, for those for which I qualify. What would be the point of applying for what I don’t qualify for?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At the moment I’m still junior in the system but when I am due for promotion, I definitely will because as a person I aspire to be a leader one day.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the assessment of node classifications in Nvivo, it came out that there were four main factors negatively influencing the willingness of respondents to respond to vacancy notices and these were Age, Family Commitments, Fear of Change and Lack of Qualifications. The themes and the corresponding thematic codifications were presented in Table 4.4 above. It appeared that family commitments and the lack of qualifications were the main factors that had the greatest impact on the willingness of the respondents. Family commitments continue to surface indicating that women in Higher Education may not necessarily be unwilling to respond to vacancy notices but their families came first. So, such chances will then be taken up by men. Lack of academic qualifications might perhaps be some type of deterrent that could easily be
overcome with time. The two female Vice Principals interviewed indicated that they would not consider any promotion that would take them away from their present stations. They said that they would rather retire as Vice Principals than to be posted far away from their established homes.

### 4.4.3 Conditional Respondents

#### Table 4.5: Responses from the Questionnaire - Conditional

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proximity of Family</strong></td>
<td>Would need to move my family along.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>I am as I can speak most of the major languages in the country. However, the hitch may be in the possibility of the family coming with me to wherever I will be.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>As long as the conditions will allow me to move in with my family.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>I would prefer to work in Bulawayo and Matabeleland only. Other regions I would face problems in communication especially the language. I also want to be with my family which is based in Bulawayo.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Difficult to leave the family behind under my husband, and culturally it is a very abnormal set up. Can only take the position if I am to take my family with me.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Remuneration and Conditions</strong></td>
<td>As long as there are basic necessities of life afforded at all times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>I wouldn’t really mind on the distance what I will consider are benefits not money because there is no money as long as you are in government set up.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>If accommodation is provided and if language would not be a barrier to my children’s progress at school then I would take the offer.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second cluster of respondents were those who were conditional, that is, those who were willing, if certain conditions that they specified were to be met. Responses were categorised in themes as indicated in the table above. Following the categorization of the responses into nodes in Nvivo, two main conditions were given by the respondents, and these were proximity of family and remuneration/benefits as presented in Table 4.5 above. The first condition given meant that the respondents were more willing to be promoted anywhere in Zimbabwe given that their families would have to move along...
with them. The second condition given was that these respondents would be more interested given that the promotion would come along with significant benefits. This information was beneficial in this study in that it gave some of the reasons why women would not be willing to take up promotion away from their family homes.

The other cluster comprised the respondents who were rather conditional as presented in Table 4.6 below:

**Table 4.6: Conditional Respondents 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family proximity</strong></td>
<td>As long as they are within my region for same reason in No. 10.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Starting to work in a new environment presents challenges. It is not easy for a woman to relocate and be joined by the spouse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provided it is still in the same town or district.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Professional Growth</strong></td>
<td>I do, if they are going to help me achieve myself actualisation status. This is so because my children are now grown up but I have a fear at times of whether I will be welcome in those areas the way I am at my current station.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Remuneration/Conditions</strong></td>
<td>I consider the rewards if elsewhere are better paying I will opt to leave.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>So far I haven’t as I have just attained my masters. My aim is to look for greener pastures. If not green then a better status core.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If the other position is a promotion and has better remuneration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provided the vacancy would have a higher remuneration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I do especially if they are better paying and are in town.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Firstly, I respond to notices that will enable me to advance professionally because nobody wants to remain in one grade indefinitely. Secondly, I respond when there is a possibility to earn a better salary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the analysis of the table above, three main conditions were presented and these included family proximity, professional growth and remuneration. The respondents were more willing to respond to vacancy notices provided that they would be within the same town or district with the family, and if the vacancy would come along with better
remuneration. Same town or district with the family meant that women are not keen to leave their families unattended. The issue of professional growth might not be a deterrent because one can professionally grow anywhere but remuneration might be a contributory factor. The first promotion post at a Teachers’ Training College is from Principal Lecturer to a Vice Principal. The deterrent might be in the salary gap. According to information obtained from the Human Resources Department of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development, the Vice Principal earns about $50 above the Principal Lecturer’s salary and parallel progression can even push the Principal Lecturer to earn more than the Vice Principal. That difference might be so insignificant to women that they may not sacrifice their families for that much. They value their families more than the profession.

4.4.3.1 Decision Tree Analysis of factors influencing response to vacancies

Having seen the major categorizations of the responses, to establish hidden connections within the data, the decision tree analysis was performed with the CHAID algorithm as the tree growing method. The resultant decision tree is shown in Figure 4.12 below:
Figure 4.12: Response to Vacancy Notices – Decision Tree

From the analysis of the parent node, it could be seen that Overall, the greater majority were rather not willing to respond to vacancy notices. From the assessment of the primary child node, the major factors behind them not to be willing to respond were family commitments, fear of change and that they were not qualified. With regards to the terminal nodes on this branch, it could be seen that the greater magnitude of those who would not respond (100%) were largely those who did not have enough qualifications, and those with a fear of change.

However, there was an equal distribution between those who would not respond and those who would be conditional, given that family commitments would be factored in the decision process. In this regard, the key differentiator was seen to
be the number of years of service. From the tree diagram above, those who had
11 years of service or more in the ministry were more likely to respond, while those with less than 10 years were more likely to give conditions. On the other hand, remuneration and professional growth were the key issues that would influence a conditional response to vacancy notices.

4.4.3.2 Drivers and Deterrents of Passive and Active Responses to Promotion

The above sections sought to establish the factors that mainly influenced the progression of female Principal Lecturers to the higher echelons of management in Teachers’ Training Colleges. The first aspect, which sought to determine the factors that influenced their decision to accept or not to accept promotion offered anywhere in Zimbabwe, essentially, laid out the drivers and deterrents influencing the passive response of female Principal Lecturers to potential empowerment. On the other hand, the latter aspect assessing the factors influencing their willingness to respond to job vacancy notices again established the drivers and deterrents to their active response to potential empowerment to the higher echelons of management. To aid the proximal evaluation of these drivers and deterrents, the non-parametric correspondence analysis was again availed of, with the rows representing passive responses, and columns representing active responses.

4.4.3.3 Passive Response

Two outliers were noted, that is, age and compliance. From the foregoing, it follows then that the major drivers for the passive response of female lecturers to their empowerment to the higher echelons of management in Teachers’ Training Colleges included the need for career advancement, flexibility and,
prior experience, while the only other significant deterrent included family commitments and remuneration and conditions of service.

4.4.3.4 Active Response

The summarized and consolidated model for the driving and deterring factors influencing the rise of female principal lecturers into the higher echelons of management are illustrated in the Figure 4.13 below:

![Figure 4.13: Model: Drivers and Deterrents of Passive and Active responses to promotion](source: Researcher’s Conception)

From the above model, active response to the need to reach out to the higher echelons of management is mainly driven by better remuneration and career advancement, while the lack of enough qualifications and family commitments strongly deters them. On the other hand, passive response to the drive to reach out to the higher echelons of management is driven by the need for career advancement, prior-experience, which, otherwise, helps instill confidence in
them, and also their relative flexibility. On the other hand, the major constraints
to the passive response to promotion by the respondents are family
commitments and remuneration, if it is not competitive for them.

4.5 Reasons for the low Participation of Women

From the research, issues raised by the respondents are shown in Table 4.7:

Table 4.7: Reasons for Low Participation of Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Working away from home.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2. | a. Have lots of commitment, e. g. family and work.  
   b. Not given the opportunity.  
   c. Their decisions and ideas are undermined by men.  
   d. Not supported by spouses (usually strongly discouraged). |
| 3. | The problem could be the issue of family responsibility and issues of achieving positions based on seniority, most women delayed acquiring higher qualification before affirmative action. |
| 4. | Males tend to side-line females; one has to work twice as hard as males to be recognised. |
| 5. | Women have different social expectations, even when in positions than men. One is a wife and a boss and both duties have to be carried out effectively/efficiently. The home front is more demanding for women than it is of men. |
| 6. | The way women are socialised has a bias towards non-management position. |
| 7. | Personally I think this is taking a great shift and is balancing. |
| 8. | Women have always been undermined and most cases they are never empowered. So that really demoralises women, it’s like they don’t have a backbone. |
| 9. | In educational set up, what hinders women mostly for participation is the academic achievements though we may consider empowerment but to a lesser extent. |
| 10. | ✓ Complacency on the part of women.  
    ✓ Lack of assertiveness and firmness on part of many women leaders.  
    ✓ Lack pre-requisite qualifications as men continue to advance when women attend to family issues, child bearing etc. |
| 11. | ✓ Men have always been given the posts ahead of women, even in acting posts its only men who nominate each other.  
    ✓ Those women in posts of responsibility are despised by their women folk and other men as well. |
| 12. | I feel women are afraid of challenges in big institutions. They want to confine themselves to the small geographical areas of schools. |
| 13. | Bias from the Directors. If you are not the favourite you do not budge. |
| 14. | Sometimes women do not have confidence especially when they are to head males, and also lack of self-esteem. |
| 15. | ✓ Fear of being sent to institutions which take them away from their...
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Lack of confidence and low self-esteem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Fear of the unknown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>- Socio-cultural factors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Patriarch society mentality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Low qualifications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>The trend is changing nowadays. More women are now participating in management positions than before. The patriarchal system is to blame for the previous low participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Some women have low self-esteem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I think the trend will change eventually. Women had been disadvantaged before. However most women are taking up management position now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>The major cause for this persistent low participation should be the influence of gender role and these manifests in the form of low self-esteem, lack of confidence, women’s perception that their role in the family overrides all other roles. Women also lack support from the home and work place hence they never make any attempts to respond to vacancy notices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Limited opportunity/lack of qualification due to family commitments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Women are not comfortable in working in institutions away from their families.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 23. | The following are my reasons  
|    | - Low confidence of women on other women – given a chance women, never support other women and in a case where they are the majority it is discouraging for prospective management post seekers.  
|    | - Most women lack confidence in themselves and lack boldness to be felt and therefore cannot succeed during interviews. |
| 24. | Gender sensitivity was not taken seriously in the past. It was okay for men only to lead. There is also a block, a wall-like in terms of attitude of the males already in the system, they pass it down to say it is a position for men only. You feel it and you are intimidated, why bother? |
| 25. | Women are not given the same opportunities as their male counterparts, because those in higher positions are male and seem to favour having male in higher positions. |
| 26. | a. Women lack self-esteem – they look down upon themselves and still feel that they cannot perform like their male counterparts yet they make the best leaders.  
|    | - Culturally women still feel that men should be heads of institutions. |

The above responses were subjected to content analysis with the aid of Nvivo and the key nodes were tagged accordingly. Subsequently, seven major attributes were extracted and these were:

a. Family Commitments  
b. Lack of Opportunity
c. Patriarchal System  
d. Not Qualified  
e. Lack of Husband Support  
f. Lack of Confidence and  
g. Low Self-Esteem  

All these seven points could be emanating from gender related issues that could be part of the deterents to women’s advancement to higher echelons of management. Quantifying the nodes shows us that the greatest inhibitor was family commitments, followed by the largely patriarchal system that was rather inhibitive. The other factors that were seen to be of greatest impact were the lack of opportunity, not having sufficient qualifications and the lack of confidence. The least significant factors with minimal impact were low self-esteem and the lack of husband support.

A critical analysis reflects that the factors could be linked to nurturing and societal expectations that pressure women to conform to gender expectations and cultural myths and notions that tie the woman to the home. As a matter of fact, the Shona have a saying Musha mukadzi which means that the progress of any family home relies on what the woman does. The notion could directly or indirectly affect the choices made by women. Table 4.9 below illustrates the quantified nodes and the corresponding frequency of the contextual coding in Nvivo:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for low participation of women</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Percent of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family Commitments</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Opportunity</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patriarchal System</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>36.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Qualified</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Husband Support</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Confidence</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Self-Esteem</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>180.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 2.
Considering the computed ranks in the table above, it has therefore been validated that
the major barriers to the equitable top-managerial representation of women in order of
decreasing impact were:

1. Family Commitments
2. Patriarchal System
3. Lack of Opportunity
4. Not Qualified
5. Lack of Confidence
6. Low Self-Esteem and
7. Lack of Husband Support

Family commitments, again, seem to be prevailing as the strongest attribute to women’s
absence from the higher echelons of management. It presents the challenges that women
encounter in their quest to management positions. Lack of husband support is the least
attribute because it can be negotiated.

4.5.1 FamilyCommitments

Table 4.9: Family Commitments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family Commitments</td>
<td>Lack pre-requisite qualifications as men continue to advance when women attend to family issues, child bearing etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working away from home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have lots of commitment, e.g. family and work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The problem could be the issue of family responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women have different social expectations, even when in positions than men. One is a wife and a boss and both duties have to be carried out effectively/efficiently. The home front is more demanding for women than it is of men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fear of being sent to institutions which take them away from their families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Socio-cultural factors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s perception is that their role in the family overrides all other roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women are not comfortable in working in institutions away from their families.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the study, family commitments were seen to be one of the greatest impediments to the empowerment of women as a result of the relatively more responsibilities than that of the male counterparts. The outcome of the research was shown in Table 4.9 above. A case in point, one of the respondents mentioned that the home front was more demanding for women than it was for men. Despite this, both the home expectations and work expectations had to be carried out efficiently. Naturally, women were not comfortable to jeopardize the home. They were nurtured to place more value on the family than their profession. This view was supported by one of the respondents who expressly stated that: *Women’s perception is that their role in the family overrides all other roles.* As a result, most females tended to turn down any offers/promotions that would take them away from their families.

### 4.5.2 Patriarchal System

The other significant factor why women were not keen to taking up senior posts was the rather suppressing patriarchal system that existed in Zimbabwe, within which the majority of the females were acculturated. The responses from the questionnaire are shown in Table 4.10 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>NARRATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Patriarchal System</strong></td>
<td><em>Those women in posts of responsibility are despised by their women folk and other men as well.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Their decisions and ideas are undermined by men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>The way women are socialized has a bias towards non-management position.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Bias from the Directors. If you are not the favourite, you do not budge.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>The major cause for this persistent low participation should be the influence of gender role</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Gender sensitivity was not taken seriously in the past. It was okay for men only to lead. There is also a block, a wall-like in terms of attitude of the males already in the</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>NARRATION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>system, they pass it down to say it is a position for men only. You feel it and you are intimidated, why bother?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men have always been given the posts ahead of women, even in acting posts its only men who nominate each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women are not given the same opportunities as their male counterparts, because those in higher positions are male and seem to favour having male in higher positions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males tend to sideline females one has to work twice as hard as males to be recognized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men have always been given the posts ahead of women, even in acting posts its only men who nominate each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women are not given the same opportunities as their male counterparts, because those in higher positions are male and seem to favour having male in higher positions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The trend is changing nowadays. More women are now participating in management positions than before. The patriarch system is to blame for the previous low participation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the assessment of these responses, it could be seen that more often than not, the patriarchal system thwarted the efforts by females in management. This was mainly because their decisions were undermined by men and seen as being rather mediocre. Over and above, males tended to sideline females, and overruled most decisions that females in authority made on the premise that senior posts were best suited for males.

Because senior posts were seemingly earmarked for males, females felt rather intimidated to compete for these posts. In most cases, females vying for such posts had to work twice as hard as males for them to be recognized. Women were generally viewed as not deserving the promotion. If given such a promotion, the woman would be viewed as having been favoured or being related to the management or having an affair with the top boss or generally loose in character. This sentiment was well enunciated by the rather expressive response by one of the respondents who said that: *There is also a*
block, a wall-like in terms of attitude of the males already in the system, they pass it down to say it is a position for men only. Thus, according to reviewed literature related to this study, this was rather true because historically, women have not been in leadership positions in great numbers and the mental image of a leader held by most people was male (Linda, 2001).

Women were groomed to occupy lesser jobs and they were made to accept their roles as playing second fiddle to men and thus they were socialized in that fashion. A woman who was promoted to leadership was probably viewed as having used the ‘bottom power’ to achieve such status. This might be one of the contributing factors of the absence of women in leadership positions because they may be fears that they may be labeled otherwise as having solicited that promotion using unorthodox means. This would also compromise their marriages which they so valued. While this might be so, single women and those widowed would be taking up the promotion but they are not, meaning that, although this might be a deterrent, it does not prevent the unmarried from taking up the promotions.

The patriarchal system was the most dominant of all the responses. It was the bottleneck for the majority of the females as it entailed that women had to seek the endorsement of the husband before they could make certain decisions, like taking a promotion offer. One of the respondents mentioned that: “Some men are intimidated by their wives’ positions at work and so always verbally abuse them that they got to those positions unscrupulously.”

Irrespective of the above argument, other men may not want the female counterpart to be at a position relatively higher than that of the male as cited by one respondent: “Generally males feel belittled if their spouses are promoted to
equal or better their positions, thus, affecting women’s decisions as far as aiming higher is concerned.”

The other responses under this classification are shown in Table 4.11:

**Table 4.11: Responses – Patriarchal System**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATRIARCHAL SYSTEM</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, women have to make consultations with their spouses before making certain decisions affecting their career lives versus their families.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture dictates that they seek for permission from their husbands.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men as in males expect women to bow down to them even at work. No bowing down – no promotion.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Way women are socialised, that is, to be subordinate to men. Social norms do not permit that.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The patriarchal society is still viewing women with little confidence in them; on the ground our society is still largely patriarchal.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males have traditionally first preference in terms of power, respect etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, culturally women were not meant to rule as such, it used to be taboo to have women in management positions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men are taken as primary authority figures occupying all posts in the society.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe is a patriarchal society. Some still feel that they cannot be headed by women. On the other hand, women feel that they need to be led by men. So in a way, that tends to limit women’s involvement regardless of empowerment programmes that try to get rid of that.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>These include perspectives on how women access senior positions and domestic responsibilities, i.e., women are not at liberty to take up management positions that will take them away from their families</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most men still view women as lower than them and it makes very bold and confident women to make it to the top. Men will need to be so that they respect the achievements made by women without linking them to the sexuality or attributing their success to such.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The husband’s status, position, or education determines the wife’s ability to go up/rise to higher echelons of management. Those who are unmarried are labelled bitches in spite of the fact that they are qualified. Society hates them some are called “mazakhela” men tend to abuse them. They feel threatened even at par they do not respect them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe being a patrilineal society has little support for woman leadership.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some men unfairly prevent their wives from applying and taking up positions of management that will take them away from their homes as they believe that women should stay home and look after the kids.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some men are intimidated by their wives’ positions at work and so always verbally abuse them that they got to those positions unscrupulously.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings were consistent with what the related literature said, in that, traditionally, women in the marriage institution were restricted to the domestic sphere
as patriarchy favoured the male child to acquire formal education. Colonial education system of Zimbabwe, further restricted women to the domestic front as there were no specific policies for the education of women and girls (Gambe, 1994). Women might not be visible in the higher echelons of management probably because of the stereotype mentality that was inherited from the colonial legacy.

4.5.3 Lack of Opportunity

Generally, it had been the case that, as an upshot of the restrictive time-honoured patriarchal society within which Zimbabwean women were acculturated, they were deprived of befitting opportunities. The summary of the responses is shown in Table 4.12:

Table 4.12: Lack of Opportunity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>NARRATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Opportunity</td>
<td>Not given the opportunity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women have always been undermined and most cases they are never empowered. So that really demoralises women, it’s like they don’t have a backbone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women had been disadvantaged before. However most women are taking up management position now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Limited opportunity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen from the table above, one of the respondents cited, “Women have always been undermined and most cases they are never empowered; that really demoralises women, it’s like they don’t have a backbone.” It follows then that creating more opportunities for females may help assist women in making significant strides into the management and be recognized and respected in their once-deprived senior positions. In the same vein, however, Gambe (2001) believes that women had the same mental capacity as their male counterparts and, therefore, should be given the same opportunity in all spheres of socio-economic and political.
However, there are now one parent homesteads headed by women that put them at equal status with men. This makes women capable of holding these high positions at the work place. The education system has also removed the previous barriers that favoured men. Women can now hold the same qualification as men or even better and thus can be considered favourably for the top management positions.

4.5.4 Not Qualified

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>NARRATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not Qualified</td>
<td>Lack requisite qualifications as men continue to advance when women attend to family issues, child bearing etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>And issues of achieving positions based on seniority, most women delayed acquiring higher qualification before affirmative action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In educational set ups, what hinders women mostly for participation is the academic achievements though we may consider empowerment but to a lesser extent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low qualifications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of qualification due to family commitments.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another impediment that was noted by a number of the respondents was that the majority of the females lacked the required qualifications as illustrated by the responses in the table above. It was noted that most women who were supposed to be taking up these senior roles delayed acquiring higher qualifications because of the oppressive education system against women. It was also established that men had a competitive edge over females in terms of academic achievement because they had relatively less responsibilities at home than females. That is to say, while women spent time attending to family needs, men would be advancing their education.

4.5.5 Lack of Confidence

Another factor that was seen to be at the center-stage of the ill-participation of Zimbabwean women in the higher echelons of Teachers’ Training Colleges’
management was their lack of confidence. Women were characterized as not being bold and resolute enough and one of the respondents cited women as *being afraid of the challenges in big institutions*. One respondent described most women as having *lack of confidence in themselves, and lacked boldness to be felt and therefore could not succeed during interviews*. Table 4.14 below summarizes the responses in the lack-of-confidence node in Nvivo:

**Table 4.14: Lack of Confidence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>NARRATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Confidence</td>
<td>Feel women are afraid of challenges in big institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes women do not have confidence especially when they are to head males, and also lack of self-esteem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The following are my reasons: Low confidence of women on other women – presented with an opportunity, groups of subordinate women would never support another woman and in a case where they are the majority it is discouraging for prospective management post seekers. Most women lack confidence in themselves and lack boldness to be felt and therefore cannot succeed during interviews.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results illustrated in the table above indicate that women lack confidence in themselves they fear retribution from their fellow women. This argument has no basis whatsoever because boldness does not mean that they do not have the capability to manage. While this might be an argument, women may not shy away from management before they are there. The fact that they are not there could mean that they never tried out and realized that it does not work out. Women need to attempt the interviews and experience how they are and avoid being afraid of the unknown.

These findings are coherent with the literature which specifies that individual centered explanations suggests that the socialization processes experienced by women encourage the development of personality traits, behaviours and attitudes that are contrary to the
demands of management roles (Barnet-Verzat, & Wolff, 2008). These personality traits and behaviour differences were presented as a rationale for low representation. According to Kawewe (1997) women lack the confidence and assertiveness required for a management role. They were also seen to be reluctant to apply for senior roles and to have lower aspirations and inappropriate expectations, about their capacity to combine family and work successfully.

4.5.6 Other factors

Other factors that came up from the findings are shown in Table 4.15:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>NARRATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Low Self-Esteem**  | Low self esteem  
Some women have low self-esteem.  
This manifests in the form of low self-esteem.  
Women lack self-esteem – they look down upon themselves and still feel that they cannot perform like their male counterparts yet they make the best leaders. |
| **No support from spouse** | Not supported by spouses (usually strongly discouraged).  
Women also lack support from the home and work place hence they never make any attempts to respond to vacancy notices. |
| **Complacency**      | Complacency on the part of women. Lack of assertiveness and firmness on part of many women leaders.  
They want to confine themselves to the small geographical areas of schools. |

From the table above, other factors that were seen to be affecting the equitable uptake of senior positions by females were low self-esteem, lack of support from spouse, and the general complacency by females. While it may be true that elevation into Vice Principal grade might take one away from her area of specialization into a new area of management, professional growth is essential. This study dealt with the possibility of such a scenario and women might not be willing to venture into another field where
they will be dealing with professionals whereas they had been dealing with learners. They may also be complacent, feeling satisfied with what they are capable of handling as compared to management, an area that will always take them away from their family.

With regards to no support from spouse, over and above the odds and ends of the patriarchal society, females tend to be circumscribed by their husbands from pursuing anything without them approving. Furthermore, it was the patriarchal system that reinforced women’s dependence on the husband on decision making. From the literature, Paull (2008) defines marriage as a cultural system of beliefs and ideas, an institutional arrangement of roles and norms with complex interactional experience for individual women and men and above all, idealized marriage as empowering the role of husband with authority and with the freedom and obligation to move beyond the domestic setting. The husband’s payment of lobola entitled him to full ownership rights over his acquisition of the wife and because of being owned, the woman lost all her rights (Women and Law in Southern Africa, 2002). Traditionally, African people in Zimbabwe regarded men as decision makers and through marriage they were given powers to own and control women as their property. Women should abide to the rules of their husbands and in-laws; they did not have the right to operate as they wished (Bourdillon, 1998). This explains why men tended to be the final decision makers in the African context.

4.5.7 A Consolidated Perspective for the Reasons for the Low Participation of Women

As a means of triangulating these findings, the researcher used factor analysis of the seven variables. This was computed earlier in the preceding chapter. Three components/factors were extracted. From the three extracted factors, Component 1 comprised lack of opportunity, lack of confidence and low self-esteem, all having
factor loadings greater than 0.50 (Zikmund, 2012). The second component comprised the patriarchal system, while the third component comprised family commitments and lack of qualifications.

The model below presents the low participation model that best defined the low participation of women in Zimbabwe. From the model in Figure 4.14 below, it could be seen that the critical causal factor that was the primary looping factor for all the factors in the model was the patriarchal system. It was, therefore, the patriarchal system that was responsible for the lack of opportunities for female Principal Lecturers to participate in the higher echelons of management. This, as a consequence, resulted in the rather low self-esteem and low confidence by other female counterparts.

Again, it was because of the patriarchal system that female counterparts tended to lack support from their husbands which could otherwise help streamline their day-to-day challenges. As a case in point, support from their husbands tended to offload their responsibilities and thus helped mitigate their family commitments. The more less demanding the family was, the more the time female lecturers could spare for other activities such as self-enrichment through education, for instance. In other words, female lecturers tended to have more opportunities if their homes were less demanding. The more the opportunities they pursued, the more the self-confidence they would cultivate in the process. This tended to increase their self-esteem as illustrated in figure 4.14 below:
It was in this light that it should always be over emphasized that although there could be other factors that seemingly were behind the low participation of women, they were, most likely than not, a consequence of latent variables, and in the context of this study, remnants of the effects of the patriarchal society, seemed to the root cause.

To factor out possibilities of overlaps in the coding, factor analysis was conducted, with the Kaizer Normalisation as the rotation method and the results were presented in the Table 4.16 below:
Table 4.16: Factor Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patriarchal System</td>
<td>-.161</td>
<td>.896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Roles</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Commitments</td>
<td>.866</td>
<td>-.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence on Husband</td>
<td>.710</td>
<td>-.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

From the above table, considering factor loadings of greater than 0.5 (Bryman et al., 2007), two key factors were identified. The patriarchal system was seen to be strongly correlating with gender roles (0.501), whereas the dependence on husband was seen to be strongly correlated to family commitments (0.592). Patriarchal system was noted to be with the highest factor loading of 0.896 in the second factor, whereas family commitments was also seen with the highest factor loading of 0.866. In other words, we could conclude that the two major factors limiting women’s involvement were the patriarchal system and family commitments.

From the foregoing, it could be concluded that despite the major positive trends being pursued by the government in promoting equal representation of women, several other factors were prevailing to the detriment of the supposed absolute participation in management and full entitlement of women to their befitting and rightful empowerment, and these were seen to be, inter alia, family commitments and the prevailing patriarchal system.
4.6 Support from Government

Respondents were also asked to establish whether the Government of Zimbabwe provided enough support to encourage women to participate in the management of Teachers’ Training Colleges. The responses were coded in NVivo, and from the assessment of the codes, only three categories were established, and these included, those who agreed, those who disagreed and those who did not know. Quantifying the coded categories resulted in Table 4.17:

Table 4.17: Support from Government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>84.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't Know</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above analysis, it could be observed that, overall; the greater majority of the respondents (76.9%) agreed that the Government of Zimbabwe provided enough support to encourage women to participate in the management of Teachers’ Training Colleges. Only 4 of the respondents were not sure of this support, and merely two of the respondents disagreed. The summarised responses are shown in Table 4.18 below:

Table 4.18: Responses: - Support from Government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO RESPONSE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Women are encouraged to apply and generally those who apply get the posts on merit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>They try to some extent. But some women do not apply.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Policies have been put in place for institutions to make sure that for every high position if the head is male, the deputy should be female or vice versa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Don’t know – have never been given opportunity to know.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Yes, as illustrated by the few colleges headed by women. Seems to be a deliberate policy now to share leadership – these either as a VIP or Principal. Women/Men have equal chances of being promoted if they apply but women have first preference.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 6.          | No effort has been made by government to train women in preparation for management position and to close the disparity gap that has been the
7. Equal opportunity now prevails as long as you are interested.

8. They have since tried to empower and encourage women but there comes a point even they just think women are useless and simply drag their feet. Or simply pompous men came and grab that opportunity from them.

9. I really do not know how far since most Teachers’ Training Colleges are male dominated, the government has realised the mistake as ‘only’ one college is led by a woman.

10. Not to my knowledge. Generally opportunities are open to both sexes on equal basis. I think specific bill at parliament has to be published with regards government support.

11. It does, though the phobia is already in the women folk as it is difficult to go into the offices manned by males to ask for policies that may be necessary to read though before being interviewed.

12. Support is provided by Government as they always impress on Gender sensitivity in all we do. Women empowerment is their third MDG in the status report. Zim 2010.

13. We are yet to see that evidence. Gender is not the issue in areas of promotion but who and what you are matters the most.

14. The Government is trying to accommodate ladies into positions in this Ministry because it has put a female Minister, maybe she will also encourage women to aim for higher positions.

15. There is always an underlying statement which encourages women to apply to these posts of special responsibility when an advert is posted.

16. In all adverts women are encouraged to apply and first preference is given to them.

17. It does through the quota system given to women in many institutions of learning – teacher training colleges in particular.

18. Government has done a lot to encourage women. Workshops and awareness campaigns have been done so as to enlighten women so that they realise their potential. However the government needs to do internal workshops in Teachers Training Colleges so as to inform them about opportunities that exist within their Ministry.

19. I think it does because adverts emphasise that women are encouraged to apply in most cases. Quarter systems also.

20. To a great extent, the Government has done a lot to provide support e. g. the Government is a signatory to various regional and international conventions, treaties, declarations and protocols that seek to promote women empowerment. However, it is the women themselves who are not utilising these opportunities. The Government should ensure that the 50/50 gender parity in the SADC Protocol on Gender is enforced in the promotion of officers to management levels at Teachers’ Colleges.

21. Women can be promoted on merit. There was also affirmative action which is still there, in a way.

22. Not very sure about this one.

23. Government has given some Management posts as principals to women although proportions are low. Quite a number are encouraged to apply each time posts arise but appointments are determined and affected by other factors.
From the analysis of the table above, more than 88% of the respondents confirmed that Government of Zimbabwe was giving support to women but it was the women themselves who were not taking advantage of the support. They agreed that Government of Zimbabwe always inserted a statement in each and every advertisement encouraging women to apply. As long as women do not apply for promotion, they will remain absent from the higher echelons of management of Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe.

4.6.1 Yes, Support is Present

From the analysis of the responses, the Government of Zimbabwe was seen to be proactive on issues to do with availing women with equal opportunities so that they could compete on an equal footing with their male counterparts if not placing them at an advantage. This support stemmed from the government having ratified with various international and regional conventions, treaties, declarations and protocols, as one of the respondents mentioned:

*To a great extent, the Government has done a lot to provide support e. g. the Government is a signatory to various regional and international conventions, treaties, declarations and protocols that seek to promote women empowerment. However, it is the women themselves who are not utilising these opportunities.*
Furthermore, women empowerment was mentioned by some of the respondents as being the Government’s third Millennium Development Goal when they responded thus:

Support is provided by Government as they always impress on Gender sensitivity in all we do. Women empowerment is their third MDG in the 2010 status report.

Government has done a lot to encourage women. Workshops and awareness campaigns have been done so as to enlighten women so that they realise their potential.

With regards to these ratifications, it could be seen that the government was doing its best to live up to the conventions and treaties with the enactment of various policies such as shared-leadership, as seen by what other respondents mentioned:

Policies have been put in place for institutions to make sure that for every high position if the head is male, the deputy should be female or vice versa.

Seems to be a deliberate policy now to share leadership – these are either as a Vice Principal or Principal. Women/Men have equal chances of being promoted if they apply but women have first preference.

The Government is trying to accommodate ladies into positions in this Ministry because it has put a female Minister, maybe she will also encourage women to aim for higher positions.

Kanter (1977) insists that women’s positions in organizations could be understood in terms of organizational structures and the clustering of women in lower power roles rather than simply a function of individual gender difference. Kanter (1977) believes that had there been greater sharing of power within organizations, women would not have as much difficulty accessing management roles. He further suggests that the
gender ratios at upper levels affected interactions between men and women (ibid). This study agrees with this authority in that when men are left alone at the top management, they are bound to interact amongst themselves. The responses pointed out that government was doing enough to encourage women to apply for these promotional posts, but there were no takers from the women as indicated by the following responses:

There is always an underlying statement which encourages women to apply for these posts of special responsibility when an advert is posted.

In all adverts women are encouraged to apply and first preference is given to them.

I think it does because adverts emphasise that women are encouraged to apply in most cases. Quarter systems.

Government has given some Management posts as principals to women although proportions are low. Quite a number are encouraged to apply each time posts arise but appointments are determined and affected by other factors.

They are now making an effort because gender sensitivity is being acted on even if posts are advertised everyone is allowed to respond and they all get equal salaries and benefits. They encourage women to participate.

Some support, but not enough when posts being advertised state that women participants will be at an advantage.

So, men may still continue to dominate, not that it’s by design but by choice. In other words, men, being the dominant group, amplified the differences between them and women resulting in negative outcomes for women including performance.
According to the responses, it might be true that the Zimbabwean government had been supportive enough. Despite the encouragement given by the government for women to respond to advertisement, it was observed from this study that, the reluctance to take advantage of these opportunities was with the females as one respondent cited that government try to some extent. But some women do not apply.

This could emanate from the responses given that these promotions might be taking the women away from their families and/or adding more responsibilities on them leaving their homes and family compromised.

One factor which seemed to be behind women not applying was rather their lack of self-confidence and self-esteem. One such example that was given by the respondents was that:

\[ It \text{ does, though the phobia is already in the women folk as it is difficult to go into the offices manned by males to ask for policies that may be necessary to read through before being interviewed.} \]

Inevitably, the effects of patriarchal system were also highlighted implicitly by one of the respondents who mentioned that:

\[ They \text{ have since tried to empower and encourage women but there comes a point even they just think women are useless and simply drag their feet. Or simply pompous men came and grab that opportunity from them.} \]

From this response, it might be very certain that patriarchal system played a pivotal role in the absence of women in the higher echelons of management because the system favoured men as the order of the stereotyping culture.
4.6.2 No support has been given by the government

About 11% of the respondents said that the government was not giving any support. However, of those who said so, one reason mentioned was the failure of the government to prepare the women for those senior posts, as cited: *No effort has been made by government to train women in preparation for management position and to close the disparity gap that has been the tradition.*

This argument could be justified in that, although the government was making strides in providing opportunities for women, it was very important that the women who would take up these posts should have been appropriately groomed to be self-confident and to be able to run those posts.

Furthermore, it was cited as important to see to it that the females were well informed of the opportunities that were entitled to them, as one of the respondents mentioned: *However the government needs to do internal workshops in Teachers Training Colleges so as to inform them about opportunities that exist within their Ministry.*

While this might be true, women have to be abreast with what is going on in their ministry and not to wait to be informed.

4.6.3 Not aware of any support from government

It was worth mentioning that four of the respondents were not even aware whether the government did provide support. These respondents might be those who were about to retire and did not bother themselves anymore enquiring about the new developments since they would be preparing to put tools down. This was illustrated by the language of the following responses:
Don’t know – have never been given opportunity to know.

I really do not know how far since most Teachers’ Training Colleges are male dominated, the government has realised the mistake as ‘only’ one college is led by a woman.

Not to my knowledge. Generally opportunities are open to both sexes on equal basis. I think specific bill at parliament has to be published with regards government support.

4.7 Existence of Opportunities for Women

The respondents were asked whether opportunities existed for women in the fulfillment of their aspirations and contributions to national development in Zimbabwe. The responses from the data collection are shown in Table 4.19:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>NARRATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Yes to a reasonably large extent women are invited to apply for aspects pertaining to development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>They exist but are limited. They are elbowed out by men along the way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Difficult to achieve aspirations and to get the opportunities, because of issues of financial empowerment and nepotism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Posts are advertised nationally and some openly campaign for ladies who qualify to apply.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Policy wise yes but in reality implementation or will power to do as policy dictates is lacking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Opportunities exist but up-take of such opportunities compromises the gender roles and the demands that these management posts would entail.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>A lot of support is given to women in Zimbabwe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>They do exist as programmes are there for them to upgrade themselves and fulfil their aspirations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Now, the avenues are open with the new government like the Zim Asset all are given equal opportunities only that women are not courageous but are timid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>To a lesser extent. Here and other women aspirations and contributions to national development are altered. Culturally women’s views are despised (looked down upon). Sometimes even if they raise critical issues their views are simply not taken simply because they are women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>They do, to limited extent because even when women are promised some of the things that can help them contribute, those things are never finally delivered, they are only available to a few, especially those that are affiliated to certain spheres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>NARRATION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Opportunities do exist for women to fulfil their aspirations but women themselves face challenges of leaving their families to work far away. Land was also allocated to women but presently acquiring loans is a problem to those unemployed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Exist to a selected few. One has to be known to be available such opportunities. In brief, opportunities do exist but not available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Yes, we even see that in constitution where women have been given a certain percentage for positions in the parliament, it is now for them to take up those positions or leave them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Not really – women are generally limited to vacancies related to gender – none challenging opportunities. Women would love to be posted to more challenging posts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>The Government of the day promotes women empowerment. In all opportunities they are given first preference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Opportunities exist – Ministry of Gender and Women’s Affairs is one such an example. (WUA) Women’s University in Africa was established specifically for that.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>No, in most cases first preference is usually given to the male counterparts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>They do, but women tend to have a lot of responsibilities and most women worry more about family than career aspirations etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Yes they do. For example the Vice President is a female and during the GNU, both the President of the Senate and the Deputy Prime Minister were women. Further, in 1995, the Government created the Ministry of Gender Affairs, Gender and Community Development to oversee coordination of all gender programmes and to facilitate gender mainstreams in all sectors of the economy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Yes, as long as one has the right qualifications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>To a certain extent yes, why, because we have some women in Parliament.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Women have equal opportunities as men to aspire and engage in any field or job they are interested in. There are no longer any job-biased jobs, that is, nothing for men only but progress is slow in ensuring that women venture into the male-dominated fields of study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Educational opportunities are there. You can advance to any level but men control the budget through family push more responsibilities but if you struggle and succeed they claim the honour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>The ‘crowding-off’ effect seems to exist in this regard where men are favour in place of women for leadership posts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>They do. The affirmative policy that was put into place by Government was meant to give women those opportunities. Even in parliament a quarter-system has been put in place to accommodate women but unfortunately women are not forthcoming.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above responses were coded using Nvivo, and two main categories were extracted, and these consist of those respondents who agreed that opportunities existed for women
and those who disagreed to the existence of opportunities for women. Table 4.20 shows the quantified distribution of the respondents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.20: Frequencies – Opportunities for Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Extent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Extent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above table, it could be seen that approximately two thirds (65.4%) of the respondents were agreeing to the existence of opportunities for women with the other 34.6% disagreeing. This is evidence enough that opportunities are there but they are not utilized. Women might be absent from management of Teachers’ Training Colleges not by design but by choice because opportunities are in abundance.

4.7.1 Opportunities Existing

Generally, the majority of the respondents cited that opportunities for women existed and, above all, that there were equal opportunities for them. The affirmative action was mentioned as one of the enabling factors which the government had put in place to empower women as illustrated by the following responses:

*Women have equal opportunities as men to aspire and engage in any field or job they are interested in. There are no longer any job-biased jobs, that is, nothing for men only but progress is slow in ensuring that women venture into the male-dominated fields of study.*

*The affirmative policy that was put into place by Government was meant to give women those opportunities. The Government of the day promotes women empowerment. In all opportunities they are given first preference.*
The quota system had also been implemented by the government to ensure a fair representation of women in all aspects of the economy, and one such fruitful implementation was in parliament as mentioned by the following respondents:

*Even in parliament a quarter systems has been put into effect to accommodate women but unfortunately women are not forthcoming.*

*Yes, we even see that in constitution where women have been given a certain percentage for positions in the parliament, it is now for them to take up those positions or leave them.*

The creation of an institution dedicated for mainstreaming women issues in all sectors of the economy was mentioned as the other enabling factor, and as a case in point were the Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development, Zimbabwe Open University (because women can do their studies from the comfort of their homes doing their family chores) and the Women’s University in Africa as confirmed by the following responses:

*Opportunities exist – Ministry of Gender and Women’s Affairs is one such an example. Women’s University in Africa was established specifically for that.*

*Yes they do. For example the Vice President is a female and during the GNU, both the President of the Senate and the Deputy Prime Minister were women. Further, in 1995, the Government created the Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development to oversee coordination of all gender programmes and to facilitate gender mainstreams in all sectors of the economy.*

It came out that vacancies were openly advertised and that most of the adverts openly recommended women to apply, however, other socio-cultural factors
inhibited the uptake of those opportunities. A case in point cited by one of the respondents was that: “Posts are advertised nationally and some openly campaign for ladies who qualify to apply. Opportunities exist but up-take of such opportunities compromises the gender roles and the demands that these management posts would entail.”

Another issue raised by some of the respondents was lack of confidence, or rather, self-esteem, which one of the respondents expressed as timidity: “Now, the avenues are open with the new government like the Zim Asset all are given equal opportunities only that women are not courageous but are timid.”

In addition to the above factors inhibiting women from the uptake of the available opportunities was the issue of family commitments, which some of the respondents mentioned that:

*Opportunities do exist for women to fulfill their aspirations but women themselves face challenges of leaving their families to work far away.*

*They do, but women tend to have a lot of responsibilities and most women worry more about family than career aspirations etc.*

*Educational opportunities are there. You can advance to any level but men control the budget through family push more responsibilities but if you struggle and succeed they claim the honour.*

Men, as bread winners, are most likely to claim that they have educated their wives yet they were against the idea of them going to school because that took some money away from home. Most men would treat their wives as their children just because they paid
lobola for them. Also, men were afraid that if their wives got higher qualifications, they would desert them. Upward social mobility of women is not acceptable to some men.

4.7.2 Opportunities Not Existing

With respect to those respondents who disagreed that the opportunities for women did not exist, they at least agreed that, although some opportunities were present, they were however limited. In other words, these respondents did not out rightly dismiss the existence of opportunities for women, as they mentioned that they were, in principle, available, but practically not available to the greater majority, as cited by some of the respondents that:

- They do, to limited extent because even when women are promised some of the things that can help them contribute, those things are never finally delivered, they are only available to a few, especially those that are affiliated to certain spheres.
- Exist to a selected few. One has to be known to be available such opportunities. In brief, opportunities do exist but not available.
- Not really – women are generally limited to vacancies related to gender – none challenging opportunities. Women would love to be posted to more challenging posts.
- Policy wise yes but in reality implementation or will power to do as policy dictates is lacking.

The patriarchal system seemed to be the most significant factor thwarting the opportunities females had, as some of the respondents mentioned that:

- They exist but are limited. They are elbowed out by men along the way.
- To a lesser extent. Here and there women aspirations and contributions to national development are altered. Culturally women’s views are despised (looked down upon). Sometimes
even if they raise critical issues their views are simply not taken simply because they are women.

- No, in most cases first preference is usually given to the male counterparts.
- The 'crowding-off' effect seems to exist in this regard where men are favoured in place of women for leadership posts.

However, despite the above impediments, one of the respondents mentioned that generally, although the opportunities existed, it was rather difficult to achieve the prerequisites of the opportunities because of issues of financial empowerment and nepotism. Culturally, women had long been thought of as unequal to men but however, men had always dominated, held better jobs, got higher wages and had more opportunities for success than women. This had been a traditional prestige of the past as all history had been made by men.

Due to the worsening economic conditions, however, women’s position in education had been disenfranchised thus national economic hardships forced the government and households to allocate resources in ways that discriminated against women’s education. Economic austerity and budget cuts in education programmes forced women to obtain supplementary employment to cover the cost of fees and books (Paradza, and Matovu, 2002). Men would face similar problems but tended to have access to a wider array of government financial support mechanisms and were able to withstand economic impact on their educational careers. The economic burdens imposed on women, as parents and students was seen, therefore, as manifesting more inherent problems that could be understood in the educational context process, and the role of women in Africa.
4.8 Socio-Cultural Factors Limiting Women

Having seen from the above analyses that the absence of permissive opportunities for women was beyond the efforts by the government, it was imperative to explore other factors that were rather inhibitive to the involvement of women into the higher echelons of management. The general responses are given in Table 4.21:

Table 4.21: Responses: Socio-Cultural Factors Limiting Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Women still have to come out of the gender roles shell in which they were socialised.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Way women are socialised, that is, to be subordinate to men. Social norms do not permit that. Lack of family support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Gender roles are still holding back women and the patriarchal society is still viewing women with little confidence in them, on the ground our society is still largely patriarchal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>No – If one has the charisma, potential and will power, the sky is the limit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Socialisation of women encourages subservience cultural/traditional difference is always towards males than females and this permeates perception in different sectors of society. Males have traditionally first preference in terms of power, respect etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Yes, the limitations lie basically in the marrying of women’s gender roles and the demands that these management posts would entail.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Non that cannot be handled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Yes there are to an extent but they are really trying to involve women into the higher echelons of management. They are women shaped on different aspects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Of course there were there but now it’s no longer the case as we now have women in top government positions. We also advocate for women chiefs though its un-African cultural but women can do it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Yes, culturally women were not meant to rule as such, it used to be taboo to have women in management positions. Even in churches, for some time women could not be allowed to preach before a congregation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>- Families – it is rather taboo for a woman to leave the man in the house to take care of the family while they work especially out of home are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Women are afraid to leave the children with their spouses’ especial girl children who are nearly always in vulnerable situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Women are adamant to leave their homes as they are afraid the husbands can look for others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Some men are intimidated by their wives’ positions at work and so always verbally abuse them that they got to those positions unscrupulously.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>At times when a woman rises, society thinks it is because of bottom power, a notion that diminishes thoughts and wish of involvement to higher echelons of management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Currently males hold higher positions. Men as in males expect women to bow down to them even at work. No bowing down – no promotion. Otherwise women are not bound by any socio-cultural issues per say.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Yes, the fact that women are said to be the one responsible for the raising of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
children socially, so if a woman has a higher position at work then it is believed will have no one look after and also the woman will be over stressed with these duties – (at work and at home).

15. Yes, women have to make consultations with their spouses before making certain decisions affecting their career lives versus their families. Generally males feel belittled if their spouses are promoted to equal or better their positions, thus, affecting women’s decisions as far as aiming higher is concerned.

16. Men are taken as primary authority figures occupying all posts in the society.

17. They are minimal now. Women are now seen to be at par with their male counterparts in educational/academic spheres. They are professionals too just like their male counterparts.

18. According to the African tradition women belong to the home. They are regarded solely as child bearers. Hence some men who are too traditional will not allow their wives to be considered in higher echelons of management. The women may also risk losing their husbands.

19. In a way, because Zimbabwe is a patriarchal society. Some still feel that they cannot be headed by women. On the other hand, women feel that they need to be led by men. So in a way, that tends to limit women’s involvement regardless of empowerment programmes that try to get rid of that.

20. Yes there are quite a number of factors. These include perspectives on how women access senior positions and domestic responsibilities, i.e., women are not at liberty to take up management positions that will take them away from their families, culture dictates that they seek for permission from their husbands.

21. Yes, women who go up are regarded as having used bottom power. Also, married women also tend to be limited by family commitments and sometimes disapproving spouses.

22. Yes – culturally it is unheard of to leave the men running the home while the woman is said to have gone to fend for the family. It sounds or appears as if you are belittling your husband and the entire family.

23. Most men still view women as lower than them and it makes very bold and confident women to make it to the top. Men will need to be . . . . . . . . . . . so that they respect the achievements made by women without linking them to the sexuality or attributing their success to such.

24. The husband’s status, position, or education determines the wife’s ability to go up/ rise to higher echelons of management. Those who are unmarried are labelled bitches in spite of the fact that they are qualified. Society hates them some are called “mazakhela” men tend to abuse them. They feel threatened even at par they do not respect them.

25. Zimbabwe being a matrilineal society, has little support for woman leadership.

26. Culturally women still feel that they belong to the kitchen yet there is liberty for them to climb the ladder. Some men unfairly prevent their wives from applying and taking up positions of management that will take them away from their homes as they believe that women should stay home and look after the kids.

Zimbabwean society has always placed women as secondary to men. The fact that when a man marries a woman, it is the woman who leaves her home and joins the husband at
his home puts women at a disadvantage. The woman has to look after the husband’s parents, change her family name and adopt her husband’s family name and so it is with her children. The man should love his wife and his wife must submit to her husband. With such myths and beliefs, wives probably should follow what the husbands dictate at home.

4.8.1 Inhibitive Socio-Cultural Factors

The responses in the above table were coded in NVivo and the categories were then quantified through the matrix coding operation in NVivo. The resultant output was a quantification of the coded categories and these are presented in Table 4.22:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>96.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the results, it was established that 84% of the respondents were very confident that there were indeed other socio-cultural factors that were inhibiting the full involvement of women. Only 16% of the respondents felt otherwise. Further inquiry into the coded classifications of the socio-cultural factors cited by the respondents resulted in Table 4.23:

Table 4.23: Node Classification Frequencies – Socio-Cultural Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Percent of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socio-cultural factors limiting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Roles</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>39.0%</td>
<td>76.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patriarchal System</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>43.9%</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Commitments</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence on Husband</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>23.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>195.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 2.
From the above analysis, four main classifications were extracted, that is, the patriarchal system, gender roles, family commitments and reliance on husband on decision-making. From these classifications, the most dominant factor was the patriarchal system which was mentioned of by 85.7% of the respondents, with 76.2% of them mentioning of the cultural gender roles. The least mentioned of, were family commitments and reliance on spouse for decision making. Reliance on husband for decision making confirms and conforms to patriarchy.

4.8.2 Gender Roles

The second dominant inhibitive factor was the issue of gender roles. Traditionally, a woman’s primary responsibility was said to be the home and the family. In this respect, any duties that could threaten the demands/attention at home/family were, more often than not, considered to be second-rated. The same applied with senior posts which inevitably demand more time and occasionally could encroach home time. In this respect, most men would not allow females to take up such jobs, and hence creating a barrier to the full involvement of women into the higher echelons of management. The responses from the respondents are presented in Table 4.24:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER ROLES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to the African tradition women belong to the home. They are regarded solely as child bearers. Hence some men who are too traditional will not allow their wives to be considered in higher echelons of management. The women may also risk losing their husbands.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women still have to come out of the gender roles shell in which they were socialised.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender roles are still holding back women.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialisation of women encourages subservience cultural/traditional difference is always towards males than females and this permeates perception in different sectors of society.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, the limitations lie basically in the marrying of women’s gender roles and the demands that these management posts would entail.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even in churches, for some time women could not be allowed to preach before a congregation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
GENDER ROLES

Families – it is rather taboo for a woman to leave the man in the house to take care of the family while they work especially out of home are. Currently males hold higher positions.

Yes, the fact that women are said to be the one responsible for the raising of children socially, so if a woman has a higher position at work then it is believed will have no one look after and also the woman will be over stressed with these duties – (at work and at home).

Yes – culturally it is unheard of to leave the men running the home while the woman is said to have gone to fend for the family. It sounds or appears as if you are belittling your husband and the entire family.

Culturally women still feel that they belong to the kitchen yet there is liberty for them to climb the ladder.

At times when a woman rises, society thinks it is because of bottom power, a notion that diminishes thoughts and wish of involvement to higher echelons of management.

Yes, women who go up are regarded as having used bottom power.

4.9 Reasons for Poor Participation of Women

Earlier questions had dealt on the individual respondent. It therefore was deemed important to understand the overall picture in terms of female empowerment, and hence the need for the researcher to understand the situation, not just with regard to oneself, but also with others. According to the European Board of Women Monitor (2004), women were still concentrated in the most precarious forms of work throughout the world and breaking the “glass ceiling” still appeared elusive for all but a selected few. Men were in the majority among managers, top executives, and higher levels of professional workers whilst women were still concentrated in the lower categories of managerial positions.

In this respect, the respondents were asked what they thought were the reasons behind the poor participation of women as Vice-Principals and Principals of the Zimbabwean Teachers’ Training Colleges. The responses gathered from this survey are presented in Table 4.25:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Narration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Previously women were not encouraged as is now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>While it used to be like that, there are now many. They were disadvantaged then.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Some view it as less rewarding. Others are viewed by the systems concerned as very junior and inexperienced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The process of getting there is cumbersome. Too much commitment required for the ordinary mother with a family to care for.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Separation of families at appointment discourages women accepting/applying for such positions. Policy of first preference to women has only recently been applied. Colleges with such openings are also few.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The demands that such positions put on women compromise their other roles of being wives/mothers that are socially and culturally full-time roles. Balancing these roles has not been easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The act is balancing since the recognition of gender-equality. I believe we cannot keep crying foul over a colonial era that is being ratified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Women are not confident enough to stand their ground and so men take that chance to win all the posts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Generally speaking, there are few women who are qualified for the posts, the issue dates back where women were looked down upon even at home; they were given less privilege in educational spheres. Boys were taken to schools in preference to girls but the issue is now unfolding that given a chance a girl child can make it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>It could be that they despise themselves. They also lack experience in management positions. They may also be reluctant to rise to the level of challenges that come along with being a manager.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Government does not trust them to do a worthy job. When some are promoted to these posts, they become big headed and treat subordinates like small children especially because they think if they do not do so, people will over-ride their decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Zimbabwe still culturally hails men. The quarter system is still cry in each sector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Top management has low opinion of women in general.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Yes, we even see that in the constitution where women have been given a certain percentage for positions in the Parliament, it is now for them to take up those positions or leave them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Few women apply for these posts. Those few who apply do not want to be posted out of the cities where they are based should they be promoted, because they do not want to leave their families behind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>The reason could be because of their educational levels. Most women in Teachers’ Training Colleges hold first degrees and therefore it becomes impossible for them to be promoted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Job experience counts. Many of the male principals and their deputies have been in the system for a long time now. The few women who have acquired similar qualifications have done so recently (after...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
No. | Narration
---|---
18. | I think it is a political problem. Women were not being given equal opportunities as men.
19. | Because of the disadvantages that women had before the idea of gender equalities.
20. | These could be a result of what transpired during the colonial era where women were generally marginalised in terms of opportunities to access higher education and management positions. Therefore women were marginalised by both the patriarchal society and the then government.
21. | Because these positions used to be regarded as the preserve of males.
22. | Before independence they were few women who were eager to upgrade their qualifications.
23. | Vice Principals and Principals came from HODs so the background should be favourable at grassroots. Those who appoint should allow women to prove themselves. The interviews for posts of Principal and Vice Principal appear to be so intimidating, those who have gone and failed became so discouraged even when they remain in the current posts.
24. | Those who promote them are men and feel these positions should be for men.
25. | Most Principals are male and find it difficult to accept women leadership and they are the ones who recommend Vice Principals and so prefer male ones.
26. | - Most men in higher positions demand a ‘thigh for promotion’ so most women become discouraged and give up.
   - Lots of women feel that men make better leaders, they lack confidence in themselves.
   - In terms of qualifications, many women do not have the qualifications, why? Because for the married women it is not easy as men always feel that they have to advance themselves first before a woman does, and some men do not allow their wives to study as they are afraid of competition.

Women may not be participating not because they don’t want to participate but probably they might not be afforded space to do so. Evidenced by the responses given above, women seem to have given up efforts to try and empower themselves to fight stigmatization despite the fact that opportunities do exist for them.

4.9.1 Categorised Reasons

The above responses were coded in Nvivo thematically and up to five different categories/themes were extracted and these were: Family commitments, Not Qualified,
Lack of Confidence and Present Discrimination. Quantifying the above factors resulted in Table 4.26:

**Table 4.26: Frequencies – Categorised Reasons for Low Women Participation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Past Discrimination</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Commitments</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Qualified</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Confidence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>73.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Discrimination</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysing the above table, it could be observed that, generally, past and present discrimination were mentioned as the major factors behind the fewer numbers of women in Teachers’ Training College management, and these constituted 30.8% and 26.9% respectively. Collectively, they constituted 57.7% of all the reasons. The third significant factor was identified as the lack of requisite qualifications, being 19.2% and family commitments constituting 15.4% of the reasons. The least identified cause was the lack of confidence, which only two respondents mentioned of.

### 4.9.1.1 Past Discrimination

The second reason that was cited for the low participation of women was identified to be the long-term effects of past discrimination. According to the respondents, women were previously marginalized, and discriminated against as shown by the following responses:

*Women were not being given equal opportunities as men.*

*These positions used to be regarded as the preserve of males.*

*These could be a result of what transpired during the colonial era where women were generally marginalised in terms of opportunities to access higher education and management.*
positions. Therefore women were marginalised by both the patriarchal society and the then government.

The findings above clearly demonstrate that women were marginalized during the pre-independent Zimbabwean era. The then government recognized men as potential civil servants who needed to be educated enough to deliver government service. The patriarchal system also exerted a lot of pressure on women to be in the rural homes looking after the family while men were in towns and cities working for the colonizer.

According to Ngwenya (1983), during the Zimbabwean colonial period, Africans had access to a few mission and government schools. Due to shortages of schools and financial constraints, many African parents opted to send the boy children to school than the girl child. Traditionally the girl child would be married and leave the family while the boy child would be said to maintain the family after acquiring education (ibid). The patriarchal society worldwide placed women on subordinate roles in the family, lowering women’s status. In Zimbabwe, this was further exacerbated by the colonial government which introduced laws in which women wielded very little power in society. The customary laws in Zimbabwe reduced women to perpetual minors as it turned fluid and flexible traditional practices into hard and fast rules which were heavily engraved by the colonial values which empowered the male figure (Ncube, 1987).

However, the situation is slowly changing due to the voices of reason that are being echoed through sensitization of women empowerment as reiterated by the following responses:
While it used to be like that, there are now many; they were disadvantaged then.

The act is balancing since the recognition of gender-equality. The policy of first preference to women has only recently been applied. Yes, we even see that in the constitution where women have been given a certain percentage for positions in the Parliament, it is now for them to take up those positions or leave them.

4.9.1.2 Present Discrimination

With regards to the present discrimination haunting women, and distracting them from the participation in the top-levels of Teachers’ Training College management, it could be observed that much of this discrimination was mainly due to our patriarchal system. Despite the presence of the quota system, one of the respondents mentioned that: the Zimbabwean system still culturally hails men. Another respondent echoed the same sentiment that: top management has low opinion of women in general. This situation was even direr considering what one of the respondents mentioned that: those who promote them are men and feel these positions should be for men. In other words, women were trying to break through a prejudice-stricken environment, whose decision makers could as well be dis-inclined to their empowerment, being dominated by culturally bigoted males as also expressed by another respondent that: “Most Principals are male and find it difficult to accept women leadership and they are the ones who recommend Vice Principals and so prefer male ones.”

Ironically, the very same Government that supposedly supported women was mentioned of as having a leaning towards males. One of the respondents actually mentioned that:
Government does not trust them (women) to do a worthy job. It may be on this basis why the interviews for posts of Principal and Vice Principal appear to be so intimidating, those who have gone and failed became so discouraged even when they remain in the current posts.

In other words, we could say, despite the celebrated women empowerment, there are still remnants of patriarchal alignment who did not appreciate women’s capabilities, and thus who were not willing to entrust women with power.

Linda (2001) emphasised that men were viewed as leaders in organisations, while women were seen to be the followers. She argued that women who work in male-dominated environments were less inclined to see themselves as leaders or seek leadership roles. Kawewe (1997) found that women in management experienced greater strain, and felt more isolated at work, than did their male counterparts.

However, as women had gained visibility, so had they been recognised of their potential as leaders (Linda, 2001). However, ironically, despite these developments, their leadership progress was very slow particularly in Higher Education. Johnson (1993), reporting on the status of women’s leadership in Higher Education, wrote that women administrators continued to be clustered in middle management positions and areas outside of academic deanships and other more central administrative positions.
4.9.1.3 Not Adequately Qualified

Again, this issue of qualifications continued to show up as cited in the following response:

*In terms of qualifications, many women do not have the qualifications, why? Because for the married women it is not easy as men always feel that they have to advance themselves first before a woman does, and some men do not allow their wives to study as they are afraid of competition.*

Another perspective on the reasons for the lack of qualifications by women that came out from the analysis was that there were very few women who were qualified for the posts, as cited by one respondent that:

*Generally speaking, there are few women who are qualified for the posts, the issue dates back where women were looked down upon even at homes, they were given less privilege in educational spheres. Boys were taken to schools in preference to girls but the issue is now unfolding that given a chance a girl child can make it.*

As a result of this outright marginalization as cited in this response: *before independence they were few women who were eager to upgrade their qualifications*, as the cultural milieu was not permissive of the academic advancement of women. However, with respect to their current qualifications, one respondent mentioned explicitly that the majority of the women in Teachers’ Training Colleges had first degrees only: *“The reason could be because of their educational levels. Most women in Teachers’ Training Colleges hold first degrees and therefore it becomes impossible for them to be promoted.”*
These findings were consistent with the literature which specified that the colonial education system in the then Rhodesia did not have a specific policy for the education of women and girls. It put in place education policies that served the interests of the white people and a few black men (Gordon, 1994). This, as a result, impacted negatively on the education of African women. The education system resulted in affording only 12.5% of primary education of African children, to proceed to secondary education (Mlahleki, 1995). The percentage was achieved through the use of stannic system which encouraged “failed” students to enroll into vocational secondary schools which were referred to as ‘F2” secondary schools. Policies further marginalized female children who were already under represented in the education.

As a result, of the past discrimination of women, especially the grave deprivation of equal educational opportunities, only those who seemed to be qualified had only lately done so, and thus did not have enough professional experience than what their male counterparts had, as noted by another respondent that:

*Job experience counts. Many of the male principals and their deputies have been in the system for a long time now. The few women who have acquired similar qualifications have done so recently (after independence) and are still junior in the profession.*

These findings were supported by what is obtaining in literature that one of the major explanations for women’s lack of career advancement related to the perceived lack of skill and knowledge (Tharenou, 1999). The investments in the person and their skills development led to increased remuneration and role
status but, because women made fewer investments than men, they gained fewer rewards (ibid). In this context, women were seen to lack the expertise and skills required for senior management roles. This came up as the third reason that was extracted from the analysis of the qualitative responses that, generally, the supposed female leaders were not qualified enough for the posts, as compared to their male counterparts.

4.9.1.4 Family Commitments

In the prior scenarios, family commitments were mentioned of by other respondents as the major restrictive factor behind the low participation of women in the higher echelons of management in Teachers’ Training Institutions. Worth mentioning was the sentiment by the following respondents that:

The process of getting there is cumbersome. Too much commitment required for the ordinary mother with a family to care for.

The demands that such positions put on women compromise their other roles of being wives/mothers that are socially and culturally full-time roles. Balancing these roles has not been easy.

However, in as much as the other proportion of women would be willing to take up promotion away from their homes, it seemed that proximity of the family took precedence, as reiterated by the following respondents:

Few women apply for these posts. Those few who apply do not want to be posted out of the cities where they are based should
they be promoted, because they do not want to leave their families behind.

Separation of families at appointment discourages women accepting/applying for such positions.

Considering that there are only 14 Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe, competition for any opening may be stiff but women have no reason why they are not vying for the vacancies. Family commitments could be the grounding factor but an attempt might be necessary and not to shun away from it. This study is also an attempt to encourage the women to be visible in the management of these Teachers’ Training Colleges.

4.9.1.5 Lack of Confidence

Lack of confidence was reiterated by some of the respondents who mentioned that:

*It could be that they despise themselves. They also lack experience in management positions. They may also be reluctant to rise to the level of challenges that come along with being a manager.*

*Women are not confident enough to stand their ground and so men take that chance to win all the posts.*

These findings do not give an excuse to women not taking up promotion posts because there is no course where one can enrol to study confidence. One has to be exposed to experience in order to gain confidence. If women do not take up promotion posts in the Teachers’ Training Colleges, how are they then expected
to acquire confidence? Confidence is gained through practice and acquisition of knowledge of the job.

4.9.2 Decision Making Tree Analysis

To further understand the responses by the respondents, this study made further inquiries into the classifications of the respondents through the decision tree analysis. This was done with CHAID as the tree growing method, and the results are presented in Figure 4.15:

From the analysis, it was established that the major predictor of the reasons for the currently low participation of women in the higher echelons of management in the Zimbabwean Teachers’ Training Colleges were reasons why management responsibilities interfered with the multiple tasks that women undertook in every life. From the analysis, the two major predictive variables were family commitments and proper time management. From the decision tree, those respondents who mentioned past discrimination as the reason for the low participation of women were more inclined to mentioning of family commitments as the major factor why management responsibilities interfered with the everyday life of women. On the other hand, those who mentioned of time management were less inclined towards putting the blame on past discrimination, but on present discrimination.
To further investigate the influence of being a female manager, the respondents were asked to identify those challenges they thought they would face as woman managers which their male counterparts would not face. The general responses from the findings are presented in Table 4.27:

**Figure 4.15: Decision Tree Analysis – Why Few Women**

### 4.10 Perceived Challenges encountered by Female Managers

To further investigate the influence of being a female manager, the respondents were asked to identify those challenges they thought they would face as woman managers which their male counterparts would not face. The general responses from the findings are presented in Table 4.27:
Table 4.27: Responses: -Perceived Challenges encountered by Female Managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>May be looked down upon, males think women are promoted on gender bias not merit.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2. | - Resistance from men to change  
    - Labelling e. g. carpet interviews.  
    - Insecurity and resistance from spouse. |
| 3. | Gaining total respect from the male counterparts. |
| 4. | When mature enough there are no challenges, one needs to commit themselves for 24/7 kind of job and maintain a professional approach. |
| 5. | - Balancing home life and work responsibilities/expectations.  
    - Traditional/Cultural male egotism/attitudes.  
    - Sexism. |
| 6. | Being suspected of dubious ways of attaining such positions and not being supported as they are viewed of as not having achieved these positions by merit, or as being incompetent. |
| 7. | None. |
| 8. | People might try to crash everything I say or delegate them to do just because I am a woman. They will always take me for a fool and do no listen to anything I say. |
| 9. | - Issues of disrespect, looked down upon by colleagues especially the female counterparts also contribute though also the males will be at the fore front.  
    - Resistance to take up orders as a result wanting to pull you down this will negatively affect the woman manager. |
| 10. | - Being firm. Women are full of emotions and at times, their emotions could influence certain decisions.  
    - Judgement – could be impaired since women are full of sympathy. |
| 11. | - Convincing people that I may manage as well as, if not better than some males.  
    - Being looked down upon by males. |
| 12. | - Bad mouthing pulls one down.  
    - The nature of being a woman: Gender equality problems. |
| 13. | Being undermined by the Head Office. If one is aware that they are being undermined they get demoralized. |
| 14. | Subordination, because some males believe that they should not be headed by a female, so they will try by all means to put me down. |
| 15. | - Woman to woman resistance. Generally women have a tendency of looking down on each other, there co-operation lacks between the two.  
    - Resistance from men. Generally men feel threatened if they have a female leader above them, and would often not want to co-operate with the female manager to make her appear incompetent. |
| 16. | Enough time for administrative/managerial duties due to social cultural factors. |
| 17. | A woman has multiple roles – being a wife, mother, counsellor, manager etc. The roles are more demanding than the man’s. This would affect the family more than the work environment. The more time the woman spends out of the family in work related duties, the more challenges she faces with family responsibilities. |
18. A woman manager will face resistance from the male counterparts because of the traditional roles.

19. Most people are sceptical of qualities of women leadership. There would be negative reactions at first, I think, which could end if I prove that women are just as capable as men.

20. In the Zimbabwean culture, a woman’s place is considered as the kitchen and women are considered as people of low intellect, therefore I may face challenges in trying to change the perceptions of those men in the organisation so as to reduce instances of insubordination.

21. Family commitments such as children and spouses who may disapprove of their spouses moving up.

22. Extensive travelling and meetings which overlap to evening or night.

23. I would face a challenge of having to prove myself to my male counterparts. Women are usually highly scrutinised and criticised in cases where men would not have been. This would give so much pressure on top of the already demanding task of being the backbone of the family and have as mother and wife. More demanding than being husband or father.

24. Having to seek permission from home spouse especially to accept that there is a meeting e. g. in Victoria Falls etc.

25. Lack of support from both male and female staff that have negative perceptions about women leadership.

26. - Naturally women look down upon each other, so there would be little or no support and co-operation from women colleagues.
 - Culturally men feel that they cannot be managed by a woman.

These findings give a picture of women who are afraid of the society. Women think that if they apply and get the promotion, the society will question how they managed to get it ahead of men who would have applied for the same post. It is a general belief that a woman who passes an interview ahead of a man might have got it through a ‘carpet interview’ style. In fact, society might view that woman as having used actual self to get that promotion and not her merit.

Corresponding word cloud that was generated from the analysis of word frequency in the responses in the above table is presented in Figure 4.16:
The responses from the analysis were handled primarily in NVivo, and distinctive nodes were established, where in the thematic responses were coded. From the analysis, five main classifications were established, and these were:

- a. Stereotyping/Prejudices
- b. Cultural Male Egotism
- c. Family Commitments
- d. Resistance from Spouse
- e. Woman-to-Woman Resistance

Quantifying these responses, it came out from the research that the two major perceived challenges that women in management would face which their male counterparts would not face were prejudices/stereotypes, and the cultural male egotism, both with respective 45.8% occurrences. It should be noted that both these factors were rather embroiled, or rather nurtured by the significant patriarchal system which the
Zimbabwean African culture buoys. The third mentioned factor was the issue of family commitments with 29.2%. Other significant, but less impacting factors were ‘resistance from spouse’ and ‘woman-to-woman resistance’, both with equal percentages of 12.5% and this is presented in Table 4.28:

### Table 4.28: Challenges Frequencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges that women in management face</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Percent of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stereotyping/Prejudices</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31.4% 45.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Male Egotism</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31.4% 45.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Commitments</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20.0% 29.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resistance from Spouse</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.6% 12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman-to-Woman Resistance</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.6% 12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>100.0% 145.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 2.

From the results above, it can be deduced that women suffer from stereotype and cultural male egotism which are tied at 45.8% in their quest to climb the ladder of management. Spouse and woman-to-woman resistance do not seem to deter them much as they are both at the weakest with 12.5%.

#### 4.10.1 Stereotyping/Prejudices

This factor was one of the most dominant factors which female manager were perceived to be facing, which male managers would not face. As presupposed earlier, these challenges related to stereotyping and prejudices were mainly buttressed by the rather patriarchal system in Zimbabwe, as responses suggesting elements of the latter seemed to crop out. A case in point, one respondent mentioned that: ‘Most people are skeptical of qualities of women leadership.'
There would be negative reactions at first, I think, which could end if I prove that women are just as capable as men.”

As a result of the prejudices that society has over females, this presented insuperable obstacles for the female manager as one would need to thoroughly convince the former of one’s competence for one to gain absolute trust and confidence of society, as noted:

I would face a challenge of having to prove myself to my male counterparts. Women are usually highly scrutinised and criticised in cases where men would not have been. This would give so much pressure on top of the already demanding task of being the backbone of the family and have as mother and wife.

Another respondent mentioned: “Convincing people that I may manage as well as man, if not better than some males…”

Female managers are believed to be a new source of leadership talent because of their organisational skills, their ability to share, communicate, and listen to and empathise with the needs of others (Blackmore 2002). Their more openly softer characteristics were thought to be critical to new managerialism in post-modern organisations. Women’s nurturing nature placed them in a better position than men to exercise these more spontaneously occurring ‘soft skills’ alongside the tougher skills already expected of managers in a male defined managerial world. The ‘soft skills’ involved motivating staff, creating co-operation, re-defining organisational values and beliefs, and re-aligning management focus (Blackmore 2002).

Despite the potential in women, they continue to face challenges in trying to change the perceptions of those men in the organisation so as to reduce instances of insubordination as illustrated by one response that was given: “Issues of disrespect,
looked down upon by colleagues especially the female counterparts also contribute though also the males will be at the fore front.”

Furthermore, other factors seen to entangle insubordination were:

Being suspected of dubious ways of attaining such positions and not being supported as they are viewed of as not having achieved these positions by merit, or as being incompetent. May be looked down upon, males think women are promoted on gender bias not merit.

These findings concurred with Wollstonecraft (1972) who argued that women ought to have an education commensurate with their position in society.

4.10.2 Cultural Male Egotism

Another factor, driven by the patriarchal system in Zimbabwe that was seen to be negatively impacting on the perceived challenges of female managers, which their male counterparts would not face was the cultural male egotism, or, “being looked down upon by males” or, “negative perceptions about women leadership” as clearly mentioned by some of the respondents that:

Culturally men feel that they cannot be managed by a woman so there are chances of resistance and insubordination from men.

Generally men feel threatened if they have a female leader above them, and would often not want to co-operate with the female manager to make her appear incompetent.

Resistance to take up orders as a result wanting to pull you down this will negatively affect the woman manager.

Subordination, because some males believe that they should not be headed by a female, so they will try by all means to put me down.
It was as a result of the above reasons that one of the respondents stated that

*People might try to crash everything I say or delegate them to do just because I am a woman. They will always take me for a fool and do not listen to anything I say.*

Thus, “*gaining total respect from the male counterparts*” was inevitably a major problem, wherefrom, elements of insubordination by male counterparts were seemingly inevitable, and this was mentioned of by several respondents citing: “*A woman manager will face resistance from the male counterparts because of the traditional roles.*”

### 4.10.3 Family Commitments

The third challenge mentioned of by the respondents as mainly characteristic of female leaders was that of family commitments. Female managers were rather identified with multiple roles, which their male counterparts were rather free from, and according to one of the respondents:

*A woman has multiple roles – being a wife, mother, counselor, manager etc. The roles are more demanding than the man’s. This would affect the family more than the work environment. The more time the woman spends out of the family in work related duties, the more challenges she faces with family responsibilities.*

The major problem inherent in female managers, which male managers were immune to was, as another respondent reiterated, the issue of balancing home life and work responsibilities /expectations. Eventually, there would not be *enough time for administrative/management duties due to social cultural factors*. Furthermore, the
anticipated “extensive travelling and meetings which overlap to evening or night” was mentioned as another inhibiting factor which female managers would face. It was as a result that being a female in the higher echelons of management was seen to be *more demanding than being husband or father*. Nonetheless, these presumed challenges were pre-empted by one of the respondents who indicated that they were only but ephemeral, citing that: “*When mature enough there are no challenges, one needs to commit themselves for 24/7 kind of job and maintain a professional approach.*”

4.10.4 Other Factors

The responses given along these lines included:

a. Insecurity and resistance from spouse.

b. Spouses who may disapprove of their spouses moving up.

c. Having to seek permission from home spouse especially to accept that there is a meeting e. g. in Victoria Falls.

d. Generally women have a tendency of looking down on each other, they lack co-operation.

e. Resistance from men.

f. Lack of support from female staff.

g. Naturally women look down upon each other, so there would be little or no support and co-operation from women colleagues.

4.11 Interference of Management Responsibilities on Women

As a further assessment of the extent to which women in leadership roles were affected by their work-demands, the respondents were asked whether management
responsibilities interfered with the multiple tasks that women undertook in everyday life. The responses from the respondents are presented in Table 4.29:

Table 4.29: Responses -Extent of Interference of Management Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Narration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Yes, family chores/responsibilities suffer a lot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Yes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Sure, they do especially in terms of time allocation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Yes! A woman in that position should have children beyond school age, a husband who is supportive and a solid support system to survive.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 5. | Yes, office hours demand may overlap into time traditionally meant for family time.  
As wife/mother a woman is the anchor in home life thus absence because of call of duty may result in disorder/disharmony. |
| 6. | Yes, very much so, and always either of the tasks would suffer, as both responsibilities compete for time, space, attention etc. |
| 7. | No. |
| 8. | No they don’t because work is work and we don’t take management responsibilities home. |
| 9. | Yes, but not really, there is conflict of roles, the multiple household echoes, the societal demands and the managerial responsibilities causing women to be out of home during uncalled hours yet the home also demands the presence of them. |
| 10. | Yes, to a greater extent. Management may interfere with family time, in terms of late dismissal, late travelling, child bearing, working during weekends, attendance to family chaos. |
| 11. | Not exactly, especially if the woman is able to streamline as well as draw a line between social life and work life. |
| 12. | Yes  
- Attending workshops away from home.  
- Dismissing very late at times.  
- Unscheduled meetings that may crop up.  
- Moving around with suckling babies is so demanding. |
| 13. | No, they don’t. Women in general are better organized than men. Responsibilities pertaining home and those pertaining work are done simultaneously and effectively. |
| 14. | Yes, they do. Women manage their homes and conflict might occur. |
| 15. | Very much. Women have lives to live outside their work places. At times they might be clashes between family and work, in terms of shared times, where the women might be required to work late, over weekends, over holidays etc., affecting family programmes. |
| 16. | Yes they do. There is much time which one should devote in management and this can conflict with the roles of a woman at home. |
| 17. | They do. Check answer for Question 17 above. |
18. They do interfere with the multiple tasks. Some responsibilities might require are to go out of the country or to another town for same days. During this period the family will need mother’s attention yet she is not around.

19. They do in a way. Women care for children. When they are pregnant that affects their mental and physical strength at times. Cultural duties expected of women may also affect performance.

20. To a great extent it is indeed possible for these responsibilities to interfere with the multiple tasks that women undertake e.g. women sometimes have to play the role of nurse as they care for sick family members. Therefore in a situation where a woman has to leave home to College business, society might label her as inconsiderate.

21. Yes, especially for those with young families.

22. Definitely.

23. Not at all. If the woman is in her right frame of mind and if the environment is pleasant such tasks and demand of everyday life would not interfere with the workplace. Women are good multi-taskers and managers of the home. This is a strength that can be brought into office to benefit the institution.

24. This is because you are a parent, a nurse and you required to stay late at work sometimes. You cannot ignore these because you are now a manager. Quality time with children is needed. Some husbands need meals from wives only.

25. Not at all, most working women have coping mechanisms that cater for their everyday life tasks, some have workers to do domestic duties.

26. To a lesser extent they do but since a woman is also a manager at home, they will be able to balance the two.

From the findings, 80.8% of the responses show that management responsibilities add to the already existing load responsibilities that women had for the family. Women are wives, mothers, cooks, aunts, mothers-in-law, daughters-in-law, grandmothers, counselors, church members, club members and many more. They also have to help with their children’s school work and entertain the husband. While this might be true of a burden, married women could engage the services of a maid who may assist her with some of the house chores. The remaining 19.2% said management duties would not interfere. These might be responses from the single ones and probably the widowed too. This study could not accept this excuse of home chores as a reason for not taking up promotion posts because these home chores might be over exaggerated. The corresponding word cloud for the above responses is presented in Figure 4.17:
4.11.1 Categorized Responses

The above findings were subjected to content analysis using Nvivo, and the thematic nodes were established, and the responses were coded accordingly. The primary nodding system established whether or not management responsibilities interfered with multiple tasks undertaken by women. Quantifying the corresponding codes resulted in Table 4.30:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid No</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>96.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the above table, the majority of the respondents (68%) affirmed that, indeed, management responsibilities interfered with the multiple tasks that women undertook. Only 32% of the respondents disagreed. Thus, this finding served to cross-validate the earlier findings which also indicated the rather inhibiting effect of management responsibilities with the many tasks done by women. To further establish the sub-themes within each of the above two categories, content analysis was performed to the sub-nodes of each of the two primary categories. The results are presented in Table 4.31 below:

Table 4.31: Frequencies – How Management Responsibilities Interferes

| Management Responsibilities Interfering with Multiple Tasks that Women Undertake in Every Life | Why Interfering/Not Interfering |
|---|---|---|---|
| Family Commitments | Proper Time Management | Total |
| No | 1 | 5 | 6 |
| Yes | 15 | 1 | 16 |
| Total | 16 | 6 | 22 |

Two distinguishing factors were established from further content analysis done through matrix coding in Nvivo. These are family commitments and time management. Generally, the major factor highlighted by those respondents who agreed that management responsibilities were affected, was that of the family. The summarized findings are presented in Table 4.32:

Table 4.32: Responses - Interference of Management Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>NARRATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family Commitments</td>
<td>They do interfere with the multiple tasks. Some responsibilities might require are to go out of the country or to another town for same days. During this period the family will need mother’s attention yet she is not around. Family chores/responsibilities suffer a lot. Sure, they do especially in terms of time allocation. A woman in that position should have children beyond school age, a husband who is supportive and a solid support system to survive.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Office hours demands may overlap into time traditionally meant for family time. As wife/mother a woman is the anchor in home life thus absence because of call of duty may result in disorder/disharmony.

Yes, very much so, and always either of the tasks would suffer, as both responsibilities compete for time, space, attention etc.

There is conflict of roles, the multiple household echoes, the societal demands and the managerial responsibilities causing women to be out of home during uncalled hours yet the home also demands the presence of them.

Management may interfere with family time, in terms of late dismissal, late travelling, child bearing, working during weekends, attendance to family chaos.

Attending workshops away from home. Dismissing very late at times. Unscheduled meetings that may crop up. Moving around with suckling babies is so demanding.

Women have lives to live outside their work places. At times they might be clashes between family and work, in terms of shared times, where the women might be required to work late, over weekends, over holidays etc., affecting family programmes.

There is much time which one should devote in management and this can conflict with the roles of a woman at home.

Women care for children. When they are pregnant that affects their mental and physical strength at times. Cultural duties expected of women may also affect performance.

To a great extent it is indeed possible for these responsibilities to interfere with the multiple tasks that women undertake e.g. women sometimes have to play the role of nurse as they care for sick family members. Therefore in a situation where a woman has to leave home to College business, society might label her as inconsiderate.

Yes, especially for those with young families.

This is because you are a parent, a nurse and you required to stay late at work sometimes. You cannot ignore these because you are now a manager. Quality time with children is needed. Some husbands need meals from wives only.

On the other hand, with regards to those who declined to the impact of management positions on the multiple tasks of women, the key factors that cropped out were that of time management, obscurely and supportive environment as shown in Table 4.33:
Table 4.33: No Interference of Management Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>NARRATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time Management</td>
<td>No they don’t because work is work and we don’t take management responsibilities home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not exactly, especially if the woman is able to streamline as well as draw a line between social life and work life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women in general are better organized than men. Responsibilities pertaining home and those pertaining work are done simultaneously and effectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women are good multi-taskers and managers of the home. This is a strength that can be brought into office to benefit the institution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Most working women have coping mechanisms that cater for their everyday life tasks; some have workers to do domestic duties.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To a lesser extent they do but since a woman is also a manager at home, they will be able to balance the two.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive Environment</td>
<td>If the woman is in her right frame of mind and if the environment is pleasant such tasks and demand of everyday life would not interfere with the workplace.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To better explain the above findings, decision tree analysis was conducted using CHAID as the extraction algorithm, with the interference of management responsibilities as the parent node and the reasons for interfering being predictor child nodes. The results are presented in Figure 4.18:
From the assessment above, it was worth noting that the key findings established was that management demands were as demanding as the family (93.8%). With the application of appropriate time management practices, one would be able to balance between the two, as evidenced in 83.3% of the respondents.

4.12 Contentedness with Status Quo

Related to the current low participation of women at higher echelons of management in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development, respondents were asked whether they liked the situation as it was. From the analysis of the coded created in Nvivo, it turned out that virtually all the respondents did not like the status quo as cited in Table 4.34:

Table 4.34: Responses - Contentedness with Status Quo

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><em>Ministry and Government are encouraging women to take up posts in those higher echelons.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>No. Women are better managers than men, and they work hard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>No. I would prefer a situation where women are given positions of management regardless of age and experience but based on leadership qualities and professionalism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>No! All effort should be put to ensure women participate in meaningful manner. Those already in those positions should maintain good standards to illustrate the competence of women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>No – women with the requisite qualifications should be more visible, for example Directorship, Permanent Secretary, Deputy Director, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>No, women have not been supported enough to balance their socio-cultural roles and the demands of the modern role in management positions, glass ceiling barriers have to be removed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I am content because a solution had been made. Women are taking positions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>No. I don’t because women also need to be up there at the higher echelons of management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Yes, because they are trying to raise the standards of women. Women are equally important to men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The present status quo is not pleasing. Women are now as educated as men hence should be given the opportunity to experience in leadership roles. Men might seem to be doing well as compared to women; it is because they have been given opportunity to experience leadership over time. Hence have gained experience. Women need that chance too.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>I do not, but due to the reasons already given above, there is very little anybody can do until the Ministry adjusts the percentages in the positions of women versus males.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>I feel there should be a movement to women occupying more posts at higher echelons of management: occupy half the number of HTE colleges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>No, I don’t like it. This leads to women abuse where one gets promoted because they have accepted immorality one way or the other. Like I said before, unless you gain favours with Head Office personnel, one cannot be promoted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Yes, because the Ministry’s majority of workers are women and sometimes, some women who are on higher positions tend to look down upon other women hence more conflicts at home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Not really. Women are not really exposed as well as given equal opportunities. Even if applications are made, more men than women are generally lifted up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>To some extent. When women are in power they tend to abuse their authority and think it is the time for them to settle scores.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>No. This must change. Women are as capable as their male counterparts to manage in any position, as long as they are professionally trained.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>No, they should include women in higher echelons of management so that the challenges they have can be well presented by women in Parliament or any other forum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>In reality it is still a ‘man’s world’. It will take time. I am impartial because what is important is whether one is capable or not regardless of whether female or male.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Definitely not. Women should also participate at higher echelons as they also hold the same qualifications and experience as their male counterparts in the Ministry, for example, the Minister in the Ministry is a capable and highly...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
qualified woman, hence women are able.

21. No, but women need to work hard so as to improve their skills and quality for higher positions.

22. No. I think it is time women also take up challenging positions in higher institutions.

23. I do not like the status quo but what is discouraging is to have the few women that are there not living up to expectation. As much as I would want to see greater participation. We women appointed to management should be high performers and not there to fight other women.

24. No. We need more women participation. Women are the mothers and key family members who know what children and dependents need we should be making decisions in higher institutions as these affect our children.

25. No, more women should be encouraged to take up leadership positions in this Ministry.

26. It is disappointing, the number is still very low, I expect most women to be in managerial positions so that they can be able to represent all the women and their challenges and be their voice.

The more predominant plight that was raised was mainly that of equal representation, as best quoted by one of the respondents that:

*The present status quo is not pleasing. Women are now as educated as men hence should be given the opportunity to experience in leadership roles. Men might seem to be doing well as compared to women; it is because they have been given opportunity to experience leadership over time hence has gained experience. Women need that chance too.*

*Women are not really exposed as well as given equal opportunities. Even if applications are made, more men than women are generally lifted up.*

The issue of women now having similar qualifications with men was also raised by some of the respondents citing that:

*Women should also participate at higher echelons as they also hold the same qualifications and experience as their male counterparts in the Ministry, for example, the Minister in the Ministry is a capable and highly qualified woman, hence women are able.*

*This must change. Women are as capable as their male counterparts to manage in any position, as long as they are professionally trained.*
I would prefer a situation where women are given positions of management regardless of age and experience but based on leadership qualities and professionalism.

One of the respondents mentioned that, “women are better managers than men”. According to the literature, it was widely recognised that women had alternative ways of problem-solving and dealing with conflict (Bennett, 1997). Studies on the leadership styles of women suggested that women tended to adopt more democratic and participative management styles than males (Blackmore 2002). They shared power, information and support and they encouraged subordinates. Women managers were found to be persuasive, influential and charismatic and made extensive use of interpersonal skills.

However, women who had requisite qualifications to compete on an equal footing with men were now beginning to show up. It was established that they were not yet visible as noted by several respondents that:

- Women with the requisite qualifications should be more visible, for example Directorship, Permanent Secretary, Deputy Director, etc.
- It is disappointing, the number is still very low, I expect most women to be in managerial positions so that they can be able to represent all the women and their challenges and be their voice.
- I feel there should be a movement to women occupying more posts at higher echelons of management: occupy half the number of HTE colleges.

As established earlier, the main problem with the status quo was being driven, to a greater extent, by the patriarchal system which inherently undermined the principles of gender equality, and also fraught with stereotypes and prejudices. As such, it came out explicitly clear from the research as cited by one of the respondents that
Zimbabwean women were socialised by their patriarchal society to believe that women are a weaker species when compared to their male counterpart hence the socialisation process does not accommodate women at higher echelons of management, e.g. some women in management positions always rely on their male subordinates to make decisions for them because they do not have faith in themselves.

Despite these concerns that were raised that more women should be encouraged to take up leadership positions in this Ministry, one of the respondents was more forthcoming citing that: “In reality it is still a ‘man’s world’. It will take time. I am impartial because what is important is whether one is capable or not regardless of whether female or male.”

Furthermore, despite the established equal competency of women, another respondent added on that it was also imperative that women be given all the support they need to be able to balance off their work demands and family demands, mentioning that: “Women have not been supported enough to balance their socio-cultural roles and the demands of the modern role in management positions, glass ceiling barriers have to be removed.”

It was very important that those who were given the opportunity should strive by all means to live up to the expected standards, or rather surpass them. Otherwise, in the eyes of the traditionalists (male egotists), it would defeat the whole purpose of empowering them, as they would have set a wrong antecedent, a self-fulfilling prophecy. This sentiment was mentioned by two respondents who said:

All effort should be put to ensure women participate in meaningful manner. Those already in those positions should maintain good standards to illustrate the competence of women.
I do not like the status quo but what is discouraging is to have the few women that are there not living up to expectation. As much as I would want to see greater participation, women appointed to management should be high performers and not there to fight other women.

Surprisingly, in one of the ministries, the majority were females and concerns of in-fighting amongst women were raised, citing that: “The Ministry’s majority of workers are women and sometimes, some women who are on higher positions tend to look down upon other women hence more conflicts at home.”

This finding were rather consistent with what was also found earlier that women also tended to inhibit the progress/success of other women, instead of uplifting each other, being in a similar plight. This finding was reiterated by another respondent who opened up and said: “When women are in power they tend to abuse their authority and think it is the time for them to settle scores.”

Despite this finding, one of the major strengths of women was identified by one of the respondents as: “Women are the mothers and key family members who know what children and dependents need. We should be making decisions in higher institutions as these affect our children.”

These findings correspond with what Wollstonecraft (1972) theorized, having suggested that women were essential to the nation because they educated its children and became companions to their husbands, rather than mere wives or ornaments to society or property to be traded in marriage. The Table 4.35 illustrates the status quo position:
Overall, two main factors were raised in the findings and these were the need for equal representation of women, and abuse of authority. From the above table, all the women who did not like the status quo were vying for the equal representation of women. Whereas, ironically, two out of three women who decried the general tendency of women to abuse authority, undermining efforts by other women, were rather content with the status quo, which is, having more males in leadership than females.

4.13 The Socialisation Process in accommodating women

According to the literature (Heward, 1996), girls were traditionally socialised differently to boys. While boys were taught at an early age to value what society perceived as male characteristics, such as: leadership, aggressiveness, assertiveness, task-orientation and competitiveness, little girls were taught to be modest, submissive, affectionate and nurturing. Assertiveness and aggressiveness in girls was perceived as improper and hence was shunned in grown women too.

Whereas it could be accepted as entirely natural for a male to aggressively pursue his goals and ambitions and openly declare his desire for promotion and leadership, the same behavior from a woman was most likely to be perceived negatively by both men and women (Heward, 1996). As observed by O'Leary (1974), the attributes valued
highly in men reflected a ‘competency’ cluster including objectivity, skill in business, and decision-making ability. Female valued traits comprised a warmth-expressiveness cluster antithetical to the male profile. It was, therefore, the other research thrust to ascertain whether the socialisation process accommodated women at higher echelons of management in Zimbabwe. The responses were collated and are presented in Table 4.36:

**Table 4.36: Socialisation Process in accommodating women**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>No, it discourages women, however in the new era; girl empowerment will go a long way in encouraging women to rise to the occasion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The process doesn’t. It actually pulls women down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Not quite, the society is still dominantly patriarchal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Yes and No. if your parents encouraged equality/equity with the family you grow up knowing anyone can be a boss. However, if you grew up in an oppressive home where the man had the final say you grow up believing in that.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The African cultural socialisation process does not, as women should have a subservient role to men. This explains male egotism towards women in power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>No, it does not accommodate women in management positions and this is the gap that government should address through deliberate policies that are enforced at lower/earlier levels of the life of a girl child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>A lot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>To an extent yes, but in most cases they are always left out as they only accommodate men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>It does, because we are looking at change and the change for the better, women are now being accepted into different higher avenues in Zimbabwe leadership and they calm the situation like the Vice President of Zimbabwe, AmaiMujuru is a good example.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Socialisation process seems to contradict/does not seem to accommodate women as leaders because at home girl children are taught to respect men, even in church women should submit to their husbands, how can women be submissive and rule at the same time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>For the older generation, it did not but for the younger generation, it does.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I do not think it does but women should force their way through.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Definitely, nonentities, no matter how experienced, are never accommodated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>No, usually women were socialised to be below male, and most women still have this in mind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>No, the socialisation process still sees more men than women taking lead in the process. More women should be involved in the general process in order for more women to be involved and interested in taking leading roles in management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>It doesn’t. Women were socialised to act as followers. Some have to make a decision for them. Therefore, it becomes difficult to make concrete decisions when one is at that level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>It is now. It never did long back.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>I think in Zimbabwe generally women are now being accommodated in higher echelons except maybe in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development Science and Technology Development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Not quite. Women are often socialised to submit to men. Duties or chores at home perpetuate gender role stereotypes and this goes up to the higher echelons of management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Zimbabwean women were socialised by their patriarchal society to believe that women are a weaker species when compared to their male counterpart hence the socialisation process does not accommodate women at higher echelons of management, e.g. some women in management positions always rely on their male subordinates to make decisions for them because they do not have faith in themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Yes, it does now but it is harder for women than men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>To a certain extent may be it does accommodate the women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>The socialisation process does accommodate women although at an individual basis. Policies that are placed in parliament need to be implemented in all facets of the country and particularly in Government institutions. Still more work needs to be done (on the ground) and not just lip service.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>The socialisation process does not accommodate women because right from home children are told the boy child shall lead ‘you are female’ that discrimination is made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Socialisation process for the Zimbabwean African needs to be encouraged to accommodate global trends and change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>I can say yes, the way the woman of today has been socialised prepares them for that challenge and men are slowly beginning to accept and accommodate women as their superiors. There has been a paradigm shift in the way we have been socialised.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above data were then coded into NVivo, defining the key nodes. The corresponding word cloud is presented in Figure 4.19:

![Word Cloud](image)

**Figure 4.19: Word Cloud: Socialisation Process in accommodation women**

From the eventual outcome, two primary nodes were defined, those who agreed and those who disagreed that the socialisation process accommodated women. Child nodes were also defined, being sub-categories of the responses, defining why the respondents thought the socialisation process accommodated or did not accommodate women. These child nodes were eventually patriarchal system, recent changes and depend with background. Quantifying the eventual matrix nodes between the two variables resulted in the output of Table 4.37:
Table 4.37: Cross Tabulation – Socialisation Process in accommodation women

| Do you think the socialisation process accommodates women at higher echelons of management | Why it does/does not accommodate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| No | Patriarchal System | Recent Changes | Depends with Background | Total |
| 16 | 0 | 0 | 16 |
| Yes | 0 | 6 | 1 | 7 |
| Total | 16 | 6 | 1 | 23 |

From the above contingency table, all the respondents who noted that the socialization process did not accommodate women specified the patriarchal system as the major reason behind it not accommodating women. On the other hand, 6 out of 7 respondents who specified that the socialization process indeed accommodated women also specified that they were basing their judgement on the current trends, that is, recent changes. This finding was further cross-validated by the decision tree analysis output presented in Figure 4.20:

![Decision Tree](image)

**Figure 4.20: Decision Tree - Socialisation Process in accommodating Women**
4.13.1 Socialisation Process being Restrictive

The coded nodes were thematically segmented in NVivo, and the eventual output was presented in Table 4.38:

Table 4.38: Responses - Socialisation Process being Restrictive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undefined</td>
<td><em>I do not think it does but women should force their way through.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Socialisation process for the Zimbabwean African needs to be encouraged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to accommodate global trends and change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patriarchal</td>
<td><em>No, it discourages women, however in the new era, girl empowerment will</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td><em>go a long way in encouraging women to rise to the occasion.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>The process doesn’t. It actually pulls women down.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Not quite, the society is still dominantly patriarchal.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>The African cultural socialisation process does not, as women should</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>have a subservient role to men. This explains male egotism towards</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>women in power.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>No, it does not accommodate women in management positions and this is</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>the gap that government should address through deliberate policies that</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>are enforced at lower/earlier levels of the fife of a girl child.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>To an extent yes, but in most cases they are always left out as they</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>only accommodate men.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Socialisation process seems to contradict/does not seem to accommodate *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>women as leaders because at home girl children are taught to respect</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>men, even in church women should submit to their husbands, how can</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>women be submissive and rule at the same time.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Definitely, nonentities, no matter how experienced, are never accommodated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>No, usually women were socialised to be below male, and most women still</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>have this in mind.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>No, the socialisation process still sees more men than women taking lead</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>in the process. More women should be involved in the general process</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>in order for more women to be involved and interested in taking leading</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>roles in management.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>It doesn’t. Women were socialised to act as followers. Some have to</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>make a decision for them. Therefore, it becomes difficult to make</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>concrete decisions when one is at that level.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not quite. Women are often socialised to submit to men. Duties or chores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>at home perpetuate gender role stereotypes and this goes up to the</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>higher echelons of management.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>The socialisation process does accommodate women although at an</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>individual basis. Policies that are placed in parliament need to be</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>implemented in all facets of the country and particularly in</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Government institutions. Still more work needs to be done (on the</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>ground) and not just lip service.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*The socialisation process does not accommodate women because right from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>home children are told the ‘boy child shall lead, ‘you are female’ that</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>discrimination is made.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a nutshell, all the responses were indicative of the fact that during the acculturation process, (girls) women were groomed to be rather sub-servile/subservient to the male
counterparts, or rather that the males should always be above women, and that the latter should be submissive, followers. According to this model, females should therefore not assume higher positions, or any other leadership positions with men below, no wonder one of the respondents emotionally mentioned that with the patriarchal system, women were definitely nonentities, no matter how experienced, (and) are never accommodated.

A case in point that helped justify the restrictiveness of the socialization process could be seen from the introduction of free primary education for all and heavily subsidized secondary education in rural areas in the 1980s. This meant that, even the African girls who could not attend school due to lack of finance, could then actively participate in education (Mahlaule, 1995). However, as a result, some parents whose values were deeply rooted in traditional patriarchal beliefs, did not take up the offer to send their children to school, especially girls who were needed at home to assist with domestic chores and waited for marriage.

Regardless of the efforts by the Government of Zimbabwe to promote education for all, certain negative cultural practices and norms continued to constrain women’s education and employment of rights (Gordan, 1996). Culture was defined as the non-biological aspects of human societies. The values, customs, and modes of behavior were learned and internalized by people rather than being genetically transmitted from one generation to the other (Mash 2000). As a result, culture was viewed as shared, learned values that shaped and influenced people, while religion was, according to Raday (2006), defined as constituting people’s culture. Culture and religious factors also contributed to women’s oppression. Duncan (1989) noted that, biblically women were supposed to be under their husband’s authority. This was supported by a quotation from the Bible in 1st Corinthians 14:34 which said that a woman should not speak but be submissive to her husband. The bible also gave a description of the ideal wife and how
she should perform her duties in the domestic sphere no matter how educated they were (Proverbs 31:10-15). This was further perpetuated by the Ladies Unions that encouraged women to be submissive to their husbands regardless of their rights being violated.

4.13.2 Socialisation Process not being Restrictive

With regards to the respondents who mentioned that the socialisation process was not restrictive, it was rather clear that they mentioned that for the older generation, it did not accommodate women, but for the current generation, it did. The respective responses are presented thematically in Table 4.39:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undefined</td>
<td>A lot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To a certain extent may be it does accommodate the women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depends with Background</td>
<td>If your parents encouraged equality/equity with the family you grow up knowing anyone can be a boss. However, if you grew up in an oppressive home where the man had the final say you grow up believing in that.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recent Changes</td>
<td>It does, because we are looking at change and the change for the better, women are now being accepted into different higher avenues in Zimbabwe leadership and they calm the situation like the Vice President of Zimbabwe, Amai Mujuru is a good example.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the older generation, it did not but for the younger generation, it does.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is now. It never did long back.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I think in Zimbabwe generally women are now being accommodated in higher echelons except maybe in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development Science and Technology Development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes, it does now but it is harder for women than men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can say yes, the way the woman of today has been socialised prepares them for that challenge and men are slowly beginning to accept and accommodate women as their superiors. There has been a paradigm shift in the way we have been socialised.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.14 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided the results of the findings on the factors influencing the lower numbers of women in the higher echelons of management in Zimbabwean Teachers’ Training Colleges. It mainly centered on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the gathered data from both secondary and primary sources. The response rate of questionnaires and interviews were looked into and the data thereof was presented in the form of tables, charts and graphs. The next chapter gives the summary of the whole research findings and the discussions, drawing conclusions and proffering recommendations and the suggestions for future research works.
CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations.

5.0 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the data from questionnaire, interviews and proceeded to discuss and interpret the presented data as well as giving an appropriate analysis to understand the distributions and response themes that were emanating from the study. As furtherance to the analyses, this chapter deeply explores the concepts and themes established in the previous chapter with a view to determining and resolving the challenges affecting the representativeness of females in the higher echelons of management in Zimbabwean Teachers Training Colleges. Chapter 5 summarises the findings, draws conclusions and gives possible recommendations.

5.1 Summary of the Research Findings

The main thrust of the research was to explore the dynamics of gender disparity in Zimbabwe with a critical analysis of the factors that impede the advancement of women into the higher echelons of management in Teachers’ Training Colleges.

The necessity of this study was warranted by the fact that despite Zimbabwe having ratified several regional and international gender equality statutes and conventions during the past two decades, the International Convention on all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), for instance, it has proved that such initiatives have not automatically guaranteed women equal opportunities. The Zimbabwean Government conceded to the existence of gender disparity, such that it eventually institutionalised gender issues through the set-up of a dedicated stand-alone Ministry of Women’s Affairs that was set up to solely look into issues of women
empowerment. Empirically, however, despite all these noble initiatives, let alone the fact that women account for 52% of Zimbabwe’s population, there was a gross underrepresentation and marginalisation of women. They were glaringly out-numbered by males in the governance of the fourteen Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe, ironically, along with the management team at the Head Office.

In the face of the widely affirmed verity that women constitute a huge segment of the available management talent in organisations, their representation at top-level managerial positions had not reached even close to parity levels with males. This ill-representation of women in the present information age which is generally characterised by a well-informed generation on issues to do with gender equality, has, for this reason, been a topical issue among scholars with many grey areas that the existing body of knowledge has failed to thoroughly satiate. It was for this reason; therefore, that the researcher sought to bridge the research gap by critically analysing the impediments that the women encountered in their quest to higher echelons of management, with a leaning towards the education system in Zimbabwe, specifically, women in the tertiary institutions.

To help contextualise and align the research with the existing body of knowledge, the contextually relevant literature was critically reviewed in the second chapter, and covered eight broad areas: the concepts of gender, the gender construct theories and the development approaches. The chapter also reviewed the history of international and national focus on women issues, the history of the movement for gender equality and the 21st century resolutions on gender equality. Other supporting theories such as the patriarchal theory, the capitalism theory and the theory of transformational leadership were also covered. To contextualise the literature to the Zimbabwean setup, the chapter concluded by evaluating the advancement of women into educational leadership
positions in Zimbabwe, covering the 1999 Nziramasanga Commission on Enquiry into education and training.

Having established the theoretical framework, the researcher went on to define the methodological framework that would form the blueprint for the empirical conductance of the research. Essentially, the research being based on social theories (interpretivist paradigms), as opposed to scientific studies (positivist paradigms), was in the main qualitative. However, quantitative aspects were also covered to help triangulate the findings, and in other words, this research adopted the mixed methods approach. Regardless, this research was mainly rooted in inductive theories, in lieu of deductive theories, as the former approach tended to facilitate the drawing of conclusions and the development of theories about the entire classes of subjects based on knowledge of the phenomena gained through observation in the real world as opposed to developing hypotheses and theories ahead of explaining empirical observations.

The research population comprised 525 female lecturers and administrators in the 14 Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe. Due to time and resource limitations, this study conveniently sampled 7 Teachers’ Training Colleges out of the total 14 because of their proximity and ease of access by the researcher. These comprised 3 colleges in Harare Province, 1 in Mashonaland Central Province and 3 in the Matabeleland Region. Of this sample, 2 were Secondary Teachers’ Training Colleges out of a total of 3, while 5 were Primary Teachers’ Training Colleges out of a grand total of 11.

From each of the selected Teachers’ Training College, four females were randomly selected for questionnaire completion and the sample included one Head of Department, one Lecturer-In-Charge and one Subject Head. Purposive sampling then done to sample interview female Vice Principals and female Principals as this facilitated the selection of individuals that yielded the most information on the subject.
of discussion who had made it into the higher echelons of management and who had a traceable inclination into the field of education, and had also spoken vociferously on gender disparities in management.

Having collected the findings, the data were collated, coded and analysed thematically by research objectives. From the analysis, it came out that the willingness of female lecturers to work anywhere on promotion was three pronged, that is, some agreed, some disagreed while others were conditional. Those who were willing cited career advancement, compliance, flexibility and prior experience as the major reasons, while those who were conditional cited proximity of family and remuneration as the drivers. Those who were not agreeing cited mainly the issue of age and family commitments as the major deterrence.

From the analysis again, three possible response categories to the factors influencing the response to vacancy notices were extracted and these are, willing, not-willing and conditional. Those respondents who would not respond to the vacancy notices cited mainly age, family commitments, fear of change and the lack of enough qualifications as the major detractors. On the other hand, the respondents who would conditionally respond to the vacancy postings would take into consideration the issues to do with the proximity of the family, opportunities for professional growth and the conditions of service, inclusive of the remuneration. Lastly, it also emerged that the willing respondents took into consideration opportunities for professional growth and better remuneration.

In the analysis chapter, it was established that the major barriers to the rightful and equitable top-managerial representation of women in order of decreasing impact were:

*Family Commitments, Patriarchal System, Lack of Opportunity, Inadequate...*

Upon running factor analysis, the first factor comprised lack of opportunity, lack of confidence and lack of self-esteem. What this meant was there seemed to be very high degrees of low confidence and low self-esteem in cases that were characterized by lack of opportunity/empowerment, indicating that self-confidence, assertiveness and high self-esteem were antecedents of empowerment.

The second factor comprised the patriarchal system and lack of husband support. What was deduced from this factor was that lack of husband support was most likely a result of the restrictive society that is characterized, in the main, by the patriarchal system. Culturally, most husbands, if not all, do not want to be outdone by their wives. They would prefer to remain in the helm and enjoy being hero worshiped by their wives. They fear a situation where a wife would earn more than the husband as such a wife would end up calling the shots at home and take over the control.

The third factor comprised family commitments and inadequate qualifications. What this meant was, most likely, that there was a high correlation between the magnitude of the commitments at home and the attainment of higher qualifications. This was in support of the established verity that the reason why most men easily acquire higher qualifications was that they are not exposed to the pressures of the home, unlike women, who spend most of their time fending and taking care of their homes, over and above other social roles.

However, in relation to the findings, the key deterrents that directly prevented female Principal Lecturers from actively pursuing empowerment dreams to the higher echelons of management were seen to be the issue of inadequate qualifications and family commitments. There was a very strong degree of parallelism between the two findings.
as the latter established two main factors were fundamental while the other factors established earlier in the analysis chapter were as a consequence of the effects of these primary factors.

The illustration below summarises the findings in the preceding chapter, showing the covariate link between the primary factors, that is, family commitments and qualifications, with the former being the predictor variable and the latter being the dependent variable.

![Diagram](image-url)

**Figure 5.1: Primary Factors influencing the Low Participation of Women**

Source: Researcher’s Conception

In simple terms, it was established that the less the commitments by females, the more likely they would attain higher qualifications. Family commitments had also a direct effect on the lack of opportunities. Qualifications had a direct effect on the variable *not qualified*, *lack of confidence* and *low self-esteem*, although, of course, the *lack of confidence* and *low self-esteem* were also seen to be an effect of *lack of experience* facilitated by *lack of opportunity*. *Lack of husband support* was directly influenced by
the patriarchal system. Also influenced by the patriarchal system was the lack of opportunities and, indirectly, also family commitments.

From the foregoing, it was established that the entire set of factors influencing the low participation of women revolved around the two control variables, that is, family commitments and qualifications. The only factor variable with a direct influence on these two factors was seen to be the patriarchal system. In other words, in a supportive masculine environment, the effects of familial commitments would be rather minimal, and the same would apply to the likelihood of attaining higher qualifications, which would be rather higher as the milieu would be accommodative and supportive. The redefined model showing the conceptual cause and effect associations between the variables is shown in the Figure 5.2:

![Figure 5.2: Cause and Effect Associations: – Factors Influencing Female Participation](image)

Source: Researcher’s Conception
From the above model, it can be seen that the interactions between all the other elements in the model stemmed from the *Patriarchal System*, and it was this factor that formed the looping factor linking all the other factors. In other words, the major reasons behind the low participation of women revolved around the patriarchal system.

The model below presents the low participation model that best defined the low participation of women in Zimbabwe. From the model, it can be seen that the critical causal factor, which was also the primary looping factor for all the factors in the model, was the patriarchal system. It was, therefore, the patriarchal system that was primarily responsible for the lack of opportunities for female Principal Lecturers to participate in the higher echelons of management. This, as a consequence, resulted in the rather low self-esteem and low confidence by other female counterparts.

*Figure 5.3: Model: - The Patriarchal System Problem*

Source: Researcher’s Conception
Again, it was because of the patriarchal system that female counterparts tended to lack support from their husbands which could, otherwise, help streamline their day-to-day challenges. As a case in point, support from their husbands would tend to offload their responsibilities and thus helping mitigate their family commitments. The less demanding the family was, the more the time female lecturers could spare for other activities such as self-enrichment through education, for instance. In other words, female lecturers tended to have more opportunities if their homes were less demanding. The more the opportunities they pursued, the more the self-confidence they would cultivate in the process, and thus also, this tended to increase their self-esteem.

It was in this light that it should always be over emphasized that although there could be other factors which, seemingly, were behind the low participation of women, they were, most likely than not, a consequence of latent variables. In the context of this study, remnants of the effects of the patriarchal society, seemed to be the root cause.

Earlier findings established that the majority of the respondents were in harmony with respect to their viewpoint of the support they received from the government. As a means of triangulation, the very same distribution was presented to correspondence analysis with a view to establishing the relative ratings of the extent to which the government was providing support. From the findings, it was established that the government actually provided and still continued to provide enough support for women, yet still, ironically, the female Principal Lecturers seemingly were failing to make inroads into the higher echelons of management.
5.2 Conclusions

This section presents the conclusions arrived at by the researcher on the research questions.

1. Existence of Opportunities

With regards to the existence of opportunities for female lecturers, it can be concluded that, indeed, the opportunities exist and that these are equal to those of their male counterparts. It came out that vacancies were openly advertised and that most of the adverts openly encouraged women to apply. Affirmative action and the quota system were also widely echoed as having been implemented by the Government to help ensure a fair representation of women in all aspects of the economy. The existence of opportunities can also be seen from the creation of institutions dedicated for mainstreaming women issues, that is, the Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development, and the Women’s University in Africa. In light of all these initiatives, it can be concluded, therefore, that despite the existence of equitable opportunities, other socio-cultural factors inhibit the uptake of these opportunities.

2. Willingness to respond to adverts

It can be concluded that, generally, the greater majority of females are rather not keen to respond to vacancy notices. The major factors behind their not willing to respond to adverts are family commitments, fear of change and that they may be inadequately qualified for the advertised post. It can be concluded again that females tend to be conditional when family commitments would be factored in the decision process. On the other hand, a favourable remuneration and professional growth are the key issues that would influence a positive response to vacancy notices.
3. Challenges encountered

With regards to the challenges that are encountered by women in their voyage to the higher echelons of management, it can be concluded that the major barriers to the equitable top-managerial representation of women in order of decreasing impact are, family commitments, the patriarchal system, inadequate qualifications, lack of confidence, lack of husband support, and low self-esteem. The crux of the female empowerment dilemma within the context of Zimbabwe and other patrilineal societies lies with the patriarchal system which tends to be valued to the detriment of the female counterparts. It can be concluded, therefore, that all the other challenges cited above are mere symptomatic manifestations of the patriarchal system.

4. Main factors contributing to the dearth of women in management

Having considered all the facets that were at center stage as the major impediments to the participation of women in the higher echelons of management, it can be concluded that the major factor at the heart of the problem is the existence of the time-honoured obstructive patriarchal system. In other words, most, if not all other deterrents to the full participation of women are mere consequences of the patriarchal system, and hence, unless the patriarchal problem is dealt with, the problems facing women in their efforts to participate in the higher echelons of managements will most likely persist.

It can, also, be concluded again that this supremacy of the patriarchal system is very commanding that it preempts the structuration theory (Giddens, 1981), which holds the view that women could draw upon existing rules and resources in the social system to counteract or resist the dominant actors. The significance of this patriarchal problem also preempts the concept of the dialectic of control (Giddens, 1982), which specifies that all humans essentially have the agency to fight the oppressed with the weak tending to draw on the rules and resources in the social system against the superior. In
the case of the patriarchal system, the latter theory is rather assailable as the potent of the patriarchal system has been seen to be immune to the gender movements that, at the time of this research, had been implemented in the country of the study for two decades.

It follows as another conclusion that despite that the patriarchal problem could stand to be insurmountable, the major armor that female lecturers can avail themselves of to help fight this problem is education. Education removes women from the domestic environment and offers literacy and exposure to new ideas and value systems that competes with traditional customs, values and beliefs (Westoff, 1999). Education also expands the women’s life opportunities and choices. The effects of education can relate to the development of value orientation and aspirations, which gives priority to personal fulfillment and career development over traditional roles. Education, therefore, enables individuals and the society to make an all-rounded participation in the development process by acquiring knowledge, abilities and skills. Education also plays a role in promoting respect for human rights and democratic values, creating the condition for equality, mutual understanding and cooperation between males and females.

5.3 Recommendations

This section presents the recommendations that the researcher saw as befitting the predicament of female lecturers to enable them to make inroads into the higher echelons of management.

5.3.1 Recommendations for Female Lecturers

Academic Advancement

Despite the affirmative action that, at the time of this research was in place, this research recommends that female lecturers should seek ways to be at a better
advantage, academically, such as not to be found wanting with inadequate qualifications. They should be at par, or even surpass those qualifications that male lecturers possess. This study further recommends that, if at all possible, female lecturers should see to it that they enroll on post-graduate programmes and other management development courses at Masters’ level. Failure to have similar qualifications as their male counterparts will be one of the factors that may lead men to undermine the credibility of their appointment.

Applying for Posts

Nonetheless, despite the supremacy of education as an emancipating weapon for women to be able to compete nose-to-nose with their male counterparts in the higher echelons of management, it is recommended that it should not end on one having more qualifications, but that female lecturers are supposed to be pro-active and apply for advertised vacant posts. This recommendation parallels with the earlier finding that although the sampled respondents were willing to take up a promotion offer, they were however not inclined to apply. By applying for the posts whenever they are advertised, they will increase opportunities for themselves, and acquire the requisite experience in the higher echelons of management, which can then filter down into other women as more and more get inspired by role models.

Assertiveness

By applying for the posts whenever they are advertised, it is a great sign that they will be more confident to take up the jobs. In other words, self-motivation and pro-activeness should be characteristic of women vying for senior posts. In support to this, this research hereby recommends that there is a great need for female lecturers to be assertive and self-confident. They should soldier on despite any challenges that may
prevail. It follows as another recommendation, therefore, that there is a great need for women to have a high degree of self-esteem, and shun the inferiority complex.

**Advocacy for Policy Change**

Poor policy implementation issues are at the bottom of most of the quandaries harbouring the status quo with regards to the empowerment of women. This research thus recommends that, as a mitigation to the challenges faced by females in trying to make in-roads into higher echelons of management, it is still imperative for them to keep on pushing for favourable policy changes, the main thrust being the advocacy for the introduction of the quota system and shared leadership.

### 5.3.2 Recommendations for the Government

**Support/Empowerment**

This research recommends that the Government should sufficiently empowers female lecturers, and provides all the support they need to enable the creation of an enabling environment for their progression to the higher echelons of management. This is very important as it will help to create a unified milieu that will have a synergistic effect as there will be a well-coordinated effort and mutual engagement that will help resolve many other factors that may negatively be affecting female empowerment.

**Recommended Implementation Model**

The root problem underlying the female empowerment Gordian knot was seen not to lie in individual problems, but rather a culmination of an all-powerful main force – the patriarchal society. This research hereby recommends that the Government and other stakeholders should actively integrate patriarchal issues in all of its gender equality intervention programmes.
Thus, as a means of redressing the situation, it will be more beneficial to modernize the intervention models with a refined model that seeks to expunge the patriarchal system. For as long as remnants of the patriarchal ideologies are still part of the daily life, efforts to eliminate the challenges being encountered by the female lecturers, and other females in general, will be in vain. This research, therefore, proposes the following intervention model:

Figure 5.4: Proposed Intervention Model for the Government
Source: Researcher’s Conception

5.3.3 Recommendations for the Institutions of Higher Learning

This study hereby recommends that the Teachers’ Training Colleges should introduce a mandatory Rotational Leadership Programme. From the foregoing, for the female Principal Lecturers to be able to make in-roads into the higher echelons of management, they need to be self-assertive, with high levels of self-esteem and self-confidence, over and above having the appropriate academic qualifications. It is the researcher’s recommendation that for all these drivers of self-actualisation to be more
effective, empowerment is inevitable. In other words, role modeling becomes imperative, and a substantial source of confidence for other females. It is envisaged that for it to be effective, there is a greater need for the presence of females at the management level. The best approach, which the researcher recommends for the academic institutions is the mandatory Rotational Leadership Model shown below.

![Proposed Skeletal Rotational Leadership Model](source)

**Figure 5.5: Proposed Skeletal Rotational Leadership Model**
Source: Researcher’s Conception

From the above skeletal framework, which compares the systematic gender distributions in the organisational top-hierarchy, if the Principal is a male in the first tenure, in the second tenure, it will be expected that the Principal should be female. Likewise, if the Vice Principal is a female in the first cycle, the next Vice Principal should be a male. With the above implementation model, it is expected to realise greater fluidity in leadership positions between the male and female principal lecturers.
From the above model, on the next cycle of reshuffling Heads of Departments (HODs), if the current Head of Department is a male, the successor female candidate will be drawn, through voting or appointment, from the current pool of female Lecturers in Charge. The same systematic approach will suffice for the Vice Principals, from which the successor female Vice Principal will be drawn from the current female pool of Heads of Departments, et cetera. It is understood that by implementing such a systematic and well-managed succession plan, more and more female lecturers will be inspired to transcend from their current predicament and make in-roads into the higher echelons of management.
5.4 Research contributions

In spite of the activism that have characterised the past two decades, ironically, it is dismaying that the participation of women in the higher echelons of management is still a dream for many, seemingly, but baselessly, unattainable by the women. Several theories and propositions have been propounded as potential solutions to the gender problem. Notwithstanding their nobility, many have failed to realize their intent as they were, among other things, not contextually relevant to the Zimbabwean socio-cultural milieu. This study sought to span across these gaps and identify and fill the gaps in the afore-studied researches. The findings from this study attributed the failure by previous studies to pin-point the root cause of the age-old gender equality problem to the fact that they merely and superficially dressed the manifesting lacerations, but, however, left out the malady untreated.

In essence, this study was mainly premised on the understanding that the attainment of top executive positions for females in the corporate world in general and the institutions of higher learning in particular is complex and involves many variables. Understanding those variables was imperative to formulate strategies to overcome such forms of gender inequality in organisational leadership (Linda, 2001). The key theoretical contribution of this study was that the root cause of the current gender impasse was intolerantly enshrined, with indifference, within a consecrated abyss of academic subjectivism, fraught with superficial vantages in the wake of a recondite cause – the patriarchal problem.

It follows, from this core finding of this research, that despite the Government having been generally applauded for its efforts to streamline gender-equality issues in the day-to-day living, the absence of an appropriate and conducive environment ideal for the
full realisation of the emancipation of women from their long standing equality dilemma, was therefore, beyond the Government’s involvement. This is so because there are many other factors that were seen to be presenting insuperable obstacles for women to fully maximize with the available opportunities, and one such principal cause was the cultural factor of the predominant patriarchal system in Zimbabwe.

Inspite of the striking revelations that despite the existence of opportunities, it was ironic that Zimbabwe is faced with the problem of poor representation of female lecturers in the higher echelons of management. A more erudite explanation of this inconsistency from the findings of this study was that the very same government that is pushing towards the full involvement of women in all aspects of the economy was still rife with dried-in-grain time-honoured practices that had developed over time within the persons involved. In other words, although the government has set on the empowerment drive, it will not be achieved overnight, but will be a process that, through the right means, will achieve its ultimate goal. Yet still, it was the purpose of this study to understand the challenges that could be faced by the government in redressing the situation of female principal lecturers.

The Government embarked on several strategies to facilitate the empowerment of women. The main strategy had been to streamline all gender issues in all aspects of the nation, with a significant bias towards empowering and employing, as best modelled in Figure 5.7 below:

From the implementation skeleton, it can be seen that, despite the nobleness of the need to tackle the three main issues that were prevalent in the lives of women, that is, limited education, lack of opportunities and societal prejudices and stereotypes, the situation of female principal lecturers not making inroads to the higher echelons of management is a
negative indicator of the efficacy of the implementation strategy pursued by the government.

![Diagram of Traditional Government Intervention Model](image)

**Figure 5.7: Model: Traditional Government Intervention Model**
Source: Researcher’s Conception

From the analyses in this study, it was established that the root problem underlying the female empowerment Gordian knot lies not in the individual problems they face on daily basis, but that they are a culmination of an all-powerful main force – the patriarchal society. In other words, trying to curtail the symptoms in lieu of the root cause, will not yield much results in time, which should explain why female principal lecturers are failing to make in-roads into the higher echelons of management.

Thus, as a means of redressing the situation, it could be more beneficial to remodel the government’s solution with the refined model that defines the problems being faced by
female lecturers in Zimbabwean teacher training colleges. By adopting the skeletal framework of the following model, it is envisaged that the government will steer clear of wasting away resources towards the implementation of policies that do not help resolve the situation with minimal resources.

![Figure 5.8: Proposed Skeletal Government Intervention Model](image)

Source: Researcher’s Conception

The proposed approach by the government recommends that the Government seek ways to best redress that problem with the prevailing patriarchal society within which women are being acculturated. For as long as remnants of the patriarchal ideologies are still part of the daily life, efforts to eliminate the challenges being faced by the women of Zimbabwe will be in vain, as is the current situation with females in teacher training colleges. The fully developed proposed government intervention model, the main contribution, recommended in this study, is illustrated in Figure 5.9:
5.5 Recommendations for further research

After being practically involved in this study, it became imperative that more inquiry be conducted around the study topic. Observations and experiences pointed to a need for more research on the topic of gender disparity across all sectors of the economy and the disadvantages of poor conditions of service that deterred females from taking up promotional posts into the higher echelons of management in both public and private sectors. Research on the following topics may help to extend the findings from this study:

1. A study comparing the leadership styles of male and female managers.

2. A study on the effects of remunerative incentives as an enticement to higher echelons of management.
Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on the summary of the whole research findings and discussions thereof, the conclusions drawn from the same and the recommendations for women empowerment. The general findings pointed at family commitments as one of the major reason why women were not taking up promotion into the higher echelons of management in Teachers’ Training Colleges. Age was also cited as an inhibitor since most female Principal Lecturers were in the above fifty years age bracket and had more responsibilities at home to attend to and that they were close to retirement. Remuneration was also cited as a hindrance since the difference in salary between a Principal Lecturer and Vice Principal of a Teachers’ Training College was so insignificant and could not lure female Principal Lecturers to take up the responsibility. A Vice Principal only yields power but earns almost the same as a Principal Lecturer. The most discussed inhibitor was the patriarchal system that relegated women to less power related activities and treated them as subordinate to men.

This chapter also gave recommendations to the women in Teachers’ Training Colleges and suggested what could be done by the institutions to force women to join upper echelons of management. It suggested that, at a Teachers’ Training College, if the Principal was male, then the Vice Principal must be female. A Principal must have a term of office so that a Vice Principal can be given an opportunity to take over the reins.
Further suggestions given were that posts of special responsibilities like Head of Department/Division, Lecturer-in-Charge and Heads of Subjects must be rotational to allow all Principal Lecturers to test power and gain some experience. In other words, holders of such posts must also have terms in office.

This chapter also gave recommendations for further research around the topic of this study.
REFERENCES


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Hojgaard, Lis (2002) Tracing Differentiation in Gendered Leadership: An Analysis of Differences in Gender Composition in Top Management in Business, Politics and the Civil Service, Gender, Work and Organization, 9, 1, Jan: 15-38


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269


RESEARCHER’S LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

41 Kinmont Avenue
Barham Green
Bulawayo
Zimbabwe.

03 May, 2014.

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

My name is Benson Martins Dube and I am a Doctor of Philosophy candidate at Zimbabwe Open University. I am requesting for permission to carry out a study in the Teachers’ Training Colleges in and around Bulawayo and Harare. The purpose of the study is purely academic. Therefore the respondents and their responses will be treated with the confidentiality they deserve. I pledge that all information gathered will be treated as confidential.

The title of my thesis is: The dynamics of gender disparity in Zimbabwe: a critical analysis of factors that impede advancement of women into management positions in Teachers’ Training Colleges.

Yours faithfully

Benson Martins Dube
Contacts: +263 712 322 621 or +263 772 395 785 or +263 4 783501.
E-mail address: benmarts63@gmail.com
APPENDIX: B

COLLEGE LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

41 Kinmont Avenue
Barham Green
Bulawayo
Zimbabwe.

10 May, 2014.

TO WHO IT MAY CONCERN

My name is Benson Martins Dube and I am a Doctor of Philosophy candidate at Zimbabwe Open University. Having sought permission to carry out a research in Teachers’ Training Colleges on the factors that impede the advancement of women into the higher echelons of management to Teachers’ Training Colleges, I have been granted permission to proceed with my research. Please find attached a copy of the response from your Head Office.

Yours faithfully

Benson Martins Dube.
Contacts: +263 712 322 621 or +263 772 395 785 or +263 4 783501.
E-mail address: benmarts63@gmail.com
APPENDIX: C

QUESTIONNAIRE LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

41 Kinmont Avenue
Barham Green
Bulawayo
Zimbabwe.

14 May, 2014.

Dear Madam Principal Lecturer

My name is Benson Martins Dube, a Doctor of Philosophy candidate at the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU) conducting a research on: The dynamics of gender disparity in Zimbabwe: a critical analysis of factors that impede advancement of women into management positions in Teachers’ Training Colleges in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Doctor of Philosophy programme.

Kindly complete the attached questionnaire and thereafter return it to the undersigned on the above address as soon as possible. Feel free to answer in any way that express your most objective opinion in each case. The information will be used for academic purposes only and I uphold, respect and protect your personal views and opinions in strict confidence. Please do not write your name.

I wish to thank you most sincerely for your cooperation and assistance in this exercise.

Yours faithfully

Benson Martins Dube.
Telephone: 09263 4 783501 or 0263 712 322 621 or 0263 772 395 785
E-mail address: benmarts63@gmail.com
APPENDIX: D

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FEMALE PRINCIPAL LECTURERS IN TEACHERS’ TRAINING COLLEGES IN ZIMBABWE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DAY:</th>
<th>MONTH:</th>
<th>YEAR:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**PART: A**

1. **Age:** Tick where appropriate

| 20 – 30 year |
| 31 – 40 years |
| 41 – 50 years |
| 51 and above |

2. **Position:** Tick where appropriate

| Principal |
| Vice Principal |
| Head of Department/Division |
| Lecturer-In –Charge |
| Head of Subject |
| Principal Lecturer |

Other specify: ........................................................................................................

...........................................................................................................
3. Indicate highest qualification attained and year obtained:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Year</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Diploma</td>
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<td>Certificate</td>
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Other specify: -----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

4. Religious affiliation [Tick (√) one]

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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
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</table>

Other specify: ----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

5. Marital Status [Tick (√) one]

<table>
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<td>Separated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

275
6. Years of service in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development [Tick √]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 to 5 years</th>
<th>6 to 10 years</th>
<th>11 to 15 years</th>
<th>16 to 20 years</th>
<th>21 and above</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

7. Give details of the last three positions you held at your college:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Duration</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Who make better bosses, male or female? [Tick √]

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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PART: B

9). What do you understand about the following terms?

a). Gender:__________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________

b). Gender equality:

__________________________________________________________

c). Gender equity:

__________________________________________________________

d). Gender disparity:

__________________________________________________________

e). Patriarch society:

__________________________________________________________

f). Glass-ceiling:

__________________________________________________________
PART: C

10. Suppose you have been promoted to head a Teachers’ Training College, are you able to work anywhere in Zimbabwe? Justify your response.

11. Do you respond to vacancy notices that will take you out of your present station? Please give reasons for your response.

12. What do you think are the reasons for the low participation of women in the management of Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe?

13. Does Government of Zimbabwe provide enough support to encourage women to participate in the Management of Teachers’ Training Colleges? Elaborate.
13. Do opportunities exist for women in the fulfilment of their aspirations and contributions to national development in Zimbabwe? Elaborate.

14. Are there any socio-cultural factors that limit women’s involvement into the higher echelons of management? Elaborate.

15. In your own view, what do you think women should do in order to make in-roads into the higher echelons of management of Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe?

16. In your own opinion, why do you think there are very few women vice principals and women principals in the Zimbabwean Teachers’ Training Colleges?

17. What challenges do you think you would face as a woman manager which your male counterpart wouldn’t face?
18. In your own opinion, do management responsibilities interfere with the multiple tasks that women undertake in everyday life?

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

19. Do you like the status quo as it relates to the current low participation of women at higher echelons of management in the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development? Give details.

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

20. In your own opinion, do you think the socialisation process accommodates women at higher echelons of management in Zimbabwe?

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

21. When you were growing up, did you ever become a class representative, prefect or any type of leader at primary/secondary or tertiary level? State position held and state challenges encountered.

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

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION AND CONTRIBUTION.
APPENDIX: E

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR FEMALE VICE PRINCIPALS AND PRINCIPALS

1. For how long have you been a Vice Principal / Principal at your College? ……………

2. Were you appointed Vice Principal / Principal at the same College you were Principal Lecturer / Vice Principal? …………………………………………………………………

3. How long had you spent as Principal Lecturer / Vice Principal before your appointment as Vice Principal / Principal? …………………………………………………………………

4. Do you encounter any challenges from your male members of staff as a female Vice Principal / Principal? …………………………………………………………………
   If so, what sort of challenges do you encounter? ………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

5. Do you encounter any challenges from your female members of staff as a female Vice Principal / Principal? …………………………………………………………………
   If so, what sort of challenges do you encounter? ………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

6. What is your marital status?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Widowed</th>
<th>Divorced</th>
<th>Separated</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

7. How many children do you have? ………………………………………………………
   If any, how many are still attending primary or secondary school? …………………
8. Are you Vice Principal / Principal of a Primary Teachers’ College or a Secondary Teachers’ College? …………………………………………………………………

9. In your own opinion, do you think there is a difference in the management of a Primary Teachers’ College and a Secondary Teachers’ College in terms of the calibre of both students and the lecturing staff? ………………………………………………………………………

10. As a female Vice Principal / Principal, which Teachers’ Training College do you feel you are comfortable with, Primary or Secondary and why? ………………………………………

11. Are you prepared to take up promotion as Principal / be transferred as Principal to another Teachers’ Training College in another Province away from your present station? ………………………………………………………………………
    Give reasons for your preference. ………………………………………………………………………

12. As a female manager, do you encounter any challenges / resistance from your family or spouse at home? ………………………………………………………………………
    If so, explain. ………………………………………………………………………

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