

# Women Leadership, Transformation and Cultural Conflict: Evidence from the Literature

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**Abstract:** Earlier, the authors reviewed international research on middle leadership in teaching and learning management. Along with the development of effective middle leadership strategies, the micropolitics of leadership were also studied. This article reports the findings of a review of teacher motivation and women's leadership, and it draws from a large corpus of leadership literature. The underrepresentation of capable women in leadership positions contributes to a gender gap that transcends education and many aspects of the workplace. Society still disapproves of women pursuing leadership roles because they do not fit the mold, as it has come to the conclusion that only men are capable of being good leaders. Women who want to be in leadership positions frequently fall behind because they do not think they can overcome visible obstacles. Thus, the limitations that have been identified in the literature as some of the difficulties that women need to overcome in order to advance to senior leadership positions in the education sector are discussed in length in this article.

**Keywords:** Leadership, Motivation, Transactional Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Women.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past 10 years, there has been an increasing movement for educational reforms in South Africa that are intended to improve student performance and women's empowerment, much like the educational systems of many other nations. Alongside these growing demands, there have been major changes in school management and governance. In the majority of nations, including South Africa, the push for change has materialized in laws designed to encourage women in leadership roles. Leadership is the subject of a vast and diverse corpus of world literature. Leadership is by definition the capacity to recruit, organize, and inspire people to use their skills and resources for a particular purpose (van Deventer & Kruger, 2010; Steyn & van Niekerk, 2013, Ndayeni, 2024a). This ability is essential when talking about transformative or charismatic leadership in general and in the context of education in particular. The relationship between different leadership ideologies and followers' motivating strategies, however, has not received much scientific attention. In this article, the findings of a study of research on women in leadership are presented in order to identify the body of literature on leadership in the South African instructional system. The fact that much education research on women leadership is qualitative, small-scale, and unethical is just one

of the several complaints made against it. In contrast, Wills and Bohmer (2023) presented a more quantitative analysis of gender disparities in South African school administration and leadership. Thus, by examining the relationships between leadership styles and followers' autonomy, the current literature review seeks to bridge the gap between theories of leadership and motivation and discover limitations to women leadership (Bono & Judge, 2003, Ribbins, 2007; Bush, et al., 2009; Cranston, 2009; van Deventer & Kruger, 2010; Bush & Glover, 2013; Steyn & van Niekerk, 2013). It also looked at the literature on women in leadership roles, teacher motivation and resilience, male and female leadership styles, the obstacles women experience in leadership roles, and ways to assist women advance into leadership roles in the education system. This research then examines Tsoka's (1999) South African study as well as other comparable studies done worldwide in order to comprehend these difficulties. By inspiring followers to connect with the leader and build a bond with shared objectives and aspirations, transformational leadership encourages individuals to go above and beyond what is expected of them (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yukl, 1998; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999). Eyal and Roth (2011) claim that transformational leaders have an influence on their followers because of their capacity to support their needs, empower them, and instill in them a feeling of purpose toward

lofty, moral ideals that beyond their own. Eyal and Roth (2011) further contended that transformational leaders display four primary leadership behaviours: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized concern, and inspiring motivation. These findings are consistent with those of Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999). School leadership literature also indicate that rewards for compliance, which emphasize maintaining efficient management and following company policies, are the cornerstone of transactional leadership. To improve followers' compliance with the leader and the organization's rules, it involves a conversation between the leader and followers (Avolio et al. 1999; Bush & Glover, 2013). Another set of education researchers (e.g. Quinn, 1998; Spreitzer, De Janasz & Quinn, 1999; Avolio et al., 1999; Eyal & Kark, 2004; Eyal & Roth, 2011) claimed that leaders would score highly on behaviour monitoring if they maintained strict logistical procedures, placed a strong emphasis on following rules and regulations, and carried out inspections to enhance the caliber of their work. Despite a large number of comparative studies on the topic, little empirical research has been done to examine how various leadership philosophies impact followers' motivation (Bass, 1985; Eyal & Kark, 2004; Eyal & Roth, 2011). Scholars in the field have put forth possible theoretical frameworks to comprehend the inspiring effects of charismatic (transformational) leadership. While Shamir et al. (1993) argued that such leaders cultivate intrinsic motives connected to self-concept, Kark and Van Dijk (2007) utilized Higgins's (1998) theory of regulatory focus to predict followers' promotion of self-related objectives and their hopes and ambitions. However, one of the numerous developmental phases that must be achieved in order to attain full maturity is social development, which is important to keep in mind. Isolation from others can hinder psychological well-being and lead to developmental gaps. Previous studies have shown that individuals who find it difficult to establish positive relationships with their parents, friends, or teachers are categorized as social isolates. Rejection or exclusion from one's peer group and a lack of social engagement are characteristics of social isolation (Rubin, Chen, & Hymel, 1993). They distinguish between children who are rejected—who are aggressive, rowdy, obnoxious, and stubborn—and neglected—who are ignored or forgotten, have no friends, and complain seldom. Both previous (Tsoka, 1999; Mathipa & Tsoka's, 2001; Mdluli, 2002) and most recent (Shava & Ndebele, 2014; Kele & Pietersen, 2015; Ndebele, 2018; Wills & Bohmer, 2023) evidence-based South African studies on women leadership alludes that women are often underrepresented in leadership positions, which contributes to the misconception that they lack the moral fiber and experience needed to deal with difficult situations. They found that there is a belief that in difficult circumstances, people with qualities like determination, fairness, confidence, honesty, assertiveness, discipline, steadfastness, decisiveness, and aggressiveness must make unwavering decisions and behave unwaveringly (Tsoka, 1999; Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001; Ndebele, 2018). According to Wisker (1996, p. 90), women

are still underrepresented in middle and senior management positions in the education sector, even in the current post-feminist climate. Along with highlighting some of the knowledge base's shortcomings, the article reiterate recommendations for future research based on existing material. False perceptions of women's actual status are one of the limitations to achieving equality for them, since they may prevent them from rising to high leadership positions. These limitations must be eliminated in order to foster an environment that is more accepting and motivating for everyone. The authors hypothesize that transformational leadership would predict followers' autonomous motivation whereas transactional leadership would predict followers' controlled motivation, in accordance with the self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000b), which is covered below. The review tabulates existing research on female leadership styles, mostly from peer-reviewed, evidence-based and published literature. It encompasses all of the literature on leadership in the field of education. Instead than using data from interviews or other sources, it concentrates on studies that have been conducted inside educational institutions.

## II. SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY OF MOTIVATION AND INTERNALIZATION

A differentiated explanation of motivation is provided by the Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000), which starts with the distinction between motivation and amotivation, or the absence of drive or intention to act. Not appreciating an activity (Ryan, 2006), not anticipating a desirable consequence from it (Seligman, 1975), or not feeling capable of carrying it out (Bandura, 1986; Deci, 1975) are all causes of amotivation. When someone feels that engaging in a behaviour will lead to a desirable experience or outcome, on the other hand, motivation occurs. The two types of motivation are then distinguished: extrinsic and intrinsic. According to Herzberg and associates (1959) and Maslow (1954) when someone is motivated by intrinsic and altruistic factors (*recognition, achievement, responsibility and advancement, etc.*), they will perform an activity because they find it intriguing. These motivating factors according to Herzberg and Maslow are in association with higher order needs. Due to their willingness to engage in the activity voluntarily and out of interest, this becomes the prototype of autonomy. Engaging in an activity because it has a measurable outcome is known as extrinsic motivation. Therefore, extrinsic consequences are necessary to inspire someone to engage in uninteresting tasks (*salary, working conditions, status, etc.*). These de-motivating factors according to Herzberg and Associates and Maslow are in association with lower order needs (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, Richard & Capwell, 1957; Hong & Waheed, 2011; Herzberg, 1959; Maslow, 1954). According to research, actions taken for the sake of external repercussions are typically perceived as controlled rather than autonomous (Deci et al., 1999). According to SDT,

internalizing the self-regulation of an extrinsically motivated behaviour and the value attached to it is necessary for it to become more autonomous. The theory further distinguishes between distinct forms of internalization based on the extent of internalization and, consequently, the degree of autonomy defining the behaviours that arise (Roth et al., 2006; Ryan & Connell, 1989). Regulation is considered external when the reason for an activity has not been internalized. The behaviour is regarded as regulated and is carried out in a complying manner. An activity's motivation can be classified into one of three categories once it has been internalized. The first kind of internalization, known as introjection, is absorbing a behaviour's value and rules but refusing to claim them as one's own. Rather, the conditions of value or acceptance that were formerly imposed by others are simply applied to oneself. As a result, people often have an inner urge to act, their sense of self-worth is based on their actions, and their actions are regarded as controllable even if they are now internal. Identified regulation is a more comprehensive kind of internalization. In this case, while not finding the action very exciting, the person has associated with the significance of the activity for themselves and hence carries out the behaviour rather independently. Lastly, the regulation is seen as integrated when that identification has been mutually assimilated with other facets of oneself. Autonomous kinds of regulation include intrinsic motivation and identified/integrated regulation. According to a large body of research (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Ryan et al., 1993; Baard et al., 2004; Gagne' & Deci, 2005), autonomous motivation (identified, integrated, and/or intrinsic motivation) is typically linked to positive psychological outcomes like high performance, well-being, and low burnout, while controlled regulation (external and introjection) is typically linked to negative psychological outcomes. It would appear necessary to investigate the causes of various motivational styles given the benefits of teachers' self-motivated and the expenses that may be associated with their regulated motivation. Autonomous motivation is likely to thrive in situations that encourage autonomy, according to SDT. Many behaviours that promote autonomy have been found by a wide body of research, including giving people a choice, providing justification, permitting criticism, promoting critical thinking, and proving the inherent worth of a behaviour (Assor et al., 2002; Gagne' & Deci, 2005; Roth et al., 2009). According to Stone et al. (2009), external motivation, on the other hand, is more likely to occur in a controlled setting when there are outside demands to respond in particular ways. In fields as diverse as education, parenting, athletics, and healthcare, these theoretical presumptions have been validated (Gagne' & Deci, 2005). In the field of leadership, there is, however, comparatively little empirical evidence to support these claims.

### III. AN EMPIRICAL OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP AND AUTONOMOUS MOTIVATION

The full range model of leadership (Bass, 1985), which makes a distinction between transformational and transactional leadership, is, as was previously said, the most well-known leadership paradigm covered in the literature. Scholars have proposed that transformational leadership is supporting autonomy because it incorporates elements like personalized attention, intellectual stimulation, and inspiration through the presentation of a compelling vision (Gagne' & Deci, 2005; Sheldon et al., 2003). Presenting followers with a vision that is packed with values and allowing them to participate in its interpretation and evolution, according to these researchers, would encourage people to build their own meanings for their work and the organization's goal. An essential component of autonomous motivation is the identification that followers may develop with the organization's objectives and the leader's vision as a result of transformational leadership. However, transactional leadership has been characterized as restricting and impeding followers' self-determination (Gagne' & Deci, 2005; Sheldon et al., 2003). Transactional leadership incorporates contingent incentives and management by exceptions. More precisely, these academics asserted that the focus placed by transactional leadership on monitoring followers' job activities and providing extrinsic incentives will result in a controlling environment where followers feel limited in their autonomy and highly coerced.

According to Baard (2002) and Baard et al. (2004), followers' performance and adaptability were predicted by their opinions of managers' autonomy-supporting behaviour. Additionally, followers' intrinsic motivation (Lynch et al., 2005), internalization of the significance of new working techniques, and job satisfaction (Deci et al., 1989) were all associated with autonomy support. As previously said, there is a dearth of research on the relationship between teacher motivation and leadership styles. Transformational leadership predicted followers' self-concordance objectives (autonomous motivation for one's unique goals), according to Bono and Judge (2003), one of the few research that explicitly examined the relationship between motivation and leadership. Additionally, they discovered that the relationships between transformational leadership and outcomes like task performance and creativity were mediated by self-concordance. This study contributed to the understanding of the relationships between transformational leadership and followers' motivations; however, it did not focus on followers' motivations in terms of role description, but rather on their goal orientation. Furthermore, the study did not cover the entire range of leadership styles, and the specific relationship between transactional leadership and autonomous versus controlled motivation was not investigated.

Similar findings were made by Charbonneau et al. (2001), who demonstrated that athletes' evaluations of their coach as a transformational leader predicted their intrinsic motivation and that the relationship between transformational leadership and athletic performance was mediated by intrinsic motivation. Yet, Charbonneau et al. focused on a sample of competitive, highly motivated athletes and, like Bono and Judge (2003), did not examine other types of leadership. On the other hand, the current study compares the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on teachers' controlled vs autonomous motivation, concentrating on the motivations of teachers and the leadership styles of principals. Considering the wealth of research on teaching styles and learner motivations (Assor, Kaplan & Roth, 2002; Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymon & Roth 2005; Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman & Ryan, 1981; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Jang, 2008; Reeve, 2002; Reeve, Bolt & Cai, 1999; Reeve, Nix & Hamm, 2003; Roth, Assor, Kaplan & Kanat-Maymon, 2007; Roth & Bibi, 2010), it is surprising that there is so little research on the leadership styles of school principals and the autonomous versus controlled motivations of teachers.

#### IV. PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP AND TEACHER MOTIVATION

In the research literature, the relationship between teacher motivation and school leadership is linked to efforts to better understand how principals affect school performance (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Leithwood & Mascal, 2008; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008; Supovitz, Sirinides & May, 2010; Witziers, Bosker & Kruger, 2003; Bush & Glover, 2013). Research has demonstrated that school leadership has an indirect rather than a direct impact on learner outcomes (i.e., attendance, achievement, graduation, and college enrollment rates) by fostering the conditions that enhance teachers' capacity to instruct and learners' learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood et al., 2007; Porter et al., 2000; Robinson et al., 2008; Witziers et al., 2003). These factors include high expectations for learner learning, demanding curriculum, high-quality instruction, a culture of learning and professional conduct, links to outside communities, and performance accountability (Porter et al., 2010; Ndayeni, 2024a). Others discovered that school leadership had a minor to moderate indirect impact on learners' academic performance through the school mission, school atmosphere, and teachers' job satisfaction (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Bosker et al., 2000; Griffith, 2004). The aforementioned conditions have been associated in scholarly works with increased teacher motivation to work harder in the classroom (Geijsel et al., 2003), to look into better ways to teach, to try new theories of learning and new instructional strategies (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Supovitz et al., 2010), and to adopt educational reforms (Geijsel et al., 2003). As a result, teachers' motivation and engagement have been primarily examined as a mediating factor between school leadership and learners' learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1998;

Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Mascal, 2008; Robinson et al., 2008; Supovitz et al., 2010).

According to reviews of research on transformational leadership, the principal's ability to establish a clear vision, formulate school goals that include high academic standards, and secure staff agreement on desired outcomes had a significant impact on teachers' levels of motivation (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood et al., 1999a, b; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1991). In particular, it was discovered that transformational leadership traits (such as creating a vision, stimulating the mind, and giving each learner individual attention) had a direct impact on teachers' motivation levels (Geijsel et al., 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005), which in turn had an impact on learners' learning and accomplishments (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). Researchers contended that since a vision gives teachers personal objectives and a hope for future improvement, it may have the most impact on their motivation (Geijsel et al., 2003; Steyn & van Niekerk, 2013). Barnett and McCormick, (2003) and Geijsel et al. (2003), for example, stated that in order to inspire and encourage followers to put the organization's needs ahead of their own, goals must be specific, measurable, and include both short- and long-term objectives. However, Barnett and McCormick contended that the vision must have a connection to reality and represent the needs and interests of the school community in addition to setting realistic goals. It was discovered that individualized attention, which includes the leader's encouragement of subordinates' professional and personal growth, increased teachers' motivation and sense of competence and self-efficacy (Geijsel et al., 2003). Lastly, it was discovered that intellectual stimulation, which pushes followers to "question traditional beliefs, to look at problems in a different way, and to find innovative solutions for problems" (Yukl, 1999, p. 288), protected teachers from contextualized negative beliefs about the change initiatives currently underway in their schools and encouraged them to embrace the changes (Geijsel et al., 2003). Thus, by supporting individual efforts and providing guidance based on needs and necessities, transformational leadership appears to promote teachers' desire for autonomy in addition to inspiring them to carry out the common vision (Barnett & McCormick, 2003). While transformational leadership has been demonstrated to improve teachers' long-term problem-solving skills (Leithwood & Steinbach, 1991), it had a stronger effect on teaching and learning when combined with shared/collaborative leadership and/or instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2003; Marks & Printy, 2003). These leadership styles' effect on teachers' motivation explains this long-term effect.

For example, instructional leadership-based activities that foster teachers' reflection (e.g., *providing feedback, offering suggestions, modeling, etc.*) and professional development (e.g., *building coaching relationships, encouraging teacher collaboration, staff development, etc.*)



have been shown to have a positive impact on motivation (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). Additionally, via teacher motivation, it was shown that collective leadership—a style that incorporates a variety of leadership and influence sources in the classroom—had a major impact on learners' academic performance. According to the collective leadership model, motivation is influenced by three things: one's own objectives, one's perception of one's own abilities, and one's perception of one's circumstances. Accordingly, a stronger sense of accountability and incentive to carry out organizational objectives result from more control and the delegation of authority to those below in the organizational hierarchy (Leithwood & Mascal, 2008). Overall, the findings of earlier studies shown that school leadership may inspire teachers to put in more effort at work, which has a direct impact on instruction and learning. However, these research could not distinguish between how leadership affects teachers' well-being and how female leadership is not understood in the same light as men leadership? And why are female leaders have difficult time gaining acknowledgement as administrators in educational sector's highest positions? In the next section, this study shift its focus to female leadership followed by resilience in the workplace.

## V. RESILIENCE IN THE WORKPLACE

According to Sutcliffe and Vogus (2003, p. 94), a resilient workplace is one that produces “desirable outcomes amid adversity, strain, and significant limitations to adaptation or development.” Teacher resilience has developed as a result of a re-contextualized perspective of the term in the workplace brought about by growing awareness of resilience as a significant occurrence in all contexts (Kuntz et al., 2017). Studies on organizational resilience are still more common than those on teacher resilience, notwithstanding this recent shift. The following is a summary of several organizational resilience studies, which aid in giving the idea of teacher resilience a conceptual and contextual framework. According to Lengnick-Hall et al. (2011 p. 244), this study defines organizational resilience as “a firm's ability to effectively absorb, develop situation-specific responses to, and ultimately engage in transformative activities to capitalize on disruptive surprises that potentially threaten organisation survival.” In order to better prepare organizations for disruptions and crises when they do arise, these reactions and activities can be incorporated into routine procedures rather than being triggered by stress or hardship. Numerous studies have examined the phenomenon of organizational resilience (Barasa, Mbau, & Gilson, 2018; Gittel; Kantur & İşeri-Say, 2015; Ortiz-de-Mandojana & Bansal, 2015; Verryne, Ho & Linnenluecke, 2018), and they have found that antecedent factors like organizational culture (Sawalha, 2015), leadership capacity (Barasa et al., 2018; Samba, Vera, Kong, & Maldonado, 2017), and human and social capital (Ager et al., 2015; Andrew, Arlikatti, Siebeneck, Pongponrat, &

Jaikampan, 2016) have an impact on the development of organizational resilience.

Nikalant et al. (2016) have discussed the concepts of adaptive and inherent resilience in relation to the recent focus on resilience building in organizations. A resilient organization is said to be built on these foundations. According to Nikalant et al. (2016), adaptive resilience acknowledges the significance of resilience in the face of adversity. As stated by Kuntz et al. (2016, p. 458), it has to do with “effective responsiveness to instances of significant adversity.” According to Kuntz et al. (2016), situations involving mild to moderate hardship foster the development of inherent resilience. It remains consistent and steady no matter how bad things go. Välikangas (2016) defines strategic agility as the ongoing search for possibilities in competitive contexts that let an organization “adapt to change without requiring, or resulting in, a... crisis” (p. 1). This concept is comparable to this. Thus, “inherent resilience prior to exposure to a significant adverse event is associated with adaptive resilience” (Kuntz et al., 2016, p. 458). Adaptive and inherent resilience are complimentary and essential elements of an organization's total resilience. The resilience of an organization is largely dependent on its people under a robust, healthy organization, individuals successfully adapt to, endure, and flourish under demanding situations (Lee et al., 2013; Vogus & Sutcliffe, 2007). According to Lee, Vargo, and Seville (2013) and Mallak (1998), resilient organizations are made up of people who can manage vulnerabilities, exhibit responsive and adaptive behaviours, and collectively understand what is occurring in their environment. Since developing intrinsic resilience is nearly difficult in times of crisis and most feasible during times of stability, this type of resilience may serve to provide the groundwork for successfully triggering adaptive resilience. In these more stable times, organizations may foster innate resilience by cultivating teacher resilience on a regular basis.

## VI. WOMEN LEADERSHIP AND RESILIENCE

Teachers must constantly interact with their work environment in order to develop resilience (Mansfield, Beltman, & Price, 2014). The ability of workers to use resources to continuously adapt and thrive at work, even in the face of difficult situations, is the standard definition of resilience at this level (Kuntz et al., 2016, p. 460; Ndayeni, 2024b). Teacher resilience is a behavioural construct that may be developed by environment and is demonstrated by a collection of workplace behaviours that are centered on learning, adaptation, and network-leveraging behaviours (Kuntz et al., 2017). Although they come before attitudes like motivation, work satisfaction, and wellness, these behaviours are distinct from them (Brennan, 2017; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). According to Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006, p. 702), they are likely to contribute to engagement as a collection of capacity-enhancing behaviours and its

characteristics, including vigor, which are more accurately described as attitudes or a “state of mind.” Workplace actors and circumstances have the power to either support or undermine resilience, since it is conceptualized as a developable collection of behaviours influenced by the environment (Stokes et al., 2018; Vera, Rodríguez-Sánchez, & Salanova, 2017). Instead of existing as separate aspects, these behaviours cooperate and interact with surrounding elements to promote the acquisition and preservation of more job and personal resources to address obstacles at work. According to Hobbfol (2011), these resources consist of abilities, connections, and professional and social support. Cooperation across teams, networks, and functions, knowledge and information exchange, and productive colleague cooperation are examples of network-leveraging behaviours (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011; Uzzi, 1997; Ndayeni, 2024b). These actions make it easier for people to acquire and share resources, which improves their capacity to handle difficulties and emergencies skillfully and with little stress (Mitchell, O’Leary, & Gerard, 2015). Other resilient behaviours like problem-solving and feedback-seeking may be encouraged by network-leveraging behaviours. Additionally, collaborative teams let people use their combined skills to solve problems and overcome obstacles (Hardy, Lawrence, & Grant, 2005). According to O’Leary and Bingham (2009), interpersonal collaboration is especially essential and significant in the public sector because of the multiple demands made by many stakeholders, which put strain on collective abilities and capacity. According to Kuntz et al. (2017), learning is another essential behavioural component of teacher resilience that fosters innovation in stable environments and aids in the development of the skills required to overcome and learn from crises. This ability is especially important in the public sector, where complicated demands and a lack of resources are common (Cameron, 1998; Christensen & Laegreid, 2011a). It is similar to teamwork. According to Winters and Latham (1996), learning-

centered goals, as opposed to strict and performance-oriented ones, encourage deep and sustained learning that eventually increases capacity while also promoting wellbeing and progress.

Adaptability is a crucial behavioural element of resilience that ranks third. When workers utilize their resources—both personal and professional—to react quickly to changes and uncertainty, it happens. People who are adaptable can use challenges or experiences of change to advance both personally and professionally (Kuntz et al., 2017). It also indicates that staff members are able to adjust to shifting needs and pressures that emerge and intensify inside a certain setting. Through learning, they gradually enhance and adjust their adaptive responses. All of these behaviours reinforce one another and are intimately related. They cannot be distinguished. Collaboration, for example, necessitates flexibility and facilitates learning. According to Folke et al. (2010), teamwork facilitates adaptability and frequently results from and fosters learning. Collaborating well, learning from others, and probably contributing to both individual and organizational growth are all characteristics of someone who has resilience-enabling support. In the workplace, they would readily adjust to changing conditions and effectively acquire and utilize social and personal resources. On the other hand, someone who does not have assistance that fosters resilience could find it challenging to collaborate and learn. They could also find it difficult to adapt. This may be due in part to leadership that is out of step with the evolving needs of public services and their workforce. A leader that recognizes the complexity of context, on the other hand, and helps staff members exhibit these behaviours in order to increase resilience capacity is known as a resilience-enabling leader. Table 1 below provides an overview of how and by which certain behaviours teacher resilience is implemented in schools.

Table 1. Resilient Teacher Behaviours and behavioural Examples

<b>Resilient Behavior</b>	<b>Behavioral Examples</b>
Adaptability	Managing resources meritoriously in order to deal with high workloads when needed Engaging in crisis management effectually Using change as an opportunity for development
Network influence ability	Work together internally with colleagues, managers and groups Work in partnership with people and teams in other organisations Seeking support from managers when required Exchanging resources with colleagues and managers Pursuing resources from colleagues
Learning	Using mistakes as learning prospects Reexamining performance on an uninterrupted basis to develop own work Using feedback, including negative comment, for learning and enhancement of own work

## **VII. RESEARCH ON WOMEN AND LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION**

Researchers (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Chliwniak (1997; Yukl, 1998; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999; van Deventer & Kruger, 2010; Steyn & van Niekerk, 2013) have constantly argued that leaders are those who provide an organization direction and purpose and model the values it aspires to. According to traditional academics like Birnbaum and Mintzberg (1992), leaders are genderless and similar. Why do women find it so difficult to get positions as administrators in the educational sector if Chliwniak's concept of leaders is correct and true? Does the fact that males are men make them better managers than women? No research backs up that idea. In actuality, schools run by women performed better than those run by males on that average. According to Porat (1991), schools with female administrators tend to have better standards for both teacher professional performance and student learning quality. According to Ryder (1994), female principals are very effective, while Hensel (1991) said that they are just as talented and productive as males in the academic setting. Some people still think that women are less competent, less competitive, or less successful than males. Leadership behaviours that are more feminine than male are more appropriate for good school management. The qualities that women possess—nurturing, sensitivity, empathy, intuition, compromise, caring, cooperation, and accommodation—are increasingly linked to successful administration. Women who possess these skills nonetheless experience higher attrition and slower career mobility, especially in higher education, despite the fact that these traits are inherent and desirable (Porat, 1991). The function that an individual will be allocated in education is determined more by gender than by age, experience, background, or competency, according to data on equality of opportunity in educational administration (Whitaker & Lane, 1990). African women in leadership roles in the educational system deal with the combined effects of racism and sexism, as well as unique obstacles to tenure and advancement. The primary limitation to job advancement is race rather than gender (Allen, Jacobson, & Lomotey, 1995; Singh, Robinson, & Williams-Green, 1995). Management tries to choose individuals who best match the current standard to its ranks, especially at the top level of management (Wesson, 1998). For instance, the average president of a college or university in the United States is 54 years old, white, and male (Phelps & Taber, 1997). Since gender is a limitation for female leaders, some feel pressured to lead in the way that is deemed normal, i.e., the way that males lead. Since men's leadership style has been consistently proven to be popular with the public and effective in gaining promotions and recognition, it is the simplest way for women to be hired for administrative roles or any leadership role (Porat, 1991). A Caucasian male leader in one school system dissuaded women and members of underrepresented groups from seeking administrative positions on the grounds that they lacked the necessary leadership

qualities (Allen et al., 1995). They did not conform to the dominant white male standard. Women in male-dominated fields said that they had to be more qualified than the men they were competing against. According to African American women, they must be twice as excellent as those who share their goals. It is more difficult to get into the system for women who aspired to be leaders since their institutions and districts do not choose or recruit them for administration-related training programs (Allen et al., 1995; Lindsay, 1999).

Minorities and women are increasingly being hired for administrative and supervisory roles. The smallest and least cosmopolitan districts have a disproportionately higher proportion of women in superintendencies, the fewest central office executives, dropping learner enrollments, higher levels of work stress, lower levels of satisfaction, and the highest susceptibility to school board dispute. White women were employed in little areas, performing a variety of tasks for meager compensation. In metropolitan areas that are experiencing financial difficulties or that have a high concentration of minority learners who are economically challenged and have poor accomplishment test scores, African women are being employed (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996; Wesson, 1998). At the primary school level, both African American and Caucasian women had no trouble landing principalships (Pollard, 1997).

## **VIII. GENDER GAP AND GENDER-BASED MODELS**

The gender gap is one of the reasons that so few women are employed in administrative roles in education. Potential institutional changes could be hampered by the gender imbalance (Chliwniak, 1997). Gender is still a limitation for women pursuing and achieving leadership roles, despite the fact that effective leadership is more behaviour-based than gender-based (Getskow, 1996). The underrepresentation of women in leadership roles within education has been explained by three theories (see Table 2). The first is the individual viewpoint or meritocracy paradigm (Estler, 1975; Schmuck, 1980). (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996) Both are psychological orientations. For a cause—personal attributes, qualities, or traits—the model turns to women. This area encompasses individual attitudes including motivation, aspirations, self-image and confidence, and more. (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996) This paradigm is based on the idea that women are not forceful enough, do not desire power, lack confidence, do not want to be in line, do not want to play the game or work the system, and do not apply for employment. It's possible that the perception of women's lack of desire for power has less to do with their desire to acquire it than it does with the way that men view power (Conner, 1992). When women do have power, they utilize it differently. To empower others, women utilize their power. According to Conner (1992), they base this on the idea that power is not limited but rather grows as it is shared.

Focusing on the educational system is the second approach, sometimes known as the discrimination model or organizational perspective. The reduced possibilities for women that accompany systematic gender prejudice are stated as causing differences in men's and women's career objectives and accomplishments (Estler, 1975; Schmuck, 1980; Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996). It describes how educational procedures and organizational systems discriminated against women (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996). According to Estler (1975), women are unable to progress even if they so want since males are given preference in promoting procedures.

According to Schmuck (1980) and Estler (1975), the third model is known as the woman's position or social viewpoint model. This paradigm places a strong emphasis on social and cultural norms that support discriminatory behaviour (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996). Folkways, mores, and social conventions all align with distinct socialization patterns that direct men and women into various fields of employment and result in disparities in status and income (Schmuck, 1980).

## IX. WOMEN AND MEN LEADERSHIP STYLES

The differences between men and women do not imply that one is more dominant than the other since they have distinct leadership styles (see Table 2). The discrepancy could be partly explained by the fact that women view leadership as enabling, whereas males view it as leading (Schaefer, 1985). Male and female leaders focus on various parts of their jobs, even if they carry out many of the same activities (Chliwniak, 1997). Women value connections, sharing, and the process, whereas males prioritize winning, finishing tasks, reaching objectives, and accumulating knowledge (Chliwniak, 1997). According to Conner (1992), female educational leaders prioritize instructional leadership in supervisory practices and

are interested in the unique peculiarities of learners, their understanding of curriculum teaching techniques, and the goals of instruction. Women have more degrees and more years of experience as principals and teachers than males in the field of instructional leadership; they place a greater emphasis on curriculum and instruction in their job (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996). While males tend to focus more on organizational issues, women leaders prioritize instructional leadership (Conner, 1992). When men are in leadership roles, they often take the initiative and try to know all the answers for their subordinates. While men tend to stress task accomplishment (Conner, 1992) and lead through a series of concrete exchanges that involve rewarding teachers for a job well done and punishing them for an inadequate job performance (Getskow, 1996), women tend to lean toward facilitative leadership, allowing others to make their contributions through delegation, encouragement, and nudging from behind (Porat, 1991). Women's primary focus is on relationships, so they interact with teachers, learners, parents, non-parent community members, professional colleagues, and superiors more often than men do. Women are more concerned in converting people's self-interest into organizational objectives by promoting emotions of self-worth, active engagement, and the exchange of power and knowledge (Getskow, 1996). Men use the typical top-down administrative approach (Eakle, 1995). Compared to male principals, women spend significantly more time monitoring teachers, attending unplanned meetings, and being present on school grounds (Ryder, 1994). In addition to spending more time in the classroom or with teachers addressing the academic and curricular areas of teaching, female principals are more likely to engage with their staff. It is more probable that female principals will persuade teachers to employ more enticing instructional strategies.

Table 2. Men and Women Leadership Styles in organisations

Men Leadership Styles	Women Leadership Styles
Focus on finalizing responsibilities, accomplishing goals, hoarding of information, and winning	Emphasize relationships, sharing, and process
Lean toward majority rule and leads by rewarding and punishing adequate and inadequate work	Support contributive, consensual decision-making
Lead from the front and stresses task achievement	Facilitative leadership
Exploit the traditional top-down managerial and leadership style	Embolden spirits of self-worth, active contribution, and distribution of power and information, which helps to transform people's self-interest into organizational goals
Emphasize organizational matters	Focus on instructional leadership
	Influence teachers to use more desirable teaching methods
	Accentuate the prominence of curriculum and instruction more than men
Emphasize the product, the goal	Emphasize the process
	Interrelate and intermingle more with <i>teachers, learners, parents, associates, public</i> , etc. more than men



## X. WOMEN LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

In their 1992 book *Megatrends for Women*, Aburdene and Naisbitt listed more than twenty-five traits that define women in leadership roles. It was determined that the behaviours that clustered in six main patterns were those that empower, reorganize, instruct, set an example, promote transparency, and provoke inquiry. Conversely, Gillet-Karam (1994) employed four behaviours which fall into one of the following categories: (a) vision behaviour, where women leaders take calculated risks to effect change; (b) people behaviour, where women leaders show concern and respect for individual differences; (c) influence behaviour, where women act in concert; and (d) values behaviour, where women leaders invest time in fostering openness and trust (Getskow, 1996). The reality is that women do have the ability and skills to be outstanding educational leaders, regardless of how their leadership behaviours are defined. The leadership skills of women were identified by Gross and Trask (1976):

- Female principals are more knowledgeable about and concerned about instructional oversight.
- Women were favored above males by superiors and teachers.
- Under female principals, both the professional and academic performance of teachers and learners was rated higher.
- Women led with more effectiveness.
- Women's decision-making and problem-solving skills were favored by supervisors and teachers.
- Female principals were more focused on assisting learners who were deviant.
- Female principals gave greater weight to teachers' organizational responsibilities and technical proficiency as assessment criteria.

## XI. LIMITATIONS WOMEN FACE IN LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

Female leaders face problems or hurdles that men are unaware of. According to certain misconceptions, older learners, especially males, cannot be disciplined by women because they are too emotional, physically weak, and men

dislike dealing with women (Whitaker & Lane, 1990). Once the beliefs have been debunked, the "glass ceiling limitation" that prevents women from rising to high positions has to be removed (Cullen & Luna, 1993). The way society views proper male and female roles is another limitation that portrays women as lacking independence, not being task-oriented enough, and being overly reliant on other people's opinions and assessments. While males were encouraged to enter administration to a higher extent than women, notwithstanding principals' good evaluations of women's talents, women were pushed to pursue leadership roles little or not at all. Despite the fact that women who obtain doctorates are more likely than males to aspire to a career in academia, they are not employed at the same rate. More women than males quit the field as a result of the accumulated disadvantage. The absence of official and informal social networks, or not belonging to the same "clubs" as males, causes the loss of recognition that frequently results in advancement. A woman can work 70 hours a week or more in administration, which might interfere with family obligations. The job requires a lot of hard work, long hours, and internal politics, which can be stressful. One obstacle is the unwillingness of women to migrate because certain administrative posts are situated in a different state or city. Women face a number of obstacles, including the school board's lack of support, the belief held by some female leaders that "we do not hire the competition," the loneliness that comes with being a minority, sex-typed expectations, and gender bias, the high level of stress that comes with the job, and the feeling of loneliness at the top. Due to the low number of women in administrative roles, there is also a dearth of mentors and role models for women (Cullen & Luna, 1993; Eakle, 1995; Hensel, 1991; Ryder, 1994; Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996; Whitaker & Lane, 1990; Williams, 1990). One of the most notable recent studies was conducted by Wills and Bohmer (2023) who reviewed a research on the teacher demographic dividend in South Africa and discovered that, in 2021, women made up 70% of the country's teachers, but only 39% of its principals. Almost little has changed in the past ten years to close the gender gap. Five significant conclusions that emerged from the examination of Wills and Bohmer's (2023) investigation are highlighted in Figure 1 of this section.

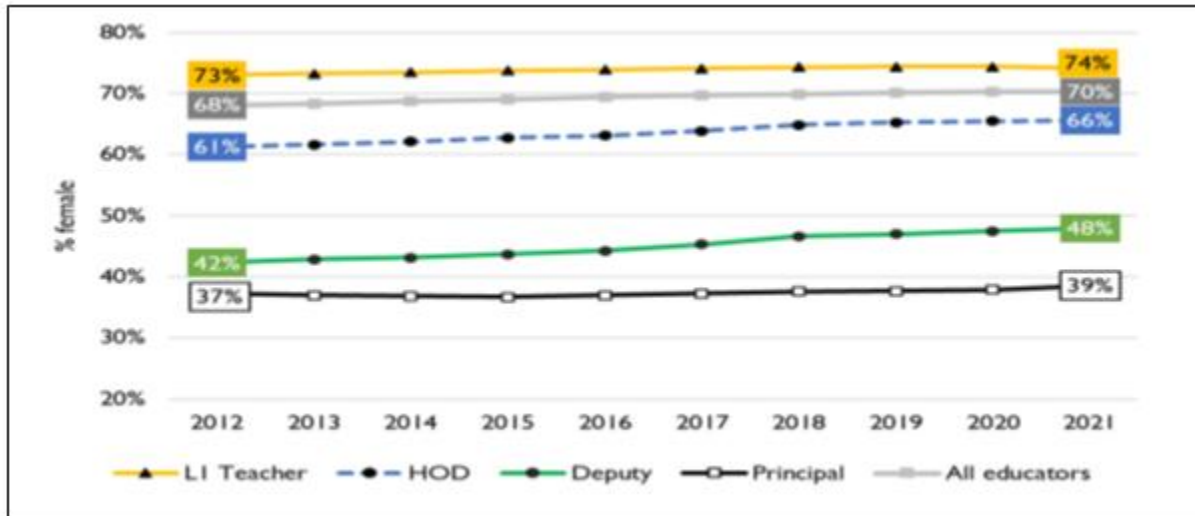


Fig 1. Proportion of Women in all Teaching Positions, Level 1 Teachers, and School Principals. Adapted from Wills and Bohmer (2023)

Women accounted for 70 percent of all publicly paid teachers in 2021. If the same proportion of school management positions were held by women, that is, 70% of school managers were women, then gender equality in school promotion would be accomplished. Sadly, over the past ten years, the South African educational system has continued to strongly support the preferred hiring of males for management roles, especially principal positions (see Figure 1).

Women's representation in top executive positions was very lacking in 2021. Women made up just 48% of deputy

principals and 39% of principals. From 26% in 2012 to 22% in 2021, there has been a 4 percentage point decrease in the gender gap favoring males at the deputy principal level (see Figure 2). Nevertheless, despite a wave of principal retirements during this time, which provided a window of opportunity to address gender imbalances in principal appointments, the gender gap at the principal level stubbornly remained static for more than ten years at about 31–32 percentage points. The ratio of female principals has barely increased by 5 percentage points to 39% in 2021 compared to 34% in 2004.

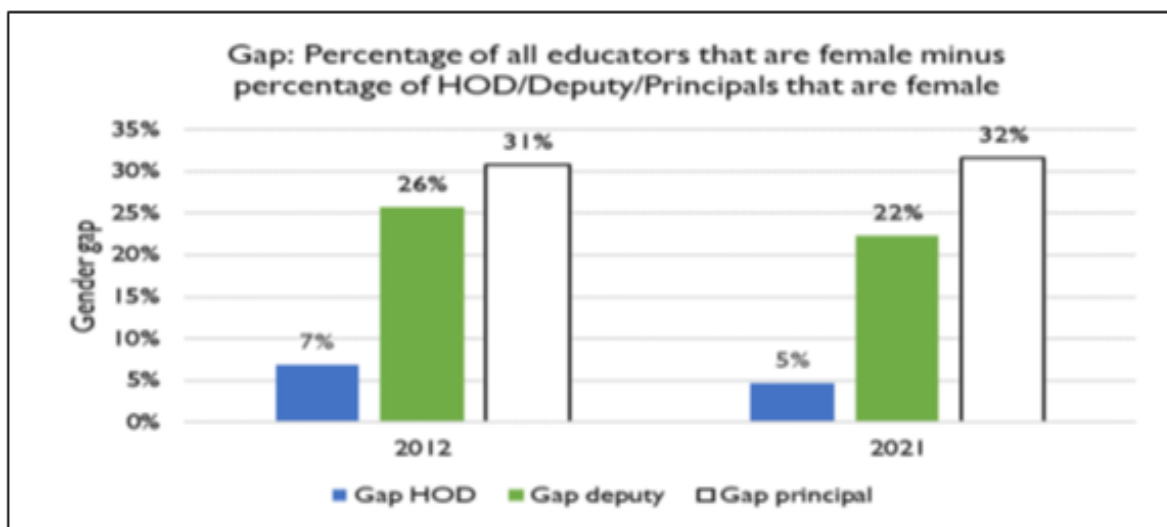


Fig 2. Gender gap in public school management. Adapted from Wills and Bohmer (2023)

With a few exceptions, the percentage of women in school administration is comparatively constant among provinces. Women made about 66-78% of level 1 teachers in all provinces in 2021. Figure 3 shows that, with a few

exceptions, the drop in women's participation in management roles is very consistent across provinces with regard to these level 1 teaching jobs. The questions that must answered are: Why do women find it so difficult to get positions as

administrators in the educational sector? What are their exact limitations? The next sections discuss these personal and

professional limitations as found in the review of women leadership literature.

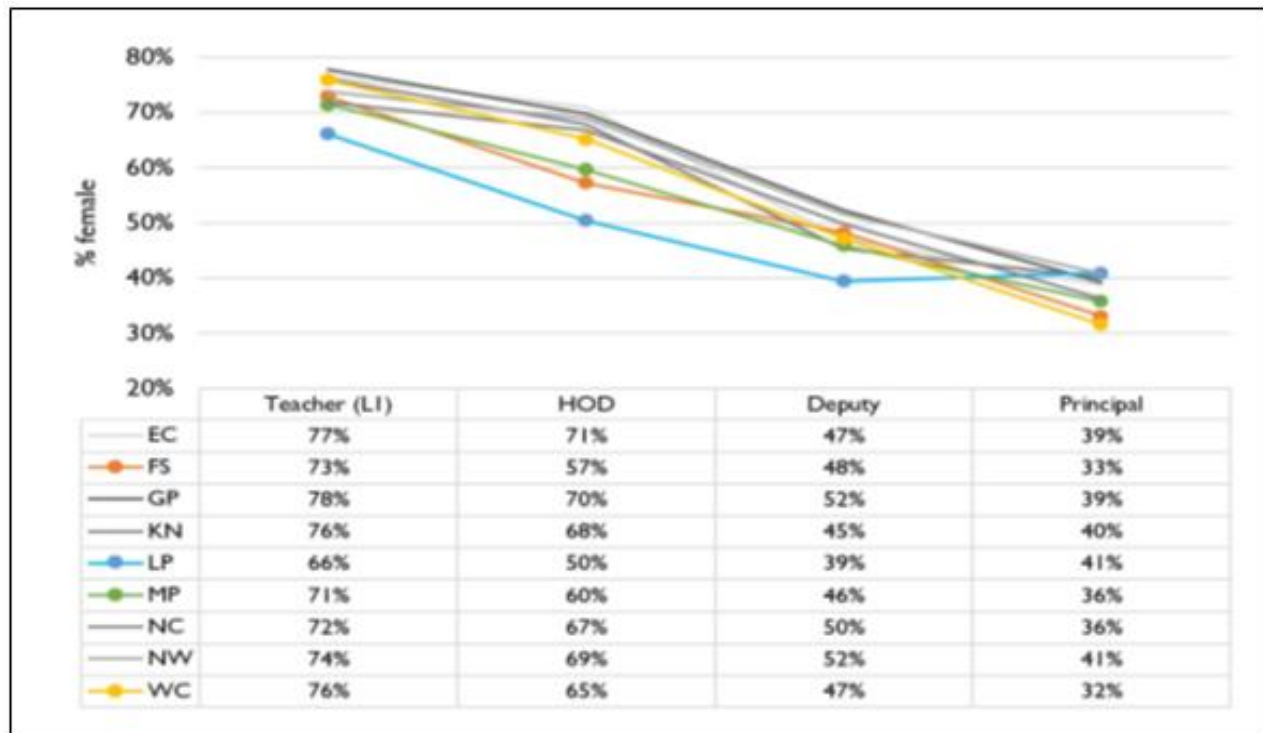


Fig 3. Province-Specific Percentage of Female Teachers and School Principals. Adapted from Wills and Bohmer (2023).

### ➤ Challenges with Mentoring

Mentoring is one solution to the challenges and limitations that women leaders face on a daily basis. Mentoring is necessary if women are to be successful in obtaining administrative roles in education:

- Those in these partnerships can greatly increase their income and opportunities through mentoring.
- Mentoring may help institutions and women satisfy their requirements, as well as help draw and keep women and minority professionals in academic settings.
- Younger teachers that receive mentoring experience lower turnover, are better equipped to handle organizational challenges, and integrate into the culture more quickly.
- The women receiving mentoring, known as mentees, gain from having someone who is concerned enough to provide them support, guidance, and assistance in deciphering insider knowledge.

There are benefits to mentoring for both mentors and mentees as well as for their organizations. According to Cullen and Luna (1993), Hagevik (1998), and Whitaker and Lane (1990), they feel the satisfaction of imparting their hard-earned knowledge, influencing the next generation of senior management, and being recognized by a younger teacher. Although having a male mentor is not unusual for women, women are better served by other women as mentors since women's interactions and knowledge sharing are important.

While male mentors were quick to promote women to become principals, they were not enthusiastic about helping them get a secondary school job. Women must gain assertive management styles, self-esteem, and unconventional views about women and work as a result of the mentorship experience. While the male counterpart had traits that facilitated advancement, the fostering of attitudes and attributes would enable success in the organization. One effective strategy for implementing more efficient school practices is the employment of mentors to support current and future leaders (Cullen & Luna, 1993; Daresh & Playko, 1990; Whitaker & Lane, 1990). With the introduction of the new political regime, the issue of the dearth of women in leadership roles in South Africa gained increased attention. As the nation's political climate steadily normalized, it became more and more apparent. A Commission for Gender Equality also known as Gender Equity Task Team (GETT) was established in an effort to address the issue as it increased and became more noticeable (Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001; Zwane, 2003). This strategy should be viewed as only one of the methods currently being used to formally address this issue. In the past, apartheid education was one of the most pressing concerns that consumed the majority of our attention, often at the expense of other crucial issues like gender equality. Equal education for all, compulsory education for all, the expansion of distance learning to include teacher education, the introduction of new models for the greater management of

education for the purposes of institutional autonomy, the provision of additional school buildings, the provision of learning materials, the unacceptable high dropout rates, the poorly managed teacher education sector along with a lack of articulation in university and Technikon education, and a host of other issues unrelated to the issue of equal opportunity for women as leaders in the workplace or the education profession were some of the most pressing issues surrounding apartheid education. Smyth (1993, p. 73) sets the scene by pointing out that the number of women leading educational institutions has decreased compared to the first two decades of this century.

Given that it is currently claimed that “society has different rules for women and men” (Ramagoshi, 2001, p. 18), Tsoka’s (1999) study, for example, should be regarded as one of the pioneers in South Africa because it provides a roadmap on how women leadership and women empowerment can be fast-tracked. In spite of the belief that “social equality is one feasible organizing principal for shaping the quality of life and circumstances of living of individuals and groups in society, as well as for structuring all human relations,” injustice still occurs. Gil (1990, p. xviii). This article makes the case that women who want to be leaders need to be treated equally (also see, Tsoka, 1999; Ndebele, 2018; Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001). This means that their applications for any promotion should be given equal weight and consideration, meaning that they shouldn’t be rejected on the basis of irrelevant factors. On the other hand, women who want to be leaders should be evaluated much like males. In other words, the primary goal of this piece is to promote, if not establish, equitable treatment. With those opinions expressed, this article will begin by talking about poor performance as a potential obstacle to women’s advancement into leadership roles.

#### ➤ *Poor Performance as a Limitation to Women Progression to Positions of Leadership in the Education Profession*

Performance is a complex process influenced by various factors such as motivation, willingness, interest, confidence, discipline, tenacity, and commitment. To meet acceptable standards, performance must satisfy specific criteria, such as proper planning, timing, and preparation. Common criteria for good performance include preciseness, attractiveness, neatness, relevancy, legality, legitimacy, affordability, and punctuality. Failure to observe these criteria may render one’s performance poor and unacceptable. Performance is based on certain criteria to qualify as meeting acceptable standards. It is important to note that performance has no regard to sex but only to standards. Stereotypes, prejudices, and biases that discriminate against women on the unfounded basis of being poor performers are regrettable in terms of democratic standards. Performance is seen as a yardstick through which it is possible to rank leaders as poor, average, good, or excellent. Prejudices, biases, and stereotypes have become deeply cultural dimensions, particularly debarring women from leadership positions due to their perceived poor performance. Society still views women as people suffering from problems

like poor self-image, less confidence, lack of assertiveness, less career-oriented, and lack of direction. These negative characteristics are mainly associated with women and discourage any person from doing anything good. Women are accused of poor performance because they are perceived to lack proper planning, good preparation, anticipation, and fail to see alternatives as open options. However, Tsoka (1999, p. 20) argues that despite being said to be poor performers, women have always been interested in the betterment of life for all. To understand the phenomenon of leadership, concepts that do not presume the male experience as universal and speak to all humanity should be considered. Women need to be included as objects and subjects of study in leadership and investigate how our concepts of leadership have been formed by the blinding assumptions that leader means male. To restore confidence in women, training centers should be established with a bias towards empowering more women in management positions. This section of the article emphasizes the importance of equal opportunities for both sexes in addressing the issue of promotion. It emphasizes that learning is a lifelong process and that everyone has potential to learn. This section also highlights the need to address poor performance as a limitation to progress. By promoting lifelong learning, society can help individuals perceive life differently and embrace lifelong learning. The next limitation is that of poor self-image as identified by researchers (Morgan, King & Robinson, 1981; Tsoka, 1999; Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001).

#### ➤ *Poor Self-Image as a Limitation to Women Progression to Positions of Leadership in the Education Profession*

The term “self” has two different meanings: “self as a process” and “self as object.” The self as an object refers to people’s perceptions of their own appearance, behaviour, and influence on others, as well as their personal qualities, shortcomings, and shortcomings (Morgan, King & Robinson, 1981, p. 531). According to Morgan et al. (1981, p. 531), the same authors make it abundantly evident that the second set of meanings is related to the psychological processes known as executive functions, which are how people think, remember, perceive, manage, cope, and plan. In summary, the aforementioned explanations of the idea of “self” aimed to explain how an individual gradually develops a perception of themselves. To be fair, these explanations appear to be an ideal way to explain how an individual’s self-concept is formed or emerges. On the other hand, they make it abundantly evident that a person’s self-concept is a direct result of the experiences and developmental processes that they have had, been exposed to, interacted with, or been associated with while they have been attempting to establish relationships with the different components that make up their environment. Similarly, a person’s self-image is positively or negatively influenced by the kind of education they acquire. The dominant cultural traditions, norms, stereotypes, prejudices, and biases of that particular culture are the source of education, whether it be formal, informal, or non-formal. Stated differently, education is a means by which an



individual is forced to absorb their culture while simultaneously determining, shaping, and developing their self-image. Determining, forming, and growing a person's sense of identity and self-image begins from birth and only ends after death, much like education, which is a lifelong process. A positive attitude, which is a prerequisite for leading an autonomous, fruitful, and responsible life, is engendered by a positive self-image. Therefore, the purpose of a quality education should be to provide the person the information and abilities that would enable them to come to have a positive view of themselves.

Given that education is only a type of conditioning, it is easy to see why women put up with social interactions that prioritize men's interests above their own (Grogan in Ouston, 1993, p. 28). In addition, it makes sense to contend that the women's negative self-perception is not innate; rather, it is a viewpoint that they were taught to value and maintain via cultural education. In other words, effective leadership is an acquired talent rather than a trait that is gender specific. Regretfully, education, which is supposed to be freeing, has educated women to accept and follow social norms at the price of their own preferences. It's interesting to note that, occasionally, education may also mold the mind to view problems in a certain manner, which can be oppressive and demeaning to one's dignity, rather than emancipating. In this situation, the purpose of a conservative education is to teach the next generation about the culture that is valued, practiced, and accepted despite its repressive aspects. So, a woman acts in a specific manner because she is raised to think that's how society wants her to act. This in no way suggests that female is less capable or superior to males (Llewellyn-Jones, 1990, p. 15).

Youth are supposed to be assimilated into the current cultural life in any society. Once more, individuals who are new to a foreign culture are expected to behave in a way that aligns with their new cultural norms; if they do not, they run the risk of being shunned, shunned, or shunned. As is well known, man is a social creature who is born into a family and flourishes in a society with other people through significant institutions including marriage, family, friendship, kinship, clan, tribe, community, and the nation (Ndebele, 2018, p. 1593; Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001, p. 325). However, it should be highlighted that the members of these socially significant organizations must strictly adhere to the values of love, respect, trust, loyalty, honesty, and understanding in order for them to continue to exist. Since the constitution clearly states that "everyone has the right to fair labor practices," this article makes the case that women, as citizens of our democratic society, should also be treated equally (Act 108 of, 1996 of the Constitution). As a result, women must be elevated out of their traumatic circumstances by being appointed to prominent positions, in addition to men being promoted to leadership roles (Zwane, 2003; Moorosi, 2008). Equal treatment of women and men should ideally be uplifting, pleasant, morally

relieving, spiritually improving, purifying, and freeing. It is not only welcome but also desirable, especially in South Africa where women make up the majority of the population (Ndebele, 2018, p. 1598; Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001, p. 325). The principal of social justice, which states that "every individual or social group has equal intrinsic value, hence, is entitled to equal labor, civil, social, educational, and economic rights, liberties, and treatment under equal constraints," will also be upheld by society if it treats women equally (Gil, 1992, p. xviii). Women should therefore be given the opportunity and opportunity to become leaders as well, since they are equal members of our society and the mothers of our country (Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001, p. 325). This is especially true in the field of education, where they are excellent at guiding, leading, helping, and nurturing the next generation to become what they could and should be if they receive the right education. To top it all off, Campbell (1992, p. 15) notes that women have become the guardians of a deeper humanity in large part due to their position as mothers, bringing a feeling of connection, community, altruism, and caring. In addition, Llewellyn-Jones (1992, p. 5) makes the indirect argument that women are inherently different from men in terms of their anatomy as well as their psychological makeup, however it is unclear to what extent this is a result of prevalent cultural norms. This literally implies that, as child-rearing professionals, women have a distinct but important role to play in leadership, particularly in the field of education, where they naturally belong.

In summary, the issue of women's underrepresentation in leadership roles appears to be a global one, as Khan in Tichy (1996, p. 6) reveals that in every country for which data are available, the percentage of women in paid employment is lower than the percentage of men. Research studies by Ouston (1993, p. 2) show that in England and Wales, just under half of primary schools have a female headteacher, and in secondary schools, approximately one in six schools have a female headteacher. On the other hand, Tsoka (1999, p. 48) found that in the Gauteng Province, 3.3% of women and 7.8% of men hold top management positions, blatantly showing that there are twice as many male respondents in top management positions. According to the labour department, white men, who make up 13% of the workforce, occupy 50% of managerial posts (Gqubule 2001, p. 18; Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001, p. 325). According to a different research by Shakeshaft in Ouston (1993, p. 47), although women make up the majority of teachers in most American schools, they do not occupy the majority of official leadership roles. This review aims to highlight that, as Tsoka (1999) notes in her study, this issue is global in scope and should not be viewed as just a South African one. In conclusion, the characteristics listed below are linked to the women's negative self-perceptions, and they revolve around the following ideas:

➤ *Women's Careers are Typically Unplanned, Which Negatively Affects their Self-Image;*

Women and men have diverse professional pathways; and Women lack colleagues and role models in leadership roles. In order to address this issue, Tsoka (1999, p. 69) suggests that society value the work of female managers equally to that of male managers. Ouston (1993, p. 16) concludes by advising that strategic planning is necessary to bring women into high-level positions since goodwill and good intentions alone are not enough. Stated differently, many strategies are required to mitigate or halt the current disparities in leadership roles within the education sector. In addition, it is now not only necessary but also urgent to consciously establish more appropriate role models in leadership roles for women to aspire to than already exists. Tsoka (1999, p. 104) suggests that training facilities be set up with an eye on empowering more women in leadership roles.

Fascinatingly, a university specifically designed for women has been founded in Sudan. Zimbabwe has also made the decision to create a university that would only focus on women's advancement starting in 2002. In other words, in some nations, the topic of women's empowerment is addressed seriously. This ought to serve as a good model for others to follow. In the end, it is also necessary to rethink and reinterpret women's roles and responsibilities in relation to how they may enhance the prosperity of society by holding leadership roles in the field of education. This necessitates intervention in the form of in-service training, workshops, seminars, and mentorship that are explicitly designed to empower women, particularly those who have the potential to become very successful leaders in the area of education. The Education Renewal Strategy (1992, p. 15) states that everyone should have access to equal educational opportunities, including equal educational standards. This article therefore promotes a favorable view of women who want to hold leadership positions. To put it another way, rather than being prevented solely by unfavorable opinions, women who aspire to leadership roles should be inspired, encouraged, and supported. This paper, in brief, makes a strong case for a shift in perspective in this area. A low self-confidence is the next hurdle.

➤ *Low Self-Confidence as a Limitation to Women Progression to Positions of Leadership in the Education Profession*

Mathipa and Tsoka (2001) believe that confidence is a crucial aspect of leadership, as it allows individuals to demonstrate their knowledge and skills in specific tasks. They also argue that performance, on the other hand, is a barometer that indicates whether a person has the confidence to do a particular task or not (Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001, p. 327). This concept can be used to measure women's confidence and willingness to take up leadership positions, rather than deny them based on their gender. Commonly, performance has resulted in society rewarding those who can achieve more

respect than those who cannot. However, for those who talk but fail to perform, society has only contempt for them, as they are seen as barking dogs who seldom bite. According to them (Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001), confidence is the ability of a person to achieve their cherished goals, and it means that where there is a will, there is a way. Women, who are often perceived as having less confidence in themselves, are usually treated negatively when it comes to promotions to positions of leadership (Ndebele, 2018, p. 1597). This is unfortunate because even capable women leaders are thereby lost to the education profession. The confidence to perform is not attributable to gender, but is based on some skills that can be acquired through learning. Confidence is derived from skill and knowledge a person commands as a result of the education they have received. In this respect, performance can be used as a reasonable yardstick to gauge a person's confidence in dealing with a specific task. Experience and learning play a major role in the acquisition of confidence as a disposition. As a learned disposition, confidence is based on testable abilities that are learned. In other words, both men and women have equal potential to acquire the necessary confidence needed to perform what is required by leadership positions. To restore faith and confidence in women, Tsoka (1999, p. 70) recommends that women should also be exposed to more meaningful tasks and be placed in positions that demand accountability. Confidence should be understood as the belief in one's own mind, which has the power if unhindered, to bring about the desired result. A Worker Information Global Network Survey previously found that the six highest influences on teachers' commitment to their workplace are satisfaction with day-to-day activities, care and concern for teachers, work and job resources, production of the organization, fairness at work, and trust in teachers (Brauer, 2001, p. 2). However, these six influences have nothing to do with one's sexual orientation and should be seen as a warning to society that new ways of looking at teachers have emerged to replace traditional stereotypes, biases, and prejudices. Traditional perceptions about women should be discarded if society intends to utilize all its human resources maximally. No country can hope to compete favorably in the present world climate when it still has no regard for the women. Lewis (1992, p. 283) warns against repeating the mistakes of the past, as traditionally, women were treated as chattels, bought and sold like other market commodities. To do away with lack of confidence in women, society must first remove its causes, as the causes are the source of the way women think, and ultimately, the way they think is responsible for how they perform.

In conclusion, confidence is essential for women to become and remain successful in leadership positions. By removing the limitations to confidence and promoting a more inclusive and supportive environment, society can work towards achieving greater success for women in leadership roles (Ndebele, 2018, p. 1597). The fifth obstacle is the near-complete absence of career orientation resources for women.

➤ *Less Career Orientation as a Limitation to Women Progression to Positions of Leadership in the Education Profession*

First of all, Camerer's statement in the Citizen (2000, p. 12) that women who crack the glass ceiling have done so either because someone allowed them to try their skills, or because they were brave, visionary, naive, or had the mindset that they would redefine their identity in society is relevant. This demonstrates once more the level of hardship, commitment, bravery, and hard work that accomplished women had to go through or put in before they could achieve the highest positions (also see, Ndebele, 2018, p. 1585). It is important to remember that, despite the numerous obstacles women experience, they really have almost no options for job direction. The most significant issue they are facing is the clear lack of suitable role models. Linton (1964, p. 6) makes the insightful claim that "babies who are not loved do not live" as a result. To put it another way, Mathipa and Tsoka (2001, p. 326) argued that society needs to do more to free women from conventional wisdom, biases, stereotypes, and attitudes that still view women as lesser creatures best suited for domestic roles as mothers and housewives if it wants them to succeed. Previously, Lewis' (1992) study argued that the full knowledge that man lacks instincts, at least in the sense that we use the term when discussing insect behaviour, is the foundation of career orientation, an essential educational program (p. 41). To put it another way, without education, life is bleak and ultimately constrained. In order for women to play a positive role in raising the country's quality of living, it is necessary that they be prepared for meaningful and responsible involvement in leadership roles, which are now made possible by the new constitutional and educational system. In light of this, Mbowane's (2001, p. 18) arguments are instructive. She contends that we should consider whether these women were given the exposure, training, and support they required to perform their jobs effectively or if they were simply ousted to appease a man who disliked being led by a woman. Tsoka (1999, p. 70) asserts that the true response is that there is currently no organization that provides the leadership training that women require to succeed in leadership roles.

Traditional African culture, particularly in the Eastern Cape, has different indigenous schools for both boys and girls. Each sex-group is taught separately how to conduct themselves in the future, with specific roles as husbands or wives (Blanchard & Blanchard, 1984, p. 155). This cultural orientation is characterized by a decided ritual orientation, with women being taught to submit to their husbands and men, while men are taught to be heads of their families and leaders of their societies. Indigenous education was more sensitive to the needs of both sexes, leading to the establishment of different institutions to cater to the needs of both males and females. This allowed society to maintain peace and harmony without hassles. However, a careful analysis of women's role in education today suggests that they are equally equipped to

fulfill any role available in the education profession. Women can even occupy senior positions offered by education, as they are endowed with the gift of assisting, guiding, and nurturing children (Mathipa & Tsoka, 2001, p. 326).

Negative perceptions about women should not be seen as resembling the truth but as deeply embedded in social identities and engagements. Many orthodox churches still preach the gospel that women must submit themselves to their husbands. To eradicate this perception and its influence, Tsoka (1999) recommends introducing support programs for women in the corporate world to improve gender-sensitivity and empower them to access leadership positions easily and more rapidly. A deliberate effort must be made to develop promising women to progress to positions of leadership in the education profession, as nothing happens on its own in life. The sixth limitation is that of lack of assertiveness. By addressing these issues, we can work towards promoting gender equality and empowering women to lead in the education profession.

➤ *Lack of Assertiveness as a Limitation to Women Progression to Positions of Leadership in the Education Profession*

Grogan (1996, p. 25) asserts that women must passionately and forcefully voice their claims and demands with others. Only then will stereotyping and prejudice be successfully eradicated. Conversely, Ouston (1993, p. 9) bemoans the fact that women struggle to express themselves authoritatively, are typically modest about their accomplishments and expertise, and only speak up when they are worried about other people. Their tendency to be kind, tolerant, empathetic, patient, accommodating, and passionate even when situations and events call for otherwise may be the reason why the ladies aren't more forceful when it comes to matters that impact them. Being a leader requires a lot of different skills, like being aware, determined, curious, adventurous, courageous, and aggressive.

According to Armstrong (1991, p. 27), assertiveness is defined as defending your own rights without infringing on those of others. This definition is supported by Back and Back using straightforward, appropriate, and honest communication to convey your needs, wants, ideas, feelings, and beliefs. It's said that women do not possess this crucial leadership quality, thus it's one of the things that works against them when they're applying for promotions. Adding to this discussion, McCulloch (1984, p. 14) makes the unsettling remark that women's positions in social life are characterized as emotional and passive. Essentially, this view leads to the straightforward conclusion that women are more motivated by feelings and passivity than by critical leadership traits like decisiveness, honesty, steadfastness, fairness, curiosity, and adventure. It appears that women lack the curiosity, daring spirit, and curiosity to explore new areas. Perhaps it's in human nature to seek the security of living and working in a familiar setting,

but in order to succeed today, you simply cannot remain in your carefully crafted comfort zone, according to Waitley (1996, p. 1), whose definition seems to fit women better in this context. This means that women can't expect to succeed in leadership roles unless they are as daring as the majority of successful males. It should be mentioned that the only people who have a higher chance of achieving in life are those who take chances, since nothing worthwhile in this world can be accomplished without effort. Before mentioning any widely held beliefs regarding why women are not forceful, it is also wise to note that these beliefs are merely ingrained prejudices against women rather than scientific findings. These prejudices are mostly produced by influential decision-makers who also happen to be men. These presumptions hold that women are less forceful than men. Women are prone to acting aggressively rather than assertively, apologizing when they should be decisive, becoming easily agitated when they should be composed, wondering when they should be focused, and becoming negative when they should be positive.

All of these things really show that men and women are not the same, yet they exist in that way to support each other in their endeavors. When they work together, they have a greater probability of doing more than if they worked alone. Additionally, the mother is seen as the sensitive one and the father as the tough one in the family. Therefore, it is assumed that the mother would remain in command when things are calm and easygoing, while the father will step in when things go unpleasant. The ideal scenario would be for a woman to be appointed vice-principal or deputy to a male who is appointed principal, and vice versa.

In this way, the left hand will get a chance to wash the right hand, and vice versa. In any event, the institution of marriage—the sole institution in charge of establishing the family—highlights the human condition in a manner commensurate with this illustration. “Women respond in more detail than men, and they seemed to be more deeply involved with interpersonal relationships,” Graig (1994, p. 504) adds to this viewpoint in an informative manner. Whereas men often choose their relationships based on similarities, women view reciprocity as more important in their real friendships. From this perspective, a woman and a man are what may be called opposite forces, ones that can attract one other instead of repelling them. In an ideal world, it would be uplifting and optimistic to see a man and a woman working together to accomplish shared objectives; this would bode well for our future. It seems that a scenario such as this is essential to solving the management issues that the new South Africa is increasingly facing in the field of education and in the workplace. In order to address the persistent unfair labor practices that continue to be practiced against women and other marginalized groups when it comes to gaining access to leadership positions, special measures in the form of the equity law have to be enacted. It is actually past time to establish a condition where men and women are treated

equally, as the constitution also requires. Similar to how the roles of the mother and father are crucial for achieving harmony and advancement in the home, educational institutions similarly require the combined leadership abilities of men and women in order to thrive and grow peacefully. If the greatest amount of peace, security, and harmony are to occur, South Africa also needs this kind of partnership in its educational institutions, just as it does in homes where men and women live in equality, justice, cooperation, and collaboration. To restate, the ideal setup would be for the deputy principal to be a woman and vice versa, with the principal being a man. Because leadership is still traditionally viewed here as “some sort of dominance or control over subordinates...” (Van Niekerk, 1993, p. 153), this arrangement, despite being unusual, appears to have merit as a strategy for addressing issues South Africa is facing in many of its educational institutions. Therefore, if this nation's potential is to be fully realized for the benefit of all of its citizens, a well-rounded and sound leadership structure that represents all those impacted is ideal.

In conclusion, in reference to the claim that women are incapable of assertiveness in leadership roles that need it. In contrast to 12.7% of males, 26.5% of women strongly disagree with the assertion, according to Tsoka (1999, p. 88). Even while these statistics are encouraging, they are so little that they have no impact on the generally held belief that women lack assertiveness. However, research indicates that men and women have different management styles, and that women have a significant and distinct role to play in school administration, as Ouston (1993, p. 6) encouragingly notes. Ultimately, the government will actively assist and encourage the education authorities to use good interventions in order to achieve success in this area. This article focuses on the women's lack of support from those in positions of authority who really have the ability to help them.

#### ➤ *Discrimination as a Limitation to Women Progression to Positions of Leadership in the Education Profession*

The seventh limitation found in the leadership research literature is discrimination. Discrimination refers to the behaviour of treating a person or group unfairly, often leading to prejudice. Women, as people of the weaker sex, are often the ones most likely not to react when discriminated against for fear of being harmed or further victimized. Men are still the prime limitation to women in management, and discrimination based on assumed differences between men and women is both ill-grounded and immoral. Equality, rather than discrimination, rests on strong democratic beliefs, such as the belief that there is something peculiar to human beings and common to human beings without distinction of class, race, or sex. Discrimination against women that is based on untested grounds and perceptions constitutes unfairness. The constitution states that all South Africans must be accorded equal opportunities and scope to exercise their labour rights in an environment of equal constraints (i.e. Section 9 of the



Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996). Women in many industries demonstrate great aptitude for multi-skilling and appear comfortable in multi-tasking scenarios where they carry out at least two activities at once. On the other hand, Tsoka (1999) agrees that women bring a gentler approach to management, handling different tasks simultaneously, which can add great diversity and competitive value to business. Dowling (1995) avers that “gender nearly always makes the difference.” Therefore, to treat women as exceptions when it comes to leadership positions, that is, by discriminating against them, is counter-productive. In the education profession, women are in the majority but occupy low positions when it comes to leadership. The assumption that justifies the discrimination of women concerning positions of leadership is that:

- Women and men have different career paths;
- Women are unsuited to the demands of positions of leadership;
- Women are seen as less than men and different from men; and that they have difficulty developing an authoritative voice.

These assumptions are based on prejudices, biases, and stereotypes and not on scientifically proven grounds. Blanchard and Blanchard (1984) note that the differential stability in males and females has been interpreted as a function of traditional sex-role standards, with aggressive behaviour in boys being accepted and even positively valued whereas such behaviour is discouraged in girls. Employers also see women as temporary jobholders, rather than career-orientated teachers, and do not afford them the necessary training, promotional scenarios, status, and positions of responsibility. To deal with discrimination, Tsoka (1999) recommends promoting women to leadership positions so as to maintain equal opportunities for participation at all levels of management. Schuitema (1994) advises that a relationship of power is legitimate if the aim is the empowerment of the subordinate party in the relationship. This article argues that women need to be empowered to access the positions of leadership currently dominated by men, despite the much talk about democracy every South African citizen is supposed to enjoy.

#### ➤ *Demotion as a Limitation to Women Progression to Positions of Leadership in the Education Profession*

Demotion is the eighth limitation found in the leadership literature as a limitation to women progression to positions of power in the education profession. Demotion is defined as a negative act that is associated with the reduction of someone to a lower rank or position. In the education field, leadership is based on professional conduct and behaviour that demands high standards of commitment, loyalty, honesty, ability, competence, and excellence. Demotion can be seen as a form of punishment, especially for teachers who contravene certain provisions or neglect to perform certain duties. This is due to the delicate nature of the profession, which deals mainly with

inexperienced and vulnerable youth. Adequate career orientation is vital for boosting a teacher's confidence and ensuring good performance. Demotion is a valuable deterrent, but it must be applied within the law and used sparingly or as a last resort. It hurts, is painful, and has damaging, discouraging, demotivating, embarrassing, and negative results if not applied thoughtfully and fairly. Factors leading to women being demoted center around their personality make-up, which influences them to behave and do things differently than men do. Stephan (1983) reveals that premenstrual syndrome affects most women, leading to inconsistent performance and inter-human relationships. Stereotypes on women problems are often responsible for blowing issues out of proportion. To deal with this problem adequately, women need to be exposed to relevant orientation programs and other successful women role-models. Clelland in VanVelden (1984) highlights the dilemma of women, as many are caught in the trap of ‘superwoman’, having to do all the work they previously were not expected to do and carve out a career for themselves. Women have too many irons in the fire, and they are bound to fail if not understood and given proper assistance. Demotion against women is based on assumptions that women are moody, lack commitment, more prone to stress than men, and are naturally followers not leaders.

To avoid demotions, teachers should be properly orientated, educated, and trained. They should attend workshops and in-serviced training to keep them knowledgeable, informed, focused, skilled, positive, and up to the desired standard. Network programs should be established and monitored to resist discriminatory behaviour against women, and questions of prejudice and stereotypes should be brought out in the open and discussed so that people are alert to their own, often subconscious, prejudices. Schuitema (1994, p. 88) posits that empowerment means enabling the weak to become strong and capable of giving. With help, women stand a chance of developing into dynamic and vibrant leaders who view life as an opportunity to give and advance the course of nation building.

## XII. CONCLUSION

This article discusses women leadership as it related to Tsoka's (1999), Mathipa and Tsoka (2001) and other related studies on the empowerment of women in the education profession, focusing on the need for a better understanding of the problem and designing a proper plan for women's empowerment. The recommendations made in this article aim to motivate those committed to women's empowerment, as their current contribution to leadership positions is minimal. More importantly, Tsoka's (1999) study highlighted the influence of attitudes and actions of people they live and work with, revealing that prejudices, biases, and stereotypes are acquired and form a powerful voice in dictating conduct. The article argues that if attitudes in the education profession are influenced and changed to be friendly and positively disposed

towards women's upward mobility, women could play a constructive part in improving education. A positive change in attitudes and mindsets would improve women's position at a snail's pace, but if women are assisted, encouraged, guided, and appreciated, they could blossom and show vibrancy, curiosity, adventure, and boldness. Society should adopt an attitude that believes in the dictum that "whatever a man can do a woman can also do." The article also advocates for a parallel program geared at changing men's attitudes towards looking at women as inferior to them. For most men, being told to treat women as their equal is like telling them to change radically from their cultural way of living. Such a program should also prepare men for any cultural shock they might experience as a result of either being on an equal footing with women or under women as their leaders. Previously, Tsoka (1999) made several salient suggestions, proposals, and recommendations for programs meant to empower women to become capable leaders in the field of work and specifically in the education profession. These recommendations include:

- Run affirmative action by women themselves, not by men, as they portray a masculine role-image.
- Involve women in or consult with programs designed to help empower them, making familiar content the core and focus of the issues involved.
- Focus on women-friendly issues as the main basis of the content of courses meant to empower women.
- Apply flexible admission rules and policies to allow women into centers meant to empower them, offering part-time courses for working women.
- Implement women-centered teaching approaches to create an image of a female-model in the process.

In conclusion, the prevailing problems regarding women are national or international, and no single person can solve them. We should learn from the famous idiom that says "teach a man, and you teach only an individual, but teach a woman, and you teach the nation."

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