

THE IMPACT OF GENDER
STEREOTYPE-RELATED STRESS ON
FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS:
AN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT
PERSPECTIVE

T.I. PALM-FORSTER

THE IMPACT OF GENDER STEREOTYPE-
RELATED STRESS ON FEMALE EDUCATION
MANAGERS: AN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT
PERSPECTIVE

T.I. PALM-FORSTER

“*M*y will shall shape my future. Whether I fail or succeed shall be no person’s doing but my own. I am the force; I can clear my obstacles before me or I can be lost in the maze. My choice; my responsibility; win or lose, only I hold the key to my destiny”.

(Elaine Maxwell)

Universiteit van die
Oranje-Vrystaat
BLOEMFONTEIN

26 OCT 2000

UOVS SASOL BIBLIOTEEK

(ii)

THE IMPACT OF GENDER STEREOTYPE-RELATED
STRESS ON FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS: AN
EDUCATION MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE

by

THERZA ISÒBEL PALM-FORSTER
(B.Sc., H.E.D., B.Ed., M.Ed.)

THESIS

submitted in accordance with the requirements for the

Philosophiae Doctor

in the

FACULTY OF THE HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION AND
EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE ORANGE FREE STATE
BLOEMFONTEIN

Promotor: Dr Susanna M. Niemann

June 2000

Declaration

I declare that the thesis hereby submitted by me for the Ph.D. degree at the University of the Orange Free State is my own independent work and has not previously been submitted by me at another university/faculty. I further more code copyright of the thesis in favour of the University of the Orange Free State.

.....
T.I. PALM-FORSTER

.....
DATE:

Dedicated to my son

Kieder

Acknowledgements

I wish to express my thanks to the following people:

- Dr Rita Niemann for her excellent guidance and support.
- Ms Annetjie Mostert for her patience and skilfulness in typing this thesis.
- The All Mighty.
- My parents, Mieder and Sophia Palm, for their support and love.
- 3-Kie, Ria, Jeanne and Mieder for their hard work and support.

Table of Contents

| | Page |
|------------------------|------|
| <i>Opsomming</i> | 12 |
| Summary..... | 15 |

Chapter 1

| | |
|---|---|
| THE IMPACT OF GENDER STEREOTYPE-RELATED STRESS ON FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS: AN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE..... | 1 |
| ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY..... | 1 |
| 1.1 INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| 1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM | 5 |
| 1.3 AIM OF THE RESEARCH | 7 |
| 1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY..... | 7 |
| 1.4.1 Literature study | 7 |
| 1.4.2 Empirical Investigation..... | 8 |
| 1.4.2.1 Quantitative methods..... | 8 |
| 1.4.3 Qualitative method | 9 |
| 1.5 DEMARCATION OF FIELD OF STUDY | 9 |
| 1.6 CHAPTER DIVISION | 9 |

Chapter 2

| | |
|---|----|
| THE GENDER STEREOTYPING AND ROLES | 11 |
| 2.1 INTRODUCTION..... | 11 |
| 2.2 CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS | 12 |
| 2.2.1 Gender and sex..... | 12 |
| 2.2.2 Gender stereotypes and roles..... | 13 |

| | Page |
|---------|--|
| 2.3 | DEVELOPMENT OF GENDER STEREOTYPING..... 17 |
| 2.3.1 | Prehistoric civilisations..... 18 |
| 2.3.2 | Pre-Hellenic and Classical Greek Mythology..... 19 |
| 2.3.3 | Biblical era..... 20 |
| 2.3.4 | Post-biblical to pre-modern era 22 |
| 2.3.5 | Pre-industrial era..... 24 |
| 2.3.6 | Modern to post-modern era 24 |
| 2.4 | DETERMINANTS IMPACTING ON GENDER ROLES..... 27 |
| 2.4.1 | Biological determinants 27 |
| 2.4.1.1 | Conclusion..... 38 |
| 2.4.2 | Psychological determinants 39 |
| 2.4.2.1 | Personality: Development and influence on gender roles..... 40 |
| 2.4.3 | Socio-cultural determinants 44 |
| 2.4.3.1 | The concept socialisation 44 |
| 2.4.3.2 | Aspects impacting on socio-cultural dimensions 47 |
| 2.5 | CONCLUSION..... 63 |

Chapter 3

| | |
|-----------|---|
| | STRESS: A GROUNDING PERSPECTIVE..... 76 |
| 3.1 | INTRODUCTION..... 77 |
| 3.2.1 | Concepts and definitions 77 |
| 3.2.1.1 | Stress and burnout 81 |
| 3.3 | STRESS DEVELOPMENT..... 83 |
| 3.3.1 | Contemporary stress approaches 85 |
| 3.3.2 | Stress response moderators 94 |
| 3.4 | STRESSORS AND STRAIN..... 97 |
| 3.4.1 | Definitions..... 98 |
| 3.4.2 | Occupational stressors..... 99 |
| 3.4.3 | Social stressors..... 104 |
| 3.4.4 | Personal strain..... 107 |
| 3.5 | OUTCOMES 112 |
| 3.5.1 | Socio-behavioural outcomes..... 113 |
| 3.5.2 | Physical outcomes 125 |
| 3.6 | THE MANAGEMENT OF STRESS..... 133 |
| 3.6.1 | Concepts and definitions 134 |
| 3.6.2 | Major coping strategies 137 |
| 3.6.2.1 | Primary stage..... 139 |
| 3.6.2.2 | Secondary stage 141 |
| 3.6.2.2.1 | Management skills - training 141 |
| 3.6.2.1.2 | Relaxation skills training 151 |
| 3.6.2.3 | Tertiary stage..... 157 |
| 3.7 | CONCLUSION..... 157 |

Chapter 4

| | |
|---|-----|
| THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA REPORTING ON THE IMPACT OF GENDER STEREOTYPE-RELATED STRESS ON FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS | 159 |
| 4.1 INTRODUCTION..... | 159 |
| 4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN..... | 160 |
| 4.2.1 Selection of research methods..... | 160 |
| 4.2.2 Selection of participants | 160 |
| 4.2.3 The quantitative investigation..... | 161 |
| 4.2.4 A qualitative investigation..... | 162 |
| 4.2.4.1 Objectivity of the researcher..... | 162 |
| 4.2.4.2 Data collection | 163 |
| 4.2.4.3 Data analysis | 165 |
| 4.2.4.4 Validity and reliability..... | 16 |
| 4.3 DATA REPORTING OF INDIVIDUAL QUANTITATIVE TESTS ON STRESS DUE TO GENDER STEREOTYPES | 169 |
| 4.4 DATA REPORT OF QUALITATIVE INVESTIGATION | 172 |
| 4.4.1 Causes | 174 |
| 4.4.1.1 Sex differences | 174 |
| 4.4.1.2 Stereotyping..... | 196 |
| 4.4.1.3 Harassment | 212 |
| 4.4.1.4 Personality | 215 |
| 4.4.1.6 Domestic violence | 223 |
| 4.4.1.7 Crime | 224 |
| 4.4.2 Manifestation | 226 |
| 4.4.3 Management techniques..... | 231 |
| 4.4.4 Need for training | 236 |
| 4.5 SYNTHESIS OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DATA..... | 239 |
| 4.6 CONCLUSION..... | 244 |

Chapter 5

| | |
|---|-----|
| CLOSING PERSPECTIVE..... | 246 |
| 5.1 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY | 246 |
| 5.2 THE IMPACT OF FEMALE STEREOTYPING ON FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS..... | 247 |
| 5.2.1 Sex differences | 247 |
| 5.2.1.1 Respect..... | 247 |
| 5.2.1.2 Support | 248 |
| 5.2.1.3 Discreditation..... | 250 |

| | Page |
|---|------|
| 5.2.1.4 Gender appreciation | 251 |
| 5.2.1.5 Sexism and sexist behaviour..... | 251 |
| 5.2.1.6 Patriarchy | 252 |
| 5.2.1.7 Patronising..... | 253 |
| 5.2.1.8 Not taken seriously..... | 254 |
| 5.2.1.9 Misogyny | 255 |
| 5.2.1.10 Contamination..... | 256 |
| 5.2.1.11 Biological sex differences | 257 |
| 5.2.2 Stereotyping..... | 258 |
| 5.2.2.1 Cultural stereotyping | 258 |
| 5.2.2.2 Work overload | 260 |
| 5.2.2.3 Harassment..... | 262 |
| 5.2.2.4 Personality | 263 |
| 5.2.2.5 Domestic violence | 264 |
| 5.2.2.6 Racism..... | 265 |
| 5.2.2.7 Crime | 265 |
| | |
| 5.3 STRESS MANIFESTATION | 266 |
| | |
| 5.4 THE MANAGEMENT OF STRESS..... | 269 |
| | |
| 5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS..... | 275 |
| | |
| 5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS..... | 278 |
| | |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY..... | 280 |

List of Tables

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 2.1 Biological sex/gender determinants..... | 29 |
| Table 2.2 Stereotype and roles..... | 64 |
| Table 3.1: Socio-behavioural outcomes due to gender stereotypes and roles ... | 120 |
| Table 3.2 Physical outcomes due to gender stereotypes and roles..... | 131 |
| Table 4.1 Stress profiles in occupation, personal domain and personal coping resources of the participants..... | 169 |
| Table 4.2: SRES profile results | 172 |

List of Figures

| | Page |
|---|------|
| Figure 3.1 The General Adaptation Syndrome mechanism | 88 |
| Diagram 4.1 Themes and sub-themes originating from data of interviews | 173 |

Opsomming

Die internasionale tendense ten opsigte van beroepsverandering bring ook verandering in sosiale omgewings mee, wat 'n verskuiwing in geslagsrolle impliseer. Hierdie paradigmaskuif beïnvloed die vroulike geslag in die besonder, aangesien die tradisionele vroulike rolle aan die verander is: 'n proses wat in Suid-Afrika versnel word deur die instelling van wetgewing rakende geslagsgelykheid. Die nuwe wetgewing impliseer dat die nie-tradisionele werkgeleenthede vir vroue in alle arbeidsektore, en veral in die onderwyssektor, toegeneem het, veral gesien in die lig van die feit dat vroue 62,6% van die personeelkorps in onderwys uitmaak. Alhoewel die genoemde veranderinge positiewe resultate tot gevolg kan hê, kan veranderinge in die werkplek tot stres lei, aangesien 'n persoon se beroep een van sy/haar grootste bronne van stres is.

Die genoemde veranderinge impliseer dat meer vroue bestuursposisies in die onderwys sal beklee, en dat meer vroue dus onderwerp sal word aan beroepstres, wat hul produktiwiteit en prestasie negatief mag beïnvloed. Hierbenewens word vroue ook onderwerp aan druk wat veroorsaak word deur geslagstereotipering wat die gevolg is van patriargale denke. Vroue wat na gelykheid in onderwysbestuur soek, mag voortdurend gekonfronteer word met stereotipiese sieninge wat hul stresvlakke kan verhoog en daartoe kan lei dat hul bestuursdoeltreffendheid nadelig beïnvloed word.

Daar bestaan 'n ernstige tekort aan diepgaande navorsing oor die uitwerking van stres op vroulike bestuurders, veral op die terrein van onderwys, en daarom is hierdie studie daarop gemik om die bestaande kennis oor die impak van geslagsverwante stres op vroulike bestuurders in onderwys uit te bou, en

om riglyne voor te stel vir die hantering van die potensieële negatiewe impak daarvan.

Ten einde dit te bereik, is die studie met 'n literatuurstudie oor die oorsprong van geslagsrolle en stereotipes, en die uitwerking van stres, en veral stres as gevolg van geslagstereotipering, op die prestasie en welsyn van vroulike onderwysbestuurders, asook hul hantering daarvan, afgeskop. Dit is bevind dat sosialiseringsprosesse, en veral uitgediende sosiale/kulturele tradisies aanleiding gee tot stereotipiese oortuiginge in die samelewing, en dat hierdie oortuiginge ingeskerp word in opvoedingspatrone en verder in die skool bevestig word. Die literatuurstudie het aan die lig gebring dat stres vererger word deur geslagstereotipering. Ten einde die negatiewe uitwerking van stres te kan hanteer, het die instelling sowel as die individu 'n verantwoordelikheid om 'n stresvermindingsprogram daar te stel. Sodanige program moet aandag skenk aan aspekte soos opleiding in bestuursvaardighede en om selfdunk te verbeter ten einde persone in staat te stel om in te pas by nie-tradisionele beroepe en om die stereotipering van vroue en manlike chauvinisme te hanteer.

Aangesien die stresvlakke van vroulike bestuurders, hul houdings ten opsigte van gelyke beregtiging en hul ervarings as gevolg van geslagstereotipering die kern van hierdie studie gevorm het, is empiriese ondersoeke, wat uit kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe ondersoeke bestaan het, onderneem. Ses vroulike onderwysbestuurders uit verskillende kultuurgroepe en vanuit verskillende bestuursvlakke is geselekteer om aan die studie deel te neem. Die Beroepstresopname is gebruik om die stresvlakke van die deelnemers te bepaal, en die Geslagsrolgelykheidsvraelys is aangewend om hul gedragpatrone te monitor en te begryp. Daarna is indiepte- ongestruktureerde onderhoude met hulle gevoer met die oog daarop om die vooroordele en kwellinge wat hulle beleef as gevolg van die stereotipering van vroue in die onderwyssektor, te bepaal. Die deelnemers het getuig van ernstige gevalle van gebrek aan respek, direkte geslagsdiskriminasie, vrouehaat (misoginie), patriargie, seksuele en emosionele teistering en vele ander. Hulle het ook aan die lig gebring hoe

hierdie praktyke hul doeltreffendheid as bestuurders, hul fisiese toestand en algemene welsyn benadeel.

Ten einde hul stres te hanteer, het die deelnemers aan die ondersoek onder andere gebruik gemaak van medikasie, alkohol, en, tot 'n mate, van oefening, maar die meerderheid het getuig dat hulle dit moeilik vind om die stres te hanteer, aangesien hulle nie tyd het om te ontspan nie.

Na die samevatting van die bevindinge van die studie word aangedui hoe vroulike onderwysbestuurders deur stereotipering beïnvloed word en welke impak dit op hul stresvlakke en werkprestasie het. 'n Stresbestuursmodel word voorgestel met die oog op die bemagtiging van vroulike onderwysbestuurders ten einde die toenemende las van stres te probeer teëwerk en daardeur 'n doeltreffende en gesonde onderwysarbeidsmag te kweek.

Summary

The international tendencies regarding career changes result in the transmutation of social environments, which also imply a shift in gender roles. This paradigm shift effects females in particular, as the traditional female roles are changing: a process which is accelerated in South Africa by the introduction of gender equity legislation. The new legislation implies that the non-traditional work opportunities for women have increased in all sectors of employment and in particular in the education sector as 62.6% of the South African teachers' corps consist of women. Although the above mentioned changes could have positive effects, changes in the workplace could cause stress as a person's career is one of the greatest sources of stress.

The above mentioned changes implies that more women will also hold education management positions and that more women will be subjected to career stress, which could negatively influence their productivity and performance. In addition to this, women are also subjected to strain caused by gender stereotyping as a result of patriarchal beliefs. Women seeking equity in the education management world, might constantly be confronted by stereotypical gender views which could enhance their stress levels and cause them to forfeit management efficiency.

Due to a lack of profound research on the stress outcomes of female managers, especially in the field of education, this study aims at amplifying the existing body of knowledge on the impact of gender-related stress on female education managers to propose guidelines for coping with the potential negative impacts thereof. In order to achieve the above, this study commenced with a literature overview on the origin of gender roles and stereotypes and the effect of stress and gender stereotype-related stress on the performance and well-being of

female education managers, as well as the management thereof. It was found that socialisation processes and outdated societal traditions gave rise to the stereotypical beliefs held by society and that those beliefs are inculcated by upbringing and reinforced by the school. The literature review revealed that stress is enhanced by gender stereotyping. In order to cope with the negative influence of stress, the organisation as well as the individual has a responsibility towards a stress alleviating programme which should include aspects such as training in management skills to increase self-esteem in order to fit into non-traditional occupations, to deal with female stereotyping and male chauvinism.

Because the stress levels of female managers, their attitudes towards egalitarianism and their experiences of gender stereotypes, form the core of this study, empirical investigations, consisting of quantitative as well as qualitative investigations were undertaken. Six female education managers from diverse cultures and a variety of management levels were selected as participants for this study. The Occupational Stress Inventory was used to determine the stress levels of the participants and the Sex-Role-Egalitarianism questionnaire to monitor and understand their behaviour outcomes. Thereafter in-depth unstructured interviews were conducted with the six female education managers to reveal the prejudice and agony they experience due to female stereotyping in the education sector. The participants revealed harsh examples of lack of respect, direct gender discrimination, misogyny, patriarchy, sexual and emotional harassment, and many more. They also revealed how these practices influence their efficiency as managers, their physical conditions and general well-being. In order to cope with stress, the participants made use of medication, alcohol, yoga and some exercising, but most of them found it difficult to manage their stress as they did not have the time to relax.

In the last chapter of the study, the researcher formed a synthesis of the findings and indicated how female education managers were influenced by stereotyping and the impact it had on their stress levels and work

performance. A stress management model was also provided for the empowerment of female education managers in order to curb the increasing burden of stress and thus cultivating an efficient and healthy education work force.

Chapter 1

THE IMPACT OF GENDER STEREOTYPE-RELATED STRESS ON FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS: AN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE

ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Internationally career changes are on the increase as a result of social, political, economic and technological developments. Rapid transmutations of social environments demand democracy and equal opportunities for all (*Die Rapport*, 2000:15; *Sunday Times*, 1999:5; *Sunday Telegraph*, 1999 cited in *Business Times*, 1999:1). Gender roles have thus shifted and affected females in particular, as traditional roles and perceptions of the female as worker have changed. The 'modern' female now has a larger variety of career choices and even has to decide about a career, get married, have children - hence she is more emancipated.

The above-mentioned changes lead to changes in the workplace and also in educational institutions, which causes stress (Hartzell, 1991:75). According to Quick, Nelson, Matuszek, Whittington and Quick (1996:7) a person's career is one of the greatest sources of stress.

Furthermore, Quick, Nelson, Matuszek, Whittington and Quick (1996:7) found that stress-related disabilities had proportionally *doubled* over the last few decades and forecast that careers will become even more stressful during the 21st century as a result of daily workplace demands as well as increasing competitive challenges.

Numerous experts such as Roney and Cooper (1997:75); Hall (1996:48); Keita and Hurrell (1994:xi,108); Newman and Behr (1979:1-43); House (1974:12-27) stress the fact that a physically and mentally healthy workforce is one of a country's most valuable assets, and that the well-being of any workforce could seriously be threatened by work-related psychological disorders which could reduce efficiency and productivity and create a decreased sense of personal well-being resulting in the loss of valuable people. It is estimated that 40% of all illness absenteeism at work is due to emotional and mental distress, whereas 50% of all illnesses worldwide is stress and anxiety related. 80% of *premature* deaths in developed countries are as a result of an unhealthy lifestyle as well as psychological and social stress (*Die Volksblad*, 1998:11; Roney & Cooper, 1997:26; Levi, 1996:7; Bush & West-Burnham 1994:177; McClean, 1974:219). There is even a movement towards psychological disability claim damages being awarded on grounds of stress in the workplace which will have a disastrous economic impact on institutions (Cooper, 1997:27). The fore-mentioned indicates that work stress is regarded as a serious and complex problem affecting millions of workers.

Enhanced stress in the workplace will consequently have an effect on women as the numbers of economically active women are increasing so rapidly that

half of the workforce consisted of women at the turn of the century (*Sunday Times*, 1999a:20; *Sunday Times*, 1999b:5). With the introduction of affirmative action women suddenly have more job opportunities, especially with regard to managerial positions, which implies that females become subjected to all the above-mentioned challenges and stress-related outcomes that may influence their productivity and performance.

Women may experience a disruption of stability and emotional security gained from repetition of that which is familiar, adding additional physical and mental strain to their general well-being. This might mean that women have to acquire various non-traditional skills in order to fit into their changing roles and new positions (Cooper, 1996:104; Greenglass, 1985:227-24; Davidson & Cooper, 1983:112).

Transformation in the South African society and gender equity legislation in South Africa have further increased the range of non-traditional job opportunities for women in education management. The South African national education system by merit of its educational function has astronomic influence ability on gender relations and on the individual career paths of females and males (RSA, 1994: 28). Many women are thus experiencing the impact of these changing roles both at work and in their personal lives.

Not only do women find themselves in roles and positions that are "new" to them, but they are also subjected to gender and role stereotyping. According to Walby (1997:156) patriarchal elements resist gender equality to maintain the subordination of women. The South African education system has for decades been dominated by a patriarchal culture, dominating the educational organisation and authority relationships. Social relations among females and males in this organisation display sexism and different forms of harrassment against females (RSA, 1994:28; Ozga, 1993:4). Patriarchy also functions through the lack of promotion opportunities on an equal base and the maintenance of promotional barriers (Fausto-Sterling, 1992:6).

In spite of the fact that women are the overwhelming majority in the education fraternity, females have hardly been visible in senior and middle education management positions in education departments and schools (RSA, 1994:28). This lack of representation leads to *stereotype* reinforcement in society as it preserves the perception that "men lead and women teach". Male domination in the education organisation and authority (Walby, 1997:57,157; Moore, 1994:8; Ousten, 1993:4) thus reflect how deep rooted gender inequality in South Africa is.

Prior to the introduction of the present Bill of Rights, South African women and therefore all female teachers and those in management roles, had no legal support or protection against any form of workplace discrimination.

Fortunately, the South African Bill of Rights (The Constitution, 1996:6-7) now legally provides protection to all women against any form of discrimination on grounds of sex and gender amongst others, confirming human dignity, equality and freedom. At national level the Constitution recognized gender inequality by establishing a Gender Equality Commission. The latter led to the establishment of a permanent Gender Equity Unit in the Department of Education whose task it is to identify and correct gender imbalances, increase women representation in management positions and to eliminate sexism (RSA, 1994:28-29).

The implementation of equity legislation raised the hopes of females for equal job and promotion opportunities, after being subjected to gender discrimination, unfair workplace practices and a patriarchal environment for decades. Women thus have expectations of a non-sexist society pertaining particularly to their work environments, where they expect total elimination of gender discrimination. However, in spite of the establishment of all these measures, minimal changes in education management positions of females have transpired over the last few years (*Die Volksblad*, 2000:4; *Sunday Times*, 1999a:20).

As most stress-based research has been carried out in industrialised countries there is a void in stress-based research in developing countries. Societal differences such as gender, age and nature of the parent society/culture i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic barriers are also seen as a priority for stress research (Walby, 1997:19; Smith, 1993:45; Davidson & Cooper, 1992:71; Davidson & Cooper, 1983:175; Cox, 1983:174; Greyvenstein, 1989:291). Further research on gender differences and social support as a method of preventative stress management is necessary as women report more *positive* effects from social support than men (Quick *et al.*, 1996:283-284). Mathews, Davis, Stoney, Owens, and Caggiula, (1991:119) believe studies on the factors and outcomes of sex differences on stress responses are extremely important, even more goes for women education managers who have been excluded from management ranks because of marital status, race, gender discrimination and sex stereotyping, amongst other factors.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although the Bill of Rights officially gives females the chance to be equal to males on males' standards, it does not allow questioning of contemporary criteria or encourage development towards a simultaneously effective, mixed-sex social world. The result is that in the total social system only the female's part is expected to change without notable adjustments and changes to the system in whole. This implies that women seeking equity in the management world will chronically find themselves in conflict with stereotypical, traditional male expectations of femininity, and men's stake in implementing these expectations which could possibly cause stress and impact on females' performance and productivity.

However, research is lacking on stress outcomes in *female* managers (Davidson & Cooper, 1992:71; Davidson & Cooper, 1983:14).

Because drastic changes in the traditional sex-role stereotyping have really

not been accepted socially (Moulton, 1980:269-270), women in all sectors, also the education sector, are affected by stereotypical perceptions.

In 1.1 it has been explained that women are to a greater extent than their male counterparts, subjected to the recent changes and that their “new” management roles, also in education, enhance their stress levels, which in turn affects their management performance.

The problem is that women education managers, who battled to get into management positions, cannot afford to forfeit management efficiency due to stress, nor can they allow any probable aggravating stress factors, such as female stereotyping to impact on their performance. It is thus of major importance that female education managers be empowered to fulfil their management tasks effectively, but before any empowerment with regard to the set problem can take place, profound research is of great necessity.

As gender stereotypes presumably impact on females’ managerial personal well-being and performance, female education managers will have to be trained in order to develop cognizance of problems that might occur due to gender stereotyping and stress. It is therefore essential that this study should investigate the impact of gender roles and stereotype-related stress outcomes on female education managers. In order to do this, the evidence, gist and essence of the particular problem stated above, gave rise to the following problem questions that should be addressed:

- ▣ What is the nature and source of gender stereotypes and roles?
- ▣ What is the nature of stress and how can gender stereotype-related demands influence the stress-related outcomes of female education managers?
- ▣ What should be done to empower female managers to manage the pressure caused by their changing roles?

1.3 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of this study is to contribute to and amplify the existing body of knowledge on the impact of gender stereotype-related stress on female education managers and to propose guidelines to cope with potential negative impacts. In order to accomplish this aim, the following objectives should be realised by this study:

- To describe the origin of gender roles and stereotypes and the effect thereof on the performance and well-being of female education managers
- To reveal the possible effect of gender stereotypes and roles on stress-related outcomes of female education managers.
- To conduct both quantitative and qualitative investigations in order to determine the possible impact of female roles and stereotype-related stress on the performance of the female education manager.
- To pose guidelines/strategies/models for possible stress management training which will address the particular needs of female education managers.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The following methods will be applied to accrue information:

1.4.1 Literature study

A literature study of appropriate primary and secondary sources containing authoritative publications, books, journals, newspapers and research reports will be consulted to gather relevant information on the influence of gender roles and stereotype-related stress outcomes of female education managers as

well as the management thereof.

1.4.2 Empirical Investigation

Because gender stereotyping and stress are such sensitive issues, qualitative methods would be appropriate to “get under the skin” (Duff, 1992:87) of the participants. To target participants for this research the rolling stone effect will be applied. With the increasing popularity of multiple research methodologies, two quantitative research instruments and qualitative interviews are going to be used to gather relevant information on the topic and to raise the validity of this study. Quantitative research results will then be scored by a psychometrist and the qualitative data will be analysed by the researcher.

1.4.2.1 Quantitative methods

Female education managers, will be asked to complete the OSI (Occupational Stress Inventory) standardised questionnaire to determine stress scores in the following domains: occupational, personal strain and coping resources. Results of the OSI will be scored and interpreted by a psychometrist.

Secondly the participants will be asked to complete the SRES (Sex-Role-Egalitarianism Scale). This instrument is used to investigate stereotyping and discrimination and to assist the researcher to monitor, understand and predict various behaviour outcomes of female participants (King & King, 1993:47). SRES will also be used to test the stereotypical beliefs and attitudes of the particular participant concerning egalitarianism of various female and male roles. The results will be scored by a psychometrist and interpreted in context by the researcher.

The results of above-mentioned instruments will be used to determine the participants' stress levels and coping resources as well as their sex role

orientations which could enrich the research data from the personal interviews.

1.4.3 Qualitative method

Personal in-depth interviews will be conducted with a number of female education managers on the issue, by using an interview guide as guideline. The data will be analysed and once theoretical saturation has been achieved the interviews will cease. This method is selected with the aim of probing human behaviour in the educational sphere.

1.5 DEMARCATION OF FIELD OF STUDY

This study accentuates the impact of stress and gender stereotypes and roles on females in management positions in the education sector.

The participants for purposes of this study will consist of female education managers from diverse cultures in the Free State and Eastern Cape.

This study falls within the field of Education Management as a sub-discipline of Education. Educational organisations have to be managed in an effective manner to ensure efficiency. Therefore this study particularly focuses on the impact that gender stereotype-related stress might have on the efficiency of female education managers and how they should manage their stress in order to ensure effective management performance.

1.6 CHAPTER DIVISION

In order to provide an education management perspective on the impact of gender stereotype-related stress on female education managers, the following plan of action will be followed:

Chapter 2

This chapter will focus on gender stereotyping and socialization practices and the impact these have on female conduct.

Chapter 3

This chapter provides a literature study on the stress phenomenon and the possible influence of stereotype-related outcomes on the productivity and performance of female education managers. This chapter will highlight the management of stress through prevention, alleviation and coping mechanisms.

Chapter 4

Attention will be devoted to different research methods in this chapter, in the search for further information on the possible impact of gender stereotype-related stress outcomes on female education managers and how they manage stress. The results of the qualitative interviews and quantitative questionnaires will be analysed and summarised in report form.

Chapter 5

Recommendations and guidelines based on the research findings will be provided to assist female education managers to prevent, intercept and/or alleviate the influence of possible negative female stereotype-related stress outcomes on their management performance.

Chapter 2

GENDER STEREOTYPING AND ROLES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Each culture creates its own meanings of femaleness and maleness. These meanings entail a series of expectations regarding the behaviour of the two sexes. When these gender-related roles become absolutist, they become gender stereotypes. These rigid gender roles and stereotypes are not based on the few existent sex differences, but rather on a different power relationship between women and men (Inglis, 1997:4; Basow, 1992:2; Lipman-Blumen, 1984:60).

Drastic changes in the traditional sex-role stereotypes are not readily accepted by society (Moulton, 1980:269-270). Findings of the Gender Equity Commission (GETT Report, 1998) reflect this by highlighting cultural perceptions that males head 'households', and therefore should also occupy the higher positions. This could be one of the reasons why institutions lack understanding and resist implementing gender equity. Weiner, Arnot and David (1997:620), and Basow (1992:2) confirm this belief by pointing to the

fact that rigid gender roles and stereotyping are socially constructed and not biologically given. Gender stereotyping is thus conveyed from one generation to another, and has become an actual part of the heritage and beliefs of a specific society or culture.

In order to understand and gain insight into stereotyping as a phenomenon, it is thus necessary to clarify gender concepts, view the development of gender stereotyping and physiological, psychological and socio-cultural determinants impacting on gender roles, although definitions in the literature on gender and sexual roles are often blurred as the connotations attached to gender are very broad.

2.2 CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

Before stereotyping and roles can be clarified, it is necessary to distinguish between sex and gender concepts as that forms the foundation of stereotyping and roles.

2.2.1 Gender and sex

- Gender: Is a person's personal, psychological experience of being female or male. It is a person's perception of herself or himself as female or male. Gender represents the characteristics and behaviour considered by a society as socially appropriate to females and males (Kruger, 1997:11; Basow, 1992:2; MacKenzie, 1992:156). This construction of 'womanhood' and 'manhood' starts from birth and through a social process, encourages girls and boys to acquire prescribed gender and social roles (Boonzaaier & Sharp, 1988:24).
- Sex: Refers to the biological differences caused by the differences between female and male in sex organs, and to indicate an individual's femaleness or maleness (Kruger, 1997:25; MacKenzie, 1992:162; Lips, 1988:3).

According to the above, the main distinction between gender and sex seems to be:

- gender is a personal psychological experience of one's femaleness or maleness
- sex is based on the biological differences between female and male organs
- gender is a person's subjective interpretation of her/his femaleness or maleness
- sex is a more objective interpretation of a person's femaleness or maleness
- gender is socially constructed, prescribed and encouraged as appropriate behaviour for girls and boys
- sex is biologically given.

2.2.2 Gender stereotypes and roles

The main distinctions between gender and sex as given above form the foundation of stereotyping and roles. In order to clarify stereotypes and roles various definitions and concepts will be investigated.

- Stereotypes are strongly held as over-generalisations about people in some allocated social categories, beliefs that are acquired as part of the process of growing up in that society (Basow, 1992:3).
- "Stereotypes are beliefs about a group's predictable characteristics that allow us, based on these beliefs, to categorise the group and generalise about its behaviour without looking at the individuals. Stereotypes about race, sex and religion are reflected throughout society. Although individuals can overcome stereotypes, myths may become deeply ingrained, leading the individual to act in the expected way and make the self-fulfilling prophecy come true" (Sitterly & Duke, 1988:4).

- Absolute differences between females and males are almost small, yet, through the process of stereotyping these differences between genders are exaggerated out of all proportion. Differences within the genders are miscalculated, for example, women are emotional, soft and weak, and men are rational, hard and tough (Louw & Edwards, 1997:772).
- Stereotypes are always a generation out of date (Wynn & Fletcher, 1987:86).
- Femininity and masculinity gender stereotypes: Refer generally to certain personality and social characteristics. Femininity, with traits of emotionality, domesticity and nurturance makes up a societal structure in which femininity is always one-down. Femininity as a social role admits a person less self-determination and fewer personal rights than masculinity does (Basow, 1992:53; Marshall, 1984:31; Davis, Williams & Best, 1982:315-331; Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1972:59-78).

According to the above, gender stereotyping can be seen as:

- over-generalisation of beliefs
- deeply embedded in society
- outdated societal and cultural beliefs
- socially constructed
- subjective
- overlooking individual behaviour
- regulating behaviour
- associating femininity and masculinity with specific personality traits
- emotional traits restricting the rights of females
- opposite traits enhancing male status
- glorifying femininity
- impacting on sex, race and religion.

Gender roles are defined as follows:

- Socially created expectations which contain the cultural beliefs about what feminine and masculine behaviour (gender roles) should be. Family, occupational and political roles are prescribed dichotomously to members of each sex (Bland, 1998:1 of 2; Lipman-Blumen, 1984:2).
- A person's understanding and acceptance of gender roles (Bland, 1998:1 of 2).
- Those socially created behaviours assigned differentially to women and men, a description of social roles (Ozga, 1993:113; Lipman-Blumen, 1984:1).
- An intricate blend of social and psychological behaviours, norms, values, attitudes, that society allots to feminine and masculine (Lipman-Blumen, 1984-3).
- Gender roles embody a more complex conceptualisation than sex roles (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:2-3).
- An expression of important power relationships between females and males, which serves as a model for all other power relationships. It expresses the roles and statuses of females and males in society, "their different responsibilities and privileges, and their unequal control over societal resources point to a major power difference between them" (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:4).
- Behaviours, attitudes, values, beliefs of a particular cultural group that are considered appropriate for males and females, stemming from biological differences (Bland, 1998: 1 of 2; Lipman-Blumen, 1984:1).

Gender roles seem to be:

- socially created expectations, behaviours, norms and attitudes
- prescribed family, work and political roles that differ sharply for each sex
- serving as a model for all societal power relationships between females and males
- a person's compliance with social will and expectations
- a complex interwoven blend of social and psychological behaviours, norms, values, attitudes and cultural beliefs
- the manner of conducting oneself in order to conform to roles prescribed by society
- the conveyance of the power liaison between the sexes
- the different responsibilities and privileges between females and males
- the expression of the social roles and statuses of the sexes
- the unequal control over societal resources by the different sexes.

The original conditions that gave rise to the sex-gender social system centuries ago, have changed tremendously. In primitive societies human survival depended greatly on physical strength which made this system functional for that epoch. However, with the advancement of technology and the evolving of the 'new' female and 'new' male, physical strength is no longer a prerequisite for survival. Yet, these patterns still exist today, centuries after the archetypal circumstances have changed. Lipman-Blumen (1984:3-5) agrees and argues that the existence of these patterns and differences indirectly expresses that one member of the two sexes is more, has more and deserves more of what is specified desirable in that society. Mosetse (1998:87-90) confirms this by adding to this argument that individuals who become used to bigger privileges and power in society find it vital and natural to preserve the status quo. The result of the latter is that all the late generations accept the structure as 'given' and natural, even though the original conditions that started the social system have changed.

In order to have a better understanding of gender stereotyping and how it manifests in society, it would be necessary to provide a historical overview of gender perceptions.

2.3 DEVELOPMENT OF GENDER STEREOTYPING

In order to fathom the development of gender stereotyping, it is essential to give a brief historical overview of 'feminine role' perceptions.

When gender symbolism is analysed, it is widely accepted that cultures distinguish between females and males in diverse ways. Traditional gender-role beliefs reduce females to being seductresses, evil, witchlike, deceitful and manipulative (Davidson & Gordon, 1979:163).

According to Pateman (1994:108) and Davis (1994:129) the fundamental discrediting of women started in prehistoric times. Men's actions, obligations, responsibilities and possessions have globally been rated higher than that of women in all societies and can be traced throughout the history of human beings as being masked in androcentric philosophies, frequently stemming from the prevailing religious thought of the epoch. They are also deeply rooted within the culture, i.e. folklore and religious background. These beliefs have added towards the socialisation of sex roles and stereotyping and gender roles (Greyvenstein, 1989:21).

Beliefs and perceptions pertaining to 'womanhood' give rise to the following question: Why do all cultures place a lower assessment on women than men?

Chodorow (1994:48), Moore (1994:14), Lipman-Blumen (1984:72-75) and Ortner (1974:67) argue that this lower value imbalance, whereby women receive secondary status, must have a *cultural* origin, as it is not built into the biological differences between the sexes. Various cultures must have some

devalued factor in common. Seemingly 'nature' fits the bill, because people rate their own lifestyle products above the sphere of the material world of nature. As women are closer to nature by virtue of their child-bearing and rearing function, they tend to be identified with nature and men, on the other hand, are identified with culture.

The 'inferior symbolic position' of women is supported by ideas of contamination, as the natural processes after giving birth and menstruation are often viewed as polluted. The control myth that women are contaminated and contaminating teaches women to believe they are an inexhaustible fountain of contamination. The linking of women with nature and contamination is a symbolic part of the patriarchal system strongly in place in societies. The question of 'nature versus nurture or biological versus nurture or biological versus social determinism' thus remains a highly debated topic (Bland, 1998:3 of 4; 4 of 4; Moore, 1994, 15; Fausto-Sterling, 1992:7; Lipman-Blumen, 1984:86-87; Ortner, 1974:65).

The following developmental periods are identified in literature:

2.3.1 Prehistoric civilisations.

Although the earliest portrayals of females assigning them to inferior positions may be traced to medieval civilisations which precede Biblical times, there was a period in human history when females reigned paramount in a matriarchal world (De Beauvoir, 1979:101-102).

During the Stone Age, land belonged to all members of a clan and there was a primitive division of labour whereby there was *equality* between the sexes. In many cases 'the women were strong and tough enough to take part in the warriors' expeditions'. Furthermore *social* order in pre-modern times was based on *sex*, *age* and *strength* (Pateman, 1994: 108-109), whereby women were associated with nature and men with culture (*cf.* 2.3). Without

adequate tools man did not perceive at first any power over the world and identified with the clan or group. However, with the discovery of bronze, copper and iron the plough appeared, enabling man to dominate and discover himself as creator. He found the courage to see himself as an independent active force able to accomplish his own potential. In order to cultivate the fields that required intensive labour, men had access to the labour of other men whom they reduced to slavery, private property appeared, and man became the owner also of woman. This 'great historical defeat of the feminine sex' can be explained by the disruption of the old division of labour, which happened in the aftermath of the invention of new tools, and maternal authority gave way to paternal authority, i.e. the *emergence* of the patriarchal family (De Beauvoir, 1979:85-93).

According to Lipman-Blumen (1984:70) females were seen as part of nature. To the primitive mind females were also *supernatural* and astounding, as they had amongst others, the apparent ability to menstruate without perishing from blood loss; they brought forth smaller bodies from within their own bodies without any likely male assistance. Ancient myths provide evidence that these extreme powers of females could prompt an *admiration* and *animosity* as ancient civilisations portray women not only as 'life-bearers and goddesses' but also as 'witches and contamination breeders'. This supposed power to control both males and weaker females triggered fear and hostility.

2.3.2 Pre-Hellenic and Classical Greek Mythology

Towards the period of the Late Bronze Age, i.e. between the second and third millennia B.C., the growing comprehension of males' participation in human conception contributed to the transformation from female to male metaphysical supremacy, toppling the matriarchal mythologies and replacing them with the patriarchal version. Classical Greek mythology, no longer astounded by the 'magic' of females, accentuated the danger of female sexuality to seduce males and destroy their self-control and social power.

The new patriarchal order emerged in about 2500 B.C. and the patriarch of the Old Testament, namely Abraham, was described as such in approximately 1800 B.C. according to biblical scholars (Mosetse, 1998:83; Lipman-Blumen, 1984:70-71).

2.3.3 The Biblical era

Male and female gender role images were unconditionally differentiated in the Old Testament as the message of a strong patriarchal social order where the relationship between males and females was modelled on the covenant between humans and God.

The disorderliness of women was seen when Eve gave in to temptation and encouraged Adam to eat the forbidden fruit in the Garden of Eden ‘...she gave some to her husband and he ate it...’ (Genesis 3:6). She thereby defied God. Eve is portrayed as the *femme fatale* and punished to bear children in pain and sorrow, and to submit everlastingly to the authority of Adam.

According to Cronje (1973:83) it can be taken for granted that deep-lying differences exist between female and male. The human is a unitary being consisting of a body and soul, but in terms of relationships the human acts in a dualistic manner, i.e. feminine or masculine. The latter indicates the only structural variety in all inter-human relationships, considering all other varieties – nation, language, culture – can be overcome, but not sexual variety (Heyns, 1978:137). According to Heyns (1978:138) the entire existence of human beings is determined by their sexuality. Furthermore, just as humans cannot dissociate themselves from a body and soul reality, they also cannot dissociate themselves from their specified sex.

God created humans, ‘...making them like himself, he created them male and female...’ (Genesis 2:7-22) points to the fact that God created them as man and woman. The female was created as a suitable companion for the man

(Genesis 2:18-21) and hereby, according to Heyns (1978:137), it is not implied that the female is created for the sake of the male, but that they were created for the sake of each other. They therefore complement each other and are not in competition.

According to Genesis 1:38 male and female were instructed *together* to bring the earth under their control and to have children (Coetzee, 1979:70). Niemann (1994:15) argues that neither the male nor the female gets excluded from these two tasks – it is also not indicated that the function that each has to execute, is exactly the same. According to Heyns (1978:39) the Biblical message is clear that *together* the male and female were created, blessed, responsible for reproduction, sinned and received the promise of redemption. It does not appear anywhere in the creation recount that the female is excluded from specific tasks, merely because it is intended for the male. Coetzee (1979:7) points out that male and female relate to each other vertically – they are vertically differentiated and not horizontally.

Contradictory to the above, the existing perception is that the female is subordinate to the male. The subordinate position that the female occupied in the Greek congregation (*cf.* 1 Corinthians 14:34) greatly influences the subordinate position of females in present times. The misinterpretation of this verse can be linked, according to Ridderbos (1977:462), to the following motives, namely that (a) the law that is being referred to actually refers back to the Creation where Adam was created first and thereafter Eve, and the fact that Eve seduced Adam into eating the forbidden fruit, and (b) that it was customary of that era that the female occupied a subordinate position – a practice modelled on the patriarchal social order of that era.

According to Niemann (1994:16) the subordination of the female in the church is warped out of context. Consequently people fail to perceive the equity between male and female that is described in the other letters of Paul. Although Paul frequently addresses the Christians as ‘brothers’ (*cf.* Romans

12:1, 15:14), he often turns to females (*cf.* Romans 16:1.3.6.12 and Acts 18:20) (Ridderbos, 1977:461). Furthermore, the variety of gifts from the Holy Spirit (1 Corinthians 12:4-27) given to 'everyone' and 'everybody' reflects the glory of the Lord (2 Corinthians 3:18).

Evidence that the female occupied a distinctive place in society is even found in the Old Testament. Proverbs 31:10-31 praises the female, and she is least of all a person who sits quietly and submissively at her dwelling – she brings food home from out-of-the-way-places (verse 14), she buys and plants a vineyard (16), she spins (19), weaves (19), is financier (18) and business woman (24), simultaneously (Niemann, 1994:16; Janson, 1973:18-19).

Furthermore, according to interpretations of biblical stereotypes, the male figure of Christ expresses female characteristics such as altruism, acceptance and self-sacrifice, which are comparable to those of the contemporary female stereotypes. Lerner (1986: n.p.) and Lipman-Blumen (1984:72-75) argue that his male (Christ) – female characteristics dichotomy *confuses* Western civilisation's comprehension of appropriate gender roles.

Greyvenstein (1989:32) comes to the conclusion that gender inequity may, apart from the influence of complex and eclectic cultural factors, be associated with the influence of religious thought, as interpretations of the Old and New Testament have been ample and contradicting, and have exerted a powerful influence on gender-related philosophies.

2.3.4 Post-biblical to pre-modern era

The imperfection of women was put down to nature and it was further believed that their disorderly condition led them to sinful witchcraft. Therefore the following cures for female disobedience were advised: 'honest work that *busied* her hands', religious education to instil *submissiveness*,

particular education to point out her *honourable duty*, rules and restrictions that made her *accountable* to her husband (Davis, 1994:130).

The perception of women as inferior beings can clearly be seen in:

- St. Thomas's announcement (De Beauvoir, 1979:16) of woman to be an imperfect man and an 'incidental' being;
- Comte's (1848:242-243) view that women were inferior due to their biological nature;
- Rousseau's (1968:496) declaration that '...never has a people perished from an excess of wine, all perish from the disorder of women'. Rousseau argued that this disorder of women was grounded in their endless 'sexual passion';
- Hegel's (1949:496) conclusion that women are 'the everlasting irony in the life of the community';
- Freud's (1961:99) claim that women are 'in opposition to civilisation';

During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the shortcomings of men were contributed to the way that they were raised by their mothers, rather than through a fault of nature, whilst the shortcomings, and therefore the disorderliness of women, were based on their physiology, frail and erratic personality, and association with nature (Davis, 1994:129). Words that are associated with anything feminine often have a stigma of evil, for example, hurricanes are named after females, as both are seen as unpredictable. In the early nineteenth century some men also viewed women as only fit to choose between becoming a 'mistress or housewife' (Silver, 1973:83).

Analysts see the above-mentioned reactions as transformed into deep-seated responses toward the maternal figure, as well as into general misogyny.

From about the seventeenth century a new understanding of social life originated, whereby the connection between 'nature' and 'society' and 'women and society' became intrinsically difficult. During this period of time individuals were seen as logical creatures 'born free and equal to each other' and as people who form their social associations and organisations for themselves (Patemann, 1994:108-109).

2.3.5 The Pre-industrial era

According to Bradley (1994:150-156) and Hochschild (1973:250) women, especially married women, were seen as subordinates in the family business during the pre-industrial era, as the family was paternal. Industrialisation brought about reforms to the family, but it did not end paternalism. Women who did go out to work were used as cheap labour in sex-typed jobs, keeping them under male domination, both at work and at home. During the nineteenth century, however, women's work was shaped by the *needs* of the *family* and *society*, whereas men historically decided for themselves. Only towards the end of the nineteenth century patriarchy came under criticism.

Additionally, the cultural pattern that treated women as inferior if they were not married, fostered stress by restricting their goals (Wolf & Goodell, 1968:217).

2.3.6 The Modern to the post-modern era

Pateman (1994:108-109) argues that the discreditation of women only became a problem in modern times as radical individuals developed and the ideologies about women became a serious problem, which had not been addressed previously.

A shift in sex roles occurred during the twentieth century when both husband and wife went out to work, where women, even today, are mostly regarded in terms of their suitability for a job, rather than their competence to do it (Weiner, *et al.* 1997:621,625; Bradley, 1994:150-156; Wolf & Goodell, 1968:217).

Bradley (1994:151-157) further argues that paradigms of sexual inequalities are still conveyed by families, whereby the male is seen as the breadwinner (*cf.* 2.1), and the wife as the permanent mother, in spite of the fact that paternalism in families has faded. Yet most families and organisations remain androcentric, run by men and designed round male interpretations, preferences, specifications and choices.

Furthermore, as women are associated with full-time mothering, the belief of her being a permanent mother, results in working women becoming fatigued and stressed by the *additional* domestic and nurturing responsibilities, the latter preventing them from always accomplishing the same success as men in highly competitive jobs. Additional to this many women caring for young children also have career interruptions at crucial stages of their careers, thereby diminishing their chances of promotion (Bradley, 1994:151-152).

Although there is an indication toward an androgynous philosophy in which sharing of traditional roles, both inside and outside homes, is developing, Greyvenstein (1989:30) comes to the conclusion that the completely fixed stereotyped view of females, which has occurred throughout the history of mankind, remains at the core of modern society and females are still victims as secondary and subordinate to males (*cf.*2.1) in most facets of life.

The discreditation of women seems to be deeply rooted in the history, folklore, religion and tradition of society, whereby a hierarchical social and political order developed that led to the subordination of women. As women

started to develop as liberal individualists, the concept of the 'disorder of women' exacerbated the inferiority of women, creating an unsolved general social and political problem. The development of the intrinsic problem between 'women' and 'society' added to the probability of the creation of frustration, anxiety and other stress-related disorders.

Powerful and positive images of females from ancient civilisations are also transformed into negative, cataclysmic figures. Most of females' history has been shaped by patriarchy as education and organisations have patriarchal bases (Marshall, 1984:223-225). Henceforth, literature and art perpetuate these unbecoming female gender-role images, whilst contemporary control myths endorse them (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:96).

Historical patriarchal beliefs of the family are transmitted from one generation to another and are very much in existence today, although in a less rigid form; these beliefs remain androcentric. These ideals led to the subordination of women both at home and work. Working women therefore have additional domestic responsibilities depleting their energy, a factor that could easily lead to exhaustion, anxiety and immense frustration. Thus, as a result of gendered jobs and discriminatory practices both in the family and at work, the factors mentioned above possibly led to women becoming so fatigued and stressed that it becomes even more difficult to achieve the same success as men in competitive jobs like management.

Both females and males learn to act in a gender-appropriate manner because ancient gender-role images (*cf.*2.3.1) have the power to create a set of social stereotypes or control myths about the "true character" of females and males, and to serve as self-control mechanisms. Once these control myths become internalised, they aid to control behaviours and attitudes of both genders, both consciously and unconsciously (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:75).

2.4 DETERMINANTS IMPACTING ON GENDER ROLES

Biologically it is obviously only possible within the female sex role to give birth. That the female assignment of nurturing and rearing is not biologically inevitable is seen from the fact that some men, as well as women who have never given birth, have reared children. Theoretically, then, child rearing could be part of either gender role. Still, in most societies child rearing is assigned to females. Biological sex roles are culturally exaggerated and child rearing becomes central to the female gender role, with the result that rearing children is treated as if it were biologically compulsory for females (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:2-3; Firestone, 1979:137; De Beauvoir, 1979:735-740).

The question inevitably arises: how are sex and gender *determined*? In order to shed more light on this matter, it is essential for the purpose of this study to analyse briefly a few physical functions and processes of the human body.

In order to clarify female gender stereotyping through socialisation processes, it is necessary to scrutinise possible biological and psychological and socio-cultural factors that contribute towards gender stereotyping. Social forces that may influence gender roles and behaviour of females and males will be discussed as socio-cultural determinants.

2.4.1 Biological determinants

By referring to females and males as the *opposite sex* it is generally assumed that males and females are completely different in all their traits and behaviours. These arguments are often used to justify perceptions on biological differences.

Sex typing points to dissimilar treatment of people according to their biological sex. It refers explicitly to behaviours determined by an individual's biological sex, such as pregnancy, lactation, menstruation, erection, orgasm and seminal ejaculation (Bland, 1998:1 of 2; Lipman-Blumen, 1984:2). Sex is indicated mainly by genitalia as well as hormones and genes, although the latter two *cannot* be completely separated from socio-cultural and environmental factors (Weiner *et al.* 1997:621-622; Basow, 1992:24-25, 28; Davidson & Gordon, 1979:2). Furthermore, society tends to believe that males are genetically programmed to be focused and dominating and that females are more encompassing (Gidish, 2000:33). It is important to know what the differences are between the sexes and which are stereotypical differences (Weiner *et al.* 1997:621; Basow, 1992:23; Davidson & Gordon, 1979:2). Table 2.1 provides a summary of most biological determinants that have an impact on gender roles.

The biological development or sexual differentiation of human beings will be used as a framework within which to understand sex roles, behaviours and sex-typing. The following aspects, namely chromosomes, hormones, anatomy, brain organisation and intellectual abilities will be viewed to gain more insight on sexual differentiation and the validity of the concept 'opposite sex'.

TABLE 2.1 Biological sex/gender determinants

| Biological determinants | Male | Female |
|-------------------------|---|---|
| Chromosomes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ 23 pairs ◦ XY = sex chromosomes ◦ Y present – tests formed | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ 23 pairs ◦ XX = sex chromosomes ◦ Y absent – ovaries formed |
| Hormones | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Androgen; oestrogen ◦ Progesterone production increases – puberty ◦ Constant androgen production after puberty ◦ Research of effects on moods/behaviours neglected – resulting in stereotyping | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Oestrogen; androgen ◦ Oestrogen production increases – puberty ◦ Alternating secretion of oestrogen and progesterone – part of menstrual cycle ◦ Ongoing research on effects on moods/behaviours – resulting in stereotyping |
| Anatomy – genitalia | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Penis, external scrotum ◦ Influences sex – gender role expectations of parents | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Clitoris, internal vagina ◦ Influences sex – gender role expectations of parents and society |
| Brain organization | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Right brain hemisphere more developed (visual-spatial) ◦ Sexual dimorphism (able to endure in different forms) ◦ Stereotypical expectations of boys academic abilities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Left brain hemisphere more developed (verbal-language) ◦ Sexual dimorphism (able to endure in different forms) ◦ Stereotypical expectations of girls academic abilities |
| Intellect | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Small differences many similarities ◦ Differences exaggerated, resulting in gender stereotyping | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Small differences, many similarities ◦ Differences exaggerated, resulting in gender stereotyping |

◆ Chromosomes

Sexual differentiation starts with an individual's complement of genes. Individuals inherit 23 pairs of chromosomes from their parents, of which one pair, known as the sex chromosome, determines the sex of a foetus. Females possess two identical sex chromosomes namely XX and males possess an XY sex chromosome (*cf.* Table 2.1). At the instant of human conception two X chromosomes produce a female and an X and Y chromosome produce a male, therefore XX is equivalent to female and XY equivalent to male. This will be the only difference between the male and female foetuses. The developing foetus will be bipotential as the development can go either way, toward male or female form (Fausto-Sterling, 1992:78), until the seventh week when the Y chromosome (if present) brings about the information of the testes, or if this gene is absent, ovaries will be formed instead from the sex glands. The basic form of foetal development is therefore female, unless a Y chromosome is present and the hormone androgen is secreted in the next stage in order for a male foetus to be formed (Fausto-Sterling, 1992:18-19, Angier, 1990:A1-A19; Hood, Draper, Crockett, Petersen, 1987:51; Du Toit, Van Rensburg, Du Toit, Botha, Volschenk, Van der Westhuizen, De Kock & Niebuhr, 1986:205-206) (*cf.* Table 2.1).

◆ Hormones

It must be kept in mind that genetic and hormonal processes are complex and that many of the control variables are still unknown. The foetus is vulnerable to its environment both inside and outside the womb, and there are arguments that gender behaviour, and thus gender identity, is determined in the womb and could be related to the 'nature versus nurture debate' (Bland, 1998:4 of 7; 3 of 4; 1 of 4). Furthermore, the justification of the biological argument that high levels of androgen in a six week old male foetus direct the foetal brain to develop towards a male instead of a female, arises from studies on laboratory mice and rats (Bland, 1998: 3 of 14; 4 of 14).

Human male and female foetuses can be differentiated by hormone production beyond two months. Fausto-Sterling (1992:133-144), DeBold and Luria (1983:1101-1108) argue that prenatal hormones may affect parts of the brain that could make the cultivation of behaviours like 'rough-and-tumble play' and nurturance easier to achieve, although these behaviours are still notably affected by environmental factors, such as upbringing (Bland, 1998:5 of 6). After birth, until the age of eight years, hormone production is insignificant in both sexes, until puberty when sex hormone production is increased in both boys and girls. Both the sexes have all the hormones. However, girls at this stage have a larger production of oestrogen and progesterone than boys, and the latter have a larger production of androgen than girls, although a high testosterone level in both male and females is associated with traits such as dominance and pessimism. Bland (1998:4 of 6) further postulates that a family of differentiated oestrogens and androgens may be altered from one to another and influence development in a female or male direction, these changes may be dormant until puberty.

One cardinal procedure in which sexes do differ is in hormone functioning and production after puberty when males tend to have constant androgen secretion and females have alternating changes of oestrogen and progesterone as part of the menstrual cycle (Basow, 1992:27-30).

Oestrogens and androgens are not 'uniquely male or female', as the ratio of these hormones differs between the sexes, and both these hormones appear to be necessary in both sexes to achieve sexual maturity. For example, in females androgens are present as androstenedione which, when needed, can be converted to testosterone and dihydrotestosterone (Bland, 1998:2 of 6; 3 of 6). Therefore it is incorrect to refer to oestrogen as the female hormone and androgen as the male hormone.

According to Fausto-Sterling (1992:90-102) and Asso (1987:55-80) the hormonal menstrual cycle and the effects it may have on moods and behaviours of females has been an endless subject of researchers. On the other hand, research on male hormone secretion and the effects it may have on their moods and behaviours are neglected as there is no external indication of cycles, like menstruation, in males. This neglect of research on males is evidence of how societal stereotyping that men are 'unemotional' may affect questions that are asked by researchers.

Fausto-Sterling (1992:105), McFarlane, Martin and Williams (1988:201-223) and Susman, Nottelmann, Inoff-Germain, Dorn and Chrousos (1987:492-504) point out that the link between hormones, moods and behaviour may be even stronger in males than in females. Researchers decline to refer to the monthly cycle of testosterone in males, as it is viewed as a male hormone and consequently normal, and not a glaring subject for investigation such as 'peculiarities' of mood changes during the menstrual cycle. Furthermore, prenatal hormones may readily lead to the development of particular *personality characteristics*, or they may sensitise a person to favour certain activities, which in turn boost the development of certain characteristics. Prenatal hormones could be linked to the *levels* of puberty hormones, which may produce personality characteristics/traits.

Negative moods premenstrually are believed to be proof for the accepted negative stereotyping of women's emotional behaviour, and females grow up with clearly negative viewpoints toward menstruation. On the other hand, positive behaviour is ignored, because of cryptic/hidden assumptions that no positive changes are linked to cyclic menstruation (Fausto-Sterling, 1992:104-106).

Hormones have complex effects on human beings, and may stimulate specific types of behaviour (Bland, 1998:4 of 6). The amounts of hormones released in an individual can be modified and this influences a person's behaviour (Kendall, 1993:70). The activities of hormones ceaselessly mingle with social

and psychological factors. *Individual differences* in moods and behaviours are the norm, the latter is true for both males and females (Basow, 1992:33).

At birth bipotentiality continues (Money & Ehrhardt, 1972, cited in Basow, 1992; Bland, 1998, 3 of 4) and the direct method by which sex is determined as by the external organs (*cf.*2.4.1). The announcement that a new-born infant is a boy or girl is based on their external genitalia, which leads to two different patterns of adult-infant interaction of differentiating behaviours, for example: blue or pink blankets, naming, and handling of the baby (Davidson & Gordon, 1979:2).

Children who have suffered damage to external genitalia, for example damage to the penis during circumcision, clearly demonstrate that the most important variable in the development of gender identity is the sex one's parents raise one to be. The latter influence can outweigh effects of external genitalia, hormones and genes and confirms *very basically* how impressionable and bendable human behaviour is (Money, 1986, cited in Basow, 1992:28).

Money (1986 cited in Basow, 1992:28) further maintains that up to 18 months or the time a child acquires language there seems to be a *critical period* for the post-natal development of gender identity. This gender identity becomes consolidated by the age three or four, and any attempt to raise the child according to another sex after it has acquired language, is generally futile and may lead to emotional problems later on.

Basow (1992:28-29) argues that the search for *simple biological* reasons for gender stereotyping and gender roles is *misleading* as the immense impressionability of human behaviour and the fact that biological and environmental factors cannot be fully separated in humans. Therefore it is extremely difficult to say whether any specific behaviour or characteristic is caused by nature or nurture. Additionally there is a critical point for each stage of development to occur in the foetus, after which the male or female

path is comparatively fixed. Thus the sex of the baby is usually fixed by birth and its gender by eighteen months. Normally individuals, after this time, do not change their image of themselves as boy or girl, whereas the characteristics and behaviours conveyed by those terms may change.

It must be borne in mind that there is an enormous overlap in almost all human traits and characteristics. Although physical differences between the sexes do exist, many differences are culturally allotted. Training and experience have been found to eliminate sex differences in many physical and athletic activities (Hall & Lee, 1984:217-230), for example performance speeds for athletics, cycling and swimming have consistently improved for both the sexes during the twentieth century. However, females have improved much more than males and it is predicted that sex differences will disappear during the middle of the twenty first century (Bland, 1998:1 of 4; Fausto Sterling, 1992:269).

Basow (1992:30) postulates that approximate differences in size and strength between the sexes may have been the reason for certain sex-role distinctions in the past. The allocation of males to certain forms of hunting that necessitated strength (*cd.2.3.1*) could also have contributed to these distinctions, although the latter has little importance in the modern technological society.

People often presume that sex differences between male and female are responsible for clear behavioural and personality differences between men and women, in other words that the differences are biologically based. Society probes explanations for human behaviour on biological and psychological levels. Most of these behavioural and personality differences that do exist between males and females are owed to socialisation patterns, status variables, social rewards, prestige variables, and observer expectations (Braidotti, 1994:63-67; Basow, 1992:2; Davidson & Gordon, 1979:271). Deaux and Kite (1987:92-117) propose that many people believe in sex

differences due to a set of beliefs and perceptions about males and females, and about the alleged qualities of masculinity and femininity that sculpt the way society beholds and assesses others.

According to Bland (1998:3 of 4;4 of 4) the fact of sexual difference cannot be denied. However, individuals must not allow themselves to be blinded to biological similarities between the sexes by people who insist on biological differences. According to the biological argument, potential latent differences between the sexes are activated by hormonal changes during adolescence.

According to Unger (1989b:15-20) and Davidson and Gordon (1979:271-272) femaleness and maleness are mostly considered to be social creations that are *confirmed* by sex-characteristic styles of self-expression, irregular placement of females and males into different social roles and statuses and perpetuated by intro-psychic needs for self-consistency and the need to behave in a socially pleasing fashion. Basow (1992:3) therefore argues that biology does not construct gender, but that people do so through traditional, ethnic and psychological processes. In the United States for example, dentistry is viewed as a male profession, but in Sweden and Russia most dentists are women. Therefore, it is clear that the skills that are applied in dentistry are not fundamentally female- or male-related, but are only branded as such by society.

◆ Brain Organisation

It must be borne in mind that the human brain is more complex than we think, and more complex than we can fathom (Bland, 1998:15 of 16).

It appears as if the human brain has the attribute of existing in different forms (sexual dimorphism). It is assumed that for certain tasks or activities women's brains are organised differently from those men. For example, the

left brain hemisphere, the seat of verbal and language skills, is more developed in women than in men. "If boys are more able in Mathematics and girls have better verbal ability, it is hard to see how men can be better fitted for political life and their dominant role there" (Weiner *et al*, 1997:621; Bryden, 1986:445-456; Hines, 1982:56-80).

Kimura (1987:133:147) and Hines and Shipley (1984:81-94) suggested that differences in brain or organisation could be genetic and influenced by prenatal sex hormones, whilst Geschwind and Galaburda (1985:428-459;521-552) postulate that high levels of foetal testosterone curb the development of the left hemisphere of the brain, making males better in non-verbal and visual-spatial skills than women. Fausto-Sterling (1992:268) argues that there are flaws in the latter mentioned findings, namely there is also no justification of how *circulating* testosterone would affect only *one* hemisphere of the brain. Evidence associating brain structure to spatial ability is inadequate. Even when sex differences are found, relevance is likely to be small, and the brain organisations in the two sexes are more alike than contrasting (Hood, Draper, Crockett & Petersen, 1987:61-62).

According to Bryden (1979:121-143) socialisation practices appear to influence the type of cognitive methods each sex develops and these methods may interact with the brain organisation to trigger different patterns of behaviour amongst the sexes. It is thus possible that some sex differences in brain functioning result from different social treatment, even if such differences are genetic.

Maccoby and Jacklin (1987:239-287) come to the conclusion that there are no sex-related differences between boys and girls in visual-spatial abilities until adolescence (due to hormones), and that the differences are extremely small. The five percent deviation (from lowest to highest performance) of spatial ability in a mixed group of females and males, can be explained on the

basis of sex. However, ninety five percent of the deviation is owing to *individual* differences that have nothing to do with being female or male.

Although small visual-spacial sex differences exist, these could be influenced by various factors such as hormones, pressure to conform during puberty, social practices where boys are taught spacial skills through different play habits and experiences such as model construction. Visual and spatial skills are in part learned as three-dimensional visual skills which can also be learned. Eskimo children are seldom punished verbally or physically and girls are allowed abundant independence, and no sex-related differences in spatial abilities can be observed in the Eskimo population. In comparison, a highly disciplined tribe, the Temne, in Sierra Leone, raises girls even more strictly than boys and noticeable differences in spatial abilities emerged between the females and males of the tribe. This implies that visual spatial sex-related differences are bigger in societies where the social roles of females are most controlled, and that these differences tend to fade in societies where females have plenty of freedom. As opportunities and roles for females are changing, sex-related differences in spatial abilities may be changing (Fausto-Sterling, 1992:33-35; 265).

◇ Intellectual abilities

The literature is inundated with studies on very few and very small gender differences in cognitive abilities, not the similarities. Weiner *et al.* (1997:621-622) and Basow (1992:39,52) point out that readers get the impression that these differences between the sexes are extensive and very important. Yet similarities between sexes are as notable as, if not more notable than the differences. Gender stereotypes on thinking and reasoning abilities endure to exist. For example, it is often believed that boys are *more analytical* than girls, and girls are *better at simple tedious tasks*. It is difficult to measure cognitive ability directly, as it is measured indirectly through performance. Intellectual performance may differ and can be influenced by

expectations, social variables, moods and heredity, but overall there are no basic gender differences in intelligence.

Maccoby (1966:22-55) detected that non-conformity to gender stereotypes was positively linked to IQ (Intelligence quotient) scores. For example, the more assertive and active the female, the better her intellectual abilities and the less active and aggressive a male, the less developed his body and the bigger his intellectual abilities and interests.

As far as sexual differences are concerned, Fausto-Sterling (1992:269) and Gunew (1990:108) argue that there are scant absolute differences (*cf.* 2.4) and that without "complete social equality we cannot know for sure what they are".

2.4.1.1 Conclusion

Table 2.1 provides the deductions that can be made from the above information. It is a myth that there are radical differences between the sexes. According to research (*cf.* Table 2.1) there are very few distinct differences, and there are, in fact, many similarities between the sexes.

Furthermore, differences between the sexes clearly depend on the interaction between biological and environmental factors, yet the existing myths are mainly based on biological factors. It is for instance a myth that biological factors that co-occur with a behaviour, are the *cause* of the behaviour. The fact is that behaviour could also change certain biological factors, which implies that the relationship between biology and behaviour is bi-directional. It is also a myth that if something has a biological basis, it is fixed and cannot be changed. Fact is that human behaviour is overwhelmingly affected by cultural and not biological factors, as human behaviour is immensely flexible (Basow, 1992:38). According to Money and Ehrhardt (1972:14), the only basic fact of sex differences that cannot be deleted by any culture is that

females can menstruate, gestate and lactate, whilst males can impregnate and females cannot.

Gender stereotyping warps the expectations and perceptions of individuals and society in so far as they believe that only stark opposite biological/physiological traits exist between the two sexes.

The above-mentioned concerned the biological determinants that have an impact on gender roles and stereotyping. In order to get a more holistic understanding of how sex and gender are determined, it is necessary to investigate psychological determinants by highlighting aspects of the human personality for the purpose of this study.

2.4.2 Psychological determinants

As females and males are referred to as the *opposite sexes* (cf. 2.4.1), it is widely assumed that females and males are completely different in all their traits and behaviours. These arguments are also often used to justify perceptions on psychological, i.e. personality differences, but most of these differences are due to social forces and not biological. Delamont (1980:15) confirms that sexes are indicated as opposite rather than different.

In examining the bona fide bases for stereotypes in the areas of personality and social behaviour, people should bear in mind that situational factors intermingle with individual factors in determining behaviour. It is also difficult to measure social behaviour objectively and this behaviour changes with age, plus research findings on male participants may not accurately be generalised to females. It is also necessary to acknowledge the enormous magnitude of individual differences in the area of personality and social behaviour (Basow, 1992:2-53,54; Adams, 1983:69-78).

A widely held contemporary belief is that heredity determines the lower and upper levels of an individual's potential. However, the environment

determines within these limits, the level that an individual's *behaviour* will reach. The interaction between factors of heredity and environment influences behaviour (Louw & Edwards, 1997:108).

According to Mosetetse (1998:17) it is also assumed by many people that gender differences are based in the personality and biology of an individual and society tends to stereotype specific female or male personality traits to justify males' presumed superiority and females' presumed inferiority.

2.4.2.1 Personality: Development and influence on gender roles

The uniqueness of an individual is noticed in his/herr person and personality (attitude and behaviour), for example their appearance, way they walk and talk, abilities, interests, habits, temperament, moods and the way they think about things. The kind of person an individual is going to become, is finally determined by the interaction of hereditary (*cf.* 2.4.2) and environmental forces. Personality differences add to the variety in social life and contribute to inequality problems (Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 1998:206-222).

With regard to personality development, Basow (1992:54) reasons that it is frequently complex to determine the differentiation between *stereotypic* gender differences and *true* gender differences. However, people generally are in agreement as to what circumscribes the gender stereotypes, and these stereotypes are learned by ages three to five.

According to Steriker and Kurdek (1982:915-929) children do not necessarily act accordingly. Girls display much *less* behavioural sex typing than boys. Between the ages of three and eleven years it is very atypical for boys to prefer activities or toys associated with girls, but it is quite general for girls to choose "boys" toys and activities and many girls favour "male" activities, maybe because these activities are more interesting or more fun. With adolescence, societal *pressures* to *conform* to gender expectations are

intensified and a heightened consistency between self-description and sex role expectations is found (Feather, 1984:604-620).

As a result of the specific roles each sex plays and the different situations each sex experiences, the sexes develop distinctive characteristics. Therefore *gender differences in personality cause gender differences in behaviour and vice versa* (Deaux & Major, 1987:369-389).

A person who spends a great portion of his/her time caring for others, for example raising children, will be influenced to acquire nurturant and expressive traits. They thus become more charitable/giving and oriented towards others. In most cultures it is women who spend most of her time in a competitive hierarchical employment situation who will be motivated to acquire agentic traits. For example, they can become achievement-oriented and assertive.

In order to understand the complex pattern of the personality, many different approaches to how personality can be understood are found in the literature, ranging from biological to spiritual understandings. As this study attempts to shed more light on the possible outcomes of gender stereotyping on the roles and behaviour of female education managers, it is beyond the scope of this study to give a description of all the psychological approaches.

Louw and Edwards (1997:576) maintain that most personality theories explain *how* learning shapes personality development. As many of these approaches complement each other, for the purposes of this particular study, the understandings of these approaches will be drawn from, and focus on the aspects of the personality, such as behaviour, that can be observed easily and beliefs and thoughts, that individuals are aware of or can be made aware of.

The study will focus on the cognitive-behavioural approach, developed by Louw and Edwards (1997:583-584), as this approach places less emphasis

on the unconscious, although the unconscious cannot be ignored. Although the cognitive-behavioural approach does not prove an all-encompassing theory of personality, this approach has the advantage of not only bringing together several approaches, but also provides a bridge between cognitive and psychodynamic theories through the concepts of underlying assumptions and early childhood experiences.

It is clear that personality and social behaviour are very complex, and as a result of the range of individual differences that occur, clear-cut differences between males and females are difficult to find. In order to understand how personality develops, it is necessary for the purpose of this study, to highlight briefly the cognitive-behavioural approach on how personality and some major areas of behaviour develop.

According to Louw and Edwards (1997:580-581) this approach combines the insights that behaviour can be broken down into particular habits and the latter can be altered through training and practice, with the understanding of the significant role of cognitive processes.

Automatic thoughts and underlying *assumptions* guide an individual's daily decisions and *behaviour* and often these thoughts and assumptions consist of cognitive distortions that have been identified as the following:

- ▣ **over-generalisation** – when an individual thinks in a universal or over-inclusive way;
- ▣ **arbitrary inference** – when persons reach a conclusion for which they have inadequate evidence, they may never test their beliefs against reality and therefore not discover it;
- ▣ **selective abstraction** – that is focusing on only part of what is happening, while the rest is ignored; and

- all-or-none-thinking – i.e. when we think as if there are only two possibilities, for example successes or failures, worthwhile or worthless.

Leahy (1995:173-184) argues that cognitive *distortions* are formed *early* in a person's childhood and have a continuous *negative influence* on every day behaviour, thoughts and feelings. Under the influence of distorted automatic thoughts and underlying assumptions, individuals do things which seem to produce evidence that the negative beliefs are true. These negative thoughts become self-fulfilling prophecies that are difficult to change (Louw & Edwards, 1997:582).

Thinking in a warped manner from a very young age could thus have a negative impact on an individual's behaviour and emotions, as it is difficult, for example, to change a feeling of worthlessness. Individuals grow to believe that these assumptions and behaviours are for real which could place an enormous amount of pressure on them.

According to Lipman-Blumen (1984:75-96) females and males are burdened by psychological stereotypes, disguised as control myths (*cf.* 2.4.1). Myths are created by societies and used by the genders to *adjust* their behaviour and attitudes in order to act gender-appropriately.

According to Martin (1990:151-165) the fact that females are perceived as weak, passive, dependent and fearful and males as strong, aggressive, independent and fearless, has a great influence on the lives of people, because when girls exhibit male characteristics like aggression and independence, it generates trouble and they are labelled 'tomboy'. This label becomes painful for adolescent girls and the same happens to boys who exhibit female characteristics when they are labelled as 'sissies'. Labelling is thus a powerful tool to control behaviour. Another example of labelling is that females are more altruistic, more nurturant, and thus more moral than

men. However, the fact is that girls are socialised through doll play, caring of siblings and domestic responsibilities to nurture others, whereby compassion and interpersonal commitment are cultivated (Basow, 1992:56). Self-sacrifice and helping others reflect a higher level of morality, and are essential ingredients of the *ideal* feminine profile. In contrast, boys experience a separation from a person that is not similar to their sense of self. Boys, therefore, develop an identity characterised by independence traits and a rejection of the feminine (Martin, 1990:151-175). Basow (1992:63) argues there is no evidence that females are in nature more nurturant than males and that they carry a maternal instinct.

Lipman-Blumen (1984:97) argues that through the psychological control myths mentioned above, both genders learn to *regulate* their own behaviour by conforming to *outdated* stereotypes that support the above-mentioned perceptions.

Other social determinants, that may have an impact on gender roles and behaviour will be discussed under socio-mentioned determinants.

2.4.3 Socio-cultural determinants

In order to comprehend the essence of gender stereotyping, the conclusive role of specific cultures and societies must be highlighted. Gender stereotyping is conveyed from one generation to another and has become an actual part of the heritage and beliefs of a specific society or culture (*cf.* 2.3.1).

2.4.3.1 The concept socialisation

Before social forces are clarified, it is necessary to clarify the concept of socialisation, by investigating various concepts and definitions:

- Socialisation is a complex set of processes, open and concealed, that condition individuals to take their places as responsible members of society. Throughout life, sex and gender role socialisation takes place, brainwashing females and males with *behaviour* and *attitudes* considered befitting for each gender (Lipman-Blumen; 1984:66).
- Socialisation is the process through which habits, customs, beliefs and manners are learned (Louw & Edwards, 1997:720).
- “Female and male babies may be *born*. But those complex, *gender-loaded* individuals we call men and women are *produced*” (Fausto-Sterling, 1992:270). The complex assembly line that produces males and females eventually includes all our socialisation means.
- Socialisation “is that set of mechanisms and processes through which society trains its members to take their place as full-fledged social beings. Socialisation occurs through explicit and implicit training by agents of socialisation - parents, teachers, peers, public figures” (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:53).
- During socialisation females and males are coached in various roles and behaviours (Louw & Edwards, 1997: 586-591).
- Sex roles and the socialisation processes are only human creations and could be changed (Tangri & Strasburg, 1979:76).
- Both females and males are socialised to believe that specific gender characteristics are intended to assist the complementary links between genders. However, this complementary link is mainly grounded on stereotypes being packaged as control myths (*cf.* 2.4.2.1) that camouflage an uneven power balance (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:75-76).
- Socialisation determinants and the general climate of societal thought are inclined to mould our beliefs *more* than we *realise*, and make individuals *conform* to the *fashions* of their era or the *traditions* in which they were raised (Barclay, 1991:5-6; Lipman-Blumen, 1984:79).

Characteristics of socialisation seem to be:

- a multifaceted set of acts;
- both overt and covert acts;
- open and hidden processes that discipline individuals to conform, take place throughout life;
- indoctrinating both females and males to act in a manner that is regarded proper for each gender;
- learning of habits, traditions and assumptions;
- production of complex, gender-swamped individuals called men and women;
- a set of utensils and processes that society uses to prepare individuals to take their place as professional functional beings;
- expressed and concealed education by members of society, i.e. parents, teachers, peers and popular figures;
- the training of females and males in diverse roles and behaviours;
- created by humans;
- social expectations that differ for the genders;
- the shaping of the different behaviours for females and males;
- of a permanent nature and could be changed;
- the training of both sexes to think that specific gender characteristics are designated to aid the harmony between the genders;
- conforming to obsolete stereotypes;
- adjusting to the fashion of the era;
- controlling myths disguising a one-sided power balance.

It is thus clear that socialisation reveals different dimensions, but it seems as if parents, family and friends are the primary role players within the socio-cultural framework and that they are responsible for the conveyance of perceptions and attitudes in terms of sex and gender roles. Within the social setting language acts as an important instrument of communication, whilst play, i.e. toys and games, are used within a social framework to convey values, norms and pre-dispositions. For the purpose of this study the focus

will be on the role of parents, play, school, language, religion and the general media in the socialisation process.

2.4.3.2 Aspects impacting on socio-cultural dimensions

In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the socialisation patterns, the various social forces that impact on this process, will be investigated.

(a) The role of parents

Parents are the earliest and crucial socialising agents of children. In order to comprehend how parents socialise their children into appropriate gender roles, both directly and indirectly, it is necessary to shed more light upon parental beliefs on how to treat their son and daughters.

◆ During the phase of infancy

It is generally known that even before birth parents' stereotyped beliefs influence their preferences for girls or boys and the value they connect to a female or male infant (MacKenzie, 1992:26; Steinbacher & Gillroy, 1990:283-288; Steinbacher & Homes, 1987:52-63).

Gender labelling starts immediately after birth when the child's sex is announced. This influences the parents' perceptions of their infant, for example, girls are seen as fine-featured, weaker, softer and more delicate, and boys as stronger, firmer, hardier and more alert, even though hospital data do not indicate any differences in physical or health measurements. Research has confirmed that influence of gender labelling on adults' judgement of infants, albeit subtle (Van der Walt, 1997:3; Stern & Karraker, 1989:501-522; Lips, 1988:225, Fagot & Leinbach, 1987:92; Barry, 1980:795-806).

According to Bland (1998:1 of 4) and Delamont (1980:15) the first thing a person asks about a new-born infant, or when they meet someone new with a baby is, "Is it a boy or a girl?". Bland argues that people find it alarming if the signs are indefinite and even more so if an individual's first belief about the gender happens to be incorrect.

There is a sharp contrast between female socialisation and male socialisation. Girls enter the "pink world" at the moment of birth and are handled more gently than male infants, without any 'substantial evidence' of greater 'fragility' (Louw, Louw & Van Ede, 1998:291; Lipman-Blumen, 1984:59). Pink or blue blankets from the moment an infant is born, reflect parental expectations and are "only the symbolic tip of the socialisation iceberg" (Jeffrey, Frank & Zella, 1974:512-519).

Parents interpret the meaning of infants' crying differently. Studies showed that parents perceive a baby's crying as *fear* if it was believed to be a girl and *anger* if it was believed to be a boy. Mothers tend to act more quickly to solace a baby girl that is crying, and girls learn that help comes quickly if they cry. Yet, the opposite happens to baby boys and as they are perceived as tougher, mothers tend not to react so speedily to their cries and the idea that help will be available quickly when crying, is not reinforced. Boys at times then comfort themselves, and gradually learn to become their own 'emotional caretakers' (Dowling, 1982:100-101).

◆ During toddler to pre-school phase

Chodorow (1994:41-44) argues that from the early stages of infancy, children unconsciously start to construct and internalise images and experiences through their relationship with their mother, who is the primary caretaker. These experiences, both good and bad, are united through intellectual activities and turned into a 'self' during the maturation process, i.e. inferior gender evaluation is internalised.

Chodorow (1994:45) and Brown (1959:153) are of the opinion that children are not born with views of sexual differences. The awareness of 'core gender identity', that is, whether one is male or female, is formed during the first two years of development and is linked to the growth of the 'sense of self'. Rohrlich (1980:222) believes that perceptions of gender differences appear during development, when a girl notices her 'lack' of a penis and sees herself and her mother as deficient and imperfect.

Chodorow (1994:45), Feather (1984:604-620) and Donelson (1977:119-139) share the opinion that assessments that are made later of the popularity of a specific gender, conformity to sex role expectations, and ways of conduct linked to a particular gender, are constructed on the *basic gender identity* that developed during the *infant* years. Additionally, as a woman is the mother, and more often prominent and available than the father during the early stages of life, a girl unconsciously feels a oneness with her. On the other hand, a boy has to learn that his sexual identity is no-mother, not-female, not-woman and not-feminine.

According to Haviland and Malatesta (1982:183-208) toddlers show few gender inconsistencies in the area of emotionality. Pre-schoolers hold stereotypic views that are similar to those of their parents. For example, girls are associated with fear and sadness, and boys with anger, which is socially acceptable. Pre-school children frequently believe that gender stereotypes are indisputable prescriptions for correct behaviour and they periodically enforce them more rigidly than older people do (Wynn & Fletcher, 1987:19,81). Gender stereotypes are learned between the ages of three and five (Basow, 1992:54) (*cf.* 2.4.2.1).

As the emotions of fear and sadness are associated with femininity, boys between ages four and six mask and play down their emotional expressiveness to prove they are not fearful, in other words not feminine,

whilst girls continue to react relatively freely to emotion producing situations (Brody, 1985:102-149; Birnbaum & Croll, 1984:677-691).

Little girls are kept closer to home than their brothers are. More restriction is placed on the activities of little girls to protect them from physical harm (Fagot & Leinbach, 1987:92; Kagan & Levine, 1971:1873-1894). Anthropologists point out that this pattern has been observed in *preliterate* and *post-industrial* societies (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:59).

Parents regularly *encourage* sex differences in activities and curiosities of their children and differentiation tends to increase as children get older. Parents, notably fathers, accentuate the task and achievement direction more for boys than for girls (Fagot & Leinbach, 1987:91).

Core gender-identity conflicts and defences therefore start early in a boy's life, and it becomes critical to men, as far as masculinity and femininity issues are concerned, to have definite perceptions of gender and preserve inflexible partitions between the gender concepts of male and female (Chodorow, 1994:45).

For boys the early core gender identity conflict as well as the realisation by girls of the lower assessment attached to femininity could lead to anxieties that form the basis of stress. In the case of women this is an ongoing process through their family, married and working life, spanning a lifetime of being subjected to inferior evaluation, that could lead to immense frustration, anxiety and other psychological disorders.

♦ During primary school and adolescent phases

Fathers impose sexual role beliefs more strongly than mothers do. Boys and men then start to reject any feminine recognition within themselves as well as any way of thinking that they feel is feminine, for example, emotions like

crying. The latter serves as a threat and a reminder of their dormant feminine qualities, so men come to *highlight contrasts* rather than *common characteristics* between themselves and women (Weiner *et al*, 1997:621; Chodorow, 1994:45-46).

Girls on the contrary, do not experience these problems with core gender identity, because they experience an awareness of sameness with the mother. Problems do not arise with the pin-pointing of femininity for the girl, but with the devalued femininity of the maternal figure, as women are recognised by the characteristics that they are without, in other words, that which is 'not man', and they are therefore "*minus males*". Thus, for males gender differences are an issue from an early stage of life, thereby giving men a mental process investment in disparity that women do not possess (Chodorow, 1994:46; Spender, 1980:23).

Many parents, fathers more so than mothers, assume their sons will be more noisy, rough, aggressive and better at science and maths than their daughters, and daughters are assumed to be more emotional than sons. Sons, if considered stronger, are dealt with more roughly and daughters are more shielded (Eccles, 1989:36-58; Antill, 1987:294-328). Fathers stimulate and talk more to their sons, whilst it is more likely for daughters to be cuddled. Girls are given approval for example for doll play, "dressing up", dancing and asking a parent of help, but receive negative responses for jumping, climbing and running, yet the opposite is true for boys.

Furthermore, girls are taught to conform to adult expectations, whilst boys are given much less instructional feedback on their behaviours (Fagot & Leinbach, 1987:93-98; Wasserman & Lewis, 1985:665-666).

Studies by Lytton and Romney (1991:267-296) found no deliberate differences in the general treatment of sons and daughters, yet, logically, beliefs and values, even if imperceptible and indirect, will influence their

behaviour towards the child as can be observed in, for example, the choice of toys and household task allocation. Girls learn to 'wait on their fathers and brothers' as domestic chores and childcare responsibilities are allocated to them. They carry this 'waiting' task over into their adult relationships with males (Best, 1983 *cited in* Lipman-Blumen, 1984:60).

Young female school pupils are constantly bombarded by conflicting societal expectations of females. These disparities exacerbate their stress experiences as they do not have adequate coping skills to deal with the inconsistencies (Basow, 1992:173).

These differences, supported by research, become more drastic during adolescence indicating that boys and girls clearly conform to gender stereotyping as a result of gender socialisation and social roles (Brody, 1985:102-149; Birnbaum & Croll, 1984:677-691).

◇ During adulthood

Personality development occurs throughout life and is influenced by social experiences. Perceptions of gender differences and *inequality* are thus formed by means of the following processes: mental, societal, cultural and maternal relationships.

Mitchell and Helson (1990 *cited in* Basow, 1992:55) believe individuals who mature from late adolescence to middle adulthood tend to blend both expressive and agentic skills, i.e. they become more androgynous. Women become more agentic and confident with age, whilst men accept communal-expressive characteristics, for example, more giving (*cf.* egalitarianism Chapter 4).

(a) The role of play

Another factor that influences gender stereotyping is teaching/learning materials like toys.

◆ Toys

According to Pomerlau, Bolduc, Malcuit and Cossette (1990:359-367) from birth boys and girls are given different types of toys and clothes, and children acquire gender-appropriate toy preferences at about 18 months (Caldera, Huston & O'Brien, 1989:70-76). For example, girls receive dolls, stuffed animals, manipulative toys, children's tea sets, and the colour pink, whilst boys receive vehicles, construction blocks, sports equipment, balls, buns, scientific kits, and the colours blue and red. Dolls are seldom given to boys. However, girls are given vehicles and dolls (Fagot & Leinbach, 1987:93; Davidson & Gordon, 1979:2). Children, especially sons, are discouraged to play with other-sex toys or from engaging in other-sex activities (Lytton & Romney, 1991:276-296; Antill, 1987:294-328).

Condry and Condry (1976:812-819) indicate that there are very scant "blind studies about behaviour". For example, people were asked to describe the emotional behaviour of nine month-old infants, who had been alarmed by a Jack-in-the box. "Those who had been told the infants were boys, described the reaction as anger. If they thought the infants were girls, they described the reaction as fear." Thus people make connections grounded on the child's *perceived sex*.

Generally girls' toys do not challenge the intellect or prepare them for any other work except the role of motherhood, although they evoke closer participation with another person and more verbal behaviours. In contrast,

boys' toys tend to involve more physical activity and less interpersonal contact (Bland, 1998:12 of 14; Caldera *et al.* 1989:70-76).

Different experiences with toys may create different abilities for girls, for example verbal and nurturance, and for boys visual-spatial and physical, manual abilities (Miller, 1987:473-487). Girls are given toys that incite repetition and imitation, rather than inventiveness (Fagot & Leinbach, 1987:91; Davidson & Gordon, 1979:2). Toys may also transmit crucial occupational communiques, for example, careers are important for boys and not for girls. It is also very difficult to find and buy toys that are not gender-labelled (Basow, 1992:144). Gender role training through toys also affects the behaviour of teenagers and young adults during dating situations (Davidson & Gordon, 1979:2-3).

Boys are more likely to be allocated maintenance chores, for example, learn to mow the lawn and paint, whilst girls learn to cook and wash (McHale, Bartko, Crouter & Perry-Jenkins, 1990:1413-1426). According to Basow (1992:131) children learn through *gender division of chores* not only to associate certain types of work with gender, but an *association* that may be *carried over* to later job and career choices, and children may acquire *different* personal qualities. Domestic chores linked to *caring for others* may assist the creation of pro-social and nurturance behaviours, whilst maintenance jobs linked to *caring for things* may assist different intellectual strategies or abilities.

◆ Sports

According to the Women's Sports Foundation (1989:n.p.), sports activities have many immediate and long-term impacts. Girls spend more time in activities, for example playing house and jumping rope, that require few rules and little competition (Lott, 1978:1078-1100), and sports that are believed appropriate for girls, for example, swimming which has few rules;

the accent is on the quality of the performance. On the contrary, boys are encouraged to play in team sports that are competitive, highly organised and complex, for example, soccer, rugby, baseball and basketball. Through team sports, boys learn to set and achieve goals and the importance of winning, and come to view it as a personal or team achievement (Timmer, Eccles & O'Brien, 1985, and Hennig & Jardim, 1977, cited in Basow, 1992:144). Organised sport has become an important source of male gender identity endorsement, where male hegemony is built and rebuilt (Bryson, 1987:349-360).

Female sport stars have never received the same recognition as their male equivalents and inequality is widespread. Gender inequality is found in all sports codes, and that females are regarded as second-class citizens. Nepotism is found in sports and females do not earn as much as their counterparts in paying sports and their endorsements are only a fraction of males'. There is no indication that the status quo is changing (Gidish, 2000:32-33; Basow, 1992:142-145).

(a) The role of the school

According to Weiner, Arnot and David (1997:622,625), Basow (1992:128-149) and Foucault (1974:49), teachers are a critical source of gender socialisation, whilst instructional materials, curricula and the atmosphere in the school come together to form a hidden curriculum on gender roles. The unofficial hidden intentional and unintentional curriculum is also determined by the teacher's behaviour (Weiner *et al.*, 1997:621; Dekker & Lemmer, 1996:12).

Schools mirror stereotypes by the way they are organised, for example males and females are found in different positions of authority, for example principals. Mostly, males teach mathematics and science at senior high levels, thus the message that males are dominant and females subordinate

which learners obtain from other sources, is reinforced in the school system (Basow, 1992:149-154; Faludi, 1991).

Females are seldom mentioned in textbooks of science, amongst others, portraying science as a classic male activity which may discourage females from entering this field, thereby endorsing the stereotypes (Bernard, 1989:413-440). The gap in achievement and ambition between male and female learners increases with each grade and is triggered by the exposure to a "curriculum of inferiority" and a decrease in the self-esteem of female learners (Kruger, 1997:20; Purcell & Stewart, 1990:177-185).

Boys are taught to focus on the procedure of problem-solving and to change their view when confronting new problems. Girls, on the other hand, are goaded to concentrate on the right answer or end product, rather than solving problems to the disadvantage of their problem-solving and creativity competencies (Fagot & Leinbach, 1987:91).

Wynn and Fletcher (1987:84-86) argue that many occupations do not require the benefit of male strength (*cf.* 2.3.1, 2.4.1), therefore some occupational stereotyping has been eliminated. Sex stereotyping is also reduced in children who are exposed to *non-sexist* curriculum. Furthermore sex-stereotyping behaviour will probably *disappear* in pre-school procedures when adult society is no longer enhancing this trend.

Strong influences of the patriarchal system are traceable in school *curricula* and *extra-mural* activities of contemporary societies, that strengthen different forms of gender inequality (Giddens, Held, Hillman, Hubert, Seymour, Stanworth & Thompson, 1994:8). Curricula and extra-mural activities include *beliefs* of what is proper for 'girls' and what is proper for 'boys' through subject choice, class discipline and choice of sport (Mosetse, 1998:46; Connell, 1994:30).

According to Weiner, Arnot and David (1997:627) and Wajcman (1994:216-217), the area of technology in schools is also gender stereotyped as it is mostly viewed as a masculine domain by schools, adolescent cultures, families, the media and public organisations. The latter transmit gender discrimination from one era to another by means of definitions and values that associate masculinity with technological capabilities and machines.

Wajcman (1994:218) maintains that computers should be 'gender-neutral' as a traditional requirement, as physical strength is not involved. Yet computers are depicted as male machines, because they are associated with *science* and *mathematics*, and the latter are subjects that traditionally have been taken by boys. Teachers in schools also expect different behaviour and responses from girls and boys, therefore girls tend to feel the compulsion to act according to feminine behavioural models. These feminine characteristics are in direct conflict with the characteristics apparently needed for a 'mathematical mind'. As girls at a very young age internalise concepts that boys have something that they do not have, this contrast is then experienced as inferiority (*cf.* 2.4.3.2.a).

Basow (1992:50-51) confirms that computer software is male-oriented, for example computer games and educational programming involve 'masculine' topics such as sport, violence and war which are less likely to appeal to girls. According to Turkle and Papert (1990:128-157) computer programming research insinuates that males and females may differ in programming style, as males tend to prefer a more formal and abstract approach, whilst females tend to prefer a more personal and concrete approach. If the more abstract or formal style in programming becomes the one that is rewarded, females could feel more disheartened than males do with respect to computer programming. Males are more likely than females to use computers for fun, for example amusing themselves in arcades and females are more likely to use computers just for a particular purpose (Vernon-Gerstenfeld, 1989:161-173). Studies by Gray (1983:9) indicated that girls of school-going age were

as interested in learning how to programme computers as boys of the same age, yet, the interest of girls started to *decline* by the sixth grade and by the ninth grade eighty percent of the interested learners were males. However, research by Ogletree and Williams (1990:703-712) indicated that female and male students expressed similar attitudes and aptitudes toward computers.

Research seems to indicate that gender differences do not exist in rational or computer competence, although males and females may favour or use different cognitive styles. Basow (1992:51) believes these cognitive styles are products of different experiences and that boys and girls tend to have different experiences.

Gender role socialisation of boys and girls is geared to roles of a previous era. The latter results in *culture lag* which represents disparity between expectations created by *outdated* socialisation processes and the realities of an ever-changing society. This disparity generates tensions that permeate all other roles that gender roles touch. Besides, tension between the genders escalates in times of rapid social change (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:53).

Because of the fact that society in general associates machines and technology with science, mathematics, computers and masculinity, many girls do not take these subjects as they feel compelled to act out feminine characteristics that are expected of them. These characteristics are in direct contradiction with those that are apparently required for a 'mathematical mind'. Then, on entering this field, girls obviously have to choose between either acting out feminine characteristics and risk being associated with incompetence or adopting certain male characteristics that are socially unacceptable, yet associated with competence. Thus cultural factors and social expectations seem to play a crucial role in the fact that fewer females express an interest in computers. Technology therefore appears to be 'not female-friendly', as

these conflicting choices and experiences could place a great deal of pressure on females which may be stressful.

◇ Peers

At school learners are constantly subjected to peer pressure to conform to the group. It stands to reason that many adolescents would rather conform, as they fear unpopularity and the possibility of being marginalised.

Carter (1987:116-118) confirms that peers issue information of social rules and approval of sex-typed behaviour through their approval of sex stereotypes and norms for sex-typed behaviour, as well as verbal and play interaction patterns in which they immerse themselves. Peers also reinforce and punish children who indulge in/become involved in cross-gender behaviour and sex-typed behaviour severely, by, for example, ostracising them from their company.

Therefore, in the environments of family, work and school, different perceptions are continually being built of what *masculinity* and *femininity* ought to be.

(a) The role of language

Even since the earliest times language bore a gender connotation. Ong (1981:135 & 1977:29) refers to the learning of Latin as characteristic of the Middle Ages when it was seen as an adolescent male ceremony and restricted to men, whilst girls were taught the “mother-tongue” by the mothers. Men, through their greater knowledge of languages, exercised control over every aspect, including women. Hekman (1994:51) reasons that through language women are defined as *inferior*. Language thus *creates* and *preserves* the basic gender identity that forms female subordination.

By the age of five, boys and girls have learnt different languages that dismiss women as inferior, as women are seen as 'not man' and thus lacking. Men are seen as naturally inhabiting the rational field, whereas women are, in contrast, seen as temperamental and compassionate, thus belonging to the irrational field. The latter perception leaves women with unsatisfactory choices, namely to speak "like women" and be "feminine", yet irrational or to speak "like men" and be "unfeminine but rational" (Hekman, 1994:51).

Machobane (1996:35) argues that language is created by societies and has a built-in prejudice about gender that mirrors sexism and cultural stereotypes. Language also creates the illusion of merely communicating the deeper-seated essence of events, when in fact it is deliberately chosen by the powerful to signify the world they would have. Language thus contributes to gender stereotyping and the domination of females (Kruger, 1997:17; Deats & Lenker. 1994:46).

Burton (1993:158) agrees that language strengthens stereotyping by exerting prescriptive power on individuals to act in certain ways. Language is likewise a powerful tool that helps to legitimise certain actions and shape traditions.

It is a well-known fact that languages, for example English, refer to persons as female and male, therefore girls and boys may possibly never learn an awareness of personhood in order to ensure gender neutrality. Furthermore it seems as if language also creates and preserves the fundamental gender identity that forms female inferiority. This inferiority could place immense pressure on women, which could lead to anxiety and stress disorders when they make unsatisfactory choices in order to appear rational, while at the same time risk being branded as unfeminine and therefore socially unacceptable (*cf.* 2.4.3.2.c).

(b) The role of religion

Value systems and socialisation patterns are to a great extent determined by religious values and the way individuals interpret them. Basically, all predominant religions in the world, including Judeo-Christian religions, reflect male dominance. Wilson (1994:264) argues that religious instruction is the single most influential shaper of sex roles and gender attitudes (*cf.* 2.3.3) and devoted individuals hold the most stereotyped viewpoints toward gender-roles (Morgan, 1987:301-310).

However, Niemann (1994:16) points to the fact that the Bible awards the female a unique but equal position to the male. Furthermore, misinterpretations and uses of Biblical times resulted in the female often being viewed as subordinate, even in the twenty-first century – a perception that cannot easily be eradicated and which probably has been for many centuries, responsible for the female's experience of inferior feelings (*cf.* 2.3.3).

(c) The role of the media

The media create perceptions and reinforce them on a daily basis. Very young, skinny girls are used to portray beauty and slimness, resulting in a general fear of ageing and weight gaining. The health of females, especially adolescents, is negatively affected by the artificial high standards of female attractiveness. Countless females' fear of social rejection leads to eating disorders through diets, often leading to bulimia and anorexia that could result in death.

Weiner *et al.* (1997:621) and Basow (1992:157) confirm these facts by arguing that the media are the most effectual and omnipresent source of gender stereotypes. Not only do the media mirror and shape society, but the

media are exceptionally convincing for young children who cannot conclusively distinguish fantasy from reality.

Female characters in stories and films often portray helpless and incompetent behaviours. Commercials are the most sexist, for example, females are often seen in food advertisements, whilst males are mostly seen in alcohol and vehicle advertisements; relations between the sexes are also depicted in traditional ways. Females are displayed, more often than males, as sex objects. Females are much younger than the males, thinner, and attractive, setting very high standards of attractiveness that very few females can reach. Females' feelings about their bodies are influenced and so perceptions of gender stereotypes and roles are perpetuated by television, radio, books, newspapers and magazines on a daily basis (*Die Rapport*, 2000:15; Peirce, 1990:491-500; Lovdal, 1989:715-724).

During the socialisation process females are coached into different roles and behaviours which are viewed as appropriate for them. Stereotyped females are supposed to be dependent, weak, passive, inactive, loving, ladylike, adorable, exemplary, nurturant, tender, sensitive, not angry, not too assertive and not to indulging in competitive sport.

From the above it is clear that physiological, psychological and socio-cultural determinants have a great impact on the behaviours and roles of females and males. The societal construction of 'womanhood' and 'manhood' encourages girls and boys to acquire prescribed sex roles and social roles. Through the process of stereotyping small differences between the genders are exaggerated out of proportion (*cf.* 2.2). These over-generalisations about individuals' behaviour and beliefs are acquired as part of a process of being raised in that society.

The specific impact of stereotyping on the female's psychological and physical behaviour, relationships and the labour market will be discussed in more detail at the end of chapter 3.

2.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter indicated the clear distinction between gender and sex and the related roles that developed from it and are still kept in position by society. The various determinants that impacted on the establishment of gender roles and stereotypes were also viewed. As this chapter focused on the establishment of gender stereotypes and roles, it is a necessity to present a summary of the various female stereotypes and roles which developed through the ages and which originated from various determinants in life itself.

Table 2.2 provides an overview of the various female stereotypes and roles.

TABLE 2.2 Stereotypes and roles

| Development and Determinants | Female stereotypes and roles |
|--|--|
| 1. Development of stereotypes and roles | |
| 1.1 Pre-historic civilisation | <p>Through the ages women were</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ allocated inferior positions with secondary status (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ associated with nature (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ the property of man (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1) ▫ subjected to patriarchy – ruled by males – triggering misogyny (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ seen as supernatural, evil, deceitful, manipulative and witchlike beings (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ perceived as arousing animosity (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1) ▫ considered second class citizens (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ seen as contamination breeders (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ stigmatised because of their bodily functions (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ degraded owing to womanhood (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ regarded as creatures that trigger fear and hostility (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.1) |
| 1.3 Pre-Hellenic and Classical Greek Mythology | <p>Females were perceived as</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ sexually dangerous (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▫ seducers (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ annihilating self-control of males (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▫ destroying social power of males (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) |
| 1.4 The Biblical era | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ controlled by strong patriarchal order (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3) ▫ disorderly (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▫ temptresses (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ encouraging sinful deeds (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ disobedient (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ creating sin (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ leading males astray (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ femme fatale/Jezebels (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ enchantresses (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ stigmatised (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ punished to bear children (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.2) ▫ doomed to pain and sorrow (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▫ submitted everlastingly to male authority (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ condemned to subservience (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ castigated to submissiveness (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3) ▫ not able to dissociate from sexual inferiority (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1) ▫ less important – created after male (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▫ occupying subordinate ranks – modelled on patriarchal social order (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3.1) ▫ inferior – subordinate in church (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1) |

| | |
|--|---|
| <p>1.5 Post-biblical to pre-modern era</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ fulfilling multiple roles (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▪ worthless (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▪ insignificant (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▪ inferior – hence misinterpretations (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3, 2.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1) ▪ altruistic (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▪ conforming (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▪ self-sacrificing (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) ▪ not equal to males (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.3) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ imperfect (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3.3) ▪ comparable to nature (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3, 2.3.1) ▪ disorderly (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3.3) ▪ performing sinful witchcraft (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3) ▪ disobedient (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3) ▪ obliged to work to cure disobedience (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3.3) ▪ in need of religious education to install submissiveness (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ ruled and restricted by and answerable to husband (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▪ an imperfect male (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3.3) ▪ incidental being (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) <p>Female seen as inferior</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ biologically (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3, 2.1) ▪ physiologically (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3, 2.1) ▪ and bad compared to alcohol (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ as all people die from disorder of women – never from alcohol (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ in exhibiting endless sexual passion (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ nymphomaniacs (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ and viewed with disgust (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ and discrediting civilisation (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ and responsible for male's shortcomings – as mothers raising the males (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ and frail (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ and erratic – being emotional (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ and associated with nature (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3.2, 2.3, 2.3.1) ▪ with femininity bearing evil stigma, eg. hurricanes (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▪ and associated with forces of nature – hurricanes named after females – both unpredictable (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1) ▪ only fit for mistress or housewife (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) |
|--|---|

| | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1.6 Pre-industrial era | <p>Females/Females'</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ viewed as subordinate – kept under male domination – at work and domestically (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.5, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ seen as cheap labour (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▫ placed in sex-type jobs (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.4) ▫ jobs shaped by needs of family and society (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.5, 2.3.4) ▫ not allowed to make decisions (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ decisions made on their behalf (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ when unmarried – rated as culturally inferior; stigmatised; shameful; old maid (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ subjected to gender inferior jobs (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.5) ▫ absent from competitive jobs (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.5) ▫ solely responsible for additional domestic chores (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.5) ▫ discriminatory practices based on patriarchal beliefs (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) |
| 1.7 Modern to post-modern era | <p>Females</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ viewed as troublemakers when liberated (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ subjected to male ideologies (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ job wise – not regarded in terms of competence (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6) <p>See in home as</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ not the breadwinner (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6) ▫ wife; permanent mother, nurturer (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ not equal sexually – only good for perpetual mothering (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ not running family (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ biological inferior – interrupting careers (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.4, 2.3.3) ▫ biological inferior, which diminishes career promotions (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.4, 2.3.3) ▫ victims (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6) ▫ secondary and subordinate to male (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ negative images- socially created (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) <p>Organisations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ not designed around female preference (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1) ▫ view females negatively (<i>cf.</i> 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1) |

| | |
|--|--|
| 2. Determinants impacting on stereotypes and roles | From the various determinants the following stereotypes and roles emerged |
| 2.1 Biological determinants | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ opposite sex – to justify perceptions on biological differences (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1) ▫ biological sex-typed – sexes treated dissimilarly (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, 2.3.4) ▫ completely different in all traits, behaviours to males (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1) ▫ biological inferior beings (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, 2.3.6, 2.3.4, 2.3, 2.1) polluting – due to pregnancy, lactation, menstruation – and treated dissimilarly (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, 2.3.1, 2.3) biological sex – pregnancy lactation, menstruation – determines behaviour (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, 2.4) |
| 2.1.1 Chromosomes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ male genetically programmed to focus and dominate – female programmed to encompass (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1) ▫ basic form of foetal development is female and not male which is the reality (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ▫ androgen unique to male – oestrogen unique to female, although both sexes possess both (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ▫ hormone – menstrual cycle affects moods, behaviours – negative association (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ▫ negative perceptions of females by researchers (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) |
| 2.1.2 Anatomy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ Female genitalia gave rise to the following perceptions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ gender role expectations of parents and society (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ negative adult/parental expectations (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ different handling and interaction with infants (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ naming of infants (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ pink colour schemes for girls (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ sex differences are responsible for behavioural and personality differences (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ sex and gender are fixed by birth – not reality (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) |
| 2.1.3 Brain organisation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ Perceptions of female brain: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ left brain (verbal-language) more developed (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ right brain (visual-spatial) less developed (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ lacking visual-spatial skills (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ influencing expectations of academic ability (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ impacting negatively on academic ability (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) |

| | |
|---|---|
| <p>2.1.4 Intellectual abilities</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ The intellectual abilities of females are perceived to be: ➤ largely different between sexes (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ lacking specific job-related skills (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ inhibiting social roles (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1) ➤ not able to learn spatial skills (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1) ➤ lacking three-dimensional skills (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) ➤ less analytical (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1) ➤ better at tedious tasks – domestic, child-caring (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, 2.4, 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ➤ radically different from males (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, 2.4, 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ➤ biologically fixed – cannot change (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.1, Table 2.1) |
| <p>2.2 Psychological determinants</p> | <p>The following roles and stereotypes emerged from psychological determinants</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ opposite sexes (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2, 2.4.1) ▫ differing completely in behaviour, traits (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2, 2.4.1, 2.4, 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.1, Table 2.1) ▫ traits presumed inferior – to justify males' presumed inferiority (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) |
| <p>2.2.1 Personality: influence on gender roles</p> | <p>The female personality:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ is presumed inferior regarding abilities, interests, habits, temperament, moods, way of thinking (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1, 2.3.6, 2.3.4, 2.3, 2.1) ▫ is believed to be nurturant, expressive (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1, 2.4, 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 2.3.2, 2.3.1, 2.3) ▫ is distorted through automatic thoughts and assumptions (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ is over-generalised – by thinking in over inclusive manner (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ beliefs are never tested against reality (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ beliefs focus on parts of personality – ignore rest (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ distortions – influence behaviour, thoughts, feelings negatively (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ is socially created (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1) ▫ perceptions – alter behaviour (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1) ▫ perceptions – alter attitude (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1) ▫ perceptions – females are weak, passive, dependent, fearful (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ perceptions – more altruistic, more nurturant, more moral than males (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ labelling – powerful device to control behaviour (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ is cultivated for compassion and interpersonal devotion through doll play, domestic chores and caring for siblings (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ is perceived as self-sacrificing, not competitive, helpful to others – i.e. ideal feminine profile (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) ▫ perceived to conform to outdated stereotypes (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.2.1) |

| | |
|---|---|
| <p>2.3 Socio-cultural determinants</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ The socio-cultural conditions expect females to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ be brainwashed (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ be subjected to overt and covert acts (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ conform (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ learn habits, traditions, assumptions (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ allow indoctrination (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ be complex individuals (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ be gender swamped individuals (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ prepare individuals to take their societal place (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ conform to expressed and concealed education by members of society (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1, 2.3.5) ➤ follow in diverse roles and behaviours (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ shape behaviours (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ create harmony between sexes (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ conform to obsolete stereotypes (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ adjust to fashion of era (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) ➤ accept one-sided power balance (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.1) |
| <p>2.4 Aspects impacting on socio-cultural determinants</p> | |
| <p>a) Role of parents during phase of infancy</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ Parents tend to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ attach specific values to the female infant (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ apply gender-labelling – immediately after birth (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ differentiate sharply between female socialisation and male socialisation (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ act more quickly (mother specifically) to comfort baby girl (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ▫ Parents tend to see girl as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ finer featured (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ weaker (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.4.3.1) ➤ softer (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ more delicate (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ alarmed (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ entering the pink world – at moment of birth – colour reflects expectations (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ more gentle – without concrete evidence (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ crying differently (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ crying – as sign of fear (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) |
| <p>During toddler to pre-school phase</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ During this phase girls internalise perceptions of themselves such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ closely related to mother as caretaker (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being inferior (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being different from boys because lack of penis (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being deficient (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) |

| | |
|---------------------------|---|
| <p>During adolescence</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ being imperfect (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ belonging to less popular gender (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ conforming to sex-role expectations (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ conforming to gender conduct (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ learning sexual-identity that is not father, not male, not man, not masculine (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being associated with fear (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being associated with sadness (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ that anger is socially unacceptable (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ belief – gender stereotypes indisputable prescriptions (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ believing stereotypes equal correct behaviour (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ enforcing gender appropriate behaviour rigidly (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being kept closer to home (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being more restricted in activities (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being more protected against physical harm (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being encouraged to participate in sex-different activities (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being encouraged in curiosities that differ for the sexes (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ achievement being less accentuated by fathers (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being lower assessed because of lower assessment attached to femininity (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ being subjected to inferior evaluation (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) <p>▪ During this phase females are perceived to adhere to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ sexual role beliefs (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) ➤ being weak (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) ➤ reveal unacceptable emotions (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) ➤ being contrasting to males (“not man”) (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) ➤ being devalued as maternal figure (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) ➤ being inferior in science, maths (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) ➤ being more emotional (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.3.4) ➤ being not noisy or rough (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) ➤ being more shielded (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5) |
|---------------------------|---|

| | |
|------------------|--|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ being cuddled more – stimulated less (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ behaving in approved feminine manner (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ disapproval of non-feminine actions such as jumping, running (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ conforming to adult expectations (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ giving abundant instructional feedback on behaviour (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ ‘waiting’ on fathers/brothers (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ allocated domestic chores, childcare responsibilities – overload (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ ‘waiting’ task carried over to adult relationships (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ conflicting societal expectations (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ social roles (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) |
| During adulthood | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ During adulthood females are regarded as figures: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ lacking power (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) ➤ lacking predominant cultural influence (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) ➤ that are ‘not-men’ – not fundamentally human (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ of unequal status (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.a, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1) |
| b) Role of play | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Toys enhance female stereotype as girls/girls’: |
| Toys | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ receive dolls – non-scientific toys (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ are discouraged to play with boy toys (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ are discouraged from participating in the other-sex activities (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ are prepared for motherhood by doll play (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ are given toys which do not create visual spatial and manual abilities (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ are given toys that incite repetition and imitation (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ lack toys that incite inventiveness (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ receive toys that convey crucial job communiques – i.e. careers are not vital (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ toys (dolls) are used for gender-role training (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ role training through toys – impacts on teenagers during dating situations (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ toys convey allocated domestic chores (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ are not allocated maintenance chores (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ domestic chores association – carried into adulthood (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) |

| | |
|-----------------------|--|
| Sport | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ domestic chores are linked to pro-social, nurturance behaviours (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ▫ Sport encouraged females stereotypes, as girls/girls': <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ participate in activities requiring few rules – swimming, running (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ are not encouraged to play competitive, highly organised, complex sports (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ quality performance and not winning is accentuated (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ sport is not a source of female gender identity endorsement (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ sport lack supremacy building and rebuilding (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) |
| c) Role of the school | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ The school inculcates female stereotypes by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ subjecting girls to a hidden curriculum (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ teachers' behaviours – determines unofficial hidden intentions ➤ unintentional curriculum (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ the absence of female authority figures (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ the absence of female principals (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ perceiving mathematics/science teachers to be male (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ reinforcing message – males dominant; females subordinate (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ science textbooks rarely citing females (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ science-portrayed as historic male activity – discouraging females (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ applying 'curriculum inferiority' – decreasing females' self-esteem (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ teaching girls to focus on the right answer and not problem-solving (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ the strong influence of the patriarchal system in curricula/extra-mural activities (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ instilling cognitive distortions re proper subject choice, class discipline (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ by not associating femininity with technological expertise and machines (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ associating computers with maths/science – interpreted as non-female machines – not 'female friendly' (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ teachers' expecting different behaviours/attitudes (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ intimidating girls to act according to female behavioural models (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ assuming that girls lack visual-spatial abilities (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c, 2.4, 2.4.1) ➤ by internalising feelings of inferiority (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ reinforcing perceptions of computer software games (violent, war) – not female-orientated (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) |

| | |
|----------------------|---|
| Peers | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ perception that females do not prefer formal abstract techniques (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ socialising girls to roles of previous eras (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ having different expectations of the different sexes (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ▫ Owing to peer pressure females: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ have to conform to group pressure (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) ➤ are punished for cross-gender and sex-typed behaviour (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.c) |
| d) Role of language | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ Language transmits female stereotypes as it: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ transmits gender connotations (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d, 2.3.4) ➤ is referred to as the mother-tongue (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d) ➤ defines females as inferior (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d) ➤ creates and preserves the basis of female subordination (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d, 2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ dismisses females as inferior (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ is socially created (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d, 2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ communicates domination (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d, 2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ has a built-in prejudice (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d, 2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ mirrors sexism (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d, 2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ legitimises actions (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d, 2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.3.2.a) ➤ cannot ensure gender-neutrality – persons referred to as female and male (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d) ➤ reinforces male supremacy in form and address – chairman, best-man (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.d) |
| e) Role of religion | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ Religion increases female stereotypes by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ reflecting male dominance (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.e, 2.3.3) ➤ shaping gender attitudes (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.e, 2.3.3) ➤ preaching subordination (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.e, 2.3.3) ➤ generating inferior feelings (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.e, 2.3.6, 2.3.4, 2.3.3) |
| f) Role of the media | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ Female stereotypes are maintained by the media as they: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ create and strengthen perceptions (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.f) ➤ shape societal perceptions (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.f) |

| | |
|--|---|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ are convincing – young cannot distinguish fantasy from reality (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.f) ➤ are portrayed as helpless – incompetent behaviours(<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.f) ➤ transmit sexist commercials (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.f) ➤ portray relations between sexes in traditional manner (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.b) ➤ display females as sex objects (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.f) ➤ set very high standards of attractiveness – females are thin, attractive, very young (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.f) ➤ stimulate inferior feelings about female body – resulting in harsh diets and dieting disorders (bulimia, anorexia) (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.f) ➤ often impact negatively on health (even death) (<i>cf.</i> 2.4.3.2.f) |
|--|---|

From the above it is clear that women are awarded a lesser status. This inferior status is mainly of a cultural origin as there are very few built-in biological differences between the sexes. The above stereotypes and roles teach women to believe that they carry a stigma, are inferior and should not be taken seriously. Therefore, it seems only natural to come to the conclusion that psychological disorders for example, low self-esteem and/or anxiety could develop (*cf.* 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1) when any individual, in this case the female, is devalued and associated with negative biological functions as a result of their gender.

For boys the early gender identity conflict, as well as the realisation by girls of the lower assessment attached to femininity, could lead to anxieties that form the basis of stress. In the case of women, this is an ongoing process throughout their family, married and working life, spanning a lifetime of being subjected to inferior evaluation, that could lead to a variety of psychological disorders.

Traditional patriarchal beliefs are still very much in existence today, and lead to the subordination of women both at home and work. In addition, domestic responsibilities deplete their energy levels, which could result in exhaustion, irritation, immense frustration and stress. Existing discriminatory practices,

prejudice and role expectations make it even more difficult for women to achieve the same success as men in competitive jobs and at management level, which could gradually enhance stress and anxiety.

Being previously excluded from management positions women find themselves, as a result of gender equity legislation, in non-traditional roles and 'new' positions for which they are not sufficiently trained and without suitable mentors and role-models. These radical changes in female roles seem to confuse and threaten especially males, and result in gender resistance in the workplace. Females thus chronically face this constant hindrance, as well as the implementation of patriarchal stereotypical expectations, which probably aggravates conflict and induces stress that impacts on their general well being (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2). Furthermore, work-related emotional and mental stress could result in serious stress-related illnesses and work absenteeism (*cf.* 1.1). The influence of fore-mentioned factors could have an extremely negative impact on female education managers by *inter alia* reducing their performance and productivity. It is thus essential to investigate the impact of stereotyping and roles on stress outcomes of female managers.

- This study aims to investigate the impact of gender stereotype-related stress on the performance of female education managers and the following questions could be asked:
 - What is the nature of stress?
 - How does stress manifest psychologically, physiologically and behaviourally in individuals?
 - What indications are there in the literature regarding the way that the performance of female managers is influenced by stereotype-related stress outcomes?

These questions will be further explored in Chapter 3, in an attempt to answer them.

Chapter 3

STRESS: A GROUNDING PERSPECTIVE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Since prehistoric times people were subjected to pressures in daily living, for example, killer diseases, intense fear and strenuous exertion. Stress is therefore not a twenty-first century disease and is inescapable. Furthermore, the contemporary pressures experienced by people are not more severe than in the past, but different (Louw & Edwards, 1993:628; Selye, 1980:128).

According to Serebro (1996:11-15) stress can cause so much discomfort and pain to an individual that it becomes devastating and overwhelming, making a person unable to function in a logical and responsible way. Stress can also manifest in chronic mental and physical disorders, resulting in illness that has a debilitating effect on the lives of people. It is also estimated that about 40% of all sick leave from work is due to emotional and mental distress, and 80% of all illnesses are stress-related (Roney & Cooper, 1997:26; Smith, 1993:3).

There thus is an urgent need to investigate the stress phenomenon. In order to gain insight into this phenomenon, it is necessary to clarify stress concepts,

the nature of stress, the development of and approaches to stress, the stressors as well as the physical and mental outcomes, and the management of stress. As there seems to be very little research on the stress outcomes of women managers in developing countries, the intention is to focus on women, especially those who occupy education management positions (*cf.* 1.1).

3.2 NATURE OF STRESS

Stress impacts on people of all walks of life and a variety of explanations, viewpoints and definitions in the literature attempt to clarify this complex phenomenon. However, it is a general term with no universally accepted definition.

3.2.1 Concepts and definitions

In order to gain more clarity on the stress phenomenon, definitions and concepts will be investigated.

Stress is defined as:

- an umbrella term for a wide variety of circumstances, and reactions and the traits of stress inducing occurrences vary greatly, especially amongst individuals (Fisher, 1994:1; Eckenrode, 1991:240; Telly, 1990:3);
- a reaction 'from the mixed blessing of being too well known and too little understood' (Selye, 1980:127-143);
- something caused by the environment, as something caused mentally, i.e. psychologically (Fisher, 1994:1);
- being experienced:
 - physically, by experiencing extreme heat;
 - chemically, by intoxication and dehydration;
 - viral/bacteriological, by suffering from infection;
 - interhumanly, by experiencing conflict, frustration and deprivation;

- socially, 'frustrating' cultural rules or social circumstances (Groen, 1971:95);
- 'different things to different people' and researchers still find it difficult to define exactly what they mean by stress, as it is very difficult to observe (Moore & Burrows, 1996:87; Cooper, 1995:3; Fisher, 1994:8; Selye: 1983:1; Selye, 1980:127);
- *stresse*, a word that is deduced from the Middle English word meaning 'hardship and distress', from Latin, *strictus*, meaning 'tight or narrow', from Old French *estresse*, meaning 'narrowness' (The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 1969:1275);
- the 'quantity measuring' tension and pressure; the 'demand on physical and mental energy' (The Pocket Oxford Dictionary, 1978:902);
- a 'system of forces that tends to produce deformation in a body on which it acts' according to an engineering analogy (Websters Comprehensive Dictionary, 1992:1240);
- strain, tension and pressure; the 'strain upon a bodily organ or a mental power' (Margetts, 1975:78);
- the external response to a stimulus, called stress or strain (Van Dijkhuizen, 1980:5-6);
- a 'perceptual phenomenon arising from a comparison between the demand on the person and his/her ability to cope', the 'imbalance in this mechanism, when coping' causes stress (Cox, 1983:25);
- the independent variable which is conceived as 'out there' in the environment, the stressful condition is not created by the individual, but he/she is confronted with it (Nuchu, 1988:12);
- dependent variable - stress depends on the values upheld by the individual, it may be psychological or physiological and measured in terms of the mental or physical health of the individual. Neurotic fears are also eligible for inclusion because the source of a person's reaction is unimportant (Hellriegel, Slocum, Woodman, 1988:208; Smith, 1995:951; Smith, 1993:201);

- ∇ “any interference that disturbs a person’s healthy mental and physical well-being (Smith, 1995:951; Cole & Walker, 1989:17);
- ∇ the ‘disturbance in the organism which is characterised by physiological changes’ (Roth & Gold, 1993:41; Telly, 1990:3; Cooppee & Stan, 1987:6);
- ∇ ‘a non-specific response of the body to any demand’ (Selye, 1983:2);
- ∇ being positive or negative, stimulus or threat (Selye, 1956:23-24);
- ∇ ‘The rate of wear and tear in the organism’ (Selye, 1971:299-311);
- ∇ the common feature of all adjusting reactions in the body (Selye, 1956:54);
- ∇ pain - how a person feels when the limits of his/her strength and energy are being tested severely’ (Oates, 1985:15);
- ∇ the ‘stereotyped physiological reaction pattern’ and psychological stress is actually ‘distress’ (McClellan, 1974:103);
- ∇ occurring during pleasant emotional reactions such as laughter and excitement (Levi, 1971:454-456), negative stress causes excessive sweating, severe headaches, shaking, as well as coronary heart disease, hypertension (high blood pressure), ulcers and some types of cancer (Louw & Edwards, 1993:642-643);
- ∇ an individual’s positive or negative response to a past, present or anticipated situation. There are also different forms of stress, *viz.* eustress (good stress), distress (bad stress), hypostress (understress), and hyperstress (overstress). The degree to which a person experiences negative or positive stress depends on the individual’s unique perception (Hayward, 1991:5; Quick & Quick, 1984:8);
- ∇ anger, fear, depression, joy and delight (emotions), are often the first and best indicators of when a person is under stress and when a person is coping well (Smith, 1993:67-69);
- ∇ the experience of stress is a private event experienced by the individual. Stress can only be shared indirectly and is therefore an intimate and private event - it occurs spontaneously and cannot be examined directly (Cox, 1983:26);

- is the 'physiological and psychological reaction which occurs when people perceive an imbalance between the level of demand placed upon them, and their capability to meet those demands' (Cranwell-Ward, 1993:10).

According to the above, it is difficult to pin down stress to a simple definition. Stress thus appears to

- be an overarching term for various circumstances, reactions and traits;
- embrace a wide terrain;
- evoke a variety of occurrences;
- be well recognised, but not well comprehended;
- be brought about by surroundings;
- affect humans mentally (distress), physically (unbearable heat), chemically (intoxication), virally (infection), interhumanly (conflict), and socially, as well as culturally (consciously and unconsciously);
- be experienced and interpreted in different ways;
- be difficult to observe;
- be related to pain, hardship, strain, pressure, tension, pressure, tightness, forces;
- deform the 'body' it acts on;
- be all the adaptation responses in the human body;
- be perceived as out there and not created by the individual;
- be a dependent variable, created by the individual;
- depend on the importance attached by the individual;
- be measured in terms of mental or physical health;
- be the external response to a stimulus (stressor), called stress or strain;
- be the imbalance in the coping ability of an individual;
- be specific or non-specific reactions of the body;
- be positive or negative;
- be stimulating or threatening;
- be the wear and tear of a person's mental and physical well-being;

- exhaust physical and mental energy;
- be difficult to pin down;
- be practices, paradigms, values, fears, neurotic perceptions ;
- be a perceived event commencing from an individual's comparison between the demands made on him/her and his/her ability to cope;
- be activated by intrinsic and extrinsic changeable factors;
- be created and controlled by the individual;
- be created in the environment and be beyond the control of the individual;
- also occur during pleasant experiences (laughter, joy);
- be desirable (eustress) or undesirable (distress);
- be associated with emotions (fear, anger, depression, guilt, worry, anxiety, shame, grief, jealousy, shock);
- cause behaviour problems;
- form the basis of many illnesses;
- trigger physiological reactions;
- be a private, intimate event;
- occur as a stereotypical physiological response pattern;
- occur in an unpredictable manner;
- be difficult to analyse directly;
- impact negatively on job performance;
- to overlap with burnout;
- be a unique awareness;
- a subjective experience;
- be the perceived imbalance between the level of demand placed upon individuals and their capability to meet those demands.

According to above it is clear that stress is a very complex phenomenon experienced by human beings.

3.2.1.1 Stress and burnout

The distinctions and similarities between stress and burnout form the

foundation of stress. It thus is necessary to briefly differentiate between stress and burnout in order to avoid confusion for the purposes of this study, as stress, according to Johnstone (1989:4) and McClean (1974:99-104), seems to be designed by the way it is defined. Burnout is defined as

- occurring when individuals lose their commitment and enthusiasm for work, it affects their job performance negatively and results in mental, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion (Cole & Walker, 1989:17);
- a prolonged experience of stress, therefore resulting in burnout, and thus causes of stress will be causes of burnout (Schamer & Jackson, 1996:29);
- the result of unmet needs and unfulfilled expectations (Roth & Gold, 1993:41);
- the 'accumulated disturbance that leads to the permanent malfunctioning of the body system' (Schamer & Jackson, 1996:29);
- prolonged job stress. Burnout can be set apart from stress in terms of time and process, whereby burnout forms part of the final stage of stress namely exhaustion (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993:621-656; Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993:1-17);
- the breakdown that occurs when stressors exceed an individual's ability to cope, new stress can tip the balance (Patel, 1991:55-56).

According to the above, the main distinctions and similarities between stress and burnout seem to be that:

- stress could be negative or positive whilst burnout is negative;
- stress is the response to a past, present or future situation;
- burnout is drawn out over past and present situations;
- burnout occurs when committed people lose their spirit;
- stress could be too little (hypostress) or too much (hyperstress);
- burnout is too much - over a longer period, of time;
- the degree of stress depends on the person's unique perception;

- ❑ the degree of burnout depends on unique perception and accumulation;
- ❑ stress could be temporary, semi-permanent and permanent, the latter stress resulting in burnout;
- ❑ burnout could lead to permanent break down;
- ❑ burnout is prolonged stress;
- ❑ the final phase of stress (exhaustion) is burnout;
- ❑ causes of stress are causes of burnout and thus stress is associated with burnout.

3.3 STRESS DEVELOPMENT

Different theories and approaches are found in literature that attempt to understand speculations on the development of stress. For orientation purposes, theories on stress development and the main approaches to the study of stress will be briefly highlighted in an attempt to later link stress outcomes in women to probable gender and sexual differences, as well as patriarchal influences over innumerable years.

Freedman (1975:36-37) and Price (1967:243) hypothesise that beings human evolved from being forest hunters to settling down to grassland life. This transition was apparently required for group hunting and resulted in the formation of a different social hierarchical order. Thus a change took place from a tranquil and structured social ranking to inflexible social hierarchies.

Price (1967:243-244) argues that psychological disorders like anxiety probably had their origin during this period of social change, whereby flexible hierarchies developed into rigid social rankings, causing the inferior individuals to experience extreme stress through loss of position and suppressing aggression, probably triggering psychological disorders like depression. Apparently the opposite occurred to the controlling individuals

who suffered from disorders such as egotism and elevation. It is also proposed that conditions of excessive anxiety, depression and irritability arose as adaptive survival mechanisms during the evolution of the human species. Price (1967: 243-244) finally comes to the conclusion that modern day psychological disorders could be a 're-enactment' of the above-mentioned evolutionary hierarchical clashes.

Based on the argument of the above hypothesis, the question arises whether the establishment of hierarchies in educational organisations, could not only have created dominant behaviour, but also submissive behaviour. These hierarchies could then also activate, for example, feelings of frustration, irritability, anxiety and depression in individuals. How much more will the previous statement be applicable to women who have been exposed to decades of subordination through the fact that they not only have been, but still are ill-represented in the education management hierarchy?

In addition, it is generally accepted that humans look for meaning in their lives through religious and work practices. Pines and Aronson (1988:59) maintain that human beings expect work success to give their lives a sense of meaning, as it can be very ego-satisfying. People, especially those in managerial positions, tend to derive their sense of cosmic importance from the power of their positions. However, major stress is experienced in the form of frustration when individuals are prevented from achieving goals they have set out to achieve. Chronic frustration then leads to failure, resulting in stress and eventually burnout (*cf.* 3.2.1, 3.2.1.1).

People have not always looked at work as a way to find meaning in life, as many managers do in modern society. According to The Holy Bible (1978:6), God punished man for disobeying Him by giving him work: '...in toil you shall eat of it all the days of your life (Genesis 3:17) and in the sweat of your face you shall eat bread...' (Genesis 3:19). Rohrlich (1980:38) argues that as 'sweat' is a parallel for anxiety, God was rebuking Adam to a lifelong

sensitivity to anxiety.

Similarly work to the ancient Greeks also was painful and an enemy to the independent spirit. Thus work in both instances was synonymous with pain. Furthermore, the early Christians and Jews regarded work as punishment for the earliest sin of mankind. Martin Luther, leader of the Protestant Reformation, lay the base of our current way of thinking about work, namely, that work was holy, the will of God, and a way to worship God (Pines & Aronson, 1988:60; Rohrlich, 1980:30).

However, Pines and Aronson (1988:11) and Rohrlich (1980:31-44) argue that in contemporary society individuals attempt to acquire self-actualization through work, thereby replacing their devotion of God. For many modern day persons religion is no longer satisfactory, and the choice is often work in order to give meaning to their existence, and to define their identities through success and creative work. Work achievement then becomes the ultimate in self-definition. When people fail to achieve self-actualization for various reasons, such as not achieving organisational objectives or being subjected to demands both at work and home, they suffer from stress and even burnout.

The fore-mentioned will probably be even more applicable to working women as a result of societal expectations that domestic duties and rearing children are seen as mainly their responsibility (*cf.* 2.4.3).

3.3.1 Contemporary stress approaches

As there is a lack of consensus regarding the definition and conceptualization of stress, the study of stress seems to be divided into the stimulus, response and interactional approaches (Woodbridge, 1998:47-50; Nucho, 1988:11-12). For the purposes of this study only the essence of each of these approaches will be highlighted.

◇ Stimulus-based approach

This approach focuses on the types of events and conditions that are stressful. Advocates of stimulus-based approaches are of the opinion that stress is imposed on a person by environmental aspects that exaggerate demands upon the individual or disorganize the person (Derogatis & Coons, 1993:201).

According to this model, stress is seen as environmental stimuli causing disruption or strain to a person. It therefore refers to a group of external causes or that which happens to a person and not symptoms or that which happens in a person. People can endure stress up to a point where it becomes unbearable during extreme situations, for example threatening situations and disturbed physiological functioning as a result of sleep loss, disease or drugs, loneliness and restriction, irritation, being inhibited, or when important values and ideals of an individual are threatened. Any extreme situation can then lead to permanent emotional and physiological damage. It must be borne in mind that people's stress tolerance levels differ from one individual to another as a result of heredity factors, character of their background and educational experiences (Louv & Edwards, 1993:644-647; Cox, 1983:12-15).

Furthermore the stimulus-based approach also differentiates between different types of stimulus stressors and their estimated capacities to cause stress. These stimulus stressors are *acutely time-limited* (for example confronting an aggressive dog), *stressor sequences* (for example death of a family member), *chronic stressors* (for example a hostile manager, financial strains, constant sexual dysfunction) and *daily slangs* (for example chronic daily events).

Derogatis and Coons (1993:201), and Cox (1983:13-14) argue that an individual has an inherent ability or resilience to resist environmental

stressors. Up to a specific level they can cope with these demands and no damage occurs. People thus have a limited tolerance and when it is exceeded temporary or permanent damage occurs. Critics, however, view the engineering analogy as being too simplistic for human stress incidents.

According to the above, the stimulus-based approach can be seen as focusing on:

- ▣ externally provoked forces;
- ▣ factors that exaggerate demands or stressors;
- ▣ environmental catalysts causing pressure and strain;
- ▣ things happening *to* a person;
- ▣ triggers with differing stress causing capacities;
- ▣ forces originating outside the person;
- ▣ harmful stimuli that may cause permanent psychological and physiological damage;
- ▣ forces beyond the control of the person - catalysts with an external locus of control.

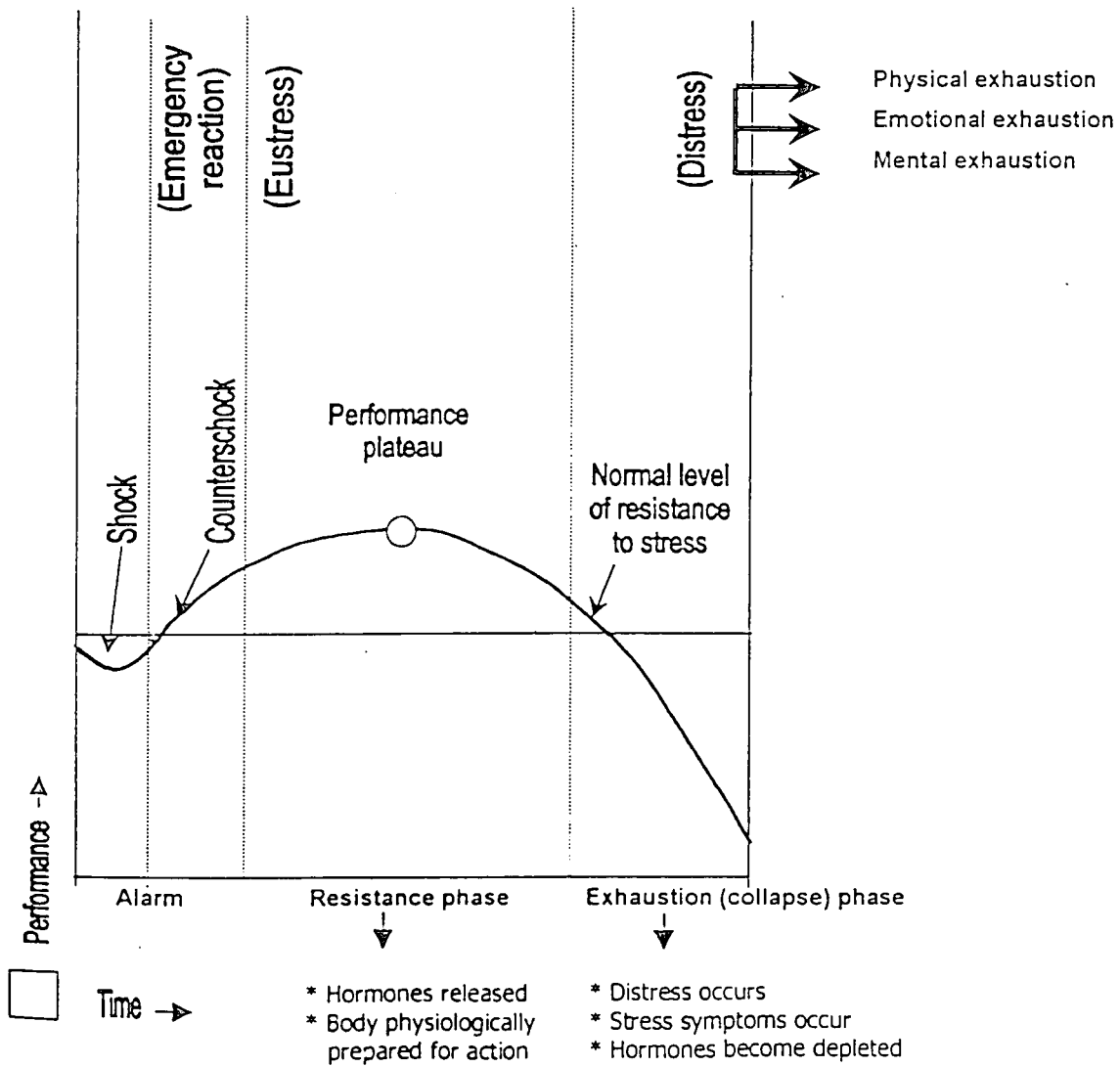
◆ Response-based approach (or GAS)

Although various response-based stress models appear in the literature, the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) model will be focused on for the purpose of this study.

The GAS focuses on the physiological, emotional and behavioural responses to stressors or demands. According to Derogatis and Coons (1993:202) and Cox (1983:4, 53, 73), the response-based approach describes the particular response or pattern of responses which illustrates that the person *is* or *has been* under pressure from events in the environment.

Figure 3.1 The General Adaptation Syndrome - reaction to a stressor
 (Adapted version of The General Adaptation Syndrome)

[Louw & Edwards, 1993:625]



Response definitions may be psychological (distress), physiological (change in blood pressure, muscle tension, skin response), neurobiologically (change in hormone levels) (Derogatis & Coons, 1993:202).

Selye (1980:128-129; 1956:20-21,47) focused on the human body's response to stressors and the impact of these stressors on the physical health of individuals. He found that rats reacted in a methodical manner when exposed to different types of stressors. These animals first experienced physiological stimulation, then degeneration and finally exhaustion, while similar responses were noticed in human beings. Selye (1980:128-134) concluded that stress moves through a cycle consisting of three predictable phases namely the alarm, resistance and exhaustion phases. These phases he called the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) (Louw & Edwards, 1993:640-642; Selye, 1980:129; Selye, 1956:31,87).

I Alarm reaction

During this phase a person reacts to a stressor to which it is not adapted. Thus when an individual is confronted with stress, the instant response of such an individual is one of alarm. This alarm reaction consists of two phases, namely the Shock Phase and the Counter Shock Phase, which will be discussed briefly

◆ Shock Phase

During the shock phase an initial shock reaction to the demand or stressor occurs, followed by an immediate psychological response, and therefore a lowered general resistance to stress. The body rapidly loses some of its ability to cope with a specific stressor. Typical symptoms that a person experiences during this phase are, for example, a decrease in blood pressure, loss of muscle tone and decreased temperature.

I Counter Shock Phase

This phase is an emergency defence reaction that occurs the moment that a threat is perceived and is known as the 'flight or fight' response. The latter response is associated with a 'racing heart beat', a shaking, fast intake of breath, uneven, hurried or shallow breathing, the clenching of the fists, frowning, restless feeling - tapping feet or fingers, pacing, blinking, shifting in seat, chewing or biting; feeling tense or self-conscious when talking or doing something, perspiring too much, feeling the need to urinate even when it is not necessary, mouth feeling dry, shoulders, neck or back feeling tense, watering eyes, an uncomfortable and a nervous feeling of the stomach, back ache, a headache, feeling tired, fatigued, exhausted, losing appetite, and the activation of the central nervous system.

In addition, adrenaline and nor-adrenaline act as neurotransmitters as blood is diverted to the brain, and the blood sugar balance is changed which also acts on the muscles justifying the physical feelings at the moment of *fear*. Hormones assist in the releasing of energy-inducing substances (Bland, 1998:5 of 7; 6 of 7; Smith, 1993:46-47; Smith & Siebert, 1984:215-227; Smith & Seidel, 1982:35-47).

II Resistance Phase

The early part of the resistance phase is good stress or eustress, but as resistance develops, the potential to resist rises significantly above normal, resulting in a 'peaking of performance', known as the adaptation response. This response can last some time.

III Exhaustion Phase (Collapse)

Stress experienced in this phase is an unhealthy or negative form of stress,

namely distress. When the alarm reaction is activated too often, energy necessary for the adaptation is depleted, individuals' resistance drops below normal and they enter the final stage of collapse or exhaustion. The person therefore cannot resist the stressor for an indefinite period as resistance is limited. This phase is characterised by exhaustion, weak concentration, irritation and pessimism. Prolonging of the stressor in this phase results in burnout, and if some form of intervention does not occur, it could result in death (Louw & Edwards, 1993:640-642).

The above-mentioned activities provide the body with an essential arsenal of weapons to defend itself for survival and humans go through the first two stages a multiple of times in a lifetime, so that they can adjust in order to perform activities and to resist harm (Selye, 1993:11; Selye, 1980:133; Selye, 1956:31,87,120). Furthermore, the direct link between personality, surroundings and ill-health was shown through the development of this three-stage stress process (Cooper, 1996: n.p.; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993:621-656).

However, critics argue that the GAS model is too simplistic, as responses to stressful events do not necessarily follow the same pattern (Louw & Edwards, 1993:631).

According to the above the GAS seems to be characterised by:

- physiological - chemical changes;
- stereotypical reactions;
- three main phases;
- the reaction(s) to a stressor;
- harm resistance;
- an initial drop in resistance to stress;
- bodily preparation of a critical defence reaction;
- the fight or flight response;

- the release of hormones like adrenaline - releasing energy;
- physical experience of fear;
- alerting the body;
- preparing the body for survival;
- positive stress during early stage, as well as unhealthy stress such as exhaustion, irritation and pessimism;
- a direct link between personality, ill-health and surroundings.

◆ Interactional Approach

As stress is such a complicated phenomenon, a broadly based definition of stress was developed by fusing the stimulus and response-based approaches, and stress is viewed rather as an interaction between the person and the environment. This interactional approach takes the complex interactions between stressors, as well as psychological factors and stress responses into account.

According to this approach, individuals are subjected to external environmental, and internal demands in the form of psychological and physiological needs. In order to satisfy these needs, persons weigh up their *own* perception of the demand, as well as their *perceived* capacity to cope with the specific demand. This process controls an individual's behaviour. Stress or distress then will originate when there is a difference between the *actual demand* and ability on the one hand, and the *perceived demand* and perceived ability on the other hand. Stress thus is *not* the imbalance between demand and coping capacity, but between perceived demand and perceived coping ability. If a person can cope, the balance between demand and ability is restored. Failure to cope leads to physiological effects or malfunctions, such as, headaches, faintness and low blood glucose, psychological effects, for example, the inability to concentrate, irritability, fatigue, behavioural effects, for example, absenteeism, eating disorders and accident prone behaviour (Louw & Edwards, 1993:649; Cox, 1983:18).

When persons acknowledge their limitations, they experience *subjective* emotional feelings of stress which are also influenced by their *type of personality, childhood and past experiences*. At this point a person starts to act differently (Louw & Edwards, 1993:648-649; McClean, 1974:92).

The outcome of future decisions or assessments made by an individual is influenced by the feedback built into this approach. Feedback is, for example, a physiological response when the adrenaline hormone is secreted and influences the individual's view of the situation that causes the stress, or a behavioural response can change the characteristic of the true demand (Louw & Edwards, 1993: 649; Cox, 1983: 18-21).

From the above-mentioned the Interactional Approach seems to be characterised by:

- psychological and physiological needs;
- external and internal demands made on a person;
- personal cognitive assessments of situations and abilities;
- subjective assessment of a demand;
- subjective assessment of the ability to cope with a specific demand;
- controlled behaviour through personal assessments of danger;
- the imbalance in the manner in which a demand is grasped and handled;
- the balance that is restored if a person can handle the situation;
- headaches, irritability, fatigue, absenteeism and eating disorders when a person cannot cope;
- strain in case of inadequate coping;
- stress resulting in psychological, physiological and behavioural problems;
- feedback that occurs when adrenaline is released;
- problem-solving - when a *balance occurs* between actual and

- perceived demands;
- illness and death - when an *imbalance* occurs between actual and perceived demands and real and perceived coping demands.

The above approaches seem to have common grounds, although they differ in their definitions and methods. In order to gain clarity on the stress phenomenon and its effects on women education managers, the researcher will make use of broad definitions and various approaches to stress. In order to understand the relationship between stress responses and stressors, it is necessary to take a concise look at stress response moderators.

3.3.2 Stress response moderators

Stress response moderators are personality and behavioural characteristics which expand or reduce a person's vulnerability to stress. Stress response moderators are, for example, behaviour patterns, hardiness, situational appraisals, personal resourcefulness and social support (Louw & Edwards, 1993:632-639). Any discussion of stress would be incomplete if the complexity of the personality were not referred to (Cole & Walker, 1990:19; Girdano & Everly, 1986:85).

For the purpose of this study, a brief look will be taken at behaviour patterns as an example of stress response moderators that expand or reduce an individual's vulnerability to stress.

◆ Type A

Individuals with a Type A personality are at risk of developing a serious stress response reaction which could gradually develop into cardiovascular diseases. The values, attitudes and importance that an individual attaches to *events* and *characteristic behavioural patterns*, form that part of the personality that is connected to the development of stress. The personality

thus has the ability to change a normal neutral aspect of life into a psycho-social stressor (Girdano & Everly, 1986:15).

Type A individuals are persons who are especially challenged by a state of affairs in which their control is threatened. They then struggle aggressively to maintain and keep up their control over their surroundings by responding in a characteristic manner (Louw & Edwards, 1993:632; Chesney & Rosenman, 1983:24).

This type of personality is also characterised by a high self-esteem, tenseness, pursuit of success and recognition and easily become hostile. Other features of Type A individuals are: high motivation, impatience, move, walk and eat rapidly, fast temperedness, the desire to achieve, the tendency to compete with time, time pressure, feelings of guilt when relaxing, frustration in the work situation, a drive to reach high, often unrealistic standards, long working hours, taking work home, high competitiveness, a strong need to dominate others, possibly because of hidden insecurities. Type A personalities find it hard to accept failure, have an internal locus of control and hardiness (sense of control, commitment and challenge) (Cranwell-Ward, 1993:24; Louw & Edwards, 1993:659-661; Cox & Cooper, 1988:142-143; Kobasa, 1987:308-329; Matthews & Haynes, 1986:926-930).

According to Haynes, Feinleib and Kannel (1980:37-58) the Type A Behaviour Pattern (TABP) is a factor that causes illness. Stressors, like competition at work, cause higher levels of catecholamine and norepinephrine to be present in Type A individuals. These individuals are also prone to coronary heart diseases, with research indicating that more and more women are dying of coronary heart diseases, and Type A women have twice as high a chance of experiencing heart diseases than Type B women.

Type A behaviour thus is a typical response of an individual to demands from

the environment (Johnstone, 1989:27; Chesney & Rosenman, 1983:24-25). As a result of Type A's competitive personality, the fight-or-flight response is chronically evoked, resulting in excessive secretion of adrenaline and cortisol, which are chemical substances increasing cholesterol levels in the blood, and resulting in coronary heart diseases (Roos & Moller, 1989:117).

According to Chesney and Rosenman (1983:28-29), Collins and Frankenhauser (1978:43) women that assume a 'nontraditional female role', involving intellectual conflict, experience an increase in their hormone levels in response to the job - that level of epinephrine is almost equal to those found for males in the same profession.

From the above-mentioned it appears as if Type A personalities:

- react in a characteristic manner;
- are extremely vulnerable to stress and burnout;
- are vulnerable to heart attacks;
- have the ability to turn ordinary factors aspects into stressors;
- get annoyed easily;
- tend to be aggressive and argumentative;
- are on guard if their control is intimidated;
- must feel in control of their surroundings;
- are tense people;
- are highly motivated and competitive;
- are achievers who set high personal goals;
- have a strong need to dominate others;
- are committed;
- are energetic;
- are unable to relax;
- find it hard to accept failure;
- suffer from work overload;
- reveal fight or flight reactions;

■ live hard and fast.

◇ Type B

The Type B behaviour patterns are in contrast to the Type A behaviour patterns, as Type B behaviour is seen as an alternative way of responding to or coping with challenges in the environment. This type of personality is more relaxed and does not have the desire to impress others with his/her performance, although he/she is rather as effective as the Type A personality in his/her job performance. They also do not suffer from time pressure, can relax without feeling guilty and are associated with being less vulnerable to coronary heart diseases (Louw & Edwards, 1993:661; Roos & Moller, 1989:117; Chesney & Rosenman, 1983:24-29).

From the above-mentioned it seems as if Type B personalities:

- do not display Type A habits;
- are free of the negative Type A peculiarities;
- enjoy a more relaxed lifestyle;
- do not suffer from time pressure;
- are less vulnerable to heart attacks.

3.4 STRESSORS AND STRAIN

Various stressors will be scrutinised in order to fathom the possible impact they may have on the stress outcomes of female education managers. According to Levi (1971:455) it is important to distinguish between stress and a stressor, as stressors are causative agents of stress, whilst stress is the non-specific response.

3.4.1 Definitions

A stressor is defined as

- an event or occurrence that leads to psychological distress, behavioural disruption and deterioration in efficiency (Derogatis & Coons, 1993:201);
- a change in the internal or external environment of such magnitude that it requires from the individual more than the usual adaptation and defence reactions to maintain life and/or homeostasis (Groen, 1971:454);
- an occurrence that challenges homeostasis and if the individual cannot adapt to the stressor, the negative outcome will be a disease (McEwen & Mendelson, 1993:101-104);
- something activating the activity of nerve cells, activating the release of hormones (McEwen & Mendelson 1993:101-104);
- an interhuman conflict which is mostly acted out verbally or symbolically and lead to psychological (emotional) or psychosomatic stress (Selye, 1983:9-10; Groen, 1971:454);
- an unsatisfactory match between what persons need and what they are capable of, what a person's surroundings offer and what the person requires (Cooper, 1996:3).

From the above, stressors appear to

- be evaluated differently by individuals;
- cause stress;
- imply enormous intrinsic and extrinsic environmental changes that require adjustments and defence reactions from humans to cope;
- disrupt behaviour;
- challenge homeostasis by increasing illness risks; induce psychosomatic reactions like ulcers;

- be able to constrain the immune system;
- increase vulnerability to diseases;
- activate the release of hormones;
- cause different reactions in individuals;
- be events leading to distress;
- to trigger anger, fear, hate, negative thoughts and errors at work.

Stressors in the occupational and social and personal domain will be investigated in order to deal with the origin of stress and burnout.

3.4.2 Occupational stressors

Occupational stressors will be dealt with first, followed by social stressors and then personal strain, which has a different nuance, as strain will be used here to illustrate the measurable effects of internal stress resulting from the impact of stressors. The occupational stressors that will be discussed are role overload, role insufficiency, role ambiguity, role conflict and responsibility.

For purposes of this study the following five occupational stressors will be highlighted briefly.

◆ Role overload

Reynold (1997:105), Ray and Miller (1994:363) and Rifkin (1994:10) believe that overload is a source of stress, and Mc Neely (1995:11) rates overload as one of the top five sources of stress.

Cranwell-Ward (1990:45) presumes that 'too much to do' and 'too little time to do it' result in exorbitant demands and pressures. These demands could be job related, or socially related. As these demands seem to compete with each other, an individual may feel overloaded. Keita and Hurrell (1994:283- 284) agree with this statement and point out that caring for children and elders

can place additional stress on an employee.

According to Van Dijkhuizen (1980:26) role overload occurs when a person is faced with a set of obligations that requires her/him to do more than they are able to do in the available time, i.e. when the quantity of work is more than the individual can handle. Individuals then have little time to think and frequently have to work fast with the result that the quality of the work may deteriorate. Osipow and Spokane (1992:1) agree with this statement, as they believe that role overload is the extent to which demands outstrip personal and workplace resources, as well as the extent to which an individual is able to accomplish expected workloads. Lack of control results in *strain* and *burnout* amongst workers (Jackson, 1983:3-19), and role overload may lead to workload dissatisfaction, depression, anxiety, irritability, somatic complaints, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Fenlason & Beehr, 1994:157).

Many researchers find it difficult to separate stress factors and therefore discuss them simultaneously in order to reflect their negative impact on work. According to Rifkin (1994:356) unrealistic role expectations and excessive workloads are characteristic of a job description that is vague. Furthermore, Lemley (1987:134) resolves that pressure is created by the desire to manage things well and to lead effectively, and that even the most effective manager capitulates to the pressure of role overload.

Female managers often suffer from role overload as a result of the fact that they lack the skill to delegate work, and are under pressure to work harder to prove themselves against their male counterparts. As many men regard women as being inferior to men as employees, these unfavourable attitudes can cause women *strain* and make them try too hard, and consequently to appear the worse for wear (Davidson & Cooper, 1983:16-17).

Role overload is also associated with emotional exhaustion and can therefore

be very demanding on a person, leading to stress and burnout (Leiter, 1988:115-132; 1991: 123-144). Individuals tend to drive themselves physically and mentally by a merciless workload (Rohrlich, 1980:36).

◇ Role insufficiency

Role insufficiency is defined as measuring the extent to which the individual's education, training, skills and experience are appropriate to the requirements of the job. Inability to perform duties effectively causes stress. Not being able to delegate and communicate could also enhance stress at work (Byrne, 1994:649; Osipow & Spokane, 1992:1, 1981:1).

According to Gunning and Cooke (1996:213) poor physical condition, large quantities of work, deadlines and intricate decisions could cause role insufficiency in the work situation. In addition, career development pressure causes stress when the goals are not clear, reaching a ceiling for promotion, especially females that come up against a glass ceiling, failure to satisfy personal desire for challenges and use of skills, the level of bureaucracy, insecurity, poor self-image, fear of failure, bad time management, perfectionism, i.e. unreasonable high personal standards, financial commitments, conflicting needs of work and family, little control over job, and feelings of personal incompetence (Bogg & Cooper, 1995:330; Burke & Greenglass, 1995:191; Soderfeldt, Soderfeldt & Warg, 1995:44).

◇ Role ambiguity

Osipow and Spokane (1992:1) define role ambiguity as the extent to which the priorities, expectations and evaluation criteria are clear or not clear to the individual. Van Dijkhuizen (1980:25) is in agreement and maintains that role ambiguity refers to having insufficient information to fulfil one's job as good as possible. The latter also refers to all kinds of uncertainty regarding the work situation.

Role ambiguity is also associated with a lack of clarity regarding rights, complexity of tasks and technology, rapid change in the organisation, powerlessness, the perception of being held in low esteem, and bureaucracy (Byrne, 1994:648).

The present economic situation, whereby budgets are restricted, resulting in staff cut-back in an attempt to minimise operating costs, can cause organisations to limit promotions. The latter increases the competition level amongst colleagues for limited management posts, leaving these individuals to feel trapped and extremely frustrated. Furthermore, individuals view the threat of redundancy as extremely stressful (Cooper & Marshall, 1975:88). The economic situation is a source of severe stress to managers as they are responsible for the well-being of their subordinates. Managers experience extreme role conflict as they are expected to keep costs down on the one hand and on the other, they have to provide their subordinates with a sense of job security and steadiness (Cooper & Marshall, 1975:86).

According to Walby (1997:3) women in general are poorer than men, because they are becoming more independent from men. Many women are single parents, which places an excessive financial burden on them, which leads to experiencing immense frustration, anxiety and stress.

Van Staden (1992:1) and Van Dijkhuizen (1980:26) maintain that role ambiguity is dangerous to individuals as it acts as crucial source of stress in the workplace, affecting the well being of people and the effectiveness of the organisation, resulting in uncertainty regarding future career and employment opportunities. The degree to which ambiguity in career opportunities is perceived in terms of cutbacks, retrenchments and reassignments enhances stress levels of the worker/employee.

◇ Role conflict

Role conflict measures the extent to which the individual is experiencing conflicting role demands and loyalties in the work setting, thus when job and personal demands are in conflict with each other (Osipow & Spokane, 1992:1). Goldberger and Breznitz (1993:437) use women as examples where non-workplace roles cause conflict, burden and strain to working mothers, as they have to cope with their job and family demands resulting in time management difficulties. Research indicates that women in managerial positions experience a great deal of stress as a result of the conflicts between work and family responsibilities, resulting in negative attitudes towards people, anxiety, irritation and depression, emotional exhaustion and fatigue (Cooper, 1996:104; Greenglass, 1985: 227-240; Farber, 1983:1-22).

Role conflict refers to the development of two or more sets of incompatible, expected role behaviours and here male attitudes could become an ultimate barrier in the progress of women, as males have fixed ideas of what females should do and be like (Ousten, 1993:5).

The impact of role conflict is often underestimated and the employer should rather establish various options to alleviate the pressure of dual responsibilities, because Snelgar (1990:42) provides evidence that role conflict not only diminishes performance, but that it is significantly related to poor performance among professionals.

◇ Role responsibility

Role responsibility measures the extent to which the individual has, or feels, a great deal of responsibility for the performance and well-being of other individuals. This implies complex interpersonal relationships which can cause stress and burnout (Cooper, 1996:102; Osipow & Spokane, 1992:1; Jackson, 1983:3-19).

Responsibility impacts on the time a person has to carry out a job and this could negatively be influenced by interruptions such as phone calls and colleagues, meetings, relations with subordinates, supervision and co-ordination of tasks, other differences and conflicts, unselective reading, inefficient office routines and filing systems, inadequate information, and over-commitment to outside responsibilities at the expense of one's personal time (Williamson & Campbell, 1997:111; Tanner, Schnittjer, Atkins, 1991:203).

According to Ray and Miller (1994:363), both home and work demands are part of role responsibility, as they constitute the individual's major responsibilities and point to the negative impact on an individual in the absence of social support.

3.4.3 Social stressors

Various social stressors will be discussed, but it must be kept in mind that these stressors may overlap with occupational and personal stressors, as these three sectors are so interrelated.

◆ Person-environment match

Individuals experience job demands for example workload, job role and demands of their superiors or other aspects of the work environment differently, therefore their responses to these demands differ. The match between individuals and their environment refers to the manner in which individuals and the environment in which they work, agree and compliment each other (Holt, 1993:349).

◇ Lack of social support

Individuals exist in a social setting, and life events generate changes in this life setting that could lead to anxiety and stress. Abrupt changes cause cultural pressures which could generate anxiety and increase the risk of disease (Fisher, 1996:126).

Inadequate social support can act as a stressor, and according to Leiter and Maslach (1988:297-308), stress and burnout can be caused by the lack of effective support from specifically home and family members, as well as people who can supply emotional comfort, active listening, friendship, technical support in work areas and encouragement of individual growth.

According to Fisher (1985:39-53) research has found that the intensity of unfulfilled expectations was diminished in the presence of social support, shared values and perceptions of life and truth, as well as confronting people where appropriate, therefore social support is regarded as the most widely identified stress buffer. Social support functions as a compensation for strain, changes the way a person experiences strain and lowers the risk of illness, it therefore buffers the impact of events (Smith, 1993:1; Kobasa, Maddi, Pucetti, & Zola, 1985:525-533; Cohen & Edwards, 1989:235-283).

◇ Social status inequality

Karasek (1979:43-48) suggests that individuals become at risk to disease when they experience status inequality. For example, a widowed woman not only loses her partner, but also a part of her identity and also has to develop, apart from a new life, a new status in the community. The anxiety levels of such a woman will increase, as a result of unhappiness, mental preoccupation and the strain of coping without the support and protection of the partner. Furthermore, married women are more at risk to chronic diseases, because of their lower status level in marriage, as well as the role

played by the stress factor (Fisher, 1996:128).

◇ Sexual harassment

Sexual harassment grows out of an environment of sexism where people are treated differently because of their sex. This type of harassment includes any unwanted verbal remark, dirty jokes or sexually explicit remarks, verbal put-downs that try to degrade work efforts because of sex, threats of job loss if favours are not granted, flirting behaviour that implies a reward or promotions for favours, or physical behaviour that intimidates a person at work. Divorced, separated and single women are particularly vulnerable to this type of harassment.

Furthermore, men often recite to women at work according to the traditional roles that they have learned in families, for example, a younger woman could be treated as their daughter, or women may be treated as sexual beings rather than as colleagues or co-workers. Sexual harassment is not a laughing matter or a compliment, as it could lead to a blemished reputation, feelings of guilt, economic losses and anxiety. Because women often fear losing their reputations or their jobs, they tend to suffer the harassment in silence or they forfeit litigation as it is too expensive (Sitterley & Duke, 1988:17; Davidson & Cooper, 1983:31-32).

◇ Gender-stereotyping

Most of the media in South Africa hold stereotypical opinions of women (*Die Volksblad*, 1999:6). In Western cultures power difference is a crucial part of constructing gender roles. The media, parents, religion, teachers, as well as all socialising forces construct gender, whereby the sexes are viewed as different from one another: as dominant or subordinate and as superior or inferior. As a result of sexual stereotyping men are kept in controlling power positions, which places stress on both sexes. Gender stereotypes and roles

play a role in all relationships and in society as a whole, having an intense and generally damaging effect on them. Society needs a complete transformation to break loose from stereotyping and gender roles, as it would benefit all, but this is a very difficult process (Fontana, 1994:79; Basow, 1992:vii).

Culturally, careers in gender-appropriate terrain are encouraged, mostly leaving women to be socialised into domestic and low status employment, causing them to find competitive achievement situations quite threatening. This pressure may lead to frustration and other stress-related disorders (Basow, 1992:75-78).

Women may also suffer from hidden intrinsic inhibitions causing stress. These inhibitions are fear of disapproval by male authorities and women competitors, fear of success as it may increase expectations that cannot be achieved, fear of being unfeminine and fear of being self-assertive as it may be interpreted as unfeminine and aggressive (Moulton, 1980:267-270).

◆ Sex roles

Sex acts as a master status in society, whereby women are channelled into distinctive roles, limiting the quality of their interaction with others. These women are also confronted with unclear and dispersed expectations that may give rise to uncertainty and frustration. Because of the difficulties associated with the feminine role in Western society, more women than men may suffer from mental disorders such as depression (Huber & Spitze, 1983:5-50).

3.4.4 Personal strain

Individuals react differently to common stressors, as they may assess them differently and therefore also cope in different ways. People need to feel a sense of control over everything that happens in their lives - the moment

they lack this imperative sense of control it leads to stress dilemmas that effect their health and the people around them (Cooper, 1996:3; Lazarus, 1993:23).

The term strain is used to illustrate the measurable effects of internal stress, being the outcome of the actions of one or many stressors. Examples of strain are job dissatisfaction, psychological and psychosomatic complaints, job-related threats, loss of self-esteem, smoking and absenteeism. Physiological strain, for example, has an influence on blood pressure, cholesterol level, pulse rate and obesity (Van Dijkhuizen, 1980:30).

Personal strain is a measure of the mental strain comprising vocational, psychological, interpersonal and physical strain that is experienced by an individual at work as a result of stressors. These domains will be briefly mentioned for purposes of this study.

◆ Vocational strain

Vocational strain refers to the degree in which the individual is having problems with work quality or output, whilst attitudes towards work are also regarded as a cause of vocational strain (Osipow & Spokane, 1992:1; Van Dijkhuizen, 1980:33-34).

Individuals that experience vocational strain might commit errors at work, encounter concentration problems, become moody and depressed, behave unpredictably and often be absent from work (Scott & Wimbush, 1991:507).

◆ Psychological strain

Psychological strain refers to the degree to which an individual experiences psychological and/or emotional problems. Individuals suffering from psychological strain report being depressed, anxious and unhappy,

complaining about little things, having no sense of humour and being irritable (Osipow & Skopane, 1992:1; Meier, 1991:1105). Emotional tension is the most common agent contributing to psychological strain and involves both positive and negative emotions. These emotions play a fundamental role in individual adaptation and drastically influence not only how people think and act, but also societal linkages, because the individual's assessment of conditions influences the way in which a person experiences strain. The quality and strength of these emotions depend on an individual's cognitive appraisal (Lazarus, 1993:21-26).

Negative emotions are fright, anger, anxiety, shame, guilt, envy, jealousy, disgust and sadness, and positive emotions include love, happiness, hope, contentment, pride and relief (Lazarus, 1993:23-25).

◆ Interpersonal strain

Interpersonal strain reflects the degree of disruption in interpersonal relationships. Individuals suffering from this type of pressure quarrel frequently, want to be left alone and complain of not having time alone, or not having time to spend with friends (Cooper, 1995:69; Osipow & Spokane, 1991:1).

◆ Physical strain

Physical strain is revealed by complaints about physical illness or poor self-care habits (Osipow & Spokane, 1992:1). Physical strain will be referred to in more detail in the qualitative investigation discussed in chapter four.

From the above discussions on stressors the following seem to be the major causes of stress that could affect females:

- job or socially associated demands;

- excess work and workload pressure or work underload;
- too little time;
- unreasonable demands;
- additional domestic, child and elderly caring responsibilities;
- unrealistic expectations;
- attempts to prove self-worth;
- assumptions of female inferiority;
- loss of control;
- perfectionism;
- role conflict;
- exclusion from decision-making processes;
- interpersonal conflict - confrontation;
- inadequate support;
- inability to fulfil requirements;
- too high expectations;
- unfulfilled expectations;
- possible lack of:
 - management skills;
 - feedback;
 - appreciation;
 - understanding;
 - approval;
 - acceptance;
 - concrete evidence of success;
- demands outstripping personal resources;
- job dissatisfaction;
- technological incompetency;
- insufficient information;
- rapid change;
- the adoption of male managerial skills and attributes;
- powerlessness;
- low self-esteem;

- bureaucracy;
- insufficient payment;
- low budgets;
- financial hardship;
- threat of redundancy;
- limited management posts;
- barriers to managerial positions;
- invisible promotional barriers;
- dependency;
- single parenthood;
- sexist attitudes;
- feeling responsible for performance and well-being of others;
- work interruptions;
- over-commitment;
- experiencing problems in work output and quality;
- disrupted by personal liaisons;
- under-estimation;
- poor self-care habits;
- the lack of harmony between individuals and their surroundings;
- confrontations;
- stereotyping;
- status inequality - of widowed, divorced, separated and single parent females;
- lower marital status;
- overt and covert sexual harassment;
- traditional roles;
- perceptions of sex objects;
- patriarchy;
- patronising attitudes;
- power struggle;
- intrinsic inhibitions;
- fear of success;

- ▣ fear of being regarded as unfeminine.

As seen from the above stress and burnout are caused by a variety of stressors. For the purpose of this study it is necessary to investigate the manner in which stress manifests in the human being. These manifestations will be discussed as stress outcomes with particular reference to the female education manager.

3.5 OUTCOMES

In the light of Price's hypothesis (*cf.* 3.3), whereby subservient individuals experience extreme forms of stress, the possible influences of gender and sexual differences on stress in women that are subjected to inferior positions in patriarchal-orientated societies, will be investigated. Stress could manifest in chronic mental, behavioural and physical disorders that result in illness affecting the productivity of people causing organisations and countries to lose millions of rand annually as a result of sick leave and lost productivity (Cooper, 1996:4, Serebro 1996:11-13; Pines & Aronson, 1988:12-16) (*cf.* 1.1).

Selye (1983:12-13) maintains that the human body always has one part that is the weakest, as a result of heredity or outside influences, and is therefore likely to break down when it is exposed to general biological stress. This weakest link in the body differs from one individual to another: it may be the heart, gastrointestinal tract or the nervous system, therefore individuals could develop different types of diseases due to the same stressor.

As psychological disorders, behaviour patterns and disease manifestation seem to be interwoven, the outcomes of stress will be discussed under socio-behavioural and physical categories.

3.5.1 Socio-behavioural outcomes

Societal patterns have a crucial effect on people and their behaviour and thus also on the roles associated with the sexes. Thus the expectations society has of women to permanently behave according to their social roles, could place women under tremendous strain. This strain is extended to the workplace and annually influences more women as the number of women pursuing a career is growing (Lewis, 1996:241). On account of their gender, women tend to suffer *more* job-related stress than men because of their powerlessness, poor status, role ambiguity, work overload and limited promotion opportunities (*Sunday Times*, 1999b:20) (*cf.* 1.1). Women therefore are more susceptible to the frustrations associated to blocked career expansion (Bhagat & Chassie, 1981:17-30; Thackeray, 1979:90-97). Although men and women managers face the same type of stressors in their jobs, women still have additional extra-organisational stressors in the home and social environment, as the conflicting responsibilities originating from running a home and a career can become very stressful. In spite of these additional stressors, it is still expected of women to cope with their circumstances (Davidson & Cooper, 1992:32,39; Davidson & Cooper, 1983:115).

The fact that most career women suffer from work overload and chronic exhaustion has not notably changed the prevailing pattern of household division of labour, because the belief system is more forceful than the behavioural reality. Therefore, career women continue to feel desperately inadequate in that they *cannot meet* the domestic care standards that are supposed to be so easy to achieve. Institutional lack of change and culturally traditional norms for behaviour develop in externally generated high levels of stress among women (Rabin, 1987:194-200). It often happens that females use alcoholic drink coffee or Coke, eat frequently, smoke, use pain killers, tranquillizers or other medication in order to cope with stress (Davidson & Cooper, 1983:140-141). The increased use of alcohol and tobacco results in

an increase in lung cancer, heart attacks and alcoholism amongst females (Reinhard, 1991: D1, D2).

Kruger (1997:5) and Moore (1994:2) maintain that women face different barriers and stressors in the education management field, that is new to most of them, than men do. Davidson and Cooper (1983:8-9,112-114) agree and argue that women experience high stress levels as a result of a lack of social support and encouragement from people at work. The pressure is enhanced by dealing with work relationships, overt and indirect prejudiced attitudes, and sex-stereotyping.

At the same time there is a marked inequality in the availability of discretionary time for employed females and females, that is freedom from housework and childcare, generally giving males greater discretionary time (Shorter, 1975:70). Females (two-career women) run a higher risk of depression as the weight of two roles can become too heavy (Bernard, 1989-304:306). Problems are also created for new woman managers and those who take on traditionally male jobs in terms of what they should do, as their decisions often are assessed in terms of gender. These stresses, combined with the stresses of trying to shoulder family and home responsibilities, generate enormous pressures on women and may manifest in a range of unpleasant mental-behavioural and physical ways (Davidson & Cooper, 1983, 8-114; Bernard, 1989:304-306).

Gender roles, as established by society, encourage males to develop Type A personality characteristics, and females in high-status occupations also tend to exhibit Type A behaviour patterns. Females with Type A behaviour tend to have much more psychological stress than males (*cf.* 3.3.2), as these females may envision exceptionally high performance from themselves in their multiple roles, as they may try to be "superwoman" (Musante, MacDougall, Dembroski & Van Horn, 1983:1104-1117). The pressure is even worse for women, as they are generally not used to performing tasks that leave them

'open' to risk and anxiety, as they fear any behaviour that could be perceived as hostile or unfeminine, and could leave them standing alone. These demands on women are reflected in the higher rates of stress-related illnesses experienced by them. Women who enter male-dominated occupations are confronted by double restraints in the form of having to either *reject* their femininity when they 'take on men on their own terms', or of claiming their femininity and run the *risk* of being branded as insignificant and incompetent. This causes women to feel alone and vulnerable (Bradley, 1994:155; Davidson & Cooper, 1992:11-31) as society makes inconsistent demands on women, expecting them to be fragile and, simultaneously, to be able to take on gruelling responsibilities (Hall, 1990:21). This fear of isolation often causes females not to develop assertive techniques and skills that are necessary for their professional advancement (Dowling, 1982:175).

Intellectually confident and independent females know that males experience them as threatening and that submissive females feel intimidated by them. Females who also challenge males on their own terrain often create confusion and anger among males. However, independent, successful males are encouraged and attracted by successful females, whilst chauvinistic males are attracted to females who are dependent on them, need their support, and who let them feel superior (Kendall, 1993:109).

As females are socialized into dependency, many become poor risk takers as they become less confident in their ability to make judgements and decisions, and are so less likely to fulfil their intellectual potential, as they pull back from their possibilities and aim well below their natural level of achievement (Dowling, 1982:118-119, 163). Dowling (1982:158) also argues that inadequate self-confidence in their ability to do their job causes anxiety for these women.

Males are taught to dislike and deny any feminine qualities within themselves, and this socialization process easily turns into misogyny, which

often turns males against females who breach gender role expectations. Females who attempt to balance the female-male power relationship seem particularly threatening and therefore easily become the prime targets of male anger that may enhance the stress levels of females (Lipman-Blumen, 1984:95). Females who threaten males' dominance by 'invading their territory' are most likely to be sexually harassed verbally through sexist remarks and unwanted sexual attention, amongst others. Sexual harassment is power abuse by those with more power against those with less power, and it also functions as a social control mechanism to keep minority groups in their place. These behaviours form barriers to female achievement academically and in the labour force. The psychological outcomes for women are astronomic as such behaviours cause them to feel violated, inferior, inadequate, depressed and leads to chronic stress (Basow, 1992:313-315).

Society also expects women to care for and be sensitive to others' feelings, therefore women often *ignore* their own needs and fail to draw support for themselves, making them even more *vulnerable* to stress (Lewis, Cooper & Bennett, 1994: 661-671; Ware & Kleinman, 1986:546-560). In their bid to *satisfy* societal *expectations*, women react by aspiring to *outshine* and work even harder, not only in traditional caring roles, but also in the male dominated occupations they choose (Hall, 1996:137-138; Davidson & Cooper, 1983:110). According to Hall (1996:48), Riley (1994:41) and Ousten (1993:10) this urge of women to prove themselves in their multiple roles makes it difficult to follow a balanced lifestyle. Women who admit to putting their careers first, as do their male counterparts, experience stress in the form of guilt and role-conflict (*cf.* 3.4.2) because society disapproves and criticises women who do not claim family and parenthood as their priority. In addition, employers continue to expect dedicated workers to *conform* to the male model of work, whereby no allowances are made for the family (Kendall, 1993:8; Basow, 1992:242; Boulding, 1979:12).

Against this background, women education managers assume they have to

work even harder than men do, whilst society exerts pressure on them by disapproving and criticising their career priorities. Women have to break through an invisible glass ceiling confronting them in management posts, creating extra demands on them and they suffer more job-related pressures than men (*Sunday Times*, 1999a:20; Hall, 1996:48-97; Fontana, 1994:78; Keita & Hurrell, 1994:78; Davidson & Cooper, 1992:11-31; Travers & Cooper, 1991:16-23; Pines & Aronson, 1988:176).

Problems and pressures that are unique to women managers also include the hardship of coping with the role of the 'token woman' and feelings of isolation. In addition the spouse's/partner's attitude towards the women's career, there is a lack of emotional and domestic support, i.e. unrealistic expectations. Earning more than one's partner, or being single and seen as an exception/oddity, and the deficit of same-sex role models in management make women more susceptible to pressure (Davidson & Cooper, 1983:8-9, 108-115, 157-159). High stress outcomes in females thus to a great extent are caused by factors that are intrinsic to the job: the need to *prove* everything *twice*, to be linked to the minority sex in a male dominated occupation, prejudice, sexual discrimination, and negative attitudes (Basow, 1992:196).

Drastic changes in the *traditional* sex-role stereotypes have not been accepted socially (Moulton, 1980:269-270). To be a female and have a career is not yet accepted as being a *natural* event. Marshall (1984:154-156) maintains that gender stereotyping causes females to feel they are not being taken seriously, patronized, ridiculed, misunderstood, underestimated, being wrongly identified as a result of people's expectations of femininity, on a daily basis which may lead to immense frustration and anxiety. Women are caught in the crossfire between traditional and new social ideas concerning their 'roles', however, their old 'role' is not functional anymore. Personal and psychological *dependency* causes females to withdraw from the full use of their minds and creativity; those women that take the plunge and realize

their dependency, gain new strength and become courageously vulnerable. Many women tend to put on a 'counterphobic facade' - a shell a person constructs to hide fear and insecurity, but they experience conflict as the "inferior", stereotyped woman collides with the outer strong and independent self (Dowling, 1982:23-29), causing tremendous role conflict (Bem, 1977:196-205; Bem & Lenney, 1976:48-54).

The professional female wants to dissociate herself from the negative connotations of "woman", but she does not want to be defeminised. Females resist both "defeminisation and de-professionalization". Women are also damned if they do, and damned if they don't. If she does not compete, it proves she cannot do the job, and if she does compete, she is regarded as not feminine and hence, some sort of 'freak' (Chase, 1988:282-283)..

A popular belief is that females would be better off if they conform to their gender role (Bem & Lenney, 1976:47-62) yet gender *conformity* for females is either irrelevant or negatively linked to their spiritual well-being. Gender conformity could have a negative bearing on good adjustment, like the fear of being socially rejected especially for females (Dowling, 1982:158).

Many females suffer from psychological problems resulting from being inhibited to all forms of assertion and often physical activity during early childhood, as it is considered 'unladylike' or hazardous. Parents tend to *overhelp* little girls when they do not really need it and should be learning to err and correct themselves. The idea that girls can only achieve with the help of others is reinforced and internalized by girls, which makes them dependent, and it is only women that suffer from 'dependency diseases', such as anorexia nervosa, whereby adolescent girls with conforming personalities feel that the only independence they have, is by having control over their bodies (Dowling, 1982:104-105) (*cf.* 2.4.3.2. f).

Part of a person's self-concept is their body image, i.e. how an individual

perceives and feels about their bodies. The latter facet of self-concept exhibits invariable gender differences in the area of a person's satisfaction with their weight. Generally, females are more dissatisfied with their weight than males, bringing down their self-esteem. The way a female feels about her weight and her appearance is closely linked to her general feeling about herself. A female is also more likely to be judged on grounds of her weight than a male, whilst a negative body image is connected with depression, the latter being more common in females than in males. As the media promote thinness and attractiveness, it leads to behaviours in females such as dieting; eating disorders or compulsive exercising (Koff, Rierdan & Stibbs, 1990: 56-58; Pliner, Chaiken & Flett, 1990:263-273) (*cf.* 2.4.3.2. f).

Psychological well-being is associated with the absence of stress, anxiety, depression and conflicts, as well as the possession of self-esteem, satisfaction and happiness, which to a great extent are threatened in the life and work situation of women by female stereotyping. When women are subjected to those extra social demands, as discussed above they could experience stress, because there are limits to a human beings' adjustment levels, and when change takes place too rapidly, it results in psychological and physical distress, as the individuals adaptive systems are overloaded and cannot respond effectively. This physiological and physical distress then results in strain symptoms and stress-related illness as discussed in 3.5.2.

In retrospect, it is clear that the social construct, that *inter alia* gives rise to female stereotypes and roles, plays a major role in the stress experienced by females in the world of work, and particularly in the management sector. The following table will summarise the effect of socially constructed patterns and beliefs on females.

TABLE 3.1: Socio-behavioural outcomes due to gender stereotypes and roles.

- The following factors could exacerbate the strain experienced by females:
- a lack of social support and encouragement
- dealing with blatant and concealed prejudiced attitudes and sex-stereotyping at work
- taking on traditionally male managing jobs
- having their decisions analysed in terms of gender
- having above-mentioned stress combined with their unique position of additional family and domestic responsibilities
- caring and tending to others' feelings - ignoring their own needs
- satisfying societies' expectation
- attempting to outshine and work twice as hard in male-dominated occupations
- the need to triumph, hard-driving, not to admit to coping difficulties - absurd concepts linking performance to coping with self-respect
- the admittance of putting their careers first (like male counterparts) - as society disapproves and criticises females that do not prioritise their family and parenthood
- organisational expectations that devoted employees conform to the male model of work (no allowance is made for family)
- the expectation to play out a male-role at work that is not instinctive to them
- confrontation of double barriers in having to reject their femininity and 'act' like males, or claim their femininity and risk being labelled incompetent and inferior
- having to grind through invisible glass ceilings
- feeling very uncomfortable (i.e. strongly sex-typed females) in immersing in cross-sex behaviour

- females are expected to achieve less than males, career and finance wise
- females that don't achieve less than males career-wise are viewed contemptuously - this discourages women
- inconsistent societal demands of fragility and concurrently to be able to take on strenuous tasks
- the hardship of coping with the role of 'novelty woman' - unique to women managers
- lack of domestic and emotional support from partner
- earning more than one's partner
- being seen as an exception
- non-acceptance of radical changes in traditional stereotypes
- being subjected to cultural pressures
- fear to act self-assertively - perceived as aggression and unfeminine
- socially constructed and not biologically given rigid gender roles (*cf.* 2.4.1, 2.4.3.2 a-f)
- extra demands being minority sex in male dominated occupation and sexual discrimination
- fatigue and increased substance abuse leading to constricted productivity and effectiveness.

Females, due to gender stereotyping and roles, could experience:

- an undesirable self-concept, low self-assurance, blame themselves for their inabilities, constrict their behaviour in masculine-defined tasks, predicaments in adjusting and mental well-being
- inequal labour division in marriage and co-habitation stressful
- deficiency of economic power, aggression and violence against them, not to be taken seriously, being patronized, ridiculed, underestimated and misunderstood as very frustrating and stressful
- role conflict by putting up a front to hide fear and insecurity, thereby becoming more vulnerable to stress

- that medical illnesses are being contributed to mental rather than physical causes
- an obligation to conform to traditional gender roles
- pressures that amplify restricted behaviour - deepening gender-role conflict
- turmoil about choosing a non-traditional role and resorting to drinking
- as professionals, the need to dissociate themselves from being defeminised and de-professionalised in addition to stress and pressures that females are generally exposed to
- that traditional feminine personality traits are not associated with successful psychological behaviour
- to be more likely judged on grounds of their weight than a male - resulting in eating disorders and compulsive exercising
- that their self-esteem is connected to performance and social relationships and that males' self-esteem is connected to performance and abilities. Females tend to under-assess their abilities and curb their chances for promotion
- their lives as being controlled from the outside - i.e. an external locus of control that is linked with fear of success and helplessness, and a tendency to believe luck is responsible for their success
- the tendency to blame themselves personally for failures - i.e. they do not externalise the cause as males tend to do - decreasing their self-confidence even more
- the tendency to conform to fear of being rejected and to simultaneously experience simultaneously less stress. This has a negative impact on beneficial adjustment
- being socialised to believe that they can only achieve with the help of others (dependency) - internalizing that dependency is the softer option (*cf.* 2.4.3)

- that adolescent girls do not master the skill to bear frustration - therefore do not acquire independency
- emotional dependency - and the risk of verbal and physical abuse from partner
- effectiveness afflicted by role conflict - wanting to act assertively and simultaneously wanting to comply - they then act hesitantly and may not be taken seriously
- stress when they fail to meet female role expectations
- that girls are not psychologically and professionally prepared to assume a career
- maternal guilt
- the lack of childhood experience (as boys do) to deal with restrictions - dealing with restrictions shapes independency
- sensitivity to inequality and discrimination - painful to discover societal 'truths'
- not being socialised into the role of breadwinner
- maternal guilt - intensifying stress
- that non-conformity leads to social rejection, ridicule, social isolation which could be stressful
- that breaching femininity norms may result in self-punishment and guilt
- by conforming to stereotypes they are recognised as feminine - many try to avoid the negative outcomes of nonconformity
- powerlessness and confusion when their different management style is not accepted/recognised and appreciated - enhancing stress
- that mental distress resulting in an inability to make decisions, forgetfulness, mental blocks, incompetency, inferiority, hypersensitivity to criticism, negative attitudes towards colleagues, friends and family
- the fear of losing their feminine identity through equity
- psychosomatic disorders

- stress symptoms on a behaviour level through smoking, overindulging in food and drink, aggression, emotional outbursts, impulsive behaviour, impaired speech, nervous laughter, restlessness, trembling, violence, trying to commit suicide
- behavioural stress outcomes - i.e. limited job performance, hypertension and migraine
- taking the overriding responsibility for child care and domestic work resulting in conflicting demands, stress, divorce, a rise in single-parent households and emancipated females choosing to have a child out of wedlock
- post-traumatic stress disorder connected to failure to achieve promotion, job loss, perceived unfairness, hurt, humiliation - resulting in panic attacks, insomnia, increased jumpiness, prone to mistakes, absent-mindedness, absenteeism, weak concentration, isolation, tearfulness, personal relationships, outbursts and aggression.

Socio-behavioural dysfunctions

People experiencing stress could:

- cry easily
- experience nightmares, aggression, job dissatisfaction, nervous laughter
- mental exhaustion
- feel depressed
- feel unable to cope
- feel helpless
- feel incompetent
- have guilt feelings
- have cynical views, negative attitudes, deteriorating relationships
- have violent tantrums
- behave irrationally
- be absent-minded

- be hypersensitive to criticism
- experience mental blocks
- behave impulsively
- have eating disorders
- get excited easily
- be restless, tremble, have impaired speech
- use alcohol/smoke/indulge in food
- suffer panic attacks, insomnia
- try to commit suicide.

3.5.2 Physical outcomes

Personality plays a crucial role in the causal factors of diseases. Individuals who tend to suppress emotions like fear and anger and act ineffectively to stressful situations tend to experience feelings of helplessness and depression that make them prone to illnesses.

Research evidence by Eysenck (1996:193), Greer (1983:535-543) and Rosch (1979:187-212) confirms the tangibility of causal connections between personality and stress, on the one hand, and illnesses on the other. Davidson and Cooper (1992:73) and Solomon (1993:1-9) indicate that personality characteristics and an enduring coping style can weaken an individual's immune system. Emotional disturbances and distress even have an impact on the intensity of disease.

Migraine headaches, for example, develop in hereditary susceptible individuals when they try to control feelings of anxiety and animosity by means of intense activity and hard work. Personality traits of these individuals are conscientiousness, meticulousness, perfectionism and resentment. Investigations revealed that stress-inducing interviews on personal topics, which cause guilt feelings could bring on migraine

headaches in women. Recognising the reason for their feelings, and altering their attitudes would result in a decrease in the frequency and intensity of the headaches (Wolf & Goodell, 1968:46-47). There is also a scientific dispute about the nature of Myalgic Encephalomyelitis (ME), also known as chronic fatigue syndrome or yuppie flu. Exhaustion experienced by these sufferers, mirror the third stage of Selye's model of the stress procedure (*cf.* 3.3.1). Researchers believe that stress certainly is one of many factors that trigger ME, an illness which seems to last an average of 6 years with symptoms ranging from chronic fatigue to memory loss (*Sunday Times*, 1998a:3).

Individuals who are perturbed by factors that prevent them from accomplishing the high standards they set for themselves, and those who are hard driving, achievement-oriented perfectionists, for whom success is a vital part of their self-image, are prone to suffer from chronic stress. When personal resources are exhausted, continual demands jeopardize the realisation of set standards, and emotional distress, that weakens the immune system and cause illness, occurs (Lewis, 1996:234- 238).

According to Birkett (1998:362), Cooper (1996:4), Serebro (1996:224-225), Pines and Aronson (1988:12-16) and Cox (1983:92), individuals subjected to unfair or prejudiced criticism may experience physical reactions, such as muscular tension and pain in the head, neck and shoulders, dryness of the mouth and throat, excessive production of acidic gastric juice, increased blood pressure, as well as increased or irregular heart palpitations. If the above mentioned reactions occur continuously over a long period of time, it could lead to a stroke or a myocardial infarction could be the result. Stress could also lead to people becoming accident prone, and vulnerable to illness, experiencing faintness, dizziness, nausea, frequent urination, headaches, chest and back pains, numbness and tingling in parts of limbs, to difficulty in breathing, as well as having recurrent attacks of colds, flu or virus infections and weariness.

As a multitude of diseases related to stress are mentioned in the literature, this study will only focus on some of the more well-known illnesses experienced by individuals.

◇ Inflammatory diseases

Maladaptation plays an important role in psychological and nervous diseases. Rheumatic diseases, skin and eye diseases and certain allergies are distinctive diseases of maladaptation. Severe headaches and psychological collapse are caused by occupations and chores to which a person is ill adapted. Even spells of paralysis have been found to occur in patients when an excess of hormones of the adrenal gland is produced (Serebro, 1996:360-361; Selye, 1956:165-171).

◇ Digestive diseases

The gastrointestinal area is vulnerable to be affected by general stress in the form of frustration, ongoing tension and poor adjustment to work or occupation. These conditions may lead to gastric and duodenal ulcers, indigestion and vomiting (Cooper, 1996:5; Serebro, 1996:230-234; Selye, 1956:178).

Spastic colon syndrome (irritable bowel syndrome) is a chronic gastrointestinal disorder caused by lifestyle, diet and emotional conditions, whereby the smooth muscles of the colon wall go into a very painful spasm leading to constipation, often accompanied by fatigue, sweating, shortness of breath, palpitations and hyperventilation. Spastic colon syndrome is, together with the common cold, regarded as a main cause of job absenteeism (Serebro, 1996:230-269).

◆ Muscular diseases/dysfunctions

Striated muscle diseases that could be caused by severe stress are the following: spasms of back and neck muscles, endocrine spasm and bruxism (grinding of teeth and jaw spasm). Stress could also impact on the smooth muscle of the human body, that might result in muscular diseases such as spastic colon, bronchial asthma, oesophageal spasm and coronary artery spasm. In addition, ongoing stress may also result in numbness (semi-paralysis) and tingling in the arms and limbs of an individual (Serebro, 1996:59-63; Pines & Aronson, 1988:12-16).

◆ Neurological dysfunctions/diseases

Emotional tension caused by stress at home, at work, and physical and social stress such as fear of violence and crime could result in a person developing high blood pressure (hypertension), which may lead to a stroke, dizziness and/or headaches (Serebro, 1996:216; Patel, 1991:18-23).

Neurotransmitters of the central nervous system, such as norepinephrine and serotonin as well as the opiate substances, regulate human behaviour. These neurotransmitters are the biological substances of stress which form the link between the brain and stress (Sweeney, Gold, Pottash & Davies, 1980:113). The units composing the nervous system communicate with each other by means of these chemical transmitters. A chemical imbalance of adrenaline, serotonin, dopamine and the opiates may lead to strain/stress in the form of insomnia, hyperactivity, bad memory and paranoia (*Die Rapport*, 1998:7; Smith, 1993:42-43).

◆ Cardiovascular diseases

According to the literature, it seems as if individuals with the type A

personality are more prone to coronary diseases, because of their excessive drive, subjection to time restrictions, persistent desire for recognition, habit of carrying out many physical and mental functions, competitiveness and financial frustrations (*cf.* 3.3.2). Obesity, excessive smoking, high cholesterol levels, high blood pressure and chronic emotional stress also add to these people's proneness to heart attacks. The coronary prone individuals are mostly involved in roles that are changing and therefore require the capability to adapt (Serebro, 1996:159; Rosenman, 1996:449-454; Cox, 1983:98-99).

◆ Respiratory diseases

Excessive emotional or stressful psycho-social factors may result in an individual experiencing hyperventilation and bronchial asthma attacks (Cooper, 1996:5; Serebro, 1996:270-271; Cox, 1983:100-101).

◆ Metabolic diseases

Metabolic diseases are readjustment diseases that may be caused by the relationship between ongoing stress and the adaptive hormones. Examples of these metabolic diseases are weight loss (loss of appetite), obesity, dysfunctional thyroid (goitres), liver diseases, gout, and certain cancers (Cooper, 1996:5; Selye, 1956:182-187) (*cf.* 2.4.3.2. f).

During intense stressful experiences, the body needs large amounts of calories in order to resist the stress. These calories are derived from the body tissues in order to maintain health, thereby causing weight loss. People who do not derive satisfaction from their occupation, or from associating with other people, may experience stress which may manifest in the form of severe obesity. People responding to stress through overeating, damage themselves not only by deformation, but they increase the possibility of developing adaptation diseases, for example hypertension and diabetes (*cf.* 2.4.3.2. f).

Diabetes is not, as is generally believed only caused by a lack of insulin, but also by the abundant formation of adaptive hormones which are inclined to raise the blood sugar levels. Hyperthyroidism (goitre) may also be caused by stress following a disturbing mental experience. This happens when the thyroid gland enlarges and becomes overactive due to the influence of hormones, as stress activates the pituitary and adrenal glands to secrete hormones, in order to decrease the negative wear and tear results of stress (Serebro, 1996:38-39; Cotton, 1990:19; Selye, 1956:183-254).

The body has a general ability to stay well even during extreme stressful periods, resistance is broken down by shock and the consequential drop in both blood pressure and temperature, and this might even result in death. Shock may also lead to the typical phases of the alarm reaction, whereby gastrointestinal ulcers start bleeding (*cf.* 3.3.1). This explains why these diseases are referred to as diseases of adaptation, as they represent a collapse of the body's defences as a result of severe ongoing stress (Powell & Enright, 1993:19; Selye, 1956:187).

◆ Sexual dysfunctions

Acute and ongoing stress could cause sexual complications such as the shrinking of sex glands, irregular menstruation cycles in women and a significant drop in the fertility of women. Severe stress leading to anxiety and depression, may also cause sexual dysfunction, for example frigidity, impotence and dysmenorrhea (menstrual spasms). Some men experiencing stress may resort to physical or verbal abuse, or lack of consideration towards women, which could destroy harmony in a relationship, often causing women to become celibate in order to avoid the stress of sexual relationships (Cooper, 1996:5; Serebro, 1996:280-297; Selye, 1956:176).

TABLE 3.2 Physical outcomes due to gender stereotypes and roles

| Category | Outcomes |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| (i) Inflammatory diseases | <p>Individuals that are not well adapted to their occupation and menial routine work may be susceptible to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ weakening of the immune system ▫ colds and flu ▫ rheumatism ▫ allergic reactions ▫ skin and eye diseases ▫ severe headaches/migraine ▫ stints of paralysis ▫ ME (yuppie flu) |
| (ii) Digestive diseases (abdominal) | <p>Frustration, prevailing tension, lifestyle, emotional circumstances and inadequate ad-justment to job of individual appear to result in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ dry mouth and throat ▫ ulcers ▫ indigestion and heartburn ▫ vomiting ▫ spastic colon (one of main causes of absenteeism) ▫ diarrhoea ▫ constipation - accompanied by shortness of breath, sweating, palpitations and hyperventilation ▫ widespread abdominal pain ▫ diabetes ▫ frequency of need to urinate |

| | |
|--|--|
| <p>(iii) Muscular dysfunctions/diseases</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ back pain ▫ numbness and prickling sensation in arms and legs ▫ muscular tension/neck and shoulders ▫ muscular twitches ▫ gnashing of teeth ▫ arthritis |
| <p>(iv) Neurological dysfunctions/diseases</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ dizziness ▫ migraine/headaches ▫ stroke |
| <p>(v) Cardiovascular diseases</p> | <p>People in changing roles and with Type A personality traits such as exorbitant drive, drive for acknowledgment, inclination of performing many mental and physical tasks, aggressive-ness, willingness to compete, acute emotional distress and financial frustration seem to be more prone to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ heart diseases – cholesterol ▫ high blood pressure ▫ excessive smoking ▫ obesity ▫ heart palpitations ▫ haemorrhoids |
| <p>vi) Respiratory diseases</p> | <p>Individuals experiencing exorbitant emotional stress may experience :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ hyperventilation ▫ asthma/coughs ▫ breathing problems |
| <p>vii) Metabolic diseases</p> | <p>Individuals that do not experience job satisfaction could experience:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ obesity, hypertension, diabetes |

| | |
|--------------------------|--|
| viii) Sexual dysfunction | <p>Metabolic diseases are characterised by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ loss of appetite and weight ▫ goitre, liver diseases, gout and certain cancers ▫ Acute stress in females appears to cause : ▫ irregular menstrual cycles ▫ shrinking of the sex glands ▫ frigidity, impotence, and menstrual cramps ▫ whilst acute stress in males could lead to : ▫ impotence ▫ lack of consideration ▫ verbal or physical abuse |
|--------------------------|--|

3.6 THE MANAGEMENT OF STRESS

Cooper (1996:6) reasons that in most developed and developing countries abrupt basic changes are taking place in the environments in which people work, as well as regarding the manner in which work is organised and managed. Simultaneously there has been a great increase in communication, education and expectations, that has led to changed lifestyles and consequent 'lifestyle diseases', such as mental ill health and cardiac diseases. Cox (1983:81) believes that an increase in the complexities facing human society may also lead to an increase in stress-induced aggression.

Levi (1996:7) argues that a holistic approach should be followed in coping with stress. A holistic approach implies that peoples' symptoms and illnesses, their causes and consequences, should be appraised and that people should be taught to manage stress (Oates, 1985:9-11).

Louw and Edwards (1997:647) argue that although there are people that are able to handle stress, there are also many that believe that they can keep their stress under control, yet still reveal signs of stress mismanagement. According to Davidson and Cooper (1992:79) stress is associated with

helplessness and the inability to cope, which makes it very hard for the *stigma* attached to stress to die. It is therefore essential to make people aware of the fact that stress is an integral part of life. From the literature it appears as if management training programmes, wellness and counselling programmes are essential to combat stress.

Stressful events in life can be handled by most individuals whose lives are relatively calm, but when a person suffers from severe stress, these happenings can cause an emotional crisis. The people who are most *vulnerable* are those who tend to be anxious, perfectionists, over ambitious and courageous, and those who are driven by the fear of 'what if?' (Rasmusson, 1998:2 of 4).

According to Davidson (1998:3 of 5) the human race has crossed the line where the demands exceed the limits. People are gradually losing their ability to cope with the myriad of demands facing them, as the human being has progressed much faster for the last few decades, than previously. Therefore, humans are not only facing time hurdles, but also mental, emotional and physical barriers. An individual cannot eat more than one dinner at a time, drive more than one vehicle at a time, sleep in more than one bed at a time, or speed up bodily functions in order to be in control of it all. Every person is thus experiencing stress, and in many cases severe stress, although not necessarily the same kind of stress.

In order to comprehend and gain insight into stress management it is necessary to clarify stress management concepts and definitions, major coping strategies, interventions and active intervention strategies.

3.6.1 Concepts and definitions

In order to define the management of stress, various concepts and definitions will be scrutinised.

- Any effort, whether conscious, or unconscious, healthy or unhealthy, to weaken, prevent
- or eliminate stressors, or to tolerate their impacts in the least harmful manner (Louw & Edwards, 1997:647).
- In order to try and counteract the astronomical toll that stress takes on people, there are various methods available to individuals and organisations to manage stress and reduce its destructive effects. Any program that cuts down stress by mobilising and assisting people to understand the stress response, recognise stressors, and to take action by applying coping skills in order to minimise the severe impact of stress, is referred to as stress management (Fontana, 1994:26-27, Byrum-Robinson, 1993:264).
- Something must be put in the place of frequent worrying thoughts this is called deviation, as it is of no use to tell people not to worry. Examples of deviation are exercising or a gruelling task which needs a lot of attention, and may cause worry to fade; by consciously concentrating on pleasant thoughts, negative thoughts may be cancelled, as well as by using a technique to keep the memory vacant for facts that are truly important to the person involved (Selye, 1956:268).
- Adaptive stress management reduces stress and promotes long-term health (exercise) (Everly, 1989:44).
- Empowerment of individuals against stress and burnout (Urniker, 1994:29-30).
- Getting personal power through psycho-cybernetics (science of mind control) (Urniker, 1994:29-30).
- Improving self-image through self-improvement strategies, enhancing expertise, improving internal dialogue, showering of subconscious with positive affirmations (Urniker, 1994:29-30).
- Having sympathetic people to talk to (Cockburn, 1996:402-403).
- Nutritional and general health practices, relying on rational and

- objective resources to cope (Goeller, 1995: 105-113).
- Social support prevents possible maladjustments (Du Toit, 1988:75).
 - Acknowledging personality Type A and workaholic tendencies, and implementing appropriate balancing measures (Terrill, 1993:9-93).
 - In order to cope with the fast pace of life and stress a person can either change the situation or their perception of, or their adjustment to the situation, whereby both these processes will have an effect on their health and state of well being (Cooper, 1996:4).
 - Assessment intensifies the need to differentiate between the perceived objective strength of a stressor and the degree of distress felt by a person. (Mc Cormick, 1996:36).
 - Humans have to satisfy their smallest needs and ambitions, this should be in harmony with their hereditary structure, thus it is a fundamental biological need for human beings to express themselves and to fulfill their purpose in life. In all these actions humans pass through the surprise (alarm reaction), mastery (stage of resistance), fatigue (stage of exhaustion) and consequently either rest, with a repetition of the cycle, or eventually will die if there is no intervention (Selye, 1956:200-204).
 - Banishing unnecessary stressors from an individuals' daily living; not allowing certain neutral events to become stressors, developing a proficiency in dealing with conditions that a person does not want to or cannot avoid, and seeing relaxation or diversion from the demand (Selye, 1980:111-441).
 - Learning to recognise hyperstress, when people have exceeded the limits of their adaptability or hypostress when they suffer from lack of self-realisation (physical immobility, boredom, sensory deprivation) (Selye, 1980:141).
 - Rest is necessary if the whole body is subjected to too much stress, but if there is too much stress in any one part of a person's body s/he needs diversion, which is not necessarily a pleasing and calming diversion (Selye, 1956:267-269).

- Excessive general stress by doing too much in general, causes stress which can be counteracted by relax/rest/sleep and to learn how to enjoy laziness (Selye, 1956:270).

Stress management can be defined as

- ❑ any attempt/or programme/or activity, to prevent, intervene, weaken, eradicate or tolerate the impact of stress;
- ❑ actions which counteract the astronomical toll that stress takes of people;
- ❑ taking of action by applying various coping strategies and techniques;
- ❑ the minimisation of the excruciating impact of stress;
- ❑ the changing of situations and perceptions;
- ❑ the enhancement of personal power through mind-control;
- ❑ the development of the capability to exercise self control;
- ❑ the implementation of balancing measures for the different personality types;
- ❑ the improvement of ones self-image;
- ❑ be the bombardment of the unconscious with positive statements;
- ❑ replace chronic worrying thoughts through a process of deviation;
- ❑ being adaptive;
- ❑ learning relaxation techniques.

Stress management will be investigated in order to comprehend how it functions at both individual and organisational level. As there are innumerable management/ coping strategies, techniques and procedures for managing stress, only some of the major techniques will be highlighted for the purpose of this study.

3.6.2 Major coping strategies

Coping strategies can be applied to individuals in an organisation and could become be the responsibility of the organisations themselves. In order to

improve and/or avoid negative health and well-being outcomes, it is necessary to identify and be aware of the impact of type A behavioural patterns.

Personality traits are related to coping styles and to avoid negative health outcomes specific mannerisms and attitudes are extremely crucial. It is thus important that diagnosis should take place and it is in this regard that personality types (*cf.* 3.3.2) can be distinguished. Although the Type A personality traits (*cf.* 3.3.2) are stereotypically associated with masculine characteristics and are unconnected with feminine stereotypical behaviour (Basow, 1992:200; Kobasa, 1987:308-329), it happens that when males and females occupy positions with the same status, Type A personality traits come to the fore more in males than in females, but females in high-status careers tend to exhibit the Type A behaviour pattern even more than the Type B pattern (Davidson & Cooper, 1992:76-78; Kelly & Houston, 1985:1067-1079). In order to counteract specific behaviours involved in this behaviour pattern (Type A), it is necessary to make individuals aware of the degree to which they suffer from *chronic* Type A behaviour, as this diagnosis would be the first step in managing a person's *internal* stress (Davidson & Cooper, 1992:77).

It is essential for individuals to have a fundamental knowledge of how personality can impact on stress-health relationships and as a greater sensitivity towards self-awareness is developed, individuals in the organisation start to develop feelings of control which are critical factors in the resistance of stress (Davidson & Cooper, 1992:80). Louw and Edwards (1997: 647-657), Smith (1993:245-266), Davidson and Cooper (1992:77), Friedman and Rosenman (1974) suggest that stress management programmes should introduce helpful practices to protect a person against stress, such as listening to other people and ceasing to hasten other peoples' speech rhythms, thinking about what one says, changing obsessional behaviour by deliberating visiting places where one has to wait, evaluating the causes of

Type A behaviour, slowing down the pace, broadening life activities, managing time and reducing ill-will towards others. Quick, Nelson, Matuszek, Whittington and Quick (1996:281-282) advocate the establishment of support systems for individuals by providing socialisation efforts, mentoring systems, networking programs and rewards.

Cooper (1996:6) comments on contemporary stress management strategies, by indicating that programmes should equip individuals to change their environment to suit their personal abilities and needs, and that the organisation at the same time should enable and encourage these changes.

As briefly referred to above, organisations also have a responsibility towards the individual, and in order to honour this responsibility they should, for example encourage team building exercises whereby relationships can be developed. Employees should be educated on the benefits of social support and the negative influences of social isolation, whilst special care must be given to high-risk, groups for example new-comers (Quick, *et al.*1996:281-282).

In order to prevent and deal with stress at various levels, use can be made of primary, secondary and tertiary strategy levels (Roney & Cooper, 1997:35-40). These stages will be discussed briefly.

3.6.2.1 Primary stage

In order to diminish stress directly, the stressor(s) that deal with the *origin* of stress should be reduced, this method is referred to as the primary strategy. Before intervening with stress management, it is necessary to differentiate between group differences, such as people at different stages of their careers and in different positions (McCormick, 1996:36). Scientifically designed organisation-based stress-management programs should be implemented and evaluated in organisations in order to reduce the stress levels of the

employees, as organizational stressors could counter an individual's efforts to cope (Cooper, 1996:111; Murphy, 1987:215-227; Shinn, Rosario, March & Chestnut, 1984:864-876).

In order to *eliminate* the root of stress, an audit or prior diagnosis has to be made in an organisation in order to reveal stressors and their outcomes. Individuals that are vulnerable to stress should be identified in organisations as this process may not only benefit the individual, but also the organisation in terms of finances, productivity, improved health of individuals, and job satisfaction (Davidson & Cooper, 1992:80).

This prior stress diagnosis pertains to getting rid of and minimizing stress origins, in order to create a healthy, positive work environment for employees. Therefore, the individuals' personal stress levels, their susceptibility to stress and how effectively they cope with stress in their present circumstances should be assessed before they start practising any coping techniques.

Employees generally feel too *embarrassed* to admit to experiencing stress, as stress is mostly perceived as personal weakness and incompetence, creating a social *stigma*. Instead, stress should be recognised and dealt with in an effective manner as it is a feature of modern industrial and technological lifestyles. It thus is essential to create a climate where stress is recognised with its debilitating effects, both psychologically and physiologically. Mental stress is not selective, it can affect any individual of any age, gender or social status at any time. Organisations must therefore take prompt, distinct steps to eliminate the stigma surrounding stress by informing and introducing self-development programmes for their employees. In order to implement the latter it is essential that *management skills* must be developed in order that they can create a supportive atmosphere (Roney & Cooper, 1997:37-38).

Cultural norms (*cf.* 4.4.1.1, 4.4.1.2 [i], [ii]) that promote stress by instilling

guilt feelings in employees must be torn down. Open communication is essential, proactive steps must be taken to identify additional stressors that can arise from changes taking place in the organisation, whilst inspiring employees to participate actively in key positions to reduce stress in the changing organisation (Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 1998:220; Roney & Cooper, 1997:37-38; Mills, 1994:67-87; Davidson & Cooper, 1992:76-78).

3.6.2.2 Secondary stage

The literature differentiates between intervening and active coping strategies. Intervening strategies attempt to change appraisals of stressors by means of various strategies like avoidance, adjusting stress-inducing behaviour patterns like Type -A behaviour, and developing an individuals' ability to deal with demands (Louw & Edwards, 1997:650).

During this stage the focus is mainly on active coping strategies such as awareness and skills training, and therefore stress management courses have to assist individuals to recognize stress in themselves and others, and how to develop their coping skills and increase their resilience to stress by developing a personal stress control plan. As there are varying techniques, assertiveness building, effective communication, delegation, problem-solving skills, life skills such as time-management, priority ranking, emotional control, environmental control, stress inoculation and relaxation, image projection and social support should be included in stress management programmes. For females, in particular, programmes also have to include aspects such as dealing with male chauvinism and female stereotyping.

3.6.2.2.1 Management skills - training

Secondary stage strategies imply active efforts to defeat a stressor through training individuals in the organisation in the following skills to manage

stress:

□ **Assertiveness**

According to Patel (1991: 211-220) individuals that do not know how to express their feelings, ideas and needs in an effective or assertive way, such as not being able to say 'no' when necessary, often experience a great deal of stress by bottling up their feelings.

Frustration and a low self-esteem are caused by a lack of assertiveness when people push their way past individuals by becoming aggressive towards them. Assertiveness is the achievement of a win-win situation, whereby an individual perfects the art of getting his/her own wants and needs met without impeding others from having theirs satisfied. Assertiveness also entails a style of communication that is open, honest, sincere and direct by focusing on the real issue without being side-tracked. Assertive techniques must not be confused with aggressive behaviour, that is an expression of feelings that are domineering, belittling, overbearing, and inappropriate (Flanders, 1994:47-53; Smith, 1993:246-247; Sitterly & Duke, 1988:140-149). It is thus crucial for managers, especially females, to receive assertiveness training in order to enhance their managerial skills and self-esteem by taking responsibility for their actions (Burke & McKeen, 1994:72). The above-mentioned strategies will contribute to an individual's ability to cope with stress.

■ **Time-management**

The perceptions people have of time is something that must be altered. By following the 'time is money' comparison, people soon realise the value of effective time-management. In order to become a more effective manager, time wastage must be minimised by planning what exactly needs to be done. Deadlines to complete tasks must be set and personal progress must be

monitored to guarantee that a person meets each deadline. 'Time thieves' such as interruptions by trivial staff questions must be identified and effective time saving strategies should be put in place (Hellriegel *et al.* 1998:219; Flanders, 1994:28; Smith, 1993:250-251; Sitterly & Duke, 1988:223-224).

As a result of extra responsibilities at home, females face a greater time-management challenge than males. Time-management skills will enable females to make the most of each day's opportunities, both at home and at work, and enable them to reduce tension. However, good time-management needs to be practised as experts estimate that for each planned hour, a person saves three hours (Sitterly & Duke, 1988:223-224).

□ **Priority ranking**

Everyone sees certain tasks as more important than others, however, in order to set priorities a person must make choices and rank priorities from the most important to the least important. Priorities will guide the individual in what must be completed first in order to achieve the desired end products. Once a person realises where time is wasted they can work on skills to sidestep these time-traps and reduce stress (Hellriegel, *et al.* 1998: 218-219; Sitterly & Duke, 1988:226-227).

People should be aware of intrinsic time traps (personal traits) that are subtle habits which prevent effective time-management. These intrinsic time traps include procrastination, inadequate delegation, poor scheduling, lack of self-discipline, undertaking too many things at the same time (unrealistic expectations), inadequate planning and the lack of suitable skills. However, most of these traits and habits are learned behaviour which can be 'unlearned' through training (Louw & Edwards, 1997:650; Sitterly & Duke, 1988:227).

▣ Emotional control

Emotions invariably influence a person's behaviour, while simultaneously, they enable people to understand and associate with fellow human beings. Individuals need to understand their emotions, as well the manner in which emotions impact on their behaviour, in order to make the emotions work *for* them instead of *against* them. Thus self-doubt can become one of the most devastating emotions, as it could reduce an individual's productivity, make one doubt in one's own judgement resulting in the repetition of a task to ensure that mistakes have not been made, cause a fear to take risks, and could result in perfectionism. If emotions are not controlled, it could result in a number of negative behaviour patterns which could enhance stress and consequently impact on a person's health (Hellriegel, *et al.* 1998:219; Flanders, 1994:25-26; Cranwell-Ward, 1993:107).

▣ Environmental control

A cluttered desk reflects a cluttered mind, and is not perceived as a sign of genius, while a calm, collected manner should rather be cultivated in order to look efficient and effective. The latter will give the impression of being in control of the self and the work (Flanders, 1994:29), enhancing self-confidence, which may improve a person's stress resilience.

▣ Effective communication

According to Case (1994:144-152) and Fontana (1994:37) poor communication is a crucial barrier to interpersonal relationships, as due to misunderstandings, expected results might not be achieved. Bad communication will make individuals hesitant to deal with another person, as they might fear a duplication of mistakes. It is therefore crucial that a person must be trained in sound communication skills in order to avoid problems like misinterpreting action. Non-verbal communication, like

body-language, tone and voice volume, is crucial as the 'language' and behaviour patterns used by females and males, as well as individuals from different cultures, can differ tremendously and each one transmits a particular message. It is thus essential to develop good communication skills/good talking and listening skills, so that the message could be transmitted clearly, preventing situations that could result in stressful events (Louw & Edwards, 1997:650; Case, 1994:148-156; Davidson & Cooper, 1992:77).

▣ Keeping oneself informed

Promotion opportunities are dangerously curbed if individuals are not kept informed of wider issues, developments, national and international opinions and trends. Promotion often depends on a person's level of informedness. Stressful situations, as in an interview, might cause an applicant, who is not able to handle stress, to 'freeze', resulting in a person appearing uninformed or forgetful. During stressful conditions people could thus experience a mental freeze-up and will not be able to retrieve information, resulting in embarrassment, amplifying stress levels (Flanders, 1994:29; Cranwell-Ward, 1993:66).

▣ Delegation

Managers often prefer to do all their work personally, as it seems easier to do so, they feel they know the work and trust themselves to do it correctly. However, if a manager does not delegate, the work at management level might deteriorate, due to work the managers overload, which may resemble incompetence. Work overload might result in mental and physical exhaustion intensifying stress levels and possibly triggering ill health. As delegation as a skill requires practice, managers should be trained in assigning work to others and allowing subordinates to make decisions in order to reduce their workload and to avoid negative outcomes (Louw & Edwards, 1997:650; Fontana, 1994:49, 73; Cranwell-Ward, 1993:121;

Sitterly & Duke, 1988:240).

▣ Problem-solving

In order to be an effective problem-solver, a manager needs to be rational, logical and able to focus on a problem; however, when a person is overstressed it becomes more difficult to make decisions, and such a person is more likely to become emotionally involved and incompetent (Cranwell-Ward, 1993: 66).

According to Sitterly and Duke (1988:204-210) all managers are faced with daily challenges of solving problems, yet, women face additional barriers, as they traditionally have had far less experience in problem-solving. It must be kept in mind that decision-making skills develop with practice. The first skill to be acquired in problem-solving, is to develop a positive attitude, to accept that solving problems is part of the job, and to realise there is rarely only one appropriate option in solving a problem. Feelings must always be considered in any decision that is made by a manager, although it is not the most important factor. Decision-making takes time and energy, therefore adequate time should be scheduled in order to avoid hasty decisions. Managers need to assess how every decision will affect the person(s) that is (are) who is involved, as very few decisions satisfy everyone (Cranwell-Ward, 1993: 41-49). Due to females' traditional lack problem-solving experience, it is crucial for them to master problem-solving skills, which could enable them to become emotionally detached from stress, by viewing problems more objectively (Patel, 1991:340-241).

▣ Stress inoculation training

According to Louw and Edwards (1997:660) stress inoculation training is grounded on the assumption that individuals could develop resistance to the impact of stressors. This is a process where individuals actually are

inoculated against stress by enabling them to prepare for possible setbacks by using coping skills that would build up a type of immunity to stress; however, more emphasis is placed on changing beliefs and self-instruction.

Stress inoculation training thus is the preparation of individuals to confront and handle stressors, to cope with feelings of being overwhelmed, and to enable individuals to evaluate their coping efforts and provide self-rewards (Smith, 1993:261).

■ Image projection

Stress can cause feelings of worthlessness, manifesting in, e.g. neat people becoming untidy; however, according to Cooper (1996:97) the risks of stress could be curtailed by enhancing one's self-esteem. One of the ways to enhance self-esteem, is to dress for success. The image projected by persons is important for their self-esteem, and it also impacts on the way that others view a person, therefore persons should make the most of their personality, and project the right image. First impressions are lasting and may often be wrong, therefore it is very important for individuals to make a good first impression on people they meet for the first time, as dress plays a very important part in the way persons feel about themselves (Flanders, 1994:48-49).

■ Social support

Social support is defined as being cared for and loved, appreciated and valued, belonging to a network of communication and mutual commitments (Cobb, 1976:300-314). It is presumed that interpersonal relationships in the form of social support form the basis for human well-being.

The formation of social support networks or a social support "bank" should be encouraged both on an individual and organisational basis, as it acts as a

buffer against stress. Females seem to make more use of social support systems and seem to use these more effectively than males do. However, females' involvement in an immense network could boomerang, as sharing the problems of others can actually add to stress (Fontana, 1994:109; Cranwell-Ward, 1993:47; Smith, 1993:23-25).

According to Patel (1991:305) social support reduces stress directly and improves resistance to illness, therefore individuals that do not have social support to cover their various needs, become more vulnerable to stress. The most meaningful social support results in constructive self-evaluation, renewed self-esteem, environmental and control mastery, and feelings of self-respect (Bruhn, 1996:254- 257; Cooper, 1996:97; Fleury, 1993:134-144; Cohen & Wills, 1985:310-357).

According to Baider, Kaufman, Ever-Hadani and De-Nour (1996:292), research evidence implies that there are gender differences in coping with stress. Females and males often cope differently with stress, as females tend to turn to others and males tend to withdraw socially in times of stress. Females tend to experience stress emotionally and dwell on stressful feelings, whereas males tend to draw away from stress through activities and depersonalisation. Depersonalisation could be linked to factors that may have detrimental influences on health like the bigger consumption of caffeine, alcohol and nicotine.

■ Stereotype sensitivity

It is crucial to include stereotype awareness and how to handle female stereotyping as well as male chauvinism in training programmes for females as a strategy to combat stress that is caused by fore-mentioned elements (Sitterly & Duke, 1988:140-155).

It is expected of females to act in a competent manner on-the-job to

counteract chauvinistic perceptions. It is expected of them to refrain from becoming defensive or bitter, and to keep avoiding getting into an argument by keeping conversations rational. With practice an individual can distinguish between sexism and merely figures of speech. Good judgement is necessary whether to confront a chauvinist directly or to wait for privacy or even ignore the matter. By acting in a professional manner, a female can discourage chauvinism. Do not try to become 'one of the boys' and try to blend in by adopting a non-assertive attitude. Female managers often experience stress as a result of their own and society's concept of female managers, which could also result in job dissatisfaction (Sitterly & Duke, 1988:150-155; Davidson & Cooper, 1983:192-203).

Davidson and Cooper (1983:199- 203) recommend that females should help themselves against female stereotyping, harassment and chauvinism, by insisting on uncalled sexist remarks to be withdrawn in public, or by contacting the offender later, pointing out that such comments are uncalled for and painful, or in serious cases, by reporting sexual and emotional harassment. Individuals should also refrain from hiding behind their femaleness, e.g. they should not resort to tears, and should display a sense of humour.

From the above it can be deduced that stress coping strategies can:

- be applied successfully by individuals;
- be applied by groups of people in an organisation;
- be primary in nature - reducing stress directly;
- be secondary in nature - focusing on skills-training and awareness;
- be tertiary in nature - through referring to professional counsellors;
- be active by reducing stressors;
- include strategies such as
 - time management;
 - priority ranking;

- emotional control;
- practising to be imperturbable;
- building self-esteem;
- empowerment to take risks;
- the cultivation of realistic expectations;
- the avoidance of procrastination;
- the cultivation of competence;
- learning sound communication skills and listening skills as well as transmitting positive body-language;
- staying informed;
- acquiring delegation skills;
- acquiring effective management skills;
- expressing emotions, ideas and needs effectively;
- establishing sound relationships;
- developing a positive attitude;
- acquiring problem-solving skills;
- considering other people's feelings;
- developing commitment;
- preparing individuals against setbacks in life;
- changing of beliefs and perceptions;
- projecting the 'right' image through dressing;
- making the most of a particular personality;
- accepting oneself;
- creating social support 'banks';
- constructive self-evaluation;
- standing for personal rights;
- acting in a professional manner;
- not trying to act like a male;
- reporting harassment and inequity;
- asking publicly/privately for the withdrawal of sexist remarks ;
- promoting the image of a competent manager;
- focusing on the issue;

- improving physical and psychological well-being.

3.6.2.1.2 Relaxation skills training

According to Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1998:219-212) and Cooper (1996:5-6) an individuals' adjustability to stress or coping abilities can be strengthened through personal exercise, meditation and relaxation procedures. Health promoting activities such as advice on dietary (sugar, salt, cholesterol), alcohol and smoke control, lifestyle management, coping with environmental stressors and exercise reduce stress and anxiety (Roney & Cooper, 1997:36-54). Some of these stress and anxiety reducing techniques will now be discussed.

▣ Breathing exercises

According to Fontana (1994:106-107) and Cranwell-Ward (1993: 115) breathing exercises can be used to gain control during stressful situations. By taking a deep breath and releasing the air slowly, a person is unconsciously practising a breathing exercise. By focusing on breathing in and out very slowly, a person can gain control over the automatic functioning of their muscles during stressful conditions. The oxygen that reaches the brain will clear a person's head and have a calming effect. Stress-related disorders like hyperventilation entail taking in too much oxygen, therefore the overall aim is to increase control of breathing (Smith, 1993:232; Patel, 1991:149-158).

▣ Bio-feedback exercises

This is a technique to direct a person's body to do one's will through the regulation of deranged biological functions by connecting the person to electronic instruments which measure certain physiological functions. Brain waves, heart rate, stomach acidity, blood pressure and even pain can be controlled voluntarily (Patel, 1991:190-191). Bio-feedback thus is a

technique whereby an individual blocks out all sounds by focusing on their bodies. During this process muscles are contracted and relaxed gradually over the whole body, reducing not only muscle tension, but also generating a relaxed feeling. This technique reduces tension, migraine and headaches (Travers & Cooper, 1996:162).

▣ Autogenic training

Autogenic training refers to messages used by an individual's mind to control their bodies in order to bring about relaxation. By repeating phrases mentally, individuals can give themselves self- or auto-suggestion; for example, the suggestion of heaviness in the limbs in fact leads to the sensation of heaviness equated with relaxation (Patel, 1991:177). These messages thus are messages of encouragement that will relieve feelings of frustration, enabling people to take control of themselves by acting directly (Smith, 1993:233-234; Sitterly & Duke, 1988:194).

▣ Conventional medicines versus alternative medicines

Natural, herbal and homeopathic medicines are being used more and more today, whereas these medicines were not so prominent in pharmacies in the previous years. A five-flower remedy, containing impatiens, cherry plum, clematis, star of Bethlehem and rock rose, is a popular remedy for stress and shock, whereas the African potato and St. John's wort extract are used for depression. Echinacea extracted from a purple cone flower has been used for ages by native Americans as an immune booster and a cure for flu and viral infections. These natural remedies are increasingly used by the public as alternatives to antibiotics and conventional medicines and to escape the side-effects of conventional medicines (*Sunday Times*, 1998b:10).

■ Healthy diet and lifestyle

Indulging in bad eating habits, such as eating too much or eating the wrong food, drinking coffee, tea or alcohol in excess, as well as depending on medication, sleeping pills and tranquilisers, increases the individual's susceptibility to stress. Stress resistance can be increased by adopting healthy habits and by taking correct nutrition with sufficient fibre, avoiding fried foods and rather eat steamed food, cutting down on sugar and salt, the risk of illness can be reduced promptly. Thus a healthy diet and lifestyle increase energy levels and could keep the mind clear (Louw & Edwards, 1997:656; Cranwell-Ward, 1991: 35-37; Patel, 1991;257-281). According to Schearer (1997:12-13) and Serebro (1996:389-400) fresh fruit and vegetables contain all the nutrients a person needs and fruit also allows the body to clean itself. Intake of red meat should be limited to reduce illnesses such as heart disease and colon cancer.

According to Schearer (1999:92-97) fasting seems to be a good way to improve health and well-being, as the body is given a chance to concentrate on cleansing and healing. However, fasting for two or three days should be supervised by a counsellor, and is not recommended for pregnant females and people on medication. A two-day fasting should be planned well, by eating only raw foods for two consecutive days before the fast and for two days after the fast. A person that has over-indulged, however, should not start fasting as a punishment. Fasting is an excellent way of kick-starting the individual into an appropriate eating programme.

■ Meditation

Meditation focuses attention to such an extent that it prevents a person from thinking about normal everyday things. Meditation derives from the traditions of Hinduism, Buddhism and the martial arts, and lately has

become popular in the West and is also practised in some Christian churches. Meditation is an experience of enchantment or it is a state of the greatest silence (Louw & Edwards, 1997:213; Patel, 1991:193-201).

According to Smith (1993:234-235) yoga also is an approach to relaxation, as well as more advanced forms of meditation called *shikan-taza* (Japanese for 'just sitting'). Transcendental meditation produces a physiological calmness in which the following processes take place: a visible decrease in breathing rate and oxygen consumption, and a decrease in lactic acid levels (a sign of stress) (Fontana, 1994:89-90; Wallace, Benson & Wilson, 1971: 795-799). Stress can be reduced if a person meditates on a regular daily basis, as it tends to reduce anxiety, and decrease dependency on addictive drugs. Meditation is universally recognised as a clinically effective method of reducing stress, and in the Netherlands health insurance is provided at a reduced cost to individuals who meditate on a regular basis (Louw & Edwards, 1997:215; Cranwell-Ward, 1993:114-115).

■ Creative imagery and visualisation

According to Patel (1991:205-206) creative imagery is a technique based on the principle that mind and body are intimately linked. This technique, whereby an individual closes his/her eyes and pictures themselves doing something that s/he enjoys, creates images through imagination, and needs only take a few minutes. Most imagery techniques include daydream themes and fantasy, a construction of coping with a future demand. The latter provides a mental break from existing pressures. Visualisation is an extension of creative imagery, whereby individuals visualise where they want to be in a year or five - a process which will make them more comfortable with the idea of success. This process alleviates feelings of helplessness that are linked to stress (Anthony, Perrewe, Kacmar, 1996: 530-531; Smith, 1993:234; Sitterly & Duke, 1988:194).

▣ Hypnosis and subliminal learning

Hypnosis is not acceptable to everyone. It consists of going into a trance-like state and being given instructions to change behaviour. Subliminal learning is a process of learning at a level outside a person's standard limits of the senses, by listening to motivational tapes, soothing music or autogenic messages. This may have a calming impact on an individual whereby stress is reduced (Smith, 1993: 222- 245; Sitterly & Duke, 1988:195).

▣ Role of religion

Religious individuals from different religions indicate that they experience the Higher Power as a secure base providing them with the ability to view stressful events in a different light. The latter empowers them to make use of transformational coping, whereby an anxiety provoking event can be actively altered into something less anxious in order to avoid stress - thus the stronger the religious belief, the lower the stress levels (Quick *et al.* 1996, 276-284). Contradictory to the above statement, Ross (1990: 236-245) found that individuals who had no religious belief could also experience low levels of stress.

▣ Brain mind gym

Some organisations have a fifteen minute massage for overworked and overstressed workers, with the masseuse gently massaging tightly knotted muscles in the neck and shoulders of fully dressed employees, to release muscle tension. However, stress reduction techniques are taken a step further than the contemporary resolution to daily stress and fatigue for Japanese by means of a high-technology Brain Mind Gym or mental massage, that helps people relax. A comfortable environment to set the mood for relaxation is created with soothing music and herbal tea, whilst idyllic scenes are shown on television screens. Light patterns are shot through the individual's closed

eyelids by means of specialised spectacles, creating a soothing environment for stress relief (Anthony *et al.* 1996:530-531; *Tallahassee Democrat*, 1991:6A).

□ Simple relaxation techniques

In order for individuals to manage stress the following active coping strategies should be introduced, namely:

- exercise within your ability;
- go for a swim;
- sauna;
- let go of feelings (weep, laugh, feel frightened, distressed);
- use simple relaxation to improve fitness (walk, exercise, gym);
- go to the movies/theatre;
- listen to music;
- have humour in your life;
- engage in an active hobby;
- avoid stimulants (caffeine) before going to bed;
- sip a long drink;
- read a good book;
- take a catnap;
- do gardening;
- have dinner at a restaurant;
- visit a friend;
- go on a picnic;
- create leisure time;
- just sit and do nothing (Serebro, 1996: 389-416; Campbell-Ward, 1993:36-39; Patel, 1991:163-232).

From the above it may be inferred that relaxation techniques and methods can:

- ▣ assist an individual in gaining control;
- ▣ prevent hyperventilation;
- direct a person's body to do his/her will;
- manipulate physical pain;
- reduce muscular tension;
- relieve feelings of frustration and tension;
- relieve feelings of helplessness;
- ▣ render a person the capability to act directly;
- ▣ make a person more comfortable with the idea of success;
- ▣ change behaviour;
- ▣ encourage a person to make use of natural medicines, and escaping from the side effects of conventional medication;
- encourage a healthy lifestyle and diet
- increase the individuals' resistance to stress;
- ▣ induce one to experience empowerment by a Higher Power to resist stress;
- ▣ relax people through bodily and mental massages;
- ▣ help one to let go of one's feelings;
- ▣ include simple methods - movies, visiting a friend, having a picnic, sitting and doing nothing.

3.6.2.3 Tertiary stage

As soon as mental health problems are detected employees should be referred to tertiary prevention sources such as professional counsellors. As this stage is far more costly than the previous dimensions of prevention, organisations should pay more attention to the primary and secondary prevention strategies.

3.7 CONCLUSION

It was found that all humans are subjected to stress; however the way in

which stress is experienced differs from one person to the other. Failure to cope with stressors could result in socio-behavioural and physical outcomes that can be managed and avoided by applying various active strategies such as intensive training in management skills which would also improve managerial performance and general well-being.

The issues of female stereotyping and roles discussed in Chapter two, and the possible relationship between these factors and stress (discussed in Chapter three) will be investigated in Chapter four, by applying quantitative methods and qualitative interviews with the selected respondents, namely female education managers that occupy management positions at different levels.

The following chapter will provide answers to the following question:

Does gender stereotype-related stress have an impact on female education managers?

Chapter 4

THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA REPORTING ON THE IMPACT OF GENDER STEREOTYPE-RELATED STRESS ON FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Research problems could occur in any research area, but areas that are *especially* vulnerable are the areas of sex comparisons and gender-related behaviour, as these areas are very private and in more than one way political. As individuals are influenced by socio-historical frameworks, and by their personal experiences, research is also influenced by the assumption that what males do, is the norm; what females do, if it is different from what males do, is deviant (Basow, 1992:17-19).

Grady (1981:628-636) points out that males are used nearly twice as much as females as subjects in research and that theories based primarily or completely on males are used to represent all human beings, although they may not fit half of humanity. Male subjects were used in the majority of all research on aggression, whilst females were involved in only in half of these studies, proving the bias in subject selections (Basow, 1992:19; McKenna & Kessler, 1977:117-128).

Fausto-Sterling (1992:210-211) argues that researchers must learn to use the subjective reports from females as valid data that provide legitimate insight into our understanding of women's physiological and psychological experiences, as a deaf ear is turned to the manner in which females' social realities differ from those of males.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

As there are so many historical, socio-cultural, mental-behavioural and physical factors that could impact on the pressure and strain experienced by the participants, a variety of research methods have therefore been employed to gather and compare data of interviews and questionnaires, and to establish possible links with the literature study reported in chapters two and three, which could only broaden the scope and enhance the validity of the research.

4.2.1 Selection of research methods

A profound literature study for the theoretical exposition and the grounding of the issues at stake has been done and reported in chapters two and three. The researcher applied multiple research methodologies to increase the validity of the study, as it also seems as if the popularity of the use of multiple methodologies is on the increase. The empirical investigations for the purpose of this study thus consist of a quantitative and a qualitative investigation.

4.2.2 Selection of participants

The participants had been selected from different ranks of management positions, as the researcher wanted to cover a wider spectrum of levels, due to the fact that very little stress-based research with regard to females in junior, middle and senior management positions has been conducted in developing countries like South Africa (Walby, 1994:45; Davidson & Cooper, 1992:71).

The participants represent a variety of cultures and language groups as Sesotho, Afrikaans, English, Xhosa, and Tswana participants were selected for the investigation. The management positions that the participants occupy, range from Head of Department, Principal and Learning Facilitator to School Management Developers (post levels 2 - 4).

The interviewees will be referred to as A, B, C, D, E and F, as the participants explicitly indicated that they did not wish their identities to be exposed, as stress-based and gender stereotype information is very sensitive, and as there are many factors and elements that impact on stress, the participants fear retaliation. All biographical details or any information regarding the participants will remain anonymous, as the researcher vowed confidentiality regarding any information that could expose their identities.

4.2.3 The quantitative investigation

The participants were not selected randomly, but each of the female education managers, who was used for the qualitative investigation, was selected through the snowball technique, in which one respondent leads to another (Huysamen, 1994:181; Goetz & Le Compte, 1984:79).

Quantitative investigations by means of two individual tests were used to reveal the stress levels and the sex-role egalitarian disposition of the participants used for the qualitative investigation.

The participants were first asked to complete the following questionnaires:

- (a) an OSI (Occupational Stress Inventory, 1998), an individual test to determine stress scores in the occupational, personal strain and coping resources domains. Results of the OSI have been scored by a psychometrist and interpreted by a psychologist (*cf.* Table 4.1); and

- (b) a SRES (Sex-Role-Egalitarianism Scale) questionnaire to investigate stereotyping and discrimination in order to assist the researcher to monitor, understand and predict various behaviour outcomes of female participants (King & King, 1993:47). SRES has been used to test the stereotypical beliefs and attitudes of the particular participant concerning egalitarianism of various female and male roles. These results have also been scored by a psychometrist and interpreted in context by the researcher (*cf.* Table 4.2).

4.2.4 A qualitative investigation

Unstructured in-depth interviews were conducted with a number of female education managers from diverse cultures and a variety of management levels (junior, middle and senior) in the Free State and the Eastern Cape.

Qualitative interviews were selected because they are appropriate to “get under the skin” (Duff, 1992:87) of the participants, as gender stereotyping and stress are sensitive issues, and the researcher had to probe these issues. Only one overarching question on the impact of gender stereotyping on their stress levels and consequent management performance, had been used as point of departure for the interviews with the various female education managers. The researcher followed a “grounded theory approach” in gathering the data, which were analysed after each interview. Once theoretical saturation had been reached (when no affirmative or contradictory information came to the fore), the interviews ceased.

4.2.4.1 Objectivity of the researcher

According to Kvale (1990:7) one of the limitations of the interview is that the very adaptability gained by the interpersonal circumstances can lead to subjectivity and possible bias. The subjectivity of the researcher, according to

Niemann (1994:179-181), is regarded as a hindrance in quantitative research, while qualitative researchers view subjectivity as a valuable instrument, and Smaling (1994:17) does not view objectivity as the escape from subjectivity, but rather as “the intelligent, acquired use of subjectivity to analyse something”, and implies that the viewpoint, experience, definition or interpretation of the participant cannot be ignored. Thus it is important to indicate the role and position of the researcher as these elements also possibly may have an influence on the research: The researcher is, amongst others, a lecturer in Education Management at a tertiary institution. She has taught for several years and occupied various managerial positions through which she gained experience and insight in this field.

Although the researcher discloses her own subjectivity in this study, she did not find it difficult to distance her own views during the interview session, as well as during the sessions in which the questionnaires were completed. Because of the researcher’s own experience she had an intimate understanding of the participants’ problems and experiences; it was possible for her to understand why the participants found it easier to divulge very sensitive and intimate information.

The researcher’s understanding of the issues at stake, as well as the fact that there is insubstantial information on the possible impact of gender stereotyping and roles on the stress outcomes of female education managers led to the researcher venturing into the problematic nature of the relationship between female stereotyping and stress in education management.

4.2.4.2 Data collection

The fact that not many females occupy senior management posts eased the targeting process considerably. After the participants had been identified, the researcher phoned each of the participants well in advance to ask them if they were willing to participate in this research project by answering the OSI and

SRES questionnaires, and by participating in an interview session. Phone calls were also made on more than one occasion as a means of getting better acquainted with the participants, as vast distances separated the researcher from some of the participants.

In collaboration with each participant, appointments were confirmed and quiet private venues or offices were chosen, mostly after hours to reduce disturbance to the minimum during the interview sessions. During the interview, the researcher introduced herself in a friendly manner and for ethical purposes obtained the participant's permission to use a recording machine, as many individuals might feel uncomfortable about having their answers recorded. Each participant was again reassured of confidentiality pertaining to their identities. The researcher tried to put each participant at ease by creating a friendly atmosphere through light conversation.

First the researcher requested the participants to complete the OSI and SRES questionnaires, to which they obliged. The researcher explained the answering procedure and that their answers should reflect their personal view and not what society expected of them. No other information regarding the questionnaires was given to the participants.

On completion of the questionnaires the researcher started the in-depth interview by briefly stating its purpose.

The researcher and participant were seated at a comfortable desk or table and the recorder was placed between the interviewer and the participant in such a way that it would not distract the attention of the participant.

The following overarching open-ended question was posed to each participant, namely: "Do beliefs and expectations of society, concerning the female sex, cause any pressure and strain/stress on you in your job, as a female education manager?" The exact words of the participants were recorded, verbatim, as

they responded to the question. The researcher participated in the interview when participants hesitated, deviated or misinterpreted the question by saying, for example: "Could you elaborate?". The researcher also attempted to keep each participant's attention focused on the topic. The researcher took great care not to give hints about possible responses. The interviews were conducted in conversational manner and the researcher refrained from expressing approval, shock or surprise at the answers of the participants.

The duration of the interviews ranged from between one hour fifteen minutes to nearly two hours, depending on the time the participant spent answering the two questionnaires which contained many questions. The researcher did not interrupt the participants while they were completing the questionnaires.

4.2.4.3 Data analysis

According to Miles and Huberman (1984:100), many people find it difficult to analyse interview data. Some qualitative researchers are hesitant to concentrate on specific steps in research methods too much for fear that they might become concrete as they have in the natural sciences. They feel that research methods must emanate from aspiring to be responsive to the phenomenon (Miles & Huberman, 1984:101).

According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990:449-450) data collection and data analysis take place concurrently, that means that the researcher does not wait till all the data are "in" before it is being interpreted. This process of data analysis proceeds from data to hypothesis to theory, which is an inductive process. As the data are reduced and processed by the researcher through the processes of coding and classification s/he aims at the development of grounded theory, which refers to the "theory about the phenomena being observed and is regarded as grounded because it is directly tied to the data on the particular phenomena".

Directly after the first interview the interview tapes were transcribed. The transcriptions were then coded and analysed according to themes that arose from data by means of a word processing programme and filed.

The direct, natural words of the participants were categorised under the appropriate themes and sub-themes enabling the researcher to make a complete printout of the data. After all the data had been analysed, they were entered into a matrix table in order to determine recurring and negative information, patterns and differences as well as theoretical saturation.

In the case of uncertainties regarding the interview the participant was contacted and the uncertainties clarified.

4.2.4.4 Validity and reliability

Validity refers to the correctness of a statement and it is important to determine whether research data are valid, that is, whether the questionnaire or interview is actually measuring what it is supposed to measure (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1990:434).

Although reliability is traditionally linked to quantitative research, and points to the stability, accuracy, constancy and repeatability of the research, qualitative researcher's concept of reliability coheres with the above-mentioned. It is defined by Goetz and Le Compte (1984:211) as the degree to which investigations can be repeated and the same methods will produce the same results. This means the discarding of causal errors that can influence the results.

Different measures can be taken to ensure validity of qualitative data and for the purposes of this study the following measures were applied:

▣ Validation by the participants themselves

The findings of the research should be validated by the participants (Kruger, 1997:145). In order to get consensus from the participants pertaining the findings of their information, the finalised findings were discussed with them. The participants felt that the findings were the true reflections of their responses.

▣ Validation by the researcher

It is essential to obtain validity, and this can be achieved by checking the findings against the current literature in order to determine to what degree the findings fit in or not with the tradition of the literature in this domain (Kruger, 1997:145; Henning, 1995:290) (*cf.* 5.2, 5.3).

According to Smaling (1994:83-87), Campbell (1988:72), Miles and Huberman (1984:231-243) the validity can also be increased by searching for negative or extreme data, by indicating whether the researcher's attitude has changed by being subjected to the research, and by indicating differences and similarities in the data.

In order to obtain validity the researcher checked the findings against the current literature.

▣ The triangulation technique

According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990:449) a variety of triangulation methods can be used to enhance validity, such as of the use of multiple sources of data and multiple methods in the study of human behaviour. In this research project a literature study was used to gather information concerning the topic as well as quantitative and a qualitative investigation. A qualified empirical analyst analysed the data. The interviews were conducted until

theoretical saturation had been reached, in other words, until no new or contradictory data came to the fore.

□ Cross-examination

In order to determine whether the data that had been accumulated during the interview sessions agreed with the gender-related impact that stress could have on female managers, cross-examination was done by comparing the findings with those of the literature study. The report of the cross-examination is given in Chapter 5.

□ Control

Contradictions found in the research were discussed with the participants.

■ Finalising the findings

In order to get consensus in terms of the content, the finalised information collected during the interviews was discussed with the participants. The participants felt that the results were the true reflections of their responses.

■ Audit

The researcher kept all the notes and questionnaires used during the interviews to ensure that a proper audit could be done.

■ Mechanisation

Tape recorders were used during the interviews to store information, and computers were used for processing the data.

4.3 DATA REPORTING OF INDIVIDUAL QUANTITATIVE TESTS ON STRESS DUE TO GENDER STEREOTYPES

- (a) The standardised Occupational Stress Inventory (OSI) results of all the participants are illustrated in Table 4.1 below.

TABLE 4.1 Stress profiles in occupation, personal domain and personal coping resources of the participants

| | Occupational roles | | | | Personal strain | | | | Personal resources | | | |
|---|--------------------|----------------|-----|----|-----------------|-----|-----|-----|--------------------|-----|-----|-----|
| | RO | RI | RA | RC | R | VS | PSY | IS | RE | SC | SS | R/C |
| A | ■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■ |
| B | ■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■ |
| C | ■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ |
| D | ■■■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ |
| E | ■■■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ |
| F | ■■■ | Lack of stress | ■ | ■ | ■■■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ | ■ |

Table 4.1 Key

| | | | |
|-------|-----------------------|-------|------------------|
| ■ | normal stress average | ■ | resources |
| ■ ■ | mild stress | ■ ■ | mild deficit |
| ■ ■ ■ | severe stress | ■ ■ ■ | significant lack |

Respondents are represented in Table 4.1 by the symbols, A, B, C, D, E, F.

Occupational roles are represented in Table 4.1 by the following:

- RO - Role Overload
- RI - Role Insufficiency
- RA - Role Ambiguity
- RC - Role Conflict
- R - Responsibility

Personal strain is represented in Table 4.1 by the following:

- VS - Vocational Strain
- PSY - Psychological Strain
- IS - Interpersonal Strain

Personal coping resources are represented by Table 4.1 by the following:

- RE - Recreation
- SC - Self-Care
- SS - Social Supports
- R/C - Rational /Cognitive

(b) Sex-role egalitarianism scale (SRES)

Numerous critical issues that face society today have some connection with gender roles, therefore SRES could be a useful instrument when gender role issues are investigated.

This standardised instrument is very useful for research into stereotyping and discrimination. SRES is a mechanism to monitor, understand, and predict forerunners, outcomes and connections of gender stereotypes (King & King, 1993:3-10). The Sex-role egalitarianism scale measures attitudes toward equality of females and males and contains items that require judgements about both females and males assuming non-traditional roles on a 5-point Likert type scale. A person that is more egalitarian is someone that is more

individualistic and self-reliant, that “does not discriminate against or relate differently to another on the basis of the other’s sex” and a person’s position on the sex-role egalitarianism continuum seems to be associated with a person’s tendency to condone violence in male-female or husband-wife relationships”. True equality means the absence of evaluative judgements about men and women who choose to assume any person-role, and it is *less* likely for a person who scores high on the SRES scale to fall prey to situational constraints that promote stereotyping (King & King, 1993:2-47).

The higher the score of the participant on SRES the greater the approval of sex egalitarianism attitudes and bipotential equality of the sexes, thus a participant could be highly egalitarian, moderately egalitarian and very traditional, depending on the category investigated (marital roles, parental roles, employment roles, social-interpersonal-heterosexual roles, educational roles/family or work environment).

SRES questionnaire results pertaining to the participants are summarised in Table 4.2:

TABLE 4.2 SRES profile results

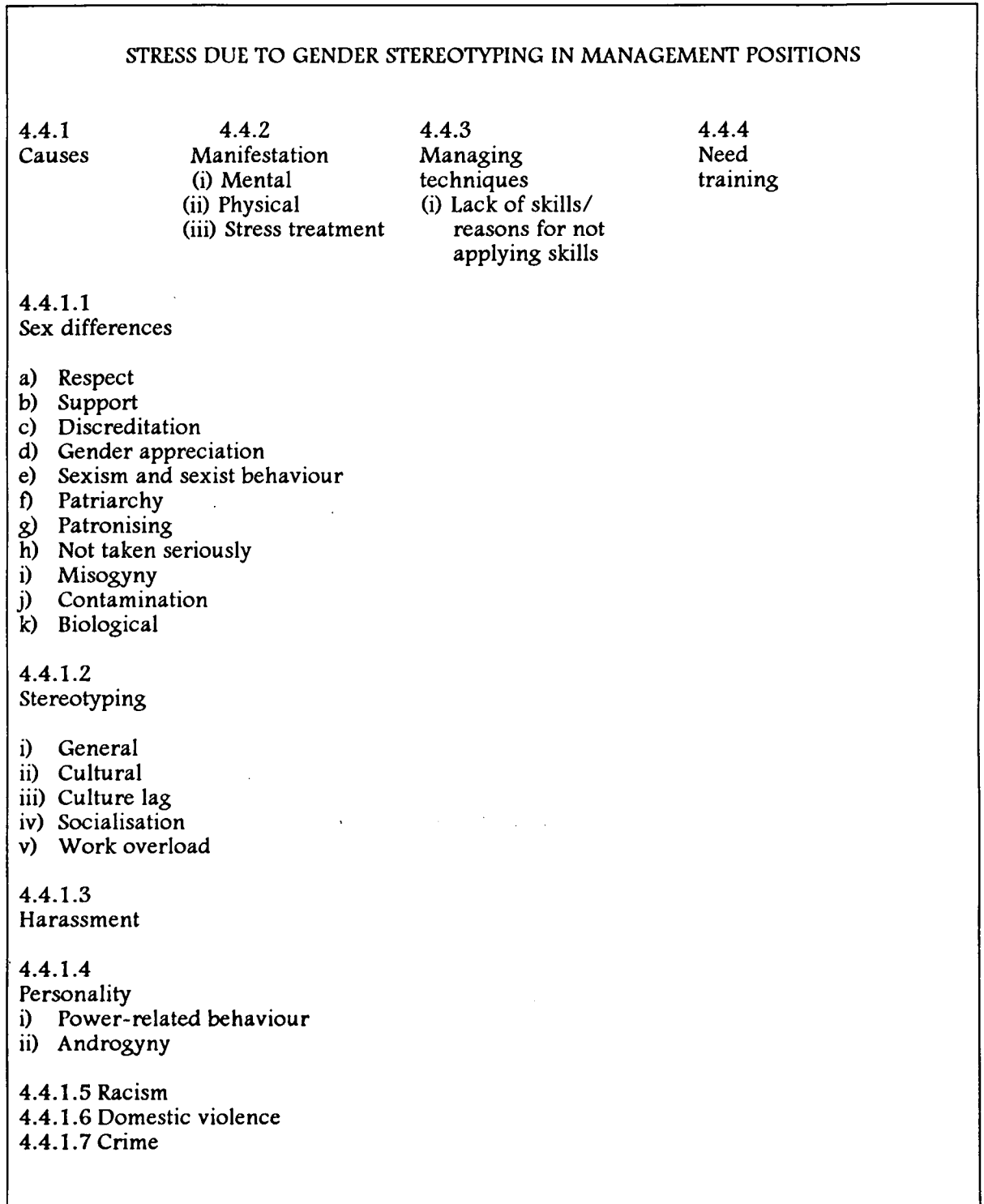
| Participants | Marital Roles | Parental Roles | Employment Roles | Social -Inter-personal Hetero-sexual roles | Educational roles -Family or work involvement |
|--------------|--------------------|------------------|------------------------|--|---|
| A | traditional | traditional | traditional | traditional | egalitarian |
| B | highly egalitarian | egalitarian | highly egalitarian | moderately egalitarian | egalitarian |
| C | traditional | less egalitarian | moderately egalitarian | traditional | traditional |
| D | traditional | traditional | egalitarian | traditional | moderately egalitarian |
| E | traditional | traditional | moderately egalitarian | traditional | traditional |
| F | highly egalitarian | less egalitarian | egalitarian | traditional | less egalitarian |

For the purpose of this study the results of both the above quantitative scales for each individual as well as the qualitative data will be integrated and discussed in 4.5.

4.4 DATA REPORT OF QUALITATIVE INVESTIGATION

The data collected during the interviews were coded and finally categorised in themes and sub-themes see Diagram 4.1

DIAGRAM 4.1 Themes and sub-themes originating from
data of interviews



The data will now be reported according to the categories indicated in the above diagram.

4.4.1 Causes

The causes of stress will be discussed in various themes and sub-themes.

4.4.1.1 Sex differences

(a) Respect

A lot of stress is experienced by the participants due to gender differences. Regarding the issue of respect, they related as follows:

B: *In my school the school boys don't have any respect for women teachers. They just look at you and don't respond to you because you are a woman, there is also a male staff member that has no respect for females.*

Disciplinary jobs are always also given to males.

B: *Even the principal and vice-principal want a certain female teacher out, they believe she cannot handle discipline in her class as she gives the children freedom the only thing is she is a soft , kind person, never gets angry, but she gets the message through in her own way. The male teachers perceive her as a weakling, the principal wants a new teacher now, but he does not want a female, he says that he wants a male because he wants discipline.*

Some participants experienced that male teachers receive preferential treatment.

B: *Male teachers, especially the principal, get very annoyed if my children have anything on. I tell him that my work is organised and that I now*

have a parental duty, he would look at me with such a stern face and you see he wants to say no, other women go to him (principal) with a 'sorry that I am alive' attitude when the children have something on, but the males go everywhere, sometimes some of them don't even ask permission.

E: Males enjoy respect, preference are given to male learning facilitators regarding resources and transport, not because of their position, but because they are males. There is this perception that males are more intelligent than females.

F: In our management meetings, while a female is talking, men will immediately interrupt you, but when the male is talking everyone waits. We know that the correct procedure is to keep quiet and write down your questions.

D: I work in a particularly strong male environment where both boys and staff regard women as weak and feeble. In this type of school you've got to respect, but in an unguarded moment boys do disrespect women, certain groups of males (teachers) in the school are 'bully stronger'.

C does not give males preferential treatment in her institution and therefore disagrees from the other participants on this matter.

Participants also experienced discrimination against them.

D: It's been the strangest situation, I was told that I am the acting manager of a department, (in a boys school), apart from the extra bit of money on my cheque every month, nobody ever mentioned anything again. I get no external recognition, no apparent extra jobs, apart from the usual, I am not on the management team, so it is pretty weird!

C: *My male colleague said I was not qualified for the job, my qualifications were higher than his.*

Participants also experienced discrimination from society as a whole and were treated as second-class citizens.

E: *I think society is hypocritical where you can put the most appalling and immoral things on television but if a woman says "fuck" she's really bad, it is ridiculous*

F: *I was invited by the Department of Justice to help them with presentation. We were only three women, I was seated at the one end of the main table and the other two women were seated behind the main table, only males were seated at the main table. I was invited for a Chief Director's post. The MEC was there and all the other director generals from different provinces. Not even a single woman was there except the recording secretary. They fired me with questions and I tried to answer, but I could read from their faces that this was just a woman. I drew their attention to the fact that there was no woman representative present to help influence their decisions. They remarked: 'It is again gender, you are now talking for women, you are arrogant, you want to control us'. If all these things happen to me as a gender-focused person at this level, what about from the Deputy-Director downwards?*

Disrespect due to possible patriarchal ideologies, amongst others, spill over from the homes into the work situation as many female managers are subjected to domestic maltreatment.

F: *It is hidden, I have a number of sick leave forms here, highest amount of absenteeism are all women managers or Heads of Departments, when I go through their leave form, it's always stress, nervous tension, domestic problems.*

From the above, the following tendencies that impact on the stress experienced by females, due to sexual differences, came to the fore:

Females:

- ☐ are not respected by boys and often male staff members;
- ☐ are seen as weaklings and feeble;
- ☐ are being treated unfairly;
- ☐ are treated as inferiors;
- ☐ are considered as outsiders, not-belonging;
- ☐ do not receive the same preferential treatment than their male counterparts;
- ☐ are perceived as less intelligent than males;
- ☐ are not acknowledged;
- ☐ are not treated/judged as equal to males;
- ☐ are viewed negatively;
- ☐ are not regarded as having professional status;
- ☐ are patronised and belittled;
- ☐ arouse animosity;
- ☐ are not regarded highly in terms of competency;
- ☐ are perceived to lack job-related skills;
- ☐ are subjected to domestic maltreatment.

Furthermore:

- ☐ society advocates double standards whereby females inevitably come off second best;
- ☐ society projects contradicting value systems;
- ☐ only males have the right to use 'bad' language, and it is even acceptable on television - a male right and privilege;
- ☐ non-feminine actions are disapproved;

- educational departments and schools in general are not designed around female preference;
- assertive females are viewed as troublemakers - a threat to males;
- managerial status of female threatens males - become targets of male anger (misogyny).

(b) Support

All the participants experienced stress due to a lack of support, but differed in their opinions pertaining to the sex that tends to be the least supportive.

A: *You find that you don't really get the support that you want from women. Sometimes women tend to despise other women; they think it is better to deal with a man as men have a better knowledge of work, or are more intelligent than women. When women vote for something, they will vote for men, knowing very well women can do that type of work. I think we tend to undermine ourselves as women.*

C: *If we have a disagreement, women would sulk for the following two to three weeks or longer, pettiness of mostly female members is very stressful.*

Males and females said they don't believe I would be able to handle it (senior management position).

Some senior male managers thought stagnation would set into my institution.

I received no moral support from females in similar senior education management positions (there are only a few females in these particular positions in South Africa); on the contrary, they actually push you aside.

A woman is more accommodating than a man, and female staff members make misuse ("misbruik") of the fact; society also thinks like this and reacts in a similar manner - the staff would not try these things with me if I were a male.

B disagrees on the matter of not receiving the necessary support from females.

B: *Our principal (male) wants a new teacher, but he does not want a female.*

The principal and vice-principal (male) want the gentle female colleague out.

Women go to the principal with a 'Sorry that I am alive' attitude, but the males go everywhere, sometimes without permission. Other males will actually just go and tell the principal they have to go to their children and he will never have a problem with them.

The equity bill gives women a lot of support, because now they know they have backing.

D: *I get no external recognition; I am not on the management team (although appointed as acting manager of a department in a boys' school).*

I find that I am lacking support at home, I miss affection, hugging, something like that, I need a bit of pampering.

E: *The transport officer (female) gives first preference to males, not because they are managers, just because they are males.*

Only males were allowed to be managers, especially during apartheid.

In our black culture a married man can have an extra-marital affair, so women are lacking affection, as long as you are married to the man he oppresses you in so many ways.

Because of the good relationship that I have with the teachers, there is suspicion (from male boss), male learning facilitators are not treated suspiciously.

In our culture a man comes first.

F: *The community is not expecting a woman to be assertive, they expect a*

women to be soft and polite.

I don't want a man to feel pity for me.

The district manager supported my idea, but when I was reprimanded because of my idea in a meeting, the district manager was there and never said a word.

They don't underestimate my intelligence, but they don't want to accept it.

From the above the following tendencies appeared to enhance the stress of females:

Females are not perceived as

- ▣ primary breadwinners;
- ▣ equal to males;
- ▣ in need of support.

Females lack support:

- ▣ especially moral support from other females;
- ▣ as other females tend to despise them;
- ▣ as female colleagues are petty and tend to sulk;
- ▣ as both sexes do not believe a female is capable of handling a top management post;
- ▣ as many males think that organisations will stagnate when managed by females;
- ▣ as they are perceived as accommodating;
- ▣ due to their lack of self-confidence and by acting in a submissive manner;
- ▣ from partners at home;
- ▣ as they are viewed as less important;
- ▣ as they are controlled by a strong male order;
- ▣ as they are viewed by society as less knowledgeable and less intelligent

than males;

- ☒ as the community expects them to be soft and polite;
- ☒ as senior male managers lack the courage to support them in public;
- ☐ as males do not want to accept their intelligence;
- ☒ as male managers receive preferential treatment;
- ☐ as it is accepted that males (in some cultures) can have an extra-marital affair, and wives lack affection;
- ☒ as husbands/partners oppress females.

(c) Discreditation

Stress was amplified in all the participants due to discreditation, whereby females were labelled. They reacted as follows:

- A: *We tend to undermine ourselves as women.*
Women carry a stigma.
We don't feel safe in the hands of women.

Females feel that they are discredited through the preferential treatment of males, the lack of acknowledgement of the status of female teachers as well as being discredited by elements in the medical profession.

- B: *I have three female colleagues that fell ill, but doctors referred all of them to psychologists and after months they finally discovered that they actually suffered from serious physical problems. One of them had to be boarded after a specialist discovered she suffered from a rare disease.*

The respondents indicated that principals do not want to appoint females as they doubt their abilities.

- B: *Female teachers are perceived as weaklings.*
If a female acts differently, the male staff will remark "She's got her

period”.

There is this male staff member who is always rude and arrogant, and has no respect for females.

The principal will never have a problem with the males - they (females) are more caring about their children, this puts a lot of pressure on them because their children are very important to them.

My husband does not see my profession on a par with his (medical), his job is the ultimate one and he thinks he has more stress.

My married colleague always makes sexual suggestions (to married female colleagues).

C: *A male colleague said that I was not qualified for the job, my qualifications were higher than his.*

Males and females said they don't think I would be able to handle the position.

Some people are surprised to find me in this senior position, or they expect me to be much older.

People say to me, "Are you sure you are the senior manager?" I say, "Yes, I am very sure!"

Some male managers thought stagnation would set into my institution.

Males thought I was too soft, those subtle 'digs'.

Female staff members and society make misuse of women because they are more accommodating than males, the staff would not try these things with me if I were a male.

D: *Women teachers are regarded as not strong (control).*

A few of the men throw temper tantrums and the minute a woman does that, she is unfortunately labelled.

The principal asked the ladies to leave the room, he wanted to tell a dirty joke.

Remarks are made regarding intelligence (of females).

Boys do disrespect you because you are a woman.

I am far too vulnerable.

Females are unfortunately labelled when they act little differently from men.

I have been at this institution (male) for nearly two decades before I was appointed as acting manager.

The most appalling and immoral things are accepted on television, but, if a woman says 'fuck' she's really bad.

E: *In our culture a man comes first, we cannot directly confront the district manager, only males can do that.*

There is this perception that men are more intelligent than females.

F: *When I come up with inputs, people tend to think I am arrogant.*

While a female is talking, men will interrupt, but when the male is talking everyone waits.

Not a single woman was there except the recording secretary (in a meeting for the Chief Director's post).

Of the participants indicated that the community also had prejudices against females.

F: *After two or three years I realised that these people did not realise I (female) was the principal.*

And they say, "How do you manage?" (as principal).

The community thinks that a woman cannot be an effective leader.

The community is not expecting a woman to be confident and to ask questions.

With regard to discreditation, it seems as if the following tendencies contributed to the participants' experiences of stress:

Females/Females'

- tend to undermine themselves;
- carry a stigma;
- are perceived as weaklings;
- do not feel safe in the hands of females - have internalised inferior feelings;
- are subjected to overt and subtle discreditation;
- are perceived to be better at tedious jobs;
- illnesses are associated with emotional disorders rather than physical disorders;
- slightest change in behaviour are linked to physiological functioning and biological inferiority;
- are treated rudely and in an arrogant manner by male colleagues;
- profession is not perceived as on a par with their husbands' profession;
- are not associated with senior management positions by the community;
- managerial contributions and assertiveness are perceived as disorderliness;
- are not expected to get angry;
- are labelled;
- are treated as if they are not adults;
- are not expected to cope as a manager;
- are not expected to be effective leaders;
- are treated dissimilar to males.

(d) Gender appreciation

All the participants experienced pressure and stress due to the fact that a unique style of a female is not appreciated. It seems as if the tendencies regarding gender appreciation of females are as follows:

- different style is not accepted;
- different style is not recognised;
- different style is not appreciated;

- ☒ capabilities are not trusted;
- ☒ females are not given a chance to prove their competence;
- ☒ expertise is deliberately ignored;
- ☒ lack of gender appreciation results in career barriers;
- ☒ socialisation processes lead to cognitive distortions re the capability of females.

(e) Sexism and sexist behaviour

All the participants experienced a lot of strain due to sexist behaviour and sexism. In this regard they commented as follows:

- A: *When you need assistance as a woman at work, for example lifting heavy boxes, then my male colleagues say I must do it by myself, because I said that women are equal to men.*
Look at parliament - they have few women, look at schools - they still have male principals.
Schools still say female teachers are supposed to go to the foundation phase; male teachers will still be appointed in the senior phases.
Men expect women to be submissive.
They won't vote for a woman, they will vote for a man.
In fact, women can sideline you, according to them, men are better at the work than women.
- B: *If a female teacher acts any different, the male staff will remark, "She's got her period".*
No respect for females.
- C: *I would not be treated like this if I were a male.*
- D: *Certain male groups are "bully stronger", they have much more power and status.*

Sexism exists here at work.

Women that act differently are labelled.

If a woman says a four letter word she's really bad (yet, acceptable for a man to do so).

E: *We as females cannot directly confront the senior manager, only males can do that.*

A married man can have an extra-marital affair; for a woman it is taboo.

Sexist remarks occur frequently.

Women are not allowed to walk where the men are gathered in rural areas (specific places).

F: *Women are not expected to sit in front, to ask questions.*

You don't have the same freedom (as your husband).

Black men think that women are not to wear trousers.

The most senior male managers said: "You are now talking for women, you are arrogant, you want to control us".

Women are reduced to nothing.

Many female managers are subjected to violent treatment by their husbands.

From the above, the following tendencies regarding sexism and sexist behaviour came to the fore:

- there are few female principals;
- bad language is only accepted/expected from males;
- sexist remarks are rife;
- sexism exists in workplaces;

Females:

- ☒ are expected by males to perform 'heavy' manual work themselves, seeing they regard themselves as male equals;
- ☒ are expected to teach junior grades and males the senior grades;
- ☒ are expected to be submissive;
- ☒ vote for males, rather than for females;
- ☒ don't enjoy respect from male colleagues;
- ☒ are bullied by male colleagues;
- ☒ do not have the same freedom as their spouses;
- ☒ are not expected to ask questions;
- ☒ are not expected to be in control;
- ☒ are not expected to wear trousers;
- ☒ are reduced to nothing.

(f) Patriarchy

The patriarchal system contributed to the stress of all the participants. Their reactions revealed aspects such as perceptions regarding the place of females:

- A: *A woman is not supposed to speak, or to vent anger, or to confront a male directly.*
- B: *A junior male colleague was convinced I was trying to take over his job.*
- C: *I will never ask the staff members whether they are a bunch of kids as one of my subordinate male managers has done - resulting in immediate silence and order, it is more acceptable to society if a man does that type of thing.*

The Afrikaner church had an influence on me, I won't say the subordination of women, but the woman was the one that had to be quiet, subdued, control her emotions, the man is the head of the

household.

A male member left this institution as he could not handle the fact that I (female) got the senior management post.

D: *Males have much more power and status which effects the females on the staff, but, all these things are unspoken.*

I am submissive to my husband, he is a very traditional man.

E: *In my culture a male comes first.*

To vent anger is not allowed, especially as a female towards a male, because males enjoy respect, we regard them as our fathers, husbands, managers.

For a long time in black culture only males were allowed to be managers, especially during the apartheid era, we only knew males can be promoted into management positions.

It is acceptable for a married man to commit adultery.

From the above the following tendencies emerged:

- ▣ females in some cultures are not allowed to confront a male directly;
- ▣ males are father figures and therefore occupy a higher status;
- ▣ some males are convinced that females want to take over their jobs;
- ▣ it is more acceptable to society if males act in an authoritarian manner;
- ▣ the Afrikaner church influenced females to be subdued, to control their emotions and to regard the male as the head of the household;
- ▣ males even leave an organisation if a female gets a senior job that they also applied for;
- ▣ females are not allowed to vent anger - especially towards a male manager;
- ▣ for a long time only males had the opportunity to be managers and to be promoted.

(g) Patronising

A lot of strain and pressure are a result of being patronised, because of views of inferiority: The participants reacted as follows:

A: *He would shout at me as if I am speaking nonsense.
He would interrupt me and push the matter aside.*

B: *My new male colleague said to me, "Who do you think you are?"
My principal looks at me with such a stern face - he has a thing against
women.*

E: *Males are perceived as more intelligent.*

Regarding patronisation it seems as if the following tendencies contributed to the pressure and strain on females in the educational sector:

- ▣ little respect for their opinions
- ▣ no recognition of their abilities and expertise;
- ▣ being treated in an arrogant manner;
- ▣ ridiculed;
- ▣ underestimated;
- ▣ treated like children;
- ▣ treated as inferiors.

(h) Females not taken seriously

A lot of tension and frustration are experienced by the participants, due to sexual differences regarding the issue of not being taken seriously.

They had experiences such as:

- ▣ being shouted at;
- ▣ being interrupted;
- ▣ their views were being sidelined;
- ▣ being on the receiving end of remarks of a sexual nature;
- ▣ being viewed as emotionally unstable by male medical practitioners when they experienced physical illnesses;
- ▣ female management jobs are being viewed as less important, less demanding and less stressful than that of their husbands;
- ▣ their job qualifications (degree) being questioned;
- ▣ that staff members react immediately to male colleagues that order them to be quiet;
- ▣ not being appointed as a manager for nearly two decades;
- ▣ their male colleagues given preferential treatment above them;
- ▣ male managers in some cultures that view being confronted by a female manager as a cultural taboo;
- ▣ their breasts being fondled by senior male managers;
- ▣ being perceived as arrogant when making a management contribution;
- ▣ not being supported publicly by senior male managers;
- ▣ the equity act lacking specifics regarding how to implement and promote equity.

(i) Misogyny

All the participants experienced a lot of stress and strain, regarding sexual differences (*cf.* Diagram 4.1). Pertaining to the issue of misogyny, they responded as follows:

A: *The chairman shouted at me as if I were talking nonsense.*

B: *Subtle, hostile jokes are made about women.*

Male colleagues say, "She has got her period".

A male colleague is always rude and arrogant and has no respect for

females - he said to me, "Who do you think you are?"

A new male staff member was convinced I was trying to take over his job; he wanted to take over the whole job, as if he were in control, and I told him that I was in charge. He then said to me, "Are you threatening me?", and I said, "No I am not threatening you. If you read your newspapers you would know what is happening", (equity act). We had a major fight, he was rude.

C: *My male colleague left the organisation after I was appointed in the senior management position, he could not handle it .*

D: *I am not part of the management team.
I do not get external recognition as a manager.
I am not part of the (inner circle) of male status and power.*

E: *I am viewed with suspicion.*

F: *The senior male managers said to me I was talking gender again and that I wanted to control them.
When I make a suggestion, they start to retaliate.
Many female managers suffer from domestic violence.
Women are always reduced to nothing.*

From the above, the following tendencies regarding the issue of misogyny arise, namely that females:

- are shouted at when they talk at meetings - become a threat to males when they invade (or attempt to invade) male territory;
- are treated rudely and arrogantly;
- are excluded from male management teams;
- become prime targets of male anger when they breach (or attempt to) gender role expectations;

- ☒ are viewed with suspicion and labelled when they invade male territory;
- ☒ are immensely disliked if they show no fear and attempt to equalise the power balance between the sexes;
- ☒ are ignored, frowned upon and ridiculed;
- ☒ that are assertive take males by surprise and make them uncomfortable;
- ☒ are chastened if they don't conform to gender role expectations;
- ☒ are degraded through sexual remarks.

(j) Contamination

The participants experience a lot of pressure due to sexual differences regarding the issue of contamination and they reacted as follows:

A: *So we are carrying that stigma.*

B: *We cannot respect a woman.*

In our society the man speaks.

My principal does not want a female teacher.

Females are seen as weaklings.

Jokes are made about women re 'that time of the month'.

Male colleagues will remark, "She's got her period." Young women find this embarrassing.

Females go to the principal with an "I am so sorry that I am alive" attitude.

C: *Some senior male managers thought stagnation would set in.*

Sexism exists in company.

My staff would not try these things with me if I were a male.

D: *I am very grateful (for the only small duty given to participant as a female manager). Some of the women actually let down this side by doing these things (showing emotions).*

I've seen women at girls schools with mostly women teachers act terribly feministic to the point where I actually felt uncomfortable.

I admit I am totally useless (maths and science).

It is self-defeating (woman getting angry) and is not going to change anything.

I am far too vulnerable for my own good.

I am not at all part of the management team.

Certain groups (male) have much more power and status, it effects female staff members; all these things are unspoken, it is not verbalised.

E: *The transport officer (female) gives preference to males.*

To vent (female) anger is not allowed.

Only males could be managers.

Females cannot directly confront him as females.

In our culture a man comes first.

My senior manager approached me (for sex) and fondles my breasts.

There is this perception that men are more intelligent than females.

Society requires a man to be more intelligent.

Women abide by unwritten rules.

A female is locked alone in a room when she menstruates.

Females are physically checked whether they are virgins.

F: *A female cannot be an effective leader, not expected to ask questions.*

Women don't have the same freedom.

Men will immediately interrupt you, but when the male is talking, everyone waits.

Women are always reduced to nothing.

Regarding the issue of contamination the following beliefs came to the fore:

Females/Females'

- carry a stigma;

- ☒ are not respected;
- ☒ are perceived as inferior;
- ☒ are perceived as soft and weaklings;
- ☒ bodily functions are viewed as polluting;
- ☒ start to believe they are inferior and act submissively;
- ☒ job abilities are underestimated;
- ☒ feel uncomfortable if colleagues act in a feministic manner;
- ☒ believe they are not good at mathematics and science;
- ☒ feel they are too vulnerable for their own good;
- ☒ are not included in male management teams;
- ☒ do not verbalise how they are affected by the perceived power and status of male colleagues - they remain silent;
- ☒ are not allowed to get angry;
- ☒ are not allowed to confront male managers of some cultures directly;
- ☒ are required to be less intelligent by society;
- ☒ abide by unwritten rules;
- ☒ are humiliated;
- ☒ physical rights are violated - some cultures lock girls in a room when they menstruate;
- ☒ do not have the same freedom as males;
- ☒ are treated with disparity;
- ☒ freedom is restricted.

(k) Biological

Regarding sex differences it seems as if the following contributed to the strain on the participants and were reported as follows by the participants:

A: *Women tend to think it is better to deal with a man as they are more intelligent than a woman.*

Female teachers are supposed to go to the foundation phase and male teachers will still be appointed in the senior phases.

- B: *Females are regarded as weaklings.*
Boys say that they cannot respect a female.
My principal does not want to appoint another female teacher.
A man speaks in their (Xhosa) culture.
My principal has got this 'thing' against women.
- C: *Males thought I was too soft (to handle this senior post).*
If I were a male these things would not happen to me.
- E: *I vent that anger on my subordinates, but not my senior male manager -*
women are not allowed to confront males in our culture.
It is acceptable that a married man can have an extra-marital affair in
our culture but for a woman it is taboo.
Male managers don't get the same suspicious treatment.
Society requires a man to be more intelligent.
Females (Xhosa) are locked in a room when they menstruate - checked
whether they are virgins.
- F: *Females are not regarded as effective leaders by society, merely because*
they are females.

The following beliefs regarding sexual differences based on biology can be detected from above-mentioned:

Females are:

- regarded to be less intelligent than males;
- supposed to teach junior phases and males the senior phases;
- the opposite sex - perceived as having completely different traits and behaviours than males;
- perceived to be controlled by their hormones (bodily functions);
- expected to not commit adultery - only acceptable for males.

4.4.1.2 Stereotyping

(i) General

With regard to stereotyping, it seems as if all the participants experienced pressure and strain due to female stereotyping, and reported as follows:

A: *The problem is historical, as it was said that there are types of work that can be done by men, and there are types of work that can be done by women, so we are carrying that stigma that we really don't feel safe in the hands of women.*

In my culture (Sotho), if a man speaks, a woman is not supposed to speak, meaning you're not supposed to speak even if you feel that this is not correct.

We grew up knowing that a woman is a woman, that she must stay with the children, bear children and cook.

You realize that there is still that mark that a black woman or black man cannot really give us what we want.

When it comes to the church as a whole it is not very easy for women to be recognised, we still believe that the main people in the church should be men and not women.

Even if you are a woman trying to bring out her expertise and experience it is very difficult for the church to accept, to do what you are saying.

B: *But doctors (male) referred all of the women to psychologists, they finally discovered that they actually suffered from serious physical diseases one had to be boarded.*

C: *My male colleague said that I was not qualified for the job, my qualifications were higher than his.*

There was a lot of negativity because I was a woman.

Some people are surprised to find me (female) in this senior position or they expect me to be much older.

People say to me, "Are you sure you are the senior manager?" I say, "Yes, I am very sure!"

Male managers thought I would be too soft.

Sexism exists, through subtle 'digs'.

My staff would not try these things with me if I were a male.

A woman is more accommodating than a man.

If a female teacher acts any differently, the male staff will remark, "She's got her period".

D: *Women teachers tend to be regarded as not as strong (class control) as men.*

Because this is a male environment, you find the usual stereotype little jokes - or she is labelled.

This male is allowed to get angry.

I am not on the management team.

E: *The transport officer gives preference to males.*

Females are not allowed to vent anger.

Only males were allowed to be managers.

We as females cannot directly confront our senior male manager.

Women are not allowed to walk where the men are gathered, i.e. certain places in our culture.

Learning facilitators that are males do not get the same treatment.

Sexual jokes are made frequently.

There is this perception that men are more intelligent than females.

F: *When I was a female principal, the school was very big and I took care of my surroundings, the school was very clean as I had everybody collecting papers. Now you will find that parents come to the school and they will always ask for the principal. Sometimes I would appear when*

they are still enquiring from the secretary, and they will immediately say, "We want to meet the principal of the school". I will say I am the principal of the school, and they say, "Oh, is that so, the principal of such a big beautiful school, a clean school, how do you manage?" Then I say, "I can see that you don't think a woman can be a principal".

Females don't have the same freedom (as males).

When I come up with inputs, people tend to think I am arrogant.

It is again gender, you are now talking for women, you are arrogant, you want to control us.

Regarding stereotyping it seems from above that the following perceptions contributed to the pressure and strain on females in the education management sector, namely:

- stereotyping is a historical problem;
- certain types of jobs are perceived as appropriate for females and other types of jobs are perceived as appropriate for males;
- negative expectations of females;
- belief that females should be placed in sex-typed jobs;
- females are not expected to be leaders;
- females are viewed as subordinates;
- females are not regarded to be effective leaders;
- racial stereotyping exists;
- subordinate and inferior treatment in church;
- stereotype beliefs of females;
- health problems are perceived as mental;
- sexism;
- it is a male prerogative to get angry;
- females are underestimated and not accepted in leadership positions;
- females are being considered as arrogant when inquiring about equity principles.

(ii) Cultural stereotyping

All the participants experienced stress exacerbation due to cultural stereotyping, and reported as follows:

- A: *If comes back to the work situation when a woman disagrees with a man - there are still people that think that women are not supposed to do that - although things are changing now and females are aware that whatever a man can do a woman can do.*
Females still allow men to take advantage of the belief that a woman cannot say this to me because she is a woman', whether correct or not, it is simply because they are women.
Females still believe that the main people in the church should be men and not women.
I cook most of the time, because I am a woman, a woman is supposed to be cooking, that is my culture.
- B: *Xhosa boys just don't respect a woman and they don't respond to you because you are a woman.*
Xhosa boys actually say to you, "Look, we cannot respect a woman, because a woman must be in a home and she must cook".
In assembly female teachers have to have male teachers present, because the boys are totally out of hand if there are no male teachers present - it is not a racist thing at all, it is cultural.
Xhosa boys just look at you and they just don't respond to you - they say, "We are not used to listening to women in our society, the man speaks"
- there is a lot of pressure on women because of this perception.
- C: *I think it has a lot to do with my background, how I was raised - I was taught that women always had to keep their pose.*
Immediate silence and order, after my subordinate male manager has

spoken.

I was raised (specifically by my mother) to suppress anger.

Women had to be quiet, subdued, control their emotions.

Some people are surprised to find a female in this senior management position.

D: *I don't suppress anger enough and I seem to be more irritable than I prefer.*

Women teachers tend to be regarded not as strong (class control).

My dad would fly off the handle very easily and then have it over with, my mom would bottle it up.

Because this is a male environment, you find the usual stereotype little jokes (about women).

My husband is a traditional man, I am submissive at home.

E: *Males receive preference.*

In our culture females are not allowed to vent anger, especially as female towards a male, because males enjoy respect, we regard them as our husbands, fathers and managers.

Even if he has done wrong, we as females cannot confront him (senior male manager) as females, only males can do that (confront), so it is a cultural 'thing'.

In our culture the male walks in front and the female behind, we cannot communicate - it is very frustrating.

My father was very abusive to my mother.

Women are not allowed to walk where the men are gathered (in rural areas).

If a Xhosa man holds hands, other Xhosa males will shun him as he is not seen as a real man, I want to hold hands with my husband, but I cannot - this causes an inner conflict.

Because of society and culture black males and females are not allowed to show their feelings towards each other, for example love, especially

as a man towards your partner. There is pressure as far as that is concerned, that is why we abide by the unwritten rules. Men engage in extra-marital affairs and they don't care, I wonder if black people even realise how much pressure is put on them, as it is never verbalised, the white culture shows love, it's only the young generation that holds hands and kiss.

The head of the house can have a girlfriend, even ministers in church can have three or four women, culturally it is accepted (gradually changing at a slow pace), that is why women raise their children on their own, because they rise above the odds, they are strong.

Males are taught in initiation schools that woman is woman, and it must stay like that.

Women in Xhosa culture are not allowed to use certain words as a symbol of respect, example if the surname of your in-laws start with a 'p' you are not allowed to use words starting with a 'p', that is oppression, with the result that women cannot think independently and that makes you submissive.

Married females in rural areas must cover their heads as a sign of respect.

So many women are abused because of fear of society, community, parents, culture and shame, if 'lobola' (custom whereby cattle is exchanged for a woman that is to be married) is abolished it will give black females independence.

Xhosa females are culturally oppressed, you are locked in a room 'until' they menstruate.

Females are checked whether they are a virgin by elder women.

Some of my colleagues (women) have been circumcised (involves stretching of clitoris) It is very painful, they loose sensual feeling.

A lot of black women today, there are many single parents, are making a statement

'Look, I am independent' to society and their family to protect their children.

In our culture men are not supposed to go shopping.

In our culture a man comes first.

F: *When I come up with inputs, people tend to think I am arrogant.*

The community is not expecting women to be assertive, to be confident, to sit in front, to ask questions, even to appreciate, they expect a women to be soft and polite.

In our black culture, when a woman dies, a man will go around organising the funeral, talking, laughing with other people, but if your husband dies, they will take you and be with you in your bedroom, they remove you from your bed, you don't have the same freedom, (the impact is that) people are not aware.

Black men think that women are not allowed to wear trousers, but women are fighting against this, it comes from tradition.

Men don't cook, it's traditional, it's cultural stereotyping.

From the above the following cultural stereotyping tendencies that exacerbate stress of female education managers came to the fore, namely:

- ❑ in dealing with male authorities, there is still a perception that females are not allowed to argue with a male;
- ❑ females are not perceived to be in leadership positions in church;
- ❑ women are supposed to cook;
- ❑ Xhosa boys do not respect females - do not respond to females - are not used to listen to females - it is not racial, but a cultural phenomenon;
- ❑ staff members respond immediately to male authority;
- ❑ females are socialised to be quiet, subdued and to control their emotions;
- ❑ females worry what others might think if they do not behave in a perceived inappropriate manner;

- society does not expect to find females holding senior management posts;
- females feel guilty if they do not suppress their anger;
- women teachers are not regarded as strong (in control);
- male managers that take advantage of traditional beliefs at work;
- females are being oppressed - resulting in women being unable to think independently - thus they become submissive;
- being subjected to cultural rituals resulting in women's lack of independence;
- cultural rituals resulting in female genital mutilation;
- males are taught in cultural initiation schools that women are subordinate;
- cultural taboos;
- cultural male privileges;
- women do not have the same freedom as their husbands;
- domestic inequity;
- females are taught to suppress anger, as it is not socially acceptable for females to show anger.

(iii) Culture lag

A lot of stress is experienced by all the participants due to the delay in traditional believes and practices. They comment as follows:

- A: *Women don't feel safe in the hands of other women.
If a man speaks, a woman is not supposed to speak.
A woman must stay with the children and cook.
A woman is not supposed to talk to a male like that.
Schools still say female teachers are supposed to go to the foundation phase, male teachers will be appointed in the senior phases.*
- D: *Patronising often happens in small doses and women who act differently are labelled.
Males are allowed to get angry.*

- E: *We as females cannot directly confront him, only males can.
Males come first - as long as you are married to the man, you are
oppressed.*
- F: *Women are reduced to nothing.
Women are not seen as leaders.
Men don't cook.
Many women managers are suffering domestic violence and are
keeping quiet.*

From the above the following tendencies regarding outdated cultural practices that exert an incredible amount of strain and pressure on females came to the fore, namely:

- ❑ females do not feel safe in the hands of other females;
- ❑ patronising and labelling of females are no longer acceptable;
- ❑ only males are allowed to get angry;
- ❑ females cannot confront senior male managers directly;
- ❑ oppression by husbands;
- ❑ the belief that males are not supposed to cook;
- ❑ a woman must stay with the children and cook;
- ❑ women are not seen as leaders;
- ❑ labelling of women that act differently;
- ❑ female teachers are supposed to teach in the foundation phase, and male teachers will be appointed in the senior phases;
- ❑ females suffer physical maltreatment in silence;
- ❑ women are reduced to nothing.

(iv) Socialisation

A lot of stress is experienced by the participants due to socialisation practices of parents, family and friends, education, church and media. In this regard they report as follows:

A: *We don't feel safe in the hands of a woman.*

If a man speaks, a woman is not supposed to speak.

A woman must stay with the children and cook.

A woman is supposed to cook - that is my culture.

I am not supposed to talk to him like that.

B: *I come from a home where my mother was submissive, but she only became submissive in order to keep the peace, yet my father taught his daughters that they are totally equal to males intellectually.*

C: *English-speaking South Africans definitely raise their children differently to Afrikaans-speaking people, they have more freedom than Afrikaans people who tend to keep their children back (hou hulle kinders meer terug), i.e. protecting them, although I think this has improved already with my generation and the new generation.*

Females must be in control of their emotions.

You are raised that a woman does not do that type of thing - "gaan nie so te kere nie", it is more acceptable by society for a man to do that type of thing (shout, swear).

You may be more aware of your words, because you are a woman.

There are times that I want to swear, then I reconsider (bedink ek myself).

I was raised (specifically by my mother) to suppress my anger (my father was the complete opposite) - it actually has a negative impact on

me- the disadvantage is that my anger has subsided the following day and it does not have the same effect that I wanted it to have on the person that I was experiencing a problem with.

A female must always be in control of her emotions - I cannot allow myself as senior manager to loose my temper.

People are raised in the belief that the man is the head of the household.

D: *There is a difference between what boys know they should do and what they do.*

There is no cultural difference between white and black boys (at 'elite' school) in that they react/ behave more or less the same.

I find the Afrikaans boys seem to be much more polite, the English are typically English they say what they want to. I don't find the black boys a problem - they are very much in the minority, obviously they are not going to speak out much, in this type of school you've got to respect.

I think Afrikaans boys are raised more conservative...they have never really been able to say, "Ma, where do babies come from?" on the spur of the moment. That is the feeling I get, and it carries through in their behaviour where they really tend to show better manners, they seem to come from homes where the contact with the kids is much closer where the father figure (male) dominates the family.

English parents, I am sad to say (at this school) are often divorced, or broken up homes, and the kids have too much money, they tend to have an overly developed sense of confidence because of the money.

My dad would fly off the handle very easily...my mom would bottle it up and explode at an inappropriate time...they did not specifically tell you, they are just your role models.

I was never trained to feel stereotyped, just the usual things: "Girls should sit with their legs crossed".

The church had an influence - my father was very definitely the head of the family and we went to church on a regular basis; we were a fairly

traditional family, although my mom was a worker.

My parents treated each other as equals, but nevertheless my dad always had the last say in the nicest, most liberated way.

I grew up in a very English family in a very English society.

My husband is a traditional man, I am submissive at home.

Women who act a little differently (angry or a little bit irrational) are labelled, this male is allowed to get angry and as a result he acts in the most irrational and childish way.

Patriarchy does not worry me so much as the unfairness of certain groups (consisting of males) at this school.

As a woman I feel very conscious of dressing in a certain way.

E: *Society requires males to be more intelligent.*

Males are given preference.

Females in my culture are not allowed to vent their anger or to confront a male directly as this is only a male prerogative.

By cultural norms he (husband) is a male and I am a female and normally shopping is not something we do together, as males are supposed to stay at home and not do shopping.

My husband and I both grew up in homes where the parents never went out together, and now the problem comes in that it is difficult to practise something you have never seen, with the result we both pick up the same things (in a shop) as a result of culture.

We have bad communication and when we go home we find out that we have bought double.

In our black culture it is acceptable for a married man to have an extra-marital affair, but for a woman it is taboo.

My father was very abusive to my mother.

Because of society and culture black males and females are not allowed to show their feelings towards each other, for example, love, especially as a man towards your partner. There is pressure as far as that is concerned, that is why we abide by the unwritten rules. Men engage in extra-marital affairs and they don't care. I wonder if black people even

realise how pressure is put on them as it is never verbalised. In your white culture you show it (love). It's only the young generation (black) that hold hands and kiss.

Xhosa's have a very strong culture, parents and society tell you it is bad to kiss/touch.

Males are taught in initiation schools that woman is woman, and it must stay like that.

Checked whether you are a virgin.

So many women are abused because of a fear of society, community, parents, culture and shame.

Women in Xhosa culture are not allowed to use certain words as a symbol of respect, for example if the surname of your in-laws start with a 'p', you are not allowed to use words starting with a 'p'. That is oppression, with the result that women cannot think independently and that makes you submissive.

Married females in rural areas must cover their heads as a sign of respect.

F: *Many women managers are suffering from physical abuse but are remaining silent.*

Regarding socialisation practices it seems as if the following tendencies contributed to the participants experience of stress, namely:

- ❑ females do not entrust other females with leadership positions;
- ❑ females not being allowed to speak when a man speaks, in some cultures;
- ❑ domestic and child caring duties are believed to be the responsibility of women;
- ❑ submissive mothers - serve as role models to children;
- ❑ socialised as equal to males intellectually;
- ❑ females are socialised to control/suppress anger;
- ❑ males are allowed to get angry;

- females are socialised not to swear and shout;
- males are regarded as heads of households;
- regarding respect - there is a clear difference between what boys know they should do and what they do;
- Afrikaans children seem to be raised more conservatively than English speaking South Africans;
- not all are trained to feel stereotyped;
- most husbands are traditional;
- females' behaviour is restricted;
- sexual freedom is a male prerogative, taboo for females;
- females are subjected to conflicting social expectations;
- female gender mutilation and sexual derogatory practices occur;
- stifling cultural /traditional practices occur;
- women are subjected to domestic abuse;
- females are conscious of appropriate dressing;
- males have the last say;
- women that act differently are labelled;
- women become submissive to keep the peace in the home;
- the church influences gender attitudes;
- females are viewed as subordinate in church;
- females are socialised to conform to gender appropriate conduct.

(v) Work overload

An extreme amount of strain and pressure is encountered by the participants due to stereotyping. Regarding the issue of work (role) overload, they respond as follows:

- A: *If it becomes difficult (cooking) - my husband will help, because he realises I am having a problem.*
I am having too much work to do from work that I have brought home - maybe I am not feeling well.

B: *I am tired and exhausted because I have two jobs, I run a family, children and I've got my job at school (education manager), whereas my husband has only got one job.*

I take work home about every day of my life and weekends. I work late on Friday nights, I get up at four o'clock on Saturdays. I used to go to church, but now I don't even go to church. I take the children to church and I mark books.

I don't have time in the week, because I have to transport my children when many people sit and mark at school. I am a language teacher, so obviously I have a lot of marking.

I never really have time for my children.

Because I work so hard.

C: *Sometimes it feels as if I don't get all my work done – "Dit voel vir my partykeer ek kry nie my werk gedoen nie".*

I follow an open door policy, therefore my time management is not good enough. I take work home.

I am like a 'jack-in-the-box' in the office. I cannot sit still. I make my own photocopies, instead of asking my secretary to do it, I take work out of her hands, maybe because I am a perfectionist, I think I will be able to do a job better.

A female has a choice, you can do the normal work that people do in this senior management position, or you can do more than the normal person, that causes tremendous tension.

My parent is sickly and lives with me, it places pressure on me, I must be the strong one and be able to take control, I must keep presence of mind when things go wrong medically.

D: *I work such long hours.*

I have no time for family and friends. I hear remarks about, "Now we won't see you until the end of the term".

I have to take on other jobs as my husband is sickly, I have very little time.

I used to get up at four in the morning, now I try to do most of my marking at school before I go home.

I am emotionally exhausted.

E: *I wake up and replay events of the day.*

You manage your family and keep them going, because you manage all the activities around your family.

F: *I travel a lot, my child feels it.*

The following tendencies were revealed concerning stress encountered by participants due to work (role) load:

Females/Females

- suffer from work overload;
- find cooking becomes difficult, because of too many duties;
- have (at least) two full-time jobs - run a family and management job;
- have virtually no leisure time;
- subject themselves to gruelling hours;
- don't have leisure time in the week - have to transport their children;
- take work home everyday;
- have too much to do;
- work over weekends, do not have time to attend church;
- don't get all their work done;
- have an open door policy - thus not enough time to complete their work - take work home;
- take work out of the hands of the secretary - think they can do the work better;
- sick parents require time;

- ☒ do not have sufficient time for their children;
- ☒ suffer from mental and physical exhaustion;
- ☒ suffer the brunt of all the work responsibilities;
- ☐ have to take on other jobs, due to a sickly husband;
- ☐ feel emotionally exhausted;
- ☐ wake up at night and replay the events of the day;
- ☐ time is also consumed by travelling.

4.4.1.3 Harassment

A tremendous amount of stress and strain is experienced by the participants due to stereotyping regarding the issue of sexual and emotional harassment. They reported as follows:

A: *Harassment is a huge thing we get from men at work.. I remember I was on a Development Association Committee, a man was the chairperson , I was the only woman on that committee. You know, every time when I spoke he would shout at me or interrupt me.*

B: *Boys just look at you and they just don't respond.
It is not a racist thing at all, you know the black boys will stand together and they will ignore you flat until a male teacher arrives.
Subtle, hostile jokes are made about women re 'that time of the month'.
If a female teacher acts any different, the male staff will remark, "She's got her period". Young females find it embarrassing.
A male colleague is always rude and arrogant and has no respect for females.*

Emotional harassment (verbal abuse) is always there at home, there are cultural differences. I am married to a professional male and although there is a lot of equality between us, he expects me never to complain and to do my job, and he is in competition with me all the time. If I am

tired, he is more tired and his job is more stressful than my job. The strangest thing is that he would admit to a colleague that I work very hard and that he feels sorry for me, but he will never admit to it, he gets angry if I say I am tired and exhausted because I have two jobs.

Because I am very friendly as a female, men will like to come and talk to me, a specific male (married) colleague will always make some sexual suggestion: "gosh, you know you are such a sexy women and you are already your age; you've got such a figure I think you are the sexiest woman."

If one of my colleagues says her husband is not there (out of town), he will say, "oh can I come and visit you tonight?" and if a male colleague's wife is away, he would not suggest to him that he wants to visit him - it makes me totally mad - he tries to take advantage, it creates a lot of anger in me. I just look at him and walk away, but I actually feel like slapping him.

If there is any derogative sexist remark in my absence, my female colleagues always come and say to me they wish I were there.

C: *Sexism exists.*

D: *There are jokes about 'that time of the month' because this is a male environment.*

Women who act differently are labelled (emotional harassment).

I am not recognised as a manager.

Male colleagues are 'bully stronger'.

A boy was exposing himself to me.

E: *Sexual jokes and sexual harassment happen frequently.*

My senior male manager suggested, "I want to sleep with you" (by scratching the palm of my hand gently with forefinger when he greets me).

My senior male manager has approached me (to have sex) and sometimes he fondles my breasts, he does not only do that to me, he does that to other women too, I just listen to my colleagues talking, and I don't say anything.

Girls are checked to see if they are virgins.

Some of my colleagues' genitals have been mutilated as young girls.

F: *The community is not expecting women to be assertive, confident, to sit in front, to ask questions, even to appreciate.*

Black men think that women are not to wear trousers, but women are fighting this, it comes from tradition, and we, as women, are saying that it is not going to control our taste and life.

Men will immediately interrupt you.

You are now talking for women, you are arrogant.

Regarding both sexual and emotional harassment it appears as if the following tendencies contributed to the pressure and strain on females:

■ Emotional harassment in the form of:

- being shouted at;
- being interrupted;
- not being respected;
- being ignored;
- being treated rudely;
- being treated arrogantly;
- being verbally abused by husband;
- being labelled;
- not being recognised as a manager;
- being bullied;
- not expected to ask questions;

- not expected to be confident;
 - not expected to be assertive;
 - not expected to be seated in front;
 - not 'allowed' to wear trousers.
- ☑ Sexual harassment, such as:
- subtle, hostile, sexual jokes;
 - sexual remarks;
 - remarks: "she's got her period". "that time of the month";
 - making sexual suggestions "You are the sexiest woman", "you've got such a figure", "Can I come and visit you (a married woman) tonight?"
 - boys exposing themselves;
 - senior (married) male manager suggesting: "I want to sleep with you" (married female);
 - senior male manager fondling breasts of female manager and other female employees;
 - young girls subjected to virginity checks;
 - genital mutilation - to remove sexual pleasure of female.

4.4.1.4 Personality

Most participants endured a lot of stress regarding the issue of their type of personality, and responded as follows:

A: *I am a perfectionist, I want to see things happening the way I want them, so if they are not happening that way, I just cannot take it, I even sometimes work during the night and think of the workshop I was conducting, how I can change.*

B: *I am a perfectionist.*

C: *I am a perfectionist.*

D: *I wake up and rewind the day.*

Tendencies regarding personality are as follows:

- majority are perfectionists;
- relive work events;
- want to see things happen the way they want them to.

(I) Power-related behaviour

Stress experienced by the participants, due to the issues of sex differences and stereotyping, manifests as follows:

A: *If I feel angry, I just avoid it.*

B: *I am assertive and I don't care what people or children think of me.*

I can control them and keep them quiet (assembly of students), I will be put in charge.

I told him, "You will never talk to me like that again."

Male colleagues could not believe that I verbally 'attacked' the new male staff member.

I said to him "Is this hysterical guy that's in his menopause still busy here?"

I just believe that he knows that I can do 'something' equity-act wise to him, although I wouldn't, it is good to scare him off.

If I am angry, I am angry, i.e. why I am unpopular. They, especially males, avoid me, because they know if they say anything to discredit a woman, I will always be the first to say, "Excuse me I don't think this is very good taste," so they know they must not make any 'remarks' when

I am around.

If I want to swear I will, I don't suppress my anger at all.

I do not suppress any of my feelings as far as a female is concerned and I am very explicit about my feelings, mostly males find me a problem because of that.

I tell the principal I am going to my child, I find it is the only way to talk to him, there is no way to ask, because if I (female) ask him he will say no.

I get so angry I actually feel like slapping a male colleague.

Sexual harassment creates a lot of anger in me.

C: *Things irritate you so much that it feels as if you can explode.*

D: *I am becoming aware of the fact that I don't suppress enough anger and I seem to be irritable, more than I actually prefer.*

I find it often easy to carry an irritation with the class over too far, possibly being a female in a male dominated environment where I am determined not to be seen as weak and feeble, I want to be seen in charge, but I am afraid I am very conscious of the fact that I am oversensitive.

I try very hard not to be pushed around as a teacher (because of strong male environment).

I am at times horribly vulnerable, far too vulnerable for my own good and there are times that I am overly assertive. So I am this incredible mix.

I want to be seen as being in charge.

Women who act differently (anger) are unfortunately labelled.

I swear, more than anybody else that I know, it is possibly one of the few areas where I can be a little bit rebellious.

E: *Sometimes I vent that anger on my subordinates, but not directly to a person involved.*

At some point I have an emotional outburst, I directly tell the male person.

I am angry and I don't care.

I vent my anger and this is culturally not acceptable.

I try to do now whatever I want to do.

Then you declare war through education, you become assertive and tell society and culture to go to hell!

That is why so many black women raise their children on their own, because they rise above the odds, they are strong.

F: *I can't just listen and accept what I feel is wrong.*

When I disagree, I disagree.

But I told myself I will remain what I am, because I can't just keep quiet and deceive people as if what they are doing, is right.

I'm a gender activist, I'm always making people aware.

I don't want a man to feel pity for me.

We as women are saying that it is not going to control our life.

If you are a manager with all the fights and the strong beliefs and disagreements, there is no way that this thing that you have internalised, that is in your blood, that you can leave it behind; it's what you live, the leadership, the sensitivity, the activism. I will go home with it, whether you are going to be rejected or accepted, that doesn't matter.

I want to stress clearly that what I believe is what I live, and I can't part with it, I grow with it and go with it to my home, the level of responsibility that I have, gives me a certain freedom, freedom to say I initiate, and I sometimes do take advantage of the weak points of my husband, especially when it comes to initiating.

The following tendencies regarding the manifestation of stress concerning the issue of power-related behaviour in the participants came to the fore:

- avoidance;
- acting assertively;

- experiencing intense anger and irritability;
- not suppressing anger;
- reacting rebelliously;
- feeling like slapping a person;
- telling a male not ever to talk to them in that manner;
- verbally attacking male colleagues;
- swearing;
- wanting to explode;
- wanting to be seen in charge;
- venting anger although it is not culturally acceptable;
- declaring war through education;
- rather raising children on their own – becoming strong - rising above the odds;
- refusing to keep quiet any longer;
- not wanting to be pitied;
- not accepting what is wrong;
- becoming a gender activist - making people aware;
- deciding “This is not going to control me”;
- internalising power-behaviour;
- taking leadership, sensitivity, activism home - whether rejected or accepted;
- level of responsibility as a manager gives certain amount of freedom;
- telling society and culture to go to hell.

(ii) Androgyny

Stress experienced by the participants manifests as follows:

- A: *Whatever a man can do, a woman can do.
We share responsibilities (my husband and I); there is no friction about that.*

- B:** *I am assertive and I don't care what people or children think of me.
I just feel that I am equal to males and if I want to swear I will. If I am
angry I am angry.
I don't suppress anger.
I am explicit with my feelings, mostly males find me a problem because
of that.
There is a lot of equality (in marriage).
The fact that I feel totally equal to a male rubs off on my children, as
young as they are, they feel totally equal to males and they would not
accept male dominance.
My father taught his daughters that they are totally equal to males
intellectually.*
- D:** *There are times that I am overly assertive, so I am this incredible mix.
I want to be seen as being in charge.
It is being expected and yet as a woman, I actually am crossing the
boundary line because I don't care literally to get my hands dirty.
I swear.*
- E:** *At some point I directly tell the male person that I am angry then, and
that I don't care. I try to do now whatever I want to do.*
- F:** *I told myself I will remain being what I am, because I can't just keep
quiet and deceive people as if what they are doing is right.
Where I disagree, I disagree.
I don't think there is one who is higher qualified than me here.
I will go home with it, whether you are going to be rejected or accepted,
that doesn't matter.
My husband is the best cook ever, I can't compete with him.
Don't ever think that because I am keeping quiet that I am in
agreement, I just keep quiet for two reasons, one to see what you
(husband) are thinking, and I give you a chance to be high...He knows I
will approach the subject again, so that indicates that my sensitivity and*

my managements skills go home with me.

Tendencies regarding the manifestation of stress on the issue of androgyny that came to the fore are the following:

Females/Females'

- ☑ feel whatever a man can do they can do;
- ☑ are assertive and don't care what people think;
- ☑ feel equal to males;
- ☑ swear if and when they want to;
- ☑ don't suppress anger;
- ☑ are explicit with their feelings;
- ☑ have equality in their marriage;
- ☑ equality rubs off on their children;
- ☑ are (rarely) socialised as having equal intelligence as males;
- ☑ are a mix of assertiveness and submissiveness;
- ☑ cross the gender boundary line and do not care;
- ☑ that are culturally not allowed to confront males, do so and do not care;
- ☑ feel free to disagree;
- ☑ try to do whatever they want to do;
- ☑ feel they cannot keep quiet and deceive people;
- ☑ carry their management skill into their homes.

Racism

A lot of stress is experienced by some of the participants due to stress regarding racism. They responded as follows:

- A: *Racism is terrible, there are still racists where I come from.
When you bring the black in, the black teachers and the white teachers
they become heavy. You cannot go with them, there are those that who*

will say; 'No, we are advanced, we cannot be compared, or we cannot join these groups, because we are 'advanced'.

They (white teachers) would say, "We have better education than your education", and they attend your course scheduled for 2 to 3 hours. After an hour they start making excuses to go out and leave you like that, because they don't accept you, not actually to say that you are not giving them what they want, simply because you are a black woman standing in front of them.

I went to one white lady and I asked her: "How do you feel about this?" (training course), and she said: "You know, it was excellent, when I started hearing about this workshop I thought I am going to waste my time". So you realize there is still this mark that a black woman or black man cannot really give us what we want.

They (white teachers at courses) group themselves aside.

When I got into that class, they (whites) never expected me, they were shocked to see me there, because of my colour some people (whites) accepted me when they realised that I have connections with this white female facilitator that they value, so it means I must be something.

- D: *I don't experience any racism (at work); in fact, I think I am probably a perpetrator of backward racism, trying to be too involved in the lives of black students.*
- E: *When people got to know me, the racism subsided.*
- F: *The secretary of the principal treated me as if as if I were a domestic and did not want me to see the principal - she did not realise I was a senior manager ("Wat kan ek vir jou doen, ousie"?)*

Regarding the issue of racism it seems as if the following contributed to

pressure on females in the educational sector, namely:

- ❑ racism exists;
- ❑ black female managers are perceived to be domestic servants;
- ❑ black females have to prove themselves and put in an extra effort before (if) they are to be accepted by white teachers.

4.4.1.6 Domestic violence

An incredible amount of stress and pressure is experienced by female managers due to stereotyping. Regarding the issue of domestic violence, they reacted as follows:

E: *My father was very abusive to my mother.*

Some women in management experience abuse from their husbands.

Women are abused because of a fear of society, community, parents, culture and shame.

F: *Many women managers are suffering from domestic violence, because if you go through their leave form, it's always stress, nervous tension, domestic problems. If you go beyond domestic problems, you see a black eye, etcetera.*

Women managers, if they are not assertive, they are even unable to work effectively, because the husband will say, "Don't attend that workshop", or "Why should you go to work today, don't go there". People will wait for them at work and they remain at home, how are they going to face the people tomorrow, then there is tension.

We have the Domestic Violence Act now, it's making them more silent, because they are no longer going to be kept (financially by husband/partner).

Women are silent because they are intimidated by the husband, scared that the husband will divorce her, will leave her, kick her out of the house, and female managers who suffer the most are those who are not paying the house bond.

Regarding the issue of domestic violence, the following contributed to the stress and pressure on female managers in the educational sector:

Females/ Females'

- parent (mother) suffered from physical abuse;
- are abused;
- managers suffer domestic violence;
- managers that are not assertive, are controlled by their husbands;
- work attendance is negatively influenced by husband;
- remain silent when they are abused by their husbands

Females suffer violence at the hands of their spouses as they fear consequences such as

- societies' /cultural rejection;
- parents' disapproval;
- divorce;
- loneliness;
- shame;
- Domestic Violence Act silences females even more - as females are scared that the husband will divorce her, leave her, kick her out of the house if he is responsible for the house bond.

4.4.1.7 Crime

A lot of strain and pressure is experienced by the participants regarding the

issue of crime. They responded as follows:

- A: *I cannot walk or drive alone at night, the way people have been raped and killed is frightening, even in my house I don't feel safe.*
In the evening when I study, I take my books to the bedroom, right in town I don't feel safe, I cannot stay in a house with a lace curtain only, there must be a thick curtain, I don't feel safe.
It puts pressure on my life.
- B: *Crime/violence does have an effect on me.*
I am always scared for my children, I worry about my children, especially at night when I drive. I particularly fear for my children. We have safety precautions.
I am not paranoid, I take safety precautions because of rape and being a female, especially when we come home late at night, because we are often alone and there is no male at home (due to the nature of his profession), in that way I am very aware of the violence and the crime.
I feel scared, but not all the time.
- C: *Since a colleague was attacked, I am more aware of crime.*
I do not stay at work late any more, I go home earlier.
I do not work alone in my office at night, work that I still have to complete, I now complete at home.
Crime does influence my lifestyle.
- D: *I am very conscious of the way I dress.*
- F: *I don't drive alone at night, I do not work alone in my office at night.*
I am scared of being raped when I go jogging in the morning.

The following trends regarding the issue of crime appear to contribute to the immense pressure and strain on the female participants:

Females/Females'

- cannot walk or drive alone at night;
- are terrified of being raped;
- are terrified of being murdered;
- do not feel safe even in their homes;
- don't feel safe anywhere;
- are very aware of violence and crime;
- fear for the safety of their children;
- are not paranoid;
- take precautions against crime;
- do not work alone in the office at night;
- lifestyle is influenced by crime;
- are scared of being raped when going jogging in the morning;
- lost freedom of movement;
- are forced into dependency;
- work routine is overturned;
- must always be vigilant in order to survive;
- quality of life is negatively affected;
- of all races are affected by crime.

4.4.2 Manifestation

Stress seems to manifest mentally - behaviourally and physically in the participants, the mental-behavioural domain will be reported first.

(i) Mental-behavioural

Regarding stress manifestation due to the issues of sex differences and stereotyping, the participants reported as follows:

- A: *I just felt like crying in the office.
I was crying, I had this fear of something.
I don't know, I cried and cried up to the time I went back home, then I was OK.
If maybe a teacher has a problem, it is going to upset me at night, then I have this thing of sleeping, but not really falling deep into my sleep, as if I am in between waking up and sleeping; now I start planning at that time, taking my thoughts around trying to get how I can help that person, that is how I work.*
- B: *If I am very stressed I will slam the door, I will scream, I will swear (this is all at home).
I cry when I am alone, if I bath I will cry.
Mostly if I am angry I just show the vibes, I don't hide it. I scream and I tell everybody their fortune.
I give too much of myself, that is the problem.
If I am very stressed, I can't handle food.
My stress rubs off on my children. I never really have time for them (my children) and they always have to feel sorry for me, because they see that I suffer, because I work so hard, and they always want to do something for me.
Sexual harassment creates a lot of anger in me.*
- C: *If I wake up early in the morning and I do not rise immediately, I sometimes worry more in that short period of time than another person would during a whole night (ek bekommer my meer as wat 'n ander persoon die hele nag doen).
I talk (praat baie met myself) a lot to myself when I am very stressed.
I can't cry.*
- D: *I don't suppress enough anger, it has affected my teaching career.
I am irritable.*

I swear.

I often find it easy to carry an irritation with the class over too far without realising I am doing it.

I am very conscious of the fact that I am oversensitive.

I am emotionally exhausted.

I permanently feel guilty about school, my husband and parents.

I have guilt feelings about too many things I am doing, too many jobs, not seeing friends, family enough.

Getting angry is self-defeating and is not going to change anything (powerless).

I don't feel like/dread going back to work.

E: *Besides that the confrontation causes unpleasantness, it leads to inner conflict for me, this causes pressure.*

At some point one does have an emotional outburst - I am angry and I don't care, everybody is going to blame me in one way or another.

I have to go through a lot of stress.

F: *I used to cry, but I don't anymore.*

It seems as if stress regarding the issue of sex differences and stereotyping manifests mentally-behaviourally in the participants as follows:

They

- feel like crying;
- cry or refuse to cry;
- only cry when alone;
- slam doors;
- swear;
- tell people their fortune;
- feel they give too much of themselves;
- cannot handle food;

- overeat;
- worry a lot before getting up;
- rub off on children;
- experience permanent guilt feelings;
- feel tremendous anger;
- have disturbed sleeping patterns;
- become oversensitive;
- dread going back to work;
- experience inner conflict;
- experience unpleasantness;
- are emotionally exhausted.

(ii) Physical

- A: *My pressures I feel through my body, sometimes you feel tired and you don't want to talk when you get home, you want to sleep.
I am on treatment for dizziness now because of the pressure of the work, the way I was working at the office.
I get regular headaches and pains, I have developed high blood pressure.*
- B: *Headaches are one of the worst things I experience, if I am actually very stressed out, I just know it develops into a terrible headache i.e. migraine.
If I am very stressed I cannot eat.*
- C: *I suffer from headaches and about once a year from migraine. I had a problem with my colon, I suffer from skin problems, the skin on my hands, on the tips of my fingers peel off, especially if my system is run down and I am under a lot of pressure. It starts as a blister (dry), becomes bigger also on the palms of my hands. It is a result of tension, especially towards the end of a term when things are taking place and I*

experience a lot of pressure during the week. It disappears for a month or two, until my stress and workload escalate again.

D: *I am healthy - have a tender, sensitive stomach.*

E: *I have headaches, very bad migraine, nausea.
I experience hand spasms and lameness on my right side when I
experience very extreme personal problems, lower back ache,
constipation.*

F: *Pain, aches, stiffness in neck and shoulder area.
I eat.*

It seems as if stress physically manifests in the participants as follows:

They reported

- feeling tired/exhausted;
- not feeling like talking;
- just wanting to sleep;
- dizziness;
- high blood pressure;
- regular headaches
- very bad migraine;
- nausea;
- spastic colon;
- constipation;
- sensitive stomach;
- skin diseases;
- spasms in hands;
- lameness (temporary 'semi-paralysis' of limbs);
- bodily aches and pains;

- lower backache;
- stiffness in neck and shoulders.

(iii) Stress treatment

The participants reported they treated stress as follows:

- A: *I went to see my doctor yesterday and he said I must get rest, because I am exhausted. I am tired, I am stressed, I can feel from my body that it really wants rest, I take medication for high blood pressure.*
- B: *I always carry a migraine kit with me (series of tablets to take for a migraine), or otherwise Syndols (painkiller for tension headaches). If I have a very bad migraine then I have to go for an injection.*
- C: *I take painkillers for my headache.*

Due to stress it seems as if participants have to make use of :

- medical practitioners;
- medication;
- painkillers;
- injections for severe migraine.

4.4.3 Management techniques

Regarding management techniques on the issue stress experienced through sex differences and stereotyping, the participants reported as follows:

- A: *In my job I need to face things that are not satisfying me rather than suppressing them, because if I suppress them, in the long run I am going to explode, and I will not be able to solve the problem. So it is best*

to tackle them as they come.

If there is something wrong I address it there and then.

If I feel angry I avoid it (problem).

You get those hostile remarks, you really handle them as they come.

I sometimes work during the night and think of the workshop I conducted.

After the meeting I approached him and said to him: "You know you are not supposed to speak to me like that. As a human being I have my rights and my dignity, and even if maybe you are used to speaking like that to your wife, I am not your wife". It was very clear, I am not his wife and the respect that I am giving him, I expect in return.

I am that person who really takes pressure, I do not keep quiet.

When I feel I am really overloaded, I keep quiet rather than crying or arguing.

Occasionally I drink a glass of wine when I am at a party.

B: *We discipline them (boys). If they make a noise, we put them in detention, we do not take any nonsense from them now, but it takes a lot out of us - much more than it takes out of males.*

You must be a total bitch, otherwise the boys will never ever respect you if you don't just go straight for them.

I cry because it is a stress relief for me, because then I realise how helpless a situation I am in, being a mother and working, and how stressed I am and there is no way out, because I want to give so much to my children, because I know in a couple of years it is going to stop.

Sometimes I try to go for a bike ride or I just go for a walk, but there is not always time.

I do believe you should exercise and that is my New Year's resolution. I think that is the only thing that can actually help you with stress.

I never smoke and seldom drink.

Men will go to the gym, that is their first priority for stress relieving.

There are women on my staff that make it their priority to go to the gym for stress relief.

Some people go for meditation, things like meditation is still something that is taboo in our society, because mostly if you do that you are actually defying God. People are too scared of that, that is why I say you must be on a higher spiritual level, but I don't think we (South African society) can, it takes most people a long time to reach that level and as they get older they go for it. Younger people try sport, but they cannot always keep up with it, so that is why I think that they don't manage.

- C: *I work in the garden to process (verwerk) stress, and I talk to myself. My mother is very realistic - we discuss things and I will tell her I am very tense. These talks help to relieve my stress. It is not the big things like the budget that cause stress, it is the small things like pettiness, mostly from female staff members.*

A lot of things go through my mind if I wake up early. I have learnt not to lie and think about things, but to get up and to write down these things in order not to forget them.

- D: *I feel very uncomfortable, I take it (sexism/discreditation) in my stride most of the time. I would like to think I that I myself have risen above that (patronising), I make cheeky retorts.*

I try to smile.

I will also tease somebody (patronising).

I listen to music, read or even work - that is my stress relief.

I get self-satisfaction by proving myself outside of school - it gives me a sense of liberation.

I am always introspective.

I tried yoga, but I don't have the time.

I have learnt not to argue with him.

E: *We avoid direct confrontations, especially with our senior male manager.*

I have a drink, that is culturally acceptable, but not smoking.

F: *I go jogging in the morning.*

The stress of the participants due to sex differences and stereotyping is managed by:

- ☐ either facing problems directly or avoiding them;
- ☐ demanding respect;
- ☐ handling problems as they come;
- ☐ keeping quiet;
- ☐ working twice as hard;
- ☐ acting like a total bitch;
- ☐ crying;
- ☐ going for a bike ride;
- ☐ going for a walk;
- ☐ going to gym;
- ☐ doing gardening;
- ☐ writing things down;
- ☐ trying to smile;
- ☐ proving themselves outside education;
- ☐ reacting in an aggressive manner;
- ☐ acting introspectively;
- ☐ doing yoga;
- ☐ talking to someone that is very close;
- ☐ physical exercise;
- ☐ relaxing with music;
- ☐ throwing the towel in and taking discreditation;
- ☐ having learnt not to argue back;
- ☐ taking an alcoholic drink.

(i) Lack of skills/ reasons for not applying skills

The reasons for not applying or lacking skills to cope with stress due to sex differences and stereotyping, are reported as follows by the participants:

A: *I have got so much equipment for exercise, I've got a bicycle, the bun burn, I don't use them, because when I get home I am so tired. I am too tired, because when you get home now you have to see to it that people/children get something to eat in the morning it is a rush.*

B: *I used to go to the gym but I don't have the time, I don't go. My husband twice a week goes for Tai-chi and on Sunday evenings goes to meditation and for a walk to relieve his stress, but I never have the opportunity, because I am always busy. If I say to him: "This child needs you, I am exhausted" then, he says, "No, I first have to go to my Tai-chi", and when he comes back it is too late to see the child (sleeping), where I can be just as tired and have a migraine, but if my child needs me, I will still go and pretend that I feel well and help them, but they (males) live in their selfish world. At the staff table that I join at school, all the women suffer from migraines (they are over forty), not one of them have time for exercise.*

D: *I don't have the time.*

E: *I have a bicycle at home, but I am too tired to make use of it.*

The reasons why female education managers do not apply, or lack skills to cope with stress, appear to be the following:

- too tired to use their exercise equipment at home;
- do not have time to go to the gym;

- ☒ too busy or too exhausted to go for Tai-chi or meditation;
- ☒ husband does not take a turn to tend to the needs of children - therefore no time available;
- ☐ too tired to ride bicycle.

4.4.4 Need for training

All the participants agreed that there is a severe lack of stress management training in order to enable them to cope with sex differences and stereotyping, and report as follows:

- A: *Females really need to be trained.*
- B: *A person must be on a higher spiritual level to do meditation, as it is still taboo in our society, because mostly if you do meditation, you are actually defying God. People are too scared of that, it takes most individuals a long time to reach that level.*
People try sport, but they can't always keep up with it, I think that is why they don't manage.
Intensive training is needed, for women.
- C: *As teachers we are not trained managers, but trained teachers, we never did courses to enable us to handle things. The things that I know now are things that I discovered through my own studies, but nowhere did the Education Department or anyone else, for example, organise a course to teach managers how to cope with stress. You go through the ranks, you get these posts and suddenly you are alone.*

There is a lack of management training in the education sector and it causes extra tension. You have a choice: you can do the normal work that people do in this senior management position, or you can do more than the normal person - that causes tremendous tension.

There is also a lack of training for us as education managers on the financial side, there is really a great, great, need for training.

Some members of my management team are visionaries, others operate within a certain framework which leads to conflict within our management, this conflict causes tension and stress for me.

I must handle (hanteer) the tension, but I do not have the tools/equipment to do so.

The things that the staff try with me, they would never have tried it if I were a male because a male would just tell them to 'get' out of his office, but what do I do? I say, "Come in, come sit, let me listen to your problem". That means that I loose time and that tonight I have to work for another hour, because I concern (steur my aan die goed) myself with these things as I do not want conflict in my organisation, with the result that I waste a lot of time. I am about to reconsider my management style as this incredible (verskriklike) democracy does not work.

D: *There is a need for training women how to manage their time, fear and pressure, especially women of my age. I often ask: "How the hell am I going to cope?"*

F: *When women are given senior positions, they must know how to be responsible, how to plan, organise and control and how to exercise authority, because if you are in a high position you are unable to be a responsible leader without authority, therefore you are going to lose your position, because you are going to fail, that relates to managerial skills.*

Even facilitation skills, because if a woman manager has to facilitate or conduct a meeting, if you are a poor facilitator there is no way (that it will be successful), your weaknesses are exposed and by the end of the day you are taken to the manager and thereafter even demoted. I think

assertiveness is very important, because if you are not assertive, you won't be able to handle abuse.

You need self-confidence to develop, even to say to the head of the department that you have a problem with his management and line function.

Some women will think that in order to achieve certain 'goals' they must go to bed with the head of department, because they are not self-assertive or self-confident.

If you are not assertive or self-confident you will not be able to say that you don't want to do certain things, and if it is not given to you, then the HOD can just go to hell, because it is not right to expect a woman to go to bed with him or to have to take him to dinner just to buy the position.

Because females are exposed to additional stress, the participants felt that

- ❑ intensive training is desperately needed;
- ❑ people try sport, but they cannot always keep it up and therefore cannot cope;
- ❑ they are not trained as managers but as teachers;
- ❑ they lack tools/equipment to handle fear, tension and pressure;
- ❑ lack of management training causes extra tension;
- ❑ they need training in managerial skills;
- ❑ they need self-confidence;
- ❑ they need to be trained how to handle authority and responsibility;
- ❑ their lack of assertiveness and self-confidence forces females to exchange sexual favours in order to receive promotion.

4.5 SYNTHESIS OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DATA.

The OSI data (*cf.* Table 4.1) and STRES data (*cf.* Table 4.2) as well as the qualitative data (*cf.* 4.4) will now be integrated as follows:

Participant A:

A experiences mild levels of stress concerning *role conflict* (*cf.* 3.4.2) in her occupation. According to the interpretation of the OSI scores, a person that experiences this type of stress may report not being clear about authority and having more than one person telling them what to do, as well as being caught between conflicting supervisory demands and factions. A reported (*cf.* 4.4.1.1. g) the manner in which she was patronised (*cf.* 4.4.1.1. a, g) and treated with disrespect by a male at a meeting. The fact that she reflects a slightly traditional attitude as far as employment roles are concerned (*cf.* Table 4.2), could explain why she experiences pressure in this particular occupational role as her situational behaviour could probably be influenced unconsciously by cultural beliefs.

A also experienced mild personal psychological strain (*cf.* Table 4.1) mirrored by her complaining of little things (*cf.* 4.4.2. ii). The PRQ Scales reflect that A experiences stress as she has mild deficits in coping skills as far as *recreation*, *self-care* and *rational/cognitive resources* are concerned, and she is not able to put her job completely out of her mind, and wakes up during the night "replaying" some work scenes (*cf.* 4.4.4). She does not have the time or energy to engage in activities that she finds relaxing (*cf.* 4.4.5), and her domestic responsibilities of cooking take up her time, as she has traditional beliefs concerning females in their parental roles (*cf.* Table 4.2).

Participant B

In the occupational domain B experiences mild stress regarding *role*

insufficiency (cf. 3.4.2), manifesting in the inability to perform duties sufficiently well, due to sexism and stereotypical attitudes of boys and males (cf. 4.4.1.1, a, c, e, f; 4.4.1.2, b) in her occupation, and the fact that the females have come up against a glass ceiling. Her failure to satisfy her personal desire for challenges and use of her skills, and the fact that she is a perfectionist and caught between the conflicting demands of her work and family probably are responsible for the stress she experiences in this domain. B also experiences mild psychological strain (cf. 3.4.4) as she assesses the conditions at her work, such as disrespect from the boys and preferential treatment of males by the principal, which inevitably lead to anxiety and/or unhappiness.

In the area of *recreation* B has mild deficits (cf. Table 4.1) in her coping skills, as she reports a lack of sleep and not having enough time for exercise and /or meditation (cf. 4.4.4), due to her workload and being a working mother. The stress profile of B mirrors a significant lack of social support (cf. Table 4.1), such as not having support to do important things, including at home and with rearing her children (cf. 4.4.5). She does not report anyone that she can count on, including her husband (cf. 4.4.1, h).

According to SRES, B is mostly highly egalitarian (Table 4.2), implying that she could experience a lot of stress as she is non-traditional and does not conform to society's beliefs (cf. 4.4.1.1, a-k). True sex-role egalitarians do not discriminate against or relate differently to other's on the basis of the other's sex (cf. 4.3, b) therefore B's stress is enhanced by her patriarchal-based work milieu, where females are associated with certain behaviours and presumed inferior. Simultaneously B is crippled "emotionally" due to her lack of significant coping resources (cf. Table 4.2). It also appears as if being *more egalitarian* renders B more capable of recognising instances of sexual harassment, and that possibly is why she experiences domestic labour division as unfair, resulting in strain, as B is also highly egalitarian regarding marital roles and egalitarian regarding parental roles. Her husband appears to be less

egalitarian than she is, which seems to lead to relationship dissatisfaction. As she is highly egalitarian the chances are slim that she would fall prey to situational intimidation that promotes stereotyping.

In spite of the fact that B is highly egalitarian and non-traditional, it seems as if her virtually total lack of social support is one of the major causes for stress besides the patriarchal structures and beliefs of society, and specifically males, in the education sector.

It is interesting to note that B is the only one of the participants who is completely non-traditional, and seems to have more confrontations with males both at work and socially, and is also the only participant that has virtually no social support. The latter probably occurs as people could think she does not need support as she appears very self-confident and in control of her surroundings. The fact that she chooses to assume any person role could threaten and confuse people with traditional beliefs concerning the role of females, including male chauvinists.

Participant C

C experiences mild stress in her occupation concerning *role conflict* and *responsibility* (cf. 3.4.2) (cf. Table 4.1). Role conflict is experienced by C as she experiences some problems with time management (cf. 3.4.2), and is subjected to “petty” problems of female staff members (cf. 3.4.2). The fact that she takes care of a sickly parent could also enhance her stress. However, C does not experience sexism from male subordinate in her occupation. This could possibly be due to the fact that she is the most senior person in this organisation and due to her beliefs about the males and females in the workplace, which tend to be egalitarian (cf. Table 4.2). C confirms that sexism (cf. 4.4.1.1. e) and stereotyping (cf. 4.4.1.2. b) exist, and that she was subjected to it when she applied for this particular post.

The fact that C feels she must suppress her feelings, correlates with her traditional beliefs on the SRES scale regarding interpersonal-heterosexual relationships.

C mostly experiences normal stress, which could also be due to the fact that she has traditional beliefs regarding social-interpersonal-heterosexual relationships, marital roles and family or work involvement (*cf.* Table 4.2). This could also be due to her socialisation process in a traditional family and milieu (*cf.* 4.4.1.2, (i), (ii)).

Participant D

D experiences mild stress in the occupational domain of role overload (*cf.* 3.4.2) and responsibility (*cf.* 3.4.2), as she seems to be over-committed to outside work, as her husband is sickly, increasing her workload and subjecting her to tight deadlines (*cf.* 3.4.2). The fact that she is not externally recognised as a manager in a dominantly male environment, where pressure is added as females are regarded as insignificant (*cf.* 4.4.1.1, a), could make her feel not competent for the job, whereby stress is enhanced.

The fact that D reports dreading to go to work (sometimes) and feeling irritable (*cf.* 4.4.2. (i)), seems to explain the mild stress she experiences in the vocational strain and psychological strain areas (*cf.* Table 4.1). It must be kept in mind that she works in a very strong male environment where she is perceived not only as occupying a non-traditional role, but also being of a lower status, merely because of her womanhood. According to the stress profile of D (*cf.* Table 4.1), she experiences severe stress in the interpersonal strain area, possibly because of disruption in relationships and as she has not got time for family and friends (*cf.* 3.4.4).

Except as far as employment and parental roles are concerned, D seems to be traditional in her beliefs regarding being submissive to her husband, she seems

to be moderately egalitarian at work, however, probably due to her socialisation process (*cf.* 4.4.1.2. (ii)), where a man is regarded as the head of the house. She therefore is subordinate to her husband, the latter correlating with her SRES score as being traditional in this area (*cf.* Table 4.2).

Participant E

In the occupational domain of *role overload*, E experiences severe stress (*cf.* 3.4.2) due to the fact that it is difficult to get hold of much needed resources such as transport, as males receive preferential treatment in the allocation thereof (*cf.* 4.4.1.1, a; 4.4.1.2, b) (i), (ii)).

According to the OSI stress profile, E experiences mild stress in *role ambiguity*, possibly as she does not know how she will be evaluated due to suspicions concerning females that care for their clientele, as well as the fact that her boss constantly harasses her emotionally and sexually (*cf.* 4.4.1.3) E's stress profile reflects severe stress (*cf.* Table 4.1) in the *responsibility* (*cf.* 3.4.2) area of her occupation, indicating that E feels a high responsibility for the performance of her subordinates (*cf.* 4.4.1, (b)). E also seems to be pressurised by being sexually molested (*cf.* 4.4.1.3) by a senior male manager. SRES scale results (*cf.* Table 4.2) point strongly to the fact that E is mostly traditional in her attitudes and beliefs, which seems to correlate with the fact that she apparently thinks (consciously or unconsciously) that it is expected of her to tolerate unwanted sexual groping from a senior male manager. As males not only come first in her culture, but female are not allowed to confront males, she suffers in silence as she might fear disapproval of male authorities that may jeopardise her job (*cf.* 4.4.1.2, (b), (i), (ii), 4.4.1.3; 3.4.3), and cause possible marginalisation.

E also experiences severe personal strain (*cf.* Table 4.1), implying that the quality of her work probably suffers and she tends to vent her anger on subordinates rather on the senior male manager, feeling powerless due to

cultural expectations and traditional roles (*cf.* 3.4.3). This correlates with her apparent conscious or unconscious beliefs concerning egalitarianism (*cf.* Table 4.2). The fact that she possesses average coping skills (*cf.* Table 4.2) seems to explain why she experiences severe stress.

Participant F

F, like E suffers from severe stress due to overload, possibly as a result of exorbitant demands and severe stressors such as being discriminated against due to stereotyping and sex differences (*cf.* 3.4.2; 4.4.1.1, (a) - (k); 4.4.1.2 (b), (i), (ii), (iii), (iv), (v)). Similar to E, F also experiences severe stress in the occupational responsibility area, as these people are often sought out for their leadership qualities and have to respond to the problems of others, and show over-commitment to outside responsibilities at the expense of their own time (*cf.* 3.4.2).

However, interestingly enough F, possesses average coping skills and does not experience personal strain, seemingly because she openly challenges male patriarchal and stereotypical beliefs and attitudes, which correlates with her reasonably high egalitarian profile. On the other hand, E is relatively traditional and, possibly under the influence of cultural demands, tends to remain silent, which correlates with her SRES profile, as true sex-role egalitarians are tradition-free in their attitudes, which E apparently is not. In comparison with F, E experiences exactly the same stressors, yet reflects a significant lack of coping resources and is traditional in many of her ways.

4.6 CONCLUSION

The six participants took part in the answering of the quantitative and qualitative questionnaires, each one was then personally interviewed as part of the qualitative research. The results were analysed and interpreted accordingly.

The themes and sub-themes from the above data reporting of the interviews will be used as a framework in the last chapter to form a synthesis of the quantitative and qualitative research and from data reported in Chapters 2 and 3. With the help of this synthesis, recommendations for future training programmes of female education managers will be made, and a model will also be designed for these females to handle stress and remale stereotyping. The last chapter will provide answers to the following question:

How are gender stereotypes related to the stress experienced by female education managers, and how could a stress empowerment model and training in management skills assist female education managers at junior, middle and senior levels of management?

Chapter 5

CLOSING PERSPECTIVE

5.1 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this study was to determine the impact of gender stereotype-related stress on female education managers and their performance. The gender stereotypes and roles attributed to females by society and conveyed from one generation to another, as well as the impact of socialisation on females, were important factors that had to be taken into account in this study.

Research was done by means of a literature study on gender stereotyping and roles (Chapter 2), followed by a grounding perspective on stress and the possible socio-behavioural and physical outcomes stress might have on individuals (Chapter 3). Quantitative methods were applied to the selected respondents, in an attempt to draw a stress-profile of each respondent and to investigate their possible sex-role egalitarian attitudes (Chapter 4), and then qualitative in-depth interviews were conducted with each of the six selected female education managers, from diverse cultural backgrounds, to get “under the skin” of women managers in order to provide first-hand evidence on the

influence of female stereotypes on their stress levels and consequently their performance (*cf.* 4.4, 4.5).

5.2 THE IMPACT OF FEMALE STEREOTYPING ON FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS

In order to view the issue at stake, it is necessary to form a synthesis of the literature, and the quantitative and qualitative findings as reported in the preceding chapters. For the purpose of reporting, the themes and sub-themes, as identified in Chapter 4, will be used as points of departure.

These themes and sub-themes will thus be cross-examined and integrated with the findings of the quantitative research and the literature study.

5.2.1 Sex differences

5.2.1.1 Respect

In the qualitative investigation, females in management positions clearly indicated that the effect of sex differences was experienced in the work situation and that it had a definite effect on their performance. These findings were also substantiated by the literature study.

It seems as if a lack of respect influences females and their work; this was clearly indicated during the interviews, where most of the participants indicated disrespect to be very demotivating, resulting in stereotypes portraying females as feeble and weak, lacking job-related skills and consequently not being treated as equals (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [a], 1.2, 1.3). The latter concurs with the literature findings reported in Chapter 2, where females are rated as inferiors (*cf.* 2.4.1, 2.4.2.1, 2.3.6), resulting in patronising behaviour towards them. Hypocritical double standards and contradicting value systems of society, whereby females come off second best in issues of

morals and respect, also lead to patronising that impacts on females' stress levels in their occupational roles, as indicated by their stress profile results (*cf.* Table 4.1).

Participants, especially those who scored highly on the SRES scales, thus highly egalitarian in their attitudes, found it extremely difficult to come to terms with the lack of respect from males. Because these females have a strong feeling for gender equity in the employment sector, the above-mentioned behaviour made them feel extremely humiliated (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [a], Table 4.2, 4.5).

All these aspects influence the work environment negatively, impacting on the management behaviour of female managers, because lack of respect breaks down their self-esteem and causes them to feel unworthy and inferior.

It thus seems as if the stereotypes, portraying females as inferior, weak and lacking job skills, result in a lack of respect for females and they are consequently treated as outsiders and not-belonging. The latter is endorsed by patriarchal belief systems that attempt to keep females in their 'place' in the working environment, in order to maintain the status quo of male power (*cf.* 1.1). The participants indicated that these negative experiences influenced their general well-being (*cf.* 4.4, 1.2, 1.3) which is reflected by their stress profiles (*cf.* Table 4.2).

5.2.1.2 Support

Although all the participants indicated that they lack support at work and in the social environment (1.1), they seemed to differ in their experiences pertaining to which of the two sexes tend to be the least supportive at work. They said that they did not get the support they expected from female colleagues and that male principals still prefer to appoint male teachers, as they regard females as weaklings. They also experienced males' requests to get preferential treatment above those requests of female teachers (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [b]).

The latter facts are backed by the literature (*cf.* 3.4.4, Table 3.1) as it appears that the lack of support experienced by the female managers impacted on their work performance (1.1, 1.2, 1.3). Stereotypical perceptions and traditional beliefs which portray females as not being the breadwinners, less important, less intelligent and less valuable, could imply that they are also not in need of support (*cf.* 4.4.1.1[b]). The latter facts were explicitly confirmed by the participants during the interviews. Because the abilities of females are regarded as inferior (*cf.* 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1), females are seen to be self-sacrificing, not competitive (*cf.* 2.4.2.1), and the permanent mother and nurturer (*cf.* 2.3.6).

Society expects from females to conform to nurturing and housewife roles, and it is specifically in this category that the participants experienced a lack of support, enhancing stress levels in their work and at home. It is particularly at home that most of them lack support from their husbands pertaining to domestic and child rearing responsibilities (*cf.* Table 4.1, 1.1, 1.2, 1.3), in spite of the fact that they also occupy full-time careers. One of the participants who experiences severe stress due to a complete lack of support (SS) (*cf.* Table 4.1), is a highly egalitarian individual (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5), who endorses non-traditional roles. She has been taught by her father that "*his daughters are intellectually totally equal to males*", and it is therefore very difficult for her to accept the traditional roles and inequality that still exist in society.

From the above-mentioned discussion it is clear that gender stereotypes and roles have a significant influence on the lack of support that is experienced by female education managers at varying managerial levels. These stereotypical perceptions result in frustration and stress for the participants, impacting negatively on their work performance (1.2).

5.2.1.3 Discreditation

All the participants cited in the interviews that they experienced discreditation through stereotype labelling. Labelling is a powerful device to control behaviour and through it females carry a stigma associated with womanhood (*cf.* 2.4.2.1). The latter enhances their experiences of stress in their work - a fact that is backed up by the literature study reported in Chapter 2, which found that females are brainwashed (*cf.* 2.4.3.1, 2.4.1) to believe that they are not in control and less competent than their male counterparts, and therefore better at tedious jobs. Even females' physical illnesses tend to be stereotyped and linked to mental, rather than physical disorders (*cf.* 2.3.4, 2.3.3, 4.4.1.1 [c]).

The female participants also indicated that they were continuously subjected to the male model as a norm and when they act in an assertive manner, they are regarded as unfeminine (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [a], 1.1, 1.2, 1.3), resulting in the participants being humiliated, for example: *"females are unfortunately labelled when they act different from men"* and *"when I come up with inputs, people tend to think I am arrogant"*. It is clear that society is programmed to believe that males are the leaders and females the followers (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [c], 1.1, 1.2, 1.3).

In summary, it is clear that stereotyped labelling that degrades and humiliates females, and sees them fit only for menial jobs, creates career barriers (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3) for females resulting in frustration and stress. The SRES results of the participants in Table 4.2 indicate that all the participants believe that the roles of females and males should be judged equally in employment (*cf.* 4.5), and therefore it is particularly hard for these female managers to handle discreditation.

5.2.1.4 Gender appreciation

All the participants experienced stress as they are subjected to a vicious cycle in which their unique style is not recognised, resulting in their expertise being ignored. Female managers thus feel they are not given a chance to prove their competence, which impacts negatively on their work performance and general well-being (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [d], 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). The participants indicated that their expertise is deliberately ignored, that they are not given a chance to prove their competence, as their style is not recognised or appreciated, but is rather ignored (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [d]). They thus also experience stress due to the fact that the unique management style of the female manager is not accepted (*cf.* 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1). This could be traced back to the primary school and adolescent phases (*cf.* 2.4.3.2 a), when girls were characterised by the traits they are without, in other words those which are not male.

During these phases, girls are subjected to a variety of stereotypes which are reflected by schools, such as the manner in which the staff hierarchy is organised: the principals, the mathematics and science teachers and those at senior levels are mostly male (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). All this strengthens the lower value placed on the female gender - a perception which is carried into adulthood.

Due to this lack of gender appreciation, where the female capabilities are not trusted, the participants all experience major frustrations which are reflected by their stress levels (*cf.* Table 4.1, 4.5). It seems as if these aspects enhance their stress and consequently also inhibit their talents and leadership skills.

5.2.1.5 Sexism and sexist behaviour

All the participants unquestionably gave evidence of sexism and sexist behaviour in their working environment (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [e], 1.1), causing them

much strain and influencing their work surroundings adversely. Sexist behaviour and sexism degrade, undervalue and underestimate female managers' potential, resulting in labelling when female managers dare act any differently than the prescribed roles that have been attributed to them by society. The participants all encountered sexism and sexist behaviour which are reflected by the fact that most principals are males. In some cultures the female manager cannot even confront a senior male manager directly, as only males are allowed to do so. Married males may have extra-marital affairs. However, the same behaviour is taboo for females. Females are mostly reduced to nothing, subjected to frequent sexist remarks or jokes (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [e]) and often not allowed to ask questions.

Females are continuously subjected to stereotyping which portrays females as unequal to males, leading to humiliation through sexist remarks (*cf.* 1.2, 1.2, 1.3), or even being ignored. Society's expectations that females should stand back and recognise males as their superiors, are based on patriarchal beliefs, which glorify manhood (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). Females are mostly treated unfairly by society, merely because of their womanhood, facts that are verified by the literature in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2.3.1, 2.3.3, 2.3.5, 2.3, 2.3.6, 2.4.1). Humiliation and frustration caused by sexism do enhance the stress levels of female managers in the education environment (*cf.* Table 4.1, 4.5).

5.2.1.6 Patriarchy

The patriarchal system was explicitly cited during the interviews as contributing tremendously to the stress and strain experienced by most of the participants. The interviewees feel that they are treated as subordinates and inferiors (*cf.* 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3.2 d, 2.3.6, 2.3.4, 2.3) as females in some cultures are not supposed to speak out, or vent their anger directly on a male. Female managers are often also subjected to violent treatment by their husbands (*cf.* 4.4.1.1[f]). Patriarchy and sexism are closely related and stereotypical beliefs, such as that males must occupy a higher status in society, automatically claim

them the power and control, providing them with more rights and privileges and allowing them to dominate (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). These facts are substantiated by the literature (*cf.* 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.4.1).

Socialisation messages that males are dominant and females subordinate are to a great extent reinforced by hidden school curricula and teachers who expect different behaviours from the sexes (*cf.* 2.4.3.2.c). SRES (*cf.* Table 4.2) mirrors the impact of socialisation clearly in the Social Interpersonal-Heterosexual domain (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5) : 66% of the participants were rated as semi-traditional to traditional regarding their beliefs about the equality with regard to interpersonal relationships, while 100% believed in sex-role equality in the work environment (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5). These figures underline the fact that female education managers mostly view themselves as equal to males in the work environment, notwithstanding the fact that they are not treated as such by male counterparts. This is probably also the explanation of the role-conflict within the participants, which enhances their stress levels even more.

From the above it is clear that males still cling to obsolete roles whereby females are prejudged and not treated as mature human beings, as patriarchy still supports gender inequality vehemently.

5.2.1.7 Patronising

Most of the participants indicated clearly that they experienced much strain and pressure as a result of being patronised, which has negative repercussions for their work (*cf.* 1.2, 1.3). Participants encountered being shouted at by males implying that they were speaking nonsense, or being interrupted in their speech and pertinently asked who they thought they were while performing management duties (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [g]). The literature review in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2.4.3.2, d; 2.4.3.2 a, 2.4.3.1, 2.4.2, 2.3.4, 2.3.6, 2.4.1, 2.4.1.1 a), revealing stereotypical beliefs such as females' being

perceived as inferior, experiencing little respect for their opinions, being treated arrogantly, having their rights as professionals ignored, being ridiculed and spoken down too, is confirmed by the data from the interviews (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [g]).

Patronising attitudes always establish a negative climate in the work environment, which causes female managers to withdraw and thus hampers effective management practices.

5.2.1.8 Not taken seriously

During the interviews the participants indicated that they were not taken seriously by their male counterparts, which contributed to the pressure already experienced in their work (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [h], 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). Not taken seriously by males is experienced both at work and in their social environments. It happens that their job qualifications (degrees) are questioned, that staff members tend to react only to male authority, and that preferential treatment is given to male colleagues. Male managers in some cultures view being confronted by a female manager as a cultural taboo, and women are perceived as arrogant when making management contributions. Husbands of female education managers regard the jobs of females as less important and less demanding than their jobs, and the respondents also feel that the Equity Act lacks specifics regarding the implementation and promotion of equity. Even medical practitioners view females as emotionally unstable when experiencing serious physical illnesses (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [h]).

Because females are regarded as inferior, mothers and nurturers (*cf.* 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1) - the appropriate traditional roles for females - females are not regarded as being of any significance in non-traditional roles such as education management (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [f]). The fact that 66% of the participants have traditional beliefs concerning social-interpersonal- heterosexual roles (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5) appears to reflect that they are so brainwashed by not

being taken seriously, that they consequently retreat when the same happens in their work situation. This hinders managerial constructiveness (*cf.* 1.2).

5.2.1.9 Misogyny

The participants indicated conclusively that they experienced much stress and strain due to misogyny, a fact that is also substantiated by the literature in Chapter 2 (*cf.* Table 2.2, 1.7). They said that they lived through experiences of being shouted at by a chairman, of being subjected to hostile sexist jokes, rudeness and arrogance and lack of respect. Male colleagues often feel threatened and convinced that their jobs are being taken over by females, and then start to retaliate when the female managers begin to play a leading role (*cf.* 4.4, 1.1 (i)).

Female stereotypes portray women as not at all assertive, inferior and submissive (*cf.* 2.4.1, 2.3.6, 2.3.4, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1), and when females show no fear in the process and make an attempt to equalise the power balances between the sexes, they become the prime target of male anger and are subjected to derogatory, stereotype labelling and sexual remarks in order to keep them in their perceived place. These females are then isolated and marginalised in an attempt to punish them for crossing the gender border lines (*cf.* 2.3.1, 2.3.4, 2.3.6, 2.4.1, 2.4.3.2). The stress experienced by the participants under such conditions is verified by Table 4.1 (ORQ and PSQ domains).

According to SRES (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5), all the participants are egalitarian in their beliefs that males and females should be judged alike in the work arena. This makes them a target for male misogyny as males feel threatened by them at work. The latter impacts negatively on their work constructiveness as they fear being marginalised and labelled as being a bitch, lesbian or feminist, all of which imply, in a derogative manner, that they are unfeminine. The latter unfolds into females' not taking proactive risks as they fear verbal abuse,

which handicaps their management performance (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3).

From the above it is clear that gender roles and stereotypes have a considerable negative influence on females who are assertive and therefore take males by surprise; this results in verbal threats, which also enhance the stress and strain of the females and affect their general well-being (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2).

5.2.1.10 Contamination

During the qualitative investigation, the participants unquestionably indicated that they suffer from much stress due to the stereotyping causing females to be perceived as contaminating due to their bodily functions. The participants felt that women are regarded as carrying a stigma related to certain bodily functions, for example, "that time of the month" or "she's got her period" (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [j]).

The above facts are also corroborated by the literature reported in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2. 4. 3. 2 a, 2.4.3.2 d, 2.4.1, 2.3.1), indicating that females internalise this contamination perception and could start to believe that they are inferior, as socio-cultural conditions also expect females to conform to obsolete stereotypes (*cf.* 2.4.3.1). During the toddler to pre-school phase females also internalise perceptions of being assessed lower than males, because of the lower assessment attached to femininity (*cf.* 2. 4. 3. 2 a). The school further inculcates female stereotypes by applying 'curriculum inferiority' whereby females' self-esteem is further decreased. The Social-Interpersonal-Heterosexual domain of SRES (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5) reflects the strong influence of internalisation and socialisation on the majority of participants, as they tend to fall back to more traditional beliefs, such as inequality in social interpersonal relationships.

As a result of socialisation, the internalisation of inferiority perceptions and

the consequent roles assigned to females by society, females' self-concept is under continuous pressure which amplifies their stress levels as reflected in Table 4.1.

The above may cause females to doubt their own competency, ensuing in their withdrawal, which incapacitates their work performance (*cf.* 1.2, 1.3).

5.2.1.11 Biological sex differences

Regarding sex differences based on biology, most of the interviewees clearly indicated that they experienced strain and pressure as they are perceived as being completely opposite to males (lacking genetic abilities). The participants felt that they were discriminated against on the basis of their different sexes, for example, females are not allowed to confront males directly in some cultures; females are associated with smaller children and men with the bigger children; some males do not want to appoint female teachers; females are not regarded as effective leaders by society, merely because of the fact that they belong to the other sex. The participants felt that these negative things would not have happened to them if they were males (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [k], 2.4.1).

In Chapter 2 it has been indicated that males tend to resort to myths to justify stereotype perceptions on the ground of biological differences, such as that the emotional behaviour of females are controlled by their hormones, making them unpredictable and therefore not fit to be leaders or managers (*cf.* 2.4.1, 2.3.6). Females are thus perceived as having genetic weaknesses that cannot be overcome. After birth, the female genitalia give rise to gender role expectations of parents and society and female babies are even handled differently (*cf.* Table 2.4.1). Females are perceived as lacking visual spatial abilities and three-dimensional skills, which are also believed to make them less analytical and therefore not appropriate management material. The latter traits are believed to be inherited and biologically fixed (*cf.* 2.4.1 Table 1).

These stereotypical perceptions cultivate stress in the participants and impact on their work performance, as amongst others, they block promotion opportunities for female managers (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). All participants, both those with egalitarian and traditional attitudes (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5) are affected negatively in their careers, as stereotypical beliefs concerning females and males seem to be complete opposites, where females are, amongst others, considered as not logical and therefore not of managerial quality. The latter perception not only underestimates females' intellectual performance, but also evolves into career stagnation and a waste of talent (*cf.* 1.2).

As females are mostly perceived as the complete opposites of males, overlapping traits and small differences between the sexes are conveniently ignored by researchers, whilst more definite differences between the sexes are over-exaggerated and described as opposite, rather than different, in order to justify stereotypical biological perceptions (*cf.* 2.4.1, Table 1). The latter perceptions result in female managers' having to work twice as hard as their male counterparts in order to prove themselves, adding more pressure to their working lives.

5.2.2 STEREOTYPING

5.2.2.1 Cultural stereotyping

The participants clearly indicated during the interviews that cultural stereotyping (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3), which exacerbates the strain and pressure that they experience in their work and/or at home, are not only a historical problem, but also outdated and no longer acceptable (4.4.1.2 [iii]). The interviewees felt that there still is the perception that females are not allowed to argue with male authorities; that being oppressed and subjected to cultural rituals result in females who are unable to think independently, causing them to become submissive; male managers take advantage of traditional beliefs at work, females are taught to suppress anger and not show it; females should

always act in a socially appropriate manner; are supposed to cook; they may not have the same freedom as males, and that boys need not listen to females - all of which constitute a cultural and not a racial phenomenon (*cf.* 4.4.1.2 [ii], [iii]).

The literature review in Chapter 2 revealed that stereotypical behaviour of males is based on the patriarchal ideologies (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2) that indoctrinate boys, through the process of socialisation (4.4.1.2 [iv]), with the fanatical beliefs of male supremacy and chauvinism (*cf.* 2.4.2.1, 2.4.3.2 a). Parents also attach specific labels to the female infant, when they are seen as weak, more delicate and when their crying is regarded as for fear, whereas the crying of infant boys is interpreted as anger (*cf.* 2.3.4.2 a). Boys are also socialised to believe that females are inferior (*cf.* 2.4.3. 2 a, b, c), as society mostly requires males to be superior and more intelligent (*cf.* 4.4.1.2 [iv]).

Female managers often have to deal with male authorities that stereotypically view them as subordinates and thus do not give them any credit (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2). As a higher socio-cultural value is placed on male managers (*cf.* 3.4.2), females then receive little recognition.

Because submissiveness is perceived to be feminine and because females are expected to suppress their anger, the participants experience inner-conflict. They are subjected to socio-cultural taboos and feel isolated and undervalued because they always have to fight for their rights. This constant conflict and struggle effects their work performance, as these incidents are experienced as extremely stressful (*cf.* Table 4.1). The fact that only 33% (SRES, Table 4.2, 4.5) of the female participants have traditional beliefs pertaining to marital roles, and 50% have traditional beliefs regarding parental roles, reflects the strong influence of traditional, patriarchal beliefs and socialisation (*cf.* 4.4.1.2 .[iv]) processes on the social lives of some of these female managers.

It seems as if discriminatory practices against females are still based on outdated patriarchal beliefs. These socially created stereotypical beliefs of female inferiority are traditionally passed on from one generation to another, without being questioned. This delay in traditional beliefs and practices results in disparity, creating tremendous tension for female managers, as these beliefs are impractical and modelled on primitive patriarchal social orders, whereby males reign supreme, expecting females to relent to male supremacy and to obey social prescriptions regarded as appropriate to female roles. These beliefs and practices have a devastating effect on the work performance of these participants and affect their work situation negatively, as they experience inner conflict between traditional cultural expectations of female behaviour and their personal perception of equality (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5); they are also intimidated into subordination and submissiveness which renders them confused, powerless and frustrated (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2).

5.2.2.2 Work overload

During the qualitative interviews all the participants stated in no uncertain terms that they experienced extreme stress and pressure owing to stereotypical thinking concerning the workload of females. They also feel that they have to suffer the brunt of all work responsibilities resulting in exhaustion (*cf.* 4.4.1.2 [iv]).

Females are stereotyped as eternal mothers (*cf.* 2.4.2.1, 2.4, 2.3.6, 2.3.5, 2.3.4, 2.3.3), but most of them have at least two full-time jobs as husbands or partners mostly assume that the domestic and child-rearing duties remain the responsibility of the female (*cf.* 2.4.1). The latter results in females' not being able to cope with the immense workload (*cf.* 3.4.2). The participants feel that they suffer from work overload (*cf.* Table 4.1), as they have too many duties at work and also take work home everyday while attending to cooking, transporting children, running a family and caring for elderly parents, and taking work out of the hands of other people. These female managers have to

subject themselves to gruelling hours in order to get everything done - which they feel they do not always succeed in doing- and this leaves them with virtually no free time (*cf.* 4.4.1.2 [v]).

Females also suffer from intense role-conflict (*cf.* 3.4.2), as they do not have sufficient time for their children, family and friends. This lack of time traps them in a vicious circle because they feel it is their duty to please everyone, as girls are socialised into being self-sacrificing. These females also suffer from guilt feelings if they do not fulfil gender role expectations and are confused by the conflicting values of society. Societal expectations are very intimidating and females get marginalised if they do not conform. The latter results in the participants' experiencing mental (*cf.* 3.3.3, 1.1) and physical exhaustion and extreme stress, which is also reflected by Table 4.1. The fact that most participants' beliefs and attitudes in the marital and parental roles are traditional (*cf.* Table 4.2), is in contrast with their egalitarian attitudes and beliefs regarding employment roles (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5). The latter confirms the outcomes of the confusing social expectations (4.4.1.2 [iv]) and socialisation processes that females are subjected to, which result in stress (*cf.* Table 4.1).

From the above discussion it is clear that females carry the brunt of work, as domestic and child-rearing duties are associated with females and thus unevenly distributed between females and males. Females also run the risk of being considered not-feminine if they do not prove their domestic worth. Participants that are more egalitarian would probably not be influenced as much by this perception than those who are more traditional (*cf.* 4.5). Females thus suffer from overall exhaustion as they rarely, if ever, have leisure time, which reduces the quality of their lives and reduces their work effectivity and performance, exacerbating stress (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3).

5.2.2.3 Harassment

Many of the participants explicitly indicated that sexual and emotional harassment (*cf.* 1.1) had a tremendously stressful impact on them and influenced their work performance (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). The interviewees experienced emotional harassment by being shouted at, ignored, being labelled, being expected not to ask questions, not being recognised as a manager, being treated rudely and arrogantly by males at work and being verbally abused by husbands (*cf.* 4.4.1.3, 4.4.1.2, 4.4.1.1 [a], [b], [c], [d], [e], [f], [g], [h], [i], [j], [k]). Participants encountered sexual harassment by remarks such as “she’s got her periods”, hostile sexual jokes, boys exposing themselves, senior managers fondling female managers’ breasts and proposing sex (*cf.* 4.4.1.3). The latter facts are backed by the literature, as female managers are often stereotyped as sex objects (*cf.* 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.6, 2.4.1, Table 1, 2.4.3.2 d, 2.4.3.2 f) and sexually and/or emotionally harassed by males.

Harassment is an abuse of power to keep females in their ‘place’ by violating their human rights. Some of the cultures still subject young girls to humiliating virginity tests, whilst some female managers suffered gender mutilation as young girls (*cf.* 4.4.1.3). Table 4.1 reflects stress experienced by the participants and their personal strain is indicated by the personal stress domain (*cf.* Table 4.1, PSQ). Egalitarian females seemed to be more capable of recognising emotional and sexual harassment than the less egalitarian participants, as they are very aware of equality regarding the sexes (*cf.* 4.5, Table 4.2).

Unfortunately it still happens that female managers are exposed to sexual and emotional harassment at work, as they are stereotypically regarded as sex objects and not as managers. Some of the participants are so intimidated by cultural traditions that they do not speak out and hide the harassment from

their husbands (*cf.* 4.4.1.3). Harassment is always experienced as traumatic and humiliating by the participants, which places tremendous strain and pressure on them (*cf.* Table 4.1).

The above-mentioned develops into the workplace becoming hazardous, as females are not being recognised as managers. The female managers retreat, in order to sidestep emotional and sexual harassment, which is humiliating and stressful and impacts on their work productivity and performance (1.1, 1.2, 1.3).

5.2.2.4 Personality

Many of the participants are perfectionists, revealing type A behaviour patterns, and stated that acting in an androgynous (equal to males) manner enhanced stress and hampered their performance at work, as they then do not act in a manner that is considered appropriate for females and feminine (*cf.* 4.4.1.4, 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). Stress experienced by the interviewees owing to sex differences and stereotyping, manifests in power-related behaviour and it happens that females do not attempt to suppress anger, act assertively, verbally 'attack' male colleagues, swear, feel like exploding, become gender activists and tell society and culture to go 'to hell' (*cf.* 4.4.1.4, [i]).

Due to stereotypical perceptions, females are not allowed to get angry as it is not regarded as feminine. Therefore, girls are socialised, especially during adolescence, that it is not acceptable to reveal unacceptable emotions such as anger (*cf.* 2.4.3.2 a, 2.4.3.1). Fathers also accentuate achievement less for girls than boys (*cf.* 2.4.3.2 a), whilst behaving in an appropriate feminine manner is approved of and rewarded, while non-feminine actions are disapproved of (*cf.* 2.4.3.2 a).

The one highly egalitarian participant tends to act in an androgynous manner. She resists intimidation by society to suppress anger or bad language

and does not feel that one has to act in a feminine manner just to please societal gender role expectations (*cf.* 4.4.1.4 [i]). Some of the participants are indoctrinated by their cultural beliefs not to show anger, especially towards a male, which results in the suppression of anger and instead, venting the anger on subordinates instead, causing the participants to experience immense stress and strain (*cf.* Table 4.1, 4.5). Thus the more egalitarian the participant (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5), the higher her tendency to act in an androgynous manner and vice versa.

5.2.2.5 Domestic violence

Domestic violence was explicitly indicated during the interviews as one of the biggest causes of stress and work absenteeism for many female managers and had a devastating effect on their work productivity (1.1, 1.2, 1.3). The interviewees indicated that some female managers experience abuse from their husbands, as they are dependent on their husbands to pay the bond of the house and fear divorce and shame as well as being rejected by their culture, parents and society. Leave forms of female managers often indicate that they are absent owing to domestic problems, but the real truth is often reflected by their 'black' eyes (*cf.* 4.4.1.6).

The literature supports these data, as stereotypical perceptions of females as being inferior (*cf.* 2.3.6, 2.3.4) and sex objects may result in many female managers' suffering from physical abuse. Patriarchal and cultural beliefs that females should be subordinate and kept under male domination (*cf.* 2.3.5, 2.3.3, 2.3.2), as well as the threat that their management status poses to their husbands, could result in their being physically brutalised into submissiveness and dependency (*cf.* 4.4.1.6).

From the above it is clear that many females suffer silently as they fear rejection and because they are financially dependent on their husbands. They therefore protect the perpetrators of violence, which causes extreme

stress and strain. The latter leads to absenteeism which causes a radical reduction in their work effectiveness as they are not able function properly (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2)

5.2.2.6 Racism

Some of the participants are subjected to stereotypical beliefs about race and this places a lot of pressure and tension on them (*cf.* Table 4.1). The participants indicated that some of the white teachers make excuses to leave earlier from workshops that are facilitated by black female managers, as the latter are not accepted because they are females and black. Some of the female participants also experienced being addressed as domestic servants when they visit schools (*cf.* 4.4.1.5, 4.4.1.2).

The literature confirms the above, as females are perceived as inferior and less knowledgeable than their male counterparts (*cf.* 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1, 2.3.6, 2.3.5). It is clear that racism still exists and that it impacts on the execution of management tasks. Racism is experienced as humiliating, which has a negative impact on their work performance as they lack the confidence to carry out their functions effectively (*cf.* 1.2, 1.2, 1.3).

5.2.2.7 Crime

Crime also is perceived by all the participants as having a negative impact on their lives and creates strain and pressure (Table 4.1). They reported that they are very aware of crime and are terrified of being raped or murdered, and also fear for the safety of their children. Their work routine is upset by crime and violence as they cannot stay on their own at work too late and must thus always be vigilant in order to survive. The participants also do not walk, drive or jog alone at night or early morning, and therefore feel that they have lost their freedom, as they are forced into dependency (*cf.* 4.4.1.7).

Because females are stereotypically perceived as weak, inferior and sex objects, they are even more vulnerable to crime and sexual assault. The fore-mentioned is also confirmed by the literature as indicated in 2.4.2.1, 2.4.1, 2.3.6.

Owing to the fact that females always have to be vigilant and that their movements are restricted, the participants indicated that such conditions place pressure on them and consequently influence their work productivity negatively (*cf.* 4.4.1.7, 1.1, 1.2, 1.3).

5.3 STRESS MANIFESTATION

The above discussion clearly indicated that the stress female managers experience due to female stereotyping, has a definite impact on their performance (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 3.4.2.1, 3.4.2.2, 3.4.2.3), as it manifests both mental-behaviourally (*cf.* 4.4.2 [i]) and physically (*cf.* 4.4.2 [ii]).

Stress leads to negative productivity in the workplace and female managers therefore must be able to manage their stress effectively (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 3.6). Pro-active steps, such as the application of active coping strategies (*cf.* 3.7.1), are of critical importance to reduce the incapacitating impact of stress on the overall well-being (*cf.* 1.1, 1.3) of the individual and the organisation, and to increase their resilience to stress by a personal control plan (*cf.* 3.6, 3.7, 3.7.2.1, 3.7.2.2).

Females should be empowered (*cf.* 1.3) to deal with some of the greatest obstacles (1.1) in their career, namely female stereotyping, harassment and male chauvinism (*cf.* 3.7.2.1, 3.4.2.2, 4.4.1.1- 4.4.1.7). The latter refers to patronising strategies which imply an arrogant attitude in an attempt to put females down (*cf.* 4.4.1.1, 4.4.1.2), while simultaneously attempting to affect the quality of their job performance (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3).

Table 4.1, which reflects the stress levels of all the participants, clearly indicates that all participants experience mild to severe stress in their work (*cf.* Table 4.1 Occupational Roles). This was confirmed by the participants during the interviews, when some participants also indicated that they were perfectionists (*cf.* 4.4.1.4) (type A personalities) and all six of them suffered from work overload (*cf.* 4.4.1.2 [v]) - a tendency which is predicted by the literature reported in Chapter 3 (*cf.* 3.6, 3.4.2.1, 3.3.2). All the participants declared that they experienced stress which manifests in mental-behavioural disorders such as crying or refusing to cry, tremendous anger, inner conflict, disturbed sleeping patterns, permanent guilt feelings, hypersensitivity, emotional exhaustion and suffering from eating disorders (*cf.* 4.4.2 [i]). The fore-mentioned concurs with the evidence from the literature study (*cf.* Table 3.1, 3.5).

Participants who tend to suppress their anger and fear, may encounter feelings of helplessness and anxiousness, making them vulnerable to illnesses (*cf.* 4.4.2 [i], [ii]). This is backed by the literature: females experience stress which could lead to outcomes such as crying, feeling unable to cope, having guilt feelings, cynical views, acting irrationally, becoming hypersensitive to criticism, experiencing job dissatisfaction, becoming prone to making mistakes, not being able to concentrate and becoming aggressive (*cf.* 4.4.1.4). From the above it can be deduced that stress coping strategies can: [i]), which reduce their effectiveness and productivity (*cf.* 3.5.1, Table 3.1, 1.3). Females tend to be controlled by outside factors (external locus of control), such as stereotypes like the belief that luck is responsible for female success or that females fear success (*cf.* 3.5.1, Table 3.1, 1.2, 1.3). It is painful for females to discover societal 'truths' which cause them to become sensitive to inequality and discrimination, especially if they have a highly egalitarian attitude (*cf.* Table 4.2, 4.5).

As females are perceived as feminine when they conform to female stereotypes, many of them try to avoid the negative result of non-conformity,

namely being rejected by society (*cf.* 4.4.1.6). When the unique style of female managers is not recognised and appreciated (*cf.* 4.5, 4.4.1.1, 4.4.1.2), they experience powerlessness (*cf.* 4.5) and confusion which enhances their mental distress (*cf.* Table 4.1) and is confirmed by the literature (*cf.* 3.5.1, Table 3.1, 1.2, 1.3). The fore-mentioned contribute to behaviour patterns such as an inability to make decisions, forgetfulness, hypersensitivity to criticism, mental blocks, impulsive behaviour (*cf.* 4.4.1.1), emotional outbursts (*cf.* 4.4.2), sensitivity to inequality and discrimination, negative attitudes towards colleagues (*cf.* 4.4.1.1), self-blame for inabilities and constriction of masculine-defined tasks - all affecting their mental well-being that limiting their job performance (*cf.* 3.5.1, Table 3.1, 1.2, 1.3).

The participants also acknowledged that stress manifests in physical disorders such as: feeling exhausted, insomnia, not feeling like talking, dizziness, high blood pressure, headaches, bad migraines, spastic colons, skin diseases, semi-paralysis of limbs and lower back ache (*cf.* 4.4.2 [ii]). The latter is confirmed by the literature study as reported in Chapter 3 where it is stated that stress manifests physically in inflammatory, digestive, muscular, neurobiological, cardio-vascular, respiratory, metabolic and sexual diseases and dysfunctions (*cf.* Table 3.2, 3.5.2).

Owing to female stereotyping, females also experience that stress hampers their work effectiveness. Aspects such as role conflict (*cf.* Table 4.1) and a low self-esteem cause them to act in a hesitant manner (*cf.* 4.4.1.1). Females who achieve less career-wise than their male counterparts, are viewed contemptuously (*cf.* 4.4.1.1 [b]), discouraging them (*cf.* 3.5.1, 1.2), manifesting in decreased self-confidence (*cf.* 3.5.1). As females' self-esteem is also linked to performance and social relationships, they tend to under-assess their abilities, which restricts their chances of promotion (*cf.* Table 3.1, 1.1, 1.2).

The mental-behavioural and physical manifestation (outcome) of stress

experienced by the participants indicates that they are often unable to resist some stressors (*cf.* Table 4.1, 3.4.2.1, 3.4.2.2, 3.4.2.3) indefinitely, and could be in the exhaustion/collapse phase (*cf.* 3.3.1, Figure 3.1). In the absence of stress management (*cf.* 3.7, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.7.2.1, 3.7.2.2, 3.7.3), severe stress may be experienced, resulting in burnout (*cf.* 3.2.1.1). In order to cope with stress, participants often make use of medication, alcohol, aggression and avoiding tactics (*cf.* 4.4.2 [iii]), as most participants complained that they either did not have the time to relax or exercise, or that they were too exhausted, or that they lacked coping skills (*cf.* 4.4.3). They indicated a need for recreation, self-care and social support (*cf.* Table 4.1 PRQ scales, 4.5, 4.4.4) and that they were not sufficiently equipped to deal with stereotyping and with the sexual and emotional harassment (*cf.* 4.5, 4.4.1.1- 4.4.1.7, 4.4.4) which enhances stress.

In conclusion, it appears as if all the participants suffered from mental-behavioural and/or physical manifestation (outcome) of stress resulting in physical discomfort and possible absenteeism due to illness and/or depression (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3). The above-mentioned outcomes are negative and may lead to unproductivity and the impairment of general well-being. It is therefore necessary to manage the stress effectively (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3).

5.4 THE MANAGEMENT OF STRESS

The following model could serve as a step-by-step holistic guide to empower female education managers in education organisations to build resilience against stress, and handle stereotyping and chauvinism in order to deliver top quality performance in the work place (*cf.* 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 3.7.2.1, 3.7.2.2).

5.4.1 Stress Empowerment Model for Female Education Managers (SEMFEM)

Step 1 Diagnosis

To expose stress problems, the organisation should apply the following instruments:

- the OSI-R (Occupational Stress Inventory) questionnaire (*cf.* 4.3 [a], Table 4.1, 1.2, 1.3);
- the SRES (Sex-role Egalitarianism Scale) questionnaire (*cf.* 4.3 [b], Table 4.2, 1.2, 1.3);
- personal interviews (*cf.* 4.4, 4.5. 1.3);
- an integration of the results of the two questionnaires and personal interviews to identify vulnerable individuals and to expose problems in the organisation (*cf.* 4.5, 1.2, 1.3).

Step 2 Develop individuals' feelings of control

Female managers could develop feelings of control by paying attention to:

- being sensitised to stress-health relationships;
- listening skills;
- not hastening the speech of others;
- thinking about what they say;
- slowing down their pace;
- broadening life activities;
- reducing ill-will towards others (*cf.* 3.7)

Step 3 Skills training to empower females to handle stereotypes

Female managers should receive training (1.3) in:

- Assertiveness (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - learning how to express their feelings and needs effectively;
 - achieving a win-win situation;
 - enhancing self-esteem.
- Effective communication (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - developing listening skills;
 - interpreting non-verbal body language.

- Delegation (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ developing delegation skills (both at work and at home);
 - ▼ allowing subordinates to also make decisions.

- Problem-solving (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ becoming an effective, rational, logical problem solver;
 - ▼ focussing on the problem;
 - ▼ becoming emotionally detached from problems.

- Time-management (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ changing perceptions of time;
 - ▼ realising the value of time.

- Priority-ranking (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ making choices and ranking priorities (from most important to least important).

- Emotional control (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ needing to understand how emotions impact on behaviour.

- Environmental control (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ keeping surroundings neat to appear in control.

- Keeping informed (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ keeping informed of wider issues - national and international.

- Stress inoculation (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ developing resistance against everyday demands.

- Image projection (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ making the most of their personality.

- Social support (*cf.* 3.7.2.1)
 - ▼ building support systems;
 - ▼ developing team-building skills.

Step 4 Self-help

To deal with female stereotyping, harassment and male chauvinism, female managers must (cf. 3.7.2.1, 1.3):

- avoid defensiveness; stand up for personal rights;
- think - then talk;
- use good judgement;
- ▣ keep an open mind;
- ▣ stand up for personal rights;
- ▣ make strong eye contact;
- ▣ focus on the real issue - not be sidetracked;
- ▣ always act professionally,
- not overcompensate by being excessively tough;
- promote the image of a competent manager, not a competent female manager;
- understand male chauvinism - changes in traditional ways threaten many males as they believe that males are the sole breadwinners;
- ▣ have on-the-job competence and performance - it is the best argument against male chauvinism;
- ▣ not play on femaleness;
- ▣ accept that many individuals have a limited level of understanding/perception;
- ▣ counteract bullying and chauvinism by calmly asking for an uncalled for remark to be withdrawn;
- ▣ telephone the offender and politely but firmly point out that his approach is harmful and anti-productive;
- ▣ report sexual and emotional harassment - follow up;
- ▣ report inequity - follow up;
- ▣ adopt anti-sexist language;
- ▣ get training in emotional control to
- ▼ make personal emotions work for and not against a person;
- ▼ get rid of self-doubt;
- ▼ remove a fear of taking risks;

- give the impression of being in control - develop a calm, collected manner
- unlearn (through training) behaviour (subtle habits) that invite stereotyping such as
 - inadequate planning;

- inadequate delegation, master problem-solving skills by
 - developing a positive attitude;
 - concentrating on making sound decisions;
 - focussing on objective judgements - to avoid stereotype of being emotional and lacking logic;
 - becoming detached from sexist remarks, jokes, rude and arrogant treatment of male chauvinists.

- communicate openly to
 - tear down cultural norms that instil guilt feelings.

- dress for success to
 - promote self-esteem;
 - project professional image;
 - avoid being perceived as a sex object;
 - avoid depersonalisation by drinking less coffee/ alcohol.

- participate actively in organisations;
- sensitise individuals to stereotyping;
- have a sense of humour;
- be courageous.

Step 5 Training relaxation techniques

Females managers should be taught how to relax to counteract stress (1.3), and the following techniques could be used:

- breathing techniques (*cf.* 3.7.2.2) by
 - ▼ taking a deep breath and releasing air slowly;
 - ▼ gaining self-control by focussing on breathing in and out very slowly.
- biofeedback exercises (*cf.* 3.7.2.2) by
 - ▼ blocking out all sounds and focusing on the body;
 - ▼ contracting and relaxing muscles gradually over the whole body;
 - ▼ reducing tension, headaches and migraine.
- autogenic messages (*cf.* 3.7.2.2) by
 - ▼ repeating positive messages/phrases to mind;
 - ▼ suggesting a sensation of heaviness in the limbs to relax and relieve feelings of frustration.
- creative imagery and visualisation (*cf.* 3.7.2.2) by
 - ▼ taking a few minutes - close eyes;
 - ▼ creating images through the imagination - picture enjoyable scene;
 - ▼ extending creative imagery through visualisation of where a person wants to be in a year or more - making the individual more comfortable with the idea of success.
- hypnosis and subliminal learning (*cf.* 3.7.2.2) by
 - ▼ being hypnotised and receiving instructions from a professional to change behaviour;
 - ▼ listening to motivational tapes /soothing music to calm down.
- meditation (*cf.* 3.7.2.2) by
 - ▼ creating a state of greatest silence or enchantment - by focusing attention;
 - ▼ getting up one hour earlier - to practise meditation in a silent atmosphere;
 - ▼ finding a comfortable sitting position;
 - ▼ closing the eyes and concentrating;
 - ▼ meditating regularly - to keep the mind off everyday worries/ to reduce tension.
- brain gym (mental massage) (*cf.* 3.7.2.2) by
 - ▼ listening to soothing music;
 - ▼ drinking herbal tea;
 - ▼ surrounding oneself with idyllic scenes/ pictures;
 - ▼ using specialised high-tech spectacles to create soothing visual patterns.
- body massages (*cf.* 3.7.2.2);

- ▣ alternative medicines (*cf.* 3.7.2.2) by
 - using natural, herbal, homeopathic medicines as alternatives to antibiotics;
 - using alternative medicines to build up ones immune system;
- ▣ religious/spiritual intensification (*cf.* 3.7.2.2);
- ▣ a healthy diet and lifestyle (*cf.* 3.7.2.2) by
 - avoiding fried foods - rather eat steamed food;
 - eating plenty of fruit and fresh vegetables;
 - not eating too much (or too little);
 - not drinking too much coffee, coke or alcohol - quit smoking;
 - avoiding dependence on medication, sleeping tablets and tranquillisers;
 - eating food that contains fibre;
 - cutting down on sugar and salt;
 - fasting to 'kick-start' a person into an appropriate eating programme (not recommended for pregnant females or individuals on medication - fasting should be supervised);
 - planning a two day fast by eating only raw vegetables for two days prior to the fast and two days after the fast;
- ▣ Simple relaxation techniques

Female managers should be introduced to the following simple relaxation techniques to counteract stress (*cf.* 3.7.2.2, 1.3):

- improve personal fitness - use simple relaxation - walk, exercise, gym;
- exercise within one's ability;
- go for a swim;
- sauna;
- let loose one's feelings (weep, laugh, feel frightened and/or distressed);
- go the movies/theatre;
- listen to music;
- engage in active hobbies;
- avoid stimulants (coffee) before one goes to bed;
- sip a long drink;
- read a good book;
- take a catnap;
- do gardening;
- have dinner at a restaurant;
- visit a friend;
- go on a picnic;
- create leisure time;
- sit and do nothing;
- enjoy being lazy.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Now that the influence of stereotype-related stress on female education managers and the management thereof has been pointed out, the following

are recommended:

All education organisations at both provincial and national level should take note of the findings of this study. The stifling impact of female stereotyping and roles on the performance and health of females in junior, middle and senior education management positions should be attended to urgently.

5.5.1 All education organisations at both provincial and national level should take note of the findings of this study. The stifling impact of female stereotyping and roles on the performance and health of females in junior, middle and senior education management positions should be attended to urgently.

5.5.2 More gender awareness programmes in the education sector should be presented to optimise the shift to gender equity. It is crucial that these programmes should also include males.

5.5.3 Sensitising and awareness programmes must be executed by specialists in the field of gender stereotyping and sex-egalitarian attitudes.

5.5.4 SRES and SEMFEM should be used, amongst others, as mechanisms to train, sensitise and inform individuals of the

- possible extent of sex-role egalitarian attitudes on the appointment of females in education management positions;
- possible influence that sex-role egalitarian attitudes might have on performance assessment and promotion judgements of staff;
- impact of intimidating behaviour on the climate of the organisation;
- unnoticeable bias and injustice within themselves and in the behaviour of

others.

5.5.6 Female managers should receive intensive training in coping skills by empowering them to SEMFEM (*cf.* 5.3.1, SRES) may also be used to empower females to increase their work performance and the quality of their lives by coping with the stress and pressure experienced as a result of female stereotyping in the education milieu and society.

5.5.5 SEMFEM (*cf.* 5.3.1, SRES) may also be used to empower females to increase their work performance and the quality of their lives by coping with the stress and pressure experienced as a result of female stereotyping in the education milieu and society.

5.5.6 Female managers should receive intensive training in coping skills by empowering them to

- adapt to non-traditional positions;
- conquer their fear of taking risks;
- overcome internalised beliefs of female inferiority;
- abstain from becoming victims of stereotyping and roles;
- enhance their work effectiveness;
- make their influence noticeable.

5.5.7 Female managers should apply SEMFEM on a daily basis to improve their resilience against stress and illnesses, which in turn would improve the quality of their work performance.

5.5.8 Awareness programmes and SEMFEM could be used as staff development and training programmes within the workplace, as it would not only enhance team building by questioning the viability of obsolete stereotypical beliefs and traditions, but would also have a positive impact on the annual gender audits that South African institutions are subjected to by

the Employment Equity Act (RSA, No.55 of 1998), while at the same time enhancing job satisfaction, work performance and the overall well-being of all employees.

5.5.9 Parliament should urgently reconsider the inclusion of gender equity issues in all staff development programmes as these could also benefit males and encourage them to participate more actively in child rearing and domestic responsibilities, and compel organisations to include flexibility in working hours and paternal leave (which has proved to be a great success in a developed country like Sweden) in the service conditions of employees.

5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This research clearly indicated that stereotypical societal and male chauvinistic expectations concerning the roles, abilities and behaviour of females, have a detrimental affect on female education managers at all management levels. These stereotypes and roles also result in negative stress-related outcomes, both at a mental-behavioural and at a physical level, influencing the quality and performance of their work as well as their general well-being. Mixed female and male staff development programmes thus are essential to expose problems and sensitise especially males to gender stereotyping. The latter could promote a better understanding between the sexes, encourage co-operation to work as equals and to make males aware that females in junior, middle and senior management positions still feel undervalued and are being discriminated against because of their sex. Specialised management skills training courses are a necessity to empower female education managers to deal with the shift in gender roles, female stereotyping, emotional and sexual harassment, the arrogant behaviour of male chauvinists and to counteract intimidation by challenging obsolete societal/traditional beliefs.

Empowerment through SEMFEM which includes training females in stress

management skills, thus is crucial for female education managers to develop self-esteem in order to *assimilate* and *cope* with the negative impact that stress has on the quality of their lives, work productivity and their performance.

The following reflects the essence of the problem female managers experience and summarises what females have to cope with and thus be empowered for:

“Sexual stereotyping may be breaking down a little in modern society, but the process is very slow, and still leaves men dominating the positions of power in virtually every walk of life. This places strains upon both sexes, especially females, and rather in the way that the physical body hasn’t yet adapted to the fact that we no longer need high-energy physical responses in the face of threat, so society hasn’t adapted to the fact that it no longer needs male-dominated behaviour throughout the corridors of power” (Fontana, 1994:79).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams, K.A. 1983. Aspects of social context as determinants of black women's resistance to challenges. *Journal of Social Issues* 39:69 – 78.
- Angier, N. 1990: Scientists say gene on Y chromosome makes a man a man. *New York Times* 19 July: A1, A9.
- Anthony, W.P., Perrewe, Pamela & Kacmar, K. M. 1996. *Strategic Human Resource Management*. Orlando: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Antill, J. K. 1987. Parents' beliefs and values about sex roles, sex differences and sexuality: Their sources and implications. In: Shaver, P. & Hendrick, C. (Eds). *Sex and Gender*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, Lucy C. & Razavieh, A. 1990. *Introduction to Research in Education (Fourth Edition)*. Orlando: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Asso, D. 1987. Cyclical variations. In: Baker, M.A. (Ed.). *Sex differences in human performance*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Baider, Lea., Kaufman, Bella., Ever-Hadani, Pnina & De- Nour, Atara K. 1996. Destiny of hope: Immigrant couples coping with multiple stresses. In: Cary, L. (Ed.). *Handbook of Stress, Medicine and Health*. Cooper, Florida: CRC Press, Inc.

- Barclay, O.R. 1991. When Christians Disagree. In: Lees, Shirley (Ed.). *The Role of Women*. Worcester: Billing & Sons Ltd.
- Barry, R.J. 1980. Stereotyping of sex roles in preschoolers in relation to age, family structure, and parental sexism. *Sex Roles* 6:785 – 806.
- Basow, Susan A. 1992. *Gender Stereotypes and Roles*. California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Bem, S.L. 1977. Sex-role inventory (BSRI). In: Jones, J.E. & Pfeiffer, J.W. (Eds). *The 1977 Annual Handbook for Group Facilities*. La Jolla: California University Associates Inc.
- Bem, S.L. & Lenney, E. 1976. Sex typing and the avoidance of cross-sex behaviour. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 33:48-54.
- Bernard, Jessie. 1979. Policy and women's time. In: Lipman-Blumen, Jean & Bernard, Jessie (Eds). *Sex Roles and Social Policy: Complex Social Science Equation*. California: SAGE Publications Inc.
- Best, Raphaela. 1983. *We've all got scars: What boys and girls learn in elementary school*. Bloomington: University of Indiana Press.
- Bhagat, R.S. & Chassie, M.B. 1981. Determinants of organisational commitment in working women: Some implications for organisational integration. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour* 2 (2):17-30.
- Birkett, D.P. 1998. Psychological sequelae and mental health consultation in stroke. *American Psychiatric Association* 43 (5):203.
- Birnbaum, D.W. & Croll, W.L. 1984. The etiology of children's stereotypes

about sex differences in emotionality. *Sex Roles* 10:677 – 691.

Bland, J. 1998. About Gender. (Internet)

(<http://www.gendys.mcmail.com/about/00-defin.P>). 1999-09-27.

Bogg, J. & Cooper, C. 1995. Job satisfaction, mental health and occupational stress among senior civil servants. *Human Relations* 17 (3):327-279.

Boonzaaier, E. & Sharp, S. 1988. South African keywords - the uses and abuses of political concepts. Claremont: David Philip Publishers.

Boulding, Elise. 1979. Introduction. In: Lipman-Blumen, Jean & Bernard, Jessie (Eds). *Sex Roles and Social Policies: Complex Social Science Equation*. California: SAGE Publications Inc.

Bradley, Harriet. 1994. Gendered jobs and social inequality. *The Polity Reader in Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.

Braidotti, Rosi. 1994. Radical philosophies of sexual difference: Luce Irigaray. *The Polity Reader in Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.

Brody, L.R. 1985. Gender differences in emotional development: A review of theories and research. *Journal of Personality* 53: 102 – 149.

Broverman, I., Vogel, S.R., Broverman, D.M., Clarkson, F.E. & Rosenkrantz, P.S. 1972. Sex role stereotypes: A current appraisal. *Journal of Social Issues* 28 (2): 59 - 78.

Brown, N. 1959. *Life against Death*. New York: Vintage.

- Bruhn, J.G. 1996. Social support and heart disease. In: Cooper Cary L. (Ed.). *Handbook of Stress, Medicine and Health*. Florida: CRC Press.
- Bryden, M.P. 1986. Dichotic listening performance, cognitive ability, and cerebral organisation. *Canadian Journal of Psychology* 40: 445 - 456.
- Bryden, M.P. 1979. Evidence for sex related differences in cerebral organization. In: Wittig, M.A. & Peterson, A.C. (Eds). *Sex-related differences in cognitive functioning: Developmental issues*. New York: Academic Press.
- Bryson, L. 1987. Sport and the maintenance of masculine hegemony. *Women Studies International Forum* 10:349 - 360.
- Burke, R.J. & Greenglass, E. 1995. A longitudinal study of psychological burnout in teachers. *Human Relations* 48(2):330.
- Burke, R.J. & McKeen, Carol A. 1994. Career development among managerial and professional women. In: Davidson, Marilyn J. & Burke, R.J. (Eds). *Women in Management: Current Research Issues*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.
- Burton, Clare. 1993. Equal employment opportunity and corporate planning. In: Blackmore, Jill & Kenway, Jane (Eds). *Gender matters in educational administration and policy: Feminist introduction*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Bush, T. & West-Burnham, J. (Eds). 1994. *The Principles of Educational Management*. London: Longman Group.

- Byrne, B.M. 1994. Burnout: Testing for validity, replication and invariance of causal structure across elementary, intermediate and secondary teachers. *American Educational Research Journal* 31 (3):644-650.
- Byrum-Robinson, B. 1993. Stress-management training for the nineties. In: *The 1993 Annual: Developing Human Resources*. San Diego: Pfeiffer & Company.
- Caldera, Y.M., Huston, A.C., & O'Brien, M. 1989. Social interactions and play patterns of parents and toddlers with feminine, masculine, and neutral toys. *Child Development* 60:70 – 76.
- Callaghan, P. & Morrissey, J. 1993. Social support and health: A review. *Journal for Advanced Nursing* 18.
- Campbell, D.T. 1988. *Methodology and epistemology for Social Science*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Case, Susan. 1994. Gender differences in communications and behaviour in organizations. In: Davidson, Marilyn J. & Burke, R.J. (Eds). *Women in management: Current research issues*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Carter, D.B. 1987. The roles of peers in sex role socialization. In: Carter, D.B. (Ed.). *Current Concepts of Sex Roles and Sex Typing: Theory and Research*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Chase, Susan E. 1988. Making sense of "The Woman Who Becomes A Man". In: Todd, Alexandra D. & Fisher, Sue (Eds). *Gender and discourse: the power of talk Volume XXX*. New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

- Chesney, Margaret A. & Rosenman, Ray H. 1983. Specificity in stress models: Examples drawn from Type A behaviour. In: Cooper, Cary, L. (Ed.). *Stress Research*. London: John Wiley & Sons.
- Chodorow, Nancy. 1994. Gender, relation and difference. In: *Psychoanalytic Perspective: The Polity Reader In Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.
- Cobb, S.M. 1976. Social support as a moderator of life stress. *Psychosomatic Medical* 38:300-314.
- Cockburn, A.D. 1996. Primary teachers' knowledge and acquisition of stress relieving strategies. *British Journal of Educational Psychology* 66:399-410.
- Coetzee, C.J.S. 1979. Gedragsverskille in tersiëre onderwys en beroepstoetredede. Pretoria: Instituut vir Mannekragnavorsing van die RGN.
- Cohen, S. & Edwards, J.R. 1989. Personality characteristics as moderators of the relationship between stress and disorder. In: Neufeld, W.J. (Ed.). *Advances in the Investigation of Psychological Stress*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Cohen, S. & Wills, T.A. 1985. Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychology Bulletin* 98:310-357.
- Cole, M. & Walker, S. 1990. *Teaching and Stress*. Oxford: The Alden Press Ltd.
- Cole, M., & Walker, S. 1989. *Teaching and stress*. USA: Open University Press.

- Collins, A. & Frankenhauser, M. 1978. Stress responses in male and female engineering students. *Journal of Human Stress* 4:43.
- Comte, Auguste, 1848. *Discours sur l'ensemble du positivisme*. Paris: Mathias.
- Connell, R.W. 1994. Gender regimes and the gender order. *The Polity Reader in Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.
- Cooper, Cary. 1997. Identifying Sources of Workplace Stress And A Strategy to Deal With Them. In: *Professionals On Workplace Stress. The Essential Facts*. Roney, Alex., & Cooper Cary. (Eds). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Cooper, C.L. 1996. *Handbook of stress, medicine and health*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Cooper, C.L., & Stan, U.K. 1987. *Stress and health issues in research methodology*. Great Britain: John Valley & Sons.
- Cooper, Cary, & Marshall, Judi., 1975. *Managers under stress*. New Behaviour. Volume 2.
- Cordes, C.L. & Dougherty, T.W. 1993. A review and an integration of research on job burnout. *Academy of Management Review* Volume 18.
- Cotton, D.H.G. 1990. *Stress management: An integrated approach to therapy*. New York: Brunner / Mazel.
- Cox, C.J. & Cooper, C.L. 1988. *High flyers: An anatomy of managerial success*. Oxford: Blackwell.

- Cox, T. 1983. *Stress*. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.
- Cranwell-Ward, J. 1990. *Thriving on stress*. London: New Fetter Lane.
- Cranwell-Ward, Jane. 1993. *Thriving on stress: Self-development for managers*. Routledge: London.
- Cronje, G.D. 1973. *Man en vrou en die huwelik*. Kaapstad: HAUM.
- Davidson, J. 1998. *Slowing The Hectic Pace of Stress*. *Public Management (US)* 80 (4).
<http://gw5epnet.com/fulltext.asp...=&dt=106&Forward.x=6&Forward.y=6> (1999-3-25).
- Davidson, M. & Cooper, C. 1992. *Shattering the glass ceiling: The woman manager*. London: PCP.
- Davidson, Marilyn & Cooper, C. 1983. *Stress and the woman manager*. Great Britain: Martin Robertson and Company Ltd.
- Davidson, Laurie & Gordon, Laura Kramer. 1979. *The Sociology of Gender*. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.
- Davis, Natalie Zemon. 1994. *Gender and sexual temperament*. *The Polity Reader in Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnoll Ltd.
- Davis, S.W., Williams, J.E. & Best, D.L. 1982. Sex trait stereotypes in the self- and peer descriptions of third grade children. *Sex Roles* 8: 315-331.
- Deats, S.M. & Lenker, L. 1994. *Gender and Academe*. Lenham: Rowman & Littlefield.

- Deaux, K. & Kite, M.E. 1987. Thinking about gender. In: Hess, B.B. & Ferree, M.M. (Eds). *Analyzing gender: A handbook of social science research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Deaux, K. & Major, B. 1987. Putting gender into context: An interactive model of gender-related behaviour. *Psychological Bulletin*. 94: 369-389
- De Beauvoir, Simone. 1979. *The Second Sex*. Great Britain: Penguin Books Ltd.
- DeBold, J.F. & Luria, Z. 1983. Gender identity, interactionism and politics: A reply to Rogers and Walsh. *Sex Roles* 9: 1101-1108
- Dekker, E.I. & Lemmer, M.E. 1996. *Critical issues in modern education*. Isando: Heinemann
- Delamont, Sara. 1980. *The Sociology of Women: An Introduction*. London: Billing & Sons Ltd.
- Derogatis, L.R. & Coons, Helen L. 1993. Self-report Measures of Stress. In: Goldberger, Leo & Breznitz, Shlomo (Eds). *Handbook of Stress: Theoretical and Clinical Aspects*. New York: The Free Press.
- Die Volksblad*. 2000. 8 Februarie: 3.
- Die Volksblad*. 1999. 1 September: 6.
- Die Volksblad* 1998. 13 Junie: 4.
- Donelson, E. 1977. Development of sex-typed behaviour and self concept. In: Donelson, E. & Gullahorn, J. (Eds). *Women: A psychological perspective*. New York: Wiley.

- Dowling, Colette. 1982. *The Cinderella Complex*. Glasgow: William Collins & Sons and Co. Ltd.
- Duff, B.J. 1992. *Women in education management: Barriers, aspirations, motivations and needs*. D. Ed. thesis, Pretoria: Unisa.
- Du Toit, K.W. 1988. Work and crisis: Preventative action by the department of manpower rehabilitation. *Rehabilitasie in SA* 32(3):74-76.
- Du Toit, J.J., van Rensburg, A.G., du Toit, J.H., Botha, J., Volschenk, B., van der Westhuizen, H.C., de Kock, D. & Niebuhr, G.A. 1986. *Senior Biologie*. Standerd 9. Nuwe Sillabus 1986. Goodwood: Nasou.
- Eccles, J.S. 1989. Bringing young women to maths and science. In: Crawford, M. & Gentry, M. (Eds). *Gender and thought: Psychological perspectives*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Eckenrode, J. 1991. *The social context of coping*. USA: Plenum Publishers.
- Everly, G.S. 1989. *A clinical guide to the treatment of the human stress response*. USA: Pleunum Publishers.
- Eysenck, H.J. 1996. Personality and cancer. In: Cary, L. Cooper. (Ed.). *Handbook of Stress, Health and Medicine*. Florida: CRC Press, Inc.
- Fagot, Beverly I. & Leinbach, Mary D. 1987. Socialization of sex roles within the family. In: Carter, D.B. (Ed.). *Current Conceptions of Sex Roles and Sex Typing: Theory and Research*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Faludi, Susan. 1991. *Backlash: The Undeclared War Against Women*. London: Chatto and Windus.

- Farber, B.A. 1983. Introduction: A critical perspective on burnout. In: Farber, B.A. (Ed.).
- Stress and Burnout in the Human Service Professions.* New York: Pergamon.
- Fausto-Sterling, Anne. 1992. *Myths of Gender: Biological Theories about Women and Men.* New York: Basic Books.
- Feather, N.T. 1984. Masculinity, femininity, psychological androgyny, and the structure of values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 47: 604 - 620.
- Fenlason, K.J. & Beehr, T.A. 1994. Social support and occupational stress: Effects of talking to others. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour* 15: 157-175.
- Firestone, S. 1979. *The dialectic of sex: The case for feminist revolution.* London: Women's Press.
- Fisher, C.D. 1985. Social support and adjustment to work: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Management* 11:39-53.
- Fisher, Shirley. 1996. Life stress, personal control, and the risk of disease. In: Cooper, Cary L. (Ed.). *Handbook of Stress, Medicine and Health.* Florida: CRC Press, Inc.
- Fisher, Shirley. 1994. *Stress in Academic Life: The Mental Assembly Line.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

- Flanders, Margaret L. 1994. *Breakthrough: The Career Woman's Guide to Shattering the Glass Ceiling*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.
- Fleury, J. 1993. An exploration of the role of social networks in cardiovascular risk reduction. *Heart Lung* 22.
- Fontana, D. 1994. *Managing stress*. Great Britain:
- Foucault, M. 1974. *The Archaeology of Knowledge*. London: Tavistock.
- Freedman, D.G. 1975. The development of social hierarchies. In: Levi, L. (Ed.). *Society, Stress and Disease*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Friedman, M. & Rosenman, R.H. 1974. *Type A Behaviour and Your Heart*. London: Wildwood House.
- Freud, S. 1961. Civilisation and its discontents. In: Strachey, J. *The Standard Edition of the Complete Psychological Works*. London: Hogarth Press.
- Fried, B. 1982. Boys will be boys will be boys. In: Hubbard, R., Henifin, M. & Fried, B. (Eds). *Biological Woman*. Cambridge: Schenkman.
- Geschwind, N. & Galaburda, A.M. 1985. Cerebral lateralization: Biological mechanisms, associations, and pathology: I and II: A hypothesis and a program for research. *Archives of Neurology* 42: 428 – 550.
- GETT (Gender Equity Task Team). 1997. *Report of the Gender Equity Task Team*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

- Giddens, A., Held, D., Hillman, D., Hubert, D., Seymour, Debbie., Stanworth, Michelle & Thompson, J. 1994. *The Polity Reader in Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.
- Gidish, Lynne. 2000. Men and Women: Same species - different planets? *Edgars Club Magazine* April.
- Girdano, D.A. & Everly, G.S. 1986. *Controlling stress and tension: A holistic approach*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Goeller, K.A. 1995. Principal leadership: The female component. *NASSP Bulletin* February:105:113.
- Goetz, Judith P. & LeCompte, M.D. 1984. *Ethnography and Qualitative Design in Educational Research*. New York: Academic Press Inc.
- Goldberger, L., & Breznitz, S. 1993. *Handbook of stress*. USA: Free Press.
- Grady, K.E., 1981. Sex bias in research design. *Psychology of Women Quarterly* (5).
- Gray, J. D. 1983. The married professional woman: An examination of her role conflicts and coping strategies. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. (7). 235-243.
- Greenglass, E.R. 1985. Psychological implications of sex bias in the work place. *Academic Psychology Bulletin*, Volume 7.
- Greer, S., 1983. Cancer and the mind. *British Journal of Psychiatry*. Volume 143.

- Greyvenstein, L. A. 1989. Development Of Women For Management Positions In Education. (D.Ed Thesis.) Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom Universiteit vir Christelike Hoer Onderwys.
- Groen, J. J. 1971. Social Change And Psychosomatic Disease. In: Society, Stress and Disease. Volume 1. Levi, L., (Ed.) London: Oxford University Press.
- Gunew, S. 1990. Feminist knowledge - Critique and Contrast. London: Routledge.
- Gunning, J. G. & Cooke, E. 1996. The influence of occupational stress on construction professionals. *Building Research and Information* 24 (4).
- Hall, C. Margaret. 1990. Women and Identity: Value choices in a changing world. USA: Hemisphere Publishing Company.
- Hall, Valerie. 1996. Dancing On The Ceiling. A Study of Women Managers in Education. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.
- Hall, E.G. & Lee, A.M. 1984. Sex differences in motor performance of young children: Fact or fiction? *Sex Roles* 10: 217-230.
- Hartzell, G.N. 1991. Induction of experienced assistant principals. *NASSP Bulletin* 75:(33).
- Haviland, J.J. & Malatesta, C.Z. 1982. The development of sex differences in non-verbal signals. In: Mayo, C.V. & Henley, N. (Eds). Gender and nonverbal behaviour. New York: Springer-Verlag.

- Haynes, S.G., Feinleib, M. & Kannel, W.B. 1980. The relationship of psychosocial factors to coronary heart disease in the Framingham study III: Eight-year incidence of coronary heart disease. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 111: 37-58.
- Hayward, R. 1991. The implication of teachers' stress in primary schools: A management perspective. Unpublished thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Hellriegel, D., Slocum, J.W. Jnr. & Woodman, R.W. 1998. *Organisational Behaviour*. (Eighth Edition). Ohio: International Thomson Publishing.
- Hegel, G. 1949. *The Phenomenology of Mind* (tr. J. B. Baillie). London: Allen & Unwin.
- Hekman, Susan. 1994. The Feminist Critique of Rationality. In: *The Polity Reader in Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.
- Hennig, M. & Jardim, A. 1977. *The managerial woman*. New York: Doubleday.
- Hines, M. & Shippley, C. 1984. Prenatal exposure to diethylstilbestrol and the development of sexually dimorphic cognitive abilities and cerebral lateralization. *Developmental Psychology* 20: 81 – 94.
- Henning, E. 1995. Qualitative educational research: Soft or solid option? *SA Journal of Education* 16:75-80.
- Heyns, J. A. 1978. *Dogmatiek*. Pretoria: N.G. Kerkboekhandel.
- Hochschild, Arlie R. 1973. A Review of Sex Role Research. In: Huber, Joan. (Ed.). *Changing women in a Changing Society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

- Holt, R.R. 1993. Occupational Stress. In: Goldberger, L. & Breznitz, S. (Eds).
Handbook of Stress: Theoretical and Clinical Aspects. New York:
The Free Press.
- Holy Bible. 1978. Goodwood: National Book Printers.
- Hood, Kathryn E., Draper, Patricia., Crockett, Lisa J. & Petersen, Anne C.
1987. The Ontogeny and Phylogeny of Sex Differences in
Development: A Biopsychosocial Synthesis. In: Carter, D.B. (Ed.).
Current Conceptions of Sex Roles and Sex Typing: Theory and
Research. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- House, J.S. 1974. Occupational stress and coronary heart disease: A review
and theoretical integration. *Journal of Health and Social Behaviour*
15: 12-27.
- Huber, J. & Spitze, G. 1983. Sex stratification: Children, housework and
jobs. New York: Academic Press.
- Huysamen, G. 1994. Metodologie vir die Gedragwetenskappe. Pretoria:
Southern Boekuitgewers (Edms.) Bpk.
- Inglis, T. 1997. Empowerment and emancipation. *Adult Education
Quarterly*. 48(1): 3-17.
- Jackson, S.E. 1983. Participation in decision making as a strategy for
reducing job-related strain. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 68:17-22.
- Janson, M 1973. Die vrou en die Bybel. *Die vrou*. No. 1:4-19.
- Jeffrey, Z.R., Frank, J.P. & Zella, L. 1974. The Eye of the Beholder: Parents'
Views on Sex of Newborns. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* 44
(4): 512-519.

- Johnstone, Margaret. 1989. *Stress in Teaching: An Overview of Research*. Midlothian: Macdonald Lindsay Ltd.
- Kagan, M.J. & Levine, J.A. 1971. Maternal Control and Obedience in the Two-Year-Old. *Child Development* 42: 1873-1894.
- Kanter, R.M. 1977. *Men and women of the corporation*. New York: Basic Books, Inc.
- Karasek, R.A. 1979. Job demands, job decision latitude and mental strain: Implication for job redesign. *Administration Science Quarterly* 24.
- Keita, G.P & Hurrell, J.J. 1994. *Job stress in a changing workforce*. Washington: American Psychological Association.
- Kendall, F. 1993. *The sexy factor: Gender differences at home and at work*. Norwood: The Natal Witness and Publishing Company (Pty) Ltd.
- Kimura, D. 1987. Are men's brain's really different? *Canadian Psychology* 28:133-147.
- King, Lynda A. & King, D.W. 1993. *SRES Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale Manual*. Canada: Sigma Assessment Systems, Inc.
- Kobasa, S.C.O. 1987. Stress responses and personality. In: Barnett, R.C., Biener, L. & Baruch, G.K. (Eds). *Gender and Stress*. New York: Free Press.
- Kobasa, S.C.O., Maddi, S.R., Pucetti, M.C. & Zola, M.A. 1985. Effectiveness of hardiness, exercise and social support as resources against illness. *Journal of Psychosomatic Resilience* 29. (vind journal se naam)

- Koff, E., Rierdan, J. & Stubbs, M.L. 1990. Gender, body image, and self-concept in early adolescence. *Journal of Early Adolescence* 10: 56-58.
- Kruger, L.M. 1997. The influence of gender stereotyping and role on the managerial performance of women education leaders. Ph. D. thesis, Bloemfontein: University of the Orange Free State.
- Kvale, S. 1990. Ten standard responses to qualitative research interviews. Human Sciences Research Conference, Quebec Canada.
- Lazarus, R. S., 1993. Why We Should Think of Stress as a Subset of Emotion. In: *Handbook Of Stress. Theoretical And Clinical Aspects*. Goldberger, L. & Breznitz, S. (Editors). The Free Press: New York.
- Leahy, R. 1995. Cognitive development and cognitive therapy. *Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy* 9:173-184.
- Leiter, M. P. 1988b. Commitment as a function of stress reactions among nurses: a model of psychological evaluations of work settings . *Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health* 7:115-132.
- Leiter, M. P., 1991a. Coping patterns as predictors of burnout: the function of control and escapist coping. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour* 12:123-144.
- Leiter, M. P. & Maslach, C. 1988. The impact of interpersonal environment on burnout and organizational commitment. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour* 9:297-308.
- Lemley, R. E. 1987. Guidelines for recognising the subtle indicators of stress. *NASSP Bulletin* March: 134-136

- Lerner, G. 1986. *The creation of patriarchy*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Levi, L. 1996. Spice of life or kiss of death. In: *Handbook of Stress, Medicine and Health*. Cooper, Cary, L. (Ed.) Florida: CRC. Press, Inc.
- Levi, L. (Ed.). 1971. *Society, Stress and Disease Volume 1*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Lewis, Susan. 1996. Personality, stress and chronic fatigue syndrome. In: Cooper, Cary L. (Ed.). *Handbook of Stress, Health and Medicine*. Florida: CRC Press, Inc.
- Lewis, S., Cooper, C.L. & Bennett, D. 1994. Psychosocial factors in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Psychology Medical Volume 24*.
- Lipman-Blumen, Jean. 1984. *Gender Roles and Power*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs.
- Lips, H.M. 1988. *Sex and Gender : An Introduction*. California: Mayfield Publishing Company.
- Lott, B. 1978. Behavioural concordance with sex role ideology related to play areas, creativity and parental sex typing of children. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 36:1087-1100.
- Louw, D.A. & Edwards, D.J.A. 1997. *Psychology. An introduction for students in Southern Africa*. Isando: Lexicon Publishers.
- Louw, D.A. & Edwards, D.J.A. 1993. *Psychology: An introduction for students in Southern Africa*. Isando: Lexicon Publishers.

- Louw, D.A., Louw, A.E. & Van Ede, D.M. 1998. *Human Development*. Pretoria: Kagiso Publishers
- Lyon, E. Stina. 1996. Success with qualifications: Comparative perspectives on women graduates in the labour market. *Higher Education* 31: 301.
- Lovdal , L.T. 1989. Sex role messages in television commercials: An update. *Sex Roles* 21:715-724.
- Lytton, H., & Romney, D.M. 1991. Parents' differential socialization of boys and girls: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin* 109:297-296.
- Maccoby, E.E. 1966. Sex differences in intellectual functioning: In: Maccoby, E. E. (Ed.). *The development of sex differences*. Stanford: University Press.
- Maccoby, E.E., & Jacklin, C.N. 1987. Gender segregation in childhood. *Advances in Child Development and Behaviour* 20: 239-287.
- Machobane, M. 1996. Gender stereotypes in Sesotho proverbs. *South African Journal for Folklore Studies* VI: 32 - 38.
- MacKenzie, L. 1992. *On our feet - taking steps to challenge women's oppression*. Western Cape: Rostica Press.
- Margetts, E.L. 1975. Stress, homeostasis, and the human ecological continuum in time: Some Implications for Psychiatry. In: Levi, L. (Ed.). *Society Stress and Disease*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Marshall, Judi. 1984. *Women Managers: Travellers in a male world*. Chichester: Wiley.

- Martin, C.L. 1990. Attitudes and expectations about children with nontraditional and traditional gender roles. *Sex Roles* 22:151-165.
- Maslach, C & Schaufeli, W.B. 1993. Historical and conceptual development of burnout. In: *Professional Burnout: Recent Developments in Theory and Research*. Schaufeli, W.B., Maslach, C. & Marek, T. (Eds). Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.
- Matthews, Karen A., Davis, Mary C., Stoney, Catherine M., Owens, Jane F. & Caggiula, A.R. 1991. Does the gender relevance of the stressor influence sex differences in psychophysiological responses? *Health Psychology* 10 (2):112-120.
- Matthews, K.A. & Haynes, S.G. 1986. Type A behaviour pattern and coronary disease risk. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 123: 923-960.
- Mc Clean, A.A. 1974. *Occupational Stress*. Illinois: Charles C. Thomas.
- McEwen, B.S. & Mendelson, S. 1993. Effects of stress on the neurochemistry and morphology of the brain: Counter regulation versus damage. In: Goldberger, L. & Breznitz, S. (Eds). *Handbook of Stress: Theoretical and Clinical Aspects*. New York: The Free Press.
- McFarlane, J., Martin, C.L. & Williams, T.M. 1988. Mood fluctuations: Women versus men and menstrual versus other cycles. *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 12: 201-233.
- McCormick, J. 1996. Occupational stress of teachers: Biographical differences in a large school system. *Journal of Educational Administration* 35 (1): 33-38.

- McHale, S.M., Bartko, W.T., Crouter, A.C. & Perry-Jenkins, M. 1990. Children's housework and psychosocial functioning: The mediating effects of parents' sex-role behaviours and attitudes. *Child Development* 61:1413-1426.
- McKenna, W. & Kessler, S. 1977. Experimental design as a source of sex bias in social psychology. *Sex Roles* 3:117-128.
- McNeely, S. 1995. Stress and coping strategies in nurses from palliative psychiatric and general nursing areas. *To Employee Counselling Today* 7 (5):11-13.
- Meier, S.T. 1991. Tests of the construct validity of occupational stress measures with college students: Failure to support discriminate validity. *Journal of Counselling Psychology* 38(1): 1102-1108.
- Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. 1984. *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods*. Beverly Hills CA: Sage.
- Miller, C.L. 1987. Qualitative differences among gender-stereotyped toys: Implications for cognitive and social development in girls and boys. *Sex Roles*.16:473-487.
- Mills, Sandra H. 1994. *Stress management for senior staff in schools, F.E. and H.E. Great Britain: The Charlesworth Group*.
- Mitchell, V. & Helson, R. 1990. Women's prime of life: Is it the 50s? *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 14:451- 470.
- Money, J. 1986. *Venuses penuses: Sexology, sexosophy and exigency theory*. Buffalo, NY: Prometheus.

- Money, J. & Ehrhardt, A.A. 1972. *Man and woman, boy and girl*.
Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Moore, Henrietta. 1994. The cultural constitution of gender. In: *The Polity Reader In Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.
- Moore, Kathleen A. & Burrows, Graham D. 1996. Stress and mental health. In: Cooper, Cary L. (Ed). *Handbook of stress, medicine and health*. Florida: CRC Press, Inc.
- Morgan, M.Y. 1987. The impact of religion on gender-role attitudes. *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 11:301-310.
- Mosetse, Palesa. 1998. Gender stereotypes as a structure of domination in South African Education. M.Ed. Dissertation, Bloemfontein: University of the Orange Free State.
- Moulton, Ruth. 1980. Anxiety and the new feminism. In: Kutash, I.L., Schlesinger, L.B. and Associates (Eds). *Handbook on stress and anxiety*. California: Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers.
- Murphy, L.R. 1987. A review of organizational stress management research: Methodological considerations. In: Ivancevich, J.M. & Ganster, D.C. (Eds). *Job Stress: From Theory to Suggestion*. New York: Howarth Press.
- Musante, L., MacDougall, J.M., Dembroski, T.M. & Van Horn, A.E. 1983. Component analysis of the Type A coronary-prone behaviour pattern in male and female college students. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 45:1104-1117.

- Newman, J.E. & Behr, T.A. 1979. Personal and organizational strategies for handling job stress: A review of research and opinion. *Personnel Psychology* 32:1-43.
- Niemann, Susanna M. 1994. Die bestuursoptrede van die Suid-Afrikaanse vrou as onderwysleier in die hantering van onderwysverandering. D.Ed.-Proefskrif. Bloemfontein: Universiteit van die Oranje-Vrystaat.
- Nucho, Aina. 1988. *Stress management: The quest for zest*. Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publisher.
- Oates, W.E. 1985. *Managing your stress*. USA: Fortress Press.
- Ogletree, S.M. & Williams, S.W. 1990. Sex and sex-typing effects on computer attitudes and aptitude. *Sex Roles* 23:703-712.
- Ong, W. 1977. *Interfaces of the world*. Ithaca, N.Y: Cornell University Press.
- Ong, W. 1981. *Fighting for life*. Ithaca, N.Y: Cornell University Press.
- Ortner, S. 1974. Is female to male as nature is to culture? In: Rosaldo, M. & Lamphere, K. (Eds). *Women, Culture and Society*. California: Stanford University Press.
- Osipow, S.H. & Spokane, A.R. 1992. OSI. USA: Psychological Assessment Resources Inc.
- Osipow, S.H. & Spokane, A.R. 1981. OSI. USA: Psychological Assessment Resources Inc.
- Ousten, Janet. 1993. *Women in education management*. London: Longman.

- Ozga, Jenny. 1993. *Gender and Education: Women in Educational Management*. Great Britain: J.W. Arrowsmith Limited.
- Patel, Chandra. 1991. *The complete guide to stress management*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Pateman, Carole. 1994. *The disorder of women*. In: *The Polity Reader in Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.
- Peirce, K. 1990. A feminist theoretical perspective on the socialization of teenage girls through seventeen magazine. *Sex Roles* 23:491-500.
- Pines, A.M. & Aronson, E. 1988. *Career burnout causes and cures*. New York: The Free Press.
- Pliner, P., Chaiken, S. & Flett, G.L. 1990. Gender differences in concern with body weight and physical appearance over the life span. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 16:262-273.
- Pomerleau, A., Bolduc, D., Malcuit, G. & Cossette, L. 1990. Pink or blue? Environmental stereotypes in the first two years of life. *Sex Roles* 22:359-367.
- Powell, T.J. & Enright, S.J. 1993. *Anxiety and stress management*. London: Routledge.
- Price, J. 1967. The dominance hierarchy and the evolution of mental illness. *Lancet* ii:243-248.
- Purcell, P. & Stewart, L. 1990. Dick and Jane in 1989. *Sex Roles* 22:177-185.

- Quick, J.D., Nelson, Debra L., Matuszek, Patricia A. C., Whittington, J.L. & Quick, J.C. 1996. In: *Handbook of stress, medicine and health*. Florida: CRC Press, Inc.
- Quick, J.C. & Quick, J.D. 1984. *Organizational stress and preventative management*. New York: Mc Graw-Hill.
- Rabin, Joan S. 1987. *Two-paycheck families: Psychological responses to social change*. In: Carter, D.B. (Ed). *Current conceptions of sex roles and sex typing: Theory and research*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Rasmusson, Erica. 1998. *Stress and marketing management*. January 150(1).
<http://gw5.epnet.com/fulltext.asp...=&=106&Forward.x=8&Forward.y=5> (Internet).
- Ray, E.B. & Miller, K.I. 1994. Social support, home/workstress, and burnout: Who can help? *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science* 30(3):360-368..
- Reinhard, K. 1991. *Following the pack*. Morning Call. D1, D2.
- Reynold, J.R. 1997. The effects of industrial employment conditions on job-related distress. *Journal of Health and Social Behaviour* 38:105-116.
- Ridderbos, H. 1977. *Pol: An outline of his Theology*. Michigan: William Eerdmans Publishing Company.
- Rifkin, G. 1994. Stress in the workplace. *Briefings from the editors* 74(5):10-11.

- Riley, Kathryn A. 1994. *Quality and equality: Promoting opportunities in schools*. London: Litho Link Ltd.
- Rohrlich, J.B. 1980. *Work and love: The crucial balance*. New York: Summit Books.
- Roney, Alex & Cooper, Cary (Eds). 1997. *Professionals on workplace stress: The Essential Facts*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Roos, N.J. en Moller, A.T. 1989. *Stres: Hanteer dit self*. Kaapstad: Human en Rousseau (Edms.) Bpk.
- Rosch, P.J. 1979. *Stress and cancer: A disease of adaptation?* In: Tache, J., Selye, H. & Day, S.B. (Eds). *Stress and Cancer*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Rosenman, Ray H. 1996. *Personality, behaviour patterns, and heart disease*. In: Cooper, Cary L. (Ed.). *Handbook of stress, medicine and health*. Florida: CRC Press, Inc.
- Ross, C.E. 1990. *Religion and psychological distress*. *Journal of Scientific Study of Religion* 29 (2):236-245.
- Roth, R.A. & Gold, Y. 1993. *Teachers managing stress and preventing burnout*. London: Falmer Press.
- Rousseau. J-J. 1968. *Politics and the Arts: A letter to D'Alembert on the theatre*. Tr. A. Bloom. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1998. *Number 55 Equity Employment Act*.

- RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1994. Draft Policy Document for Consultation: Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa. Pretoria: Ministry of Education.
- Schamer, L.A. & Jackson, M.J.B. 1996. Coping with stress. *Canada Education* August:27-31.
- Scheerer, Mary-Ann. 1999. *The natural way. A family's guide to vibrant health.* Johannesburg: Ibis Books.
- Scott, K.D. & Wimbush, J.C. 1991. Teacher absenteeism in secondary education. *Educational Administration Quarterly* 27(4):506:-529.
- Selye, H. 1993. History of the stress concept. In: Goldberger, L. & Breznitz, Shlomo (Eds). *Handbook of Stress: Theoretical and Clinical Aspects.* New York: The Free Press.
- Selye, H. 1983. The stress concept: Past, present and future. In: Cooper, Cary L. (Ed.). *Stress Research: Issues for the Eighties.* London: John Wiley and Sons Ltd.
- Selye, H. 1980. The stress concept today. In: Kutash, I.K., Schlesinger, L.B. and Associates (Eds). *Handbook on stress and anxiety.* California: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers.
- Selye, H. 1971. The evolution of the stress concept - stress and cardiovascular disease. In: Levi, L. (Ed.). *Society, Stress and Disease Vol.1: The Psychosocial Environment and Psychosomatic Diseases.* London: Oxford University Press.
- Selye, H. 1956. *The stress of life.* New York: Longmans Green and Co Inc.

- Serebro, H. 1996. *Stress spasm and you*. South Africa: Hendlers Printers.
- Silver, Catherine B. 1973. *Salon, Foyer, Bureau: Women and the Professions in France*. In: Huber, Joan (Ed.). *Changing Women in a Changing Society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Shinn, M., Rosario, M., March, H. & Chestnut, D.E. 1984. Coping with job stress and burnout in human services. *Journal of Personality Sociology and Psychology* 46: 864-876.
- Shorter, E. 1975. *The making of the modern family*. New York: Basic Books.
- Sitterly, Connie & Duke, Beth. 1988. *A woman's place: Management*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs.
- Smaling, A. 1994. *Course material for the qualitative methodology - Winter School*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Smith, J.C. 1993. *Understanding stress and coping*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Smith, T. 1995. *Family Health Encyclopedia*. UK: British Medical Association.
- Smith, J.C. & Seidel, M.M. 1982. The factor structure of self-reported physical stress reactions. *Biofeedback and Self-regulation* 7: 35-47.
- Smith, J. C., & Siebert, J. R. 1984. Self-reported physical stress reactions: First-and second-order factors. *Biofeedback and Self-Regulation* 9:215-277.

- Snelgar, R. J. 1990. Stress and the part-time student: Work factors associated with failure rate. University of Port Elizabeth. *South African Journal of Psychology* 20(1):42-46.
- Soderfeldt, M., Soderfeldt, B., & Warg, L. 1995. Burnout in social work. *Journal of the National Association of Social Workers* 40(1):1-144.
- Solomon, A. 1993. *Combat stress reaction*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Spender, D. 1980. *Man made language*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Sunday Telegraph*. London 1999 cited in *Business Times*, 1999. June 6. Stressed employees take legal action.
- Sunday Times*. 17 October 1999a. Women teachers yet to shatter the glass ceiling.
- Sunday Times*. 3 October 1999b. The truth about women bosses.
- Sunday Times*. 1998. Yuppie flu goes before court. p.3.
- Sunday Times*. 1998. The hidden illness that costs business a small fortune. *Business Times* p.1.
- Sunday Times*. 1998. August. Swallow the echinacea and fly high. p10.
- Susman, E.J., Nottelmann, E.D., Inoff-Germain, G., Dorn, L.D. & Chrousos, G.P. 1987. Hormonal influences on aspects of psychological development during adolescence. *Journal of Adolescent Health Care* 8: 492-504.

- Steinbacher, R. & Gilroy, F. 1990. Sex selection technology: A prediction of its use and effect. *Journal of Psychology* 124:283-288.
- Steinbacher, R. & Holmes, H.B. 1987. Sex choice: Survival and sisterhood. In: Corea, G. *et al.* (Eds). *Man-made women: How new reproductive technologies affect women*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Stericker, A.B. & Kurdek, L.A. 1982. Dimensions and correlates of third through eighth grader's sex-role self concepts. *Sex Roles* 8:915-929.
- Stern, M. and Karraker, K.H. 1989. Sex stereotyping of infants: A review of gender labeling studies. *Sex Roles* 20:501-522.
- Sweeney, D.R., Gold, M.S., Pottash, A.L.C. & Davies, R.K. 1980. Neurobiological Theories. In: Kutash, I.L., Schlesinger, L.B. & Associates (Eds). *Handbook on Stress and Anxiety*. California: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers.
- Tallahassee Democrat*. 9 September 1991. p. 6A.
- Tangri, Sandra S. & Strasburg, Georgia L. 1979. Where Research and Policy Connect: The American Scene. In: *Sex Roles and Social Policy*. Complex Social Science Equation.
- Tanner, C.K., Schnittjer, C.J. & Atkins, T.T. 1991. Effects of the use of management strategies on stress levels of high school principals in the United States. *Education Administration Quarterly* 27(2):203-224.
- Telly, R. 1990. *Stress Masters*. USA: Lovelace.
- Terrill, J.L. 1993. Coping with stress in difficult times. *NASSP Bulletin* February:89-93.

- Thackray, J. 1979. The Feminist Manager. *Management Today* 152 (4):90-97.
- The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language. 1971. Morris, W. (Ed.)
- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. 1996. Act 108 of 1996.
- Timmer, S.G., Eccles, J. & O'Brien, K. 1985. How children use time. In: Juster, F.T. & Stafford, F.P. (Eds). *Time, goods, and well-being*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research.
- The Holy Bible. 1987. Goodwood: National Book Printers.
- The Pocket Oxford Dictionary. 1978. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Travers, C. & Cooper, C. 1991. Stress and status in teaching: an investigation of potential gender-related relationships. *Management Review and Abstracts* 4(6):16-23.
- Turkle, S. & Papert, S. 1990. Epistemological pluralism: Styles and voices within the computer culture. *Journal of Women in Culture and Society* 16:128-157.
- Unger, Rhoda K. 1989. Sex in psychological paradigms-From behaviour to cognition. In: Unger, R.K. (Ed.). *Representations: Social constructions of gender*. Amityville, NY: Baywood.
- Urniker, W. O. 1994. Psycho-cybernetics: The proactive approach to stress management. *MLO*. 11:28-30.

- Van Dijkhuizen, N., 1980. *From Stressors To Strains. Research Into Their Interrelationships*. Ablasserdam: Offsetdrukkerij Kanters B. V.
- Van der Walt, B. J. 1997. *A Christian perspective*. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University Institute for Reformational Studies.
- Van Staden, D.V.F. 1992. The experience of work circumstances and stress: A profile of flight engineers in a labour dispute. *Journal of Industrial Psychology* 18(1):1-6.
- Vernon-Gerstenfeld, S. 1989. Serendepity? Are there gender differences in the adoption of computers? A case study. *Sex Roles* 21:161-173.
- Wajcman, Judy. 1994. Technology as masculine culture. In: *The Polity Reader in Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.
- Walby, Sylvia. 1994. Towards a theory of patriarchy. In: *The Polity Reader In Gender Studies*. Cornwall: Hartnolls Ltd.
- Walby, Sylvia. 1997. *Gender Transformations*. New York: Routledge.
- Wallace, R.K., Benson, H. & Wilson, A.F. 1971. A wakeful hypometabolic physiologic state. *American Journal of Physiology* 221:795-791.
- Ware, N.C. & Kleinman, A. 1986. Culture and somatic experience: the social course of illness in neurasthenia and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Psychosomatic Medical* 54:546-560.
- Wasserman, Gail A. & Lewis, M. 1985. Infant sex differences: Ecological effects. *Sex Roles* 12 (5): 665-675.

Websters Comprehensive Dictionary: International Edition. 1992. Chicago: J. G. Ferguson Publishing Company.

Weiner, Gaby, Arnot, Madeleine, David, Miriam. 1997. Is the future female? Female success, male disadvantage and gender patterns in education. In: Halsey, A.H., Lauder, H., Brown, P. & Stuartville, A. (Eds.). *Education - Culture, Economy, Society*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.

Williamson, J. & Campbell, L. 1997. Stress in the principalship. What causes it? *NASSP Bulletin* 2:109-113.

Wilson, G. 1994. Biology, sex roles and work. In: Quest, Caroline (Ed). *Liberating Women...From Modern Feminism*. London: Institute of Economic Affairs, Health and Welfare Unit.

Wolf, S. & Goodell, Helen. 1968. *Stress and Disease*. Illinois: Charles C Thomas.

Wolff, H.G. 1953. *Stress and Disease*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Woodbridge, N.B. 1998. Towards a stress management training programme for helping adolescents to cope with stress: An integrated approach. *Educare* 27(1&2).

Women's Sports Foundation. 1989. *Minorities in sports*. New York: Women's Sports Foundation.

Wynn, Ruth L. & Fletcher, Christine. 1987. Sex role development and early educational experiences. In: Carter, D. (Ed.). *Current Conceptions of Sex Roles and Sex Typing. Theory and Research*. New York: Praeger Publishers.