

**A STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS OF MENTORSHIP FOR FEMALE
EDUCATION MANAGERS IN LESOTHO**

by

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I declare that **A STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS OF MENTORSHIP FOR FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS IN LESOTHO** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used and quoted have been indicated by means of complete references.

SIGNATURE

DATE

(M F MORAI)

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Dedication

This work is a dedicated to my daughter, Bohlokoa.

Abstract

Females have made great strides and are reaching the upper echelons in significant numbers in terms of management participation in the Lesotho education system. Nonetheless, there are no clear policies and programmes established to empower these females, either before or in the process of their careers. It is against this background that an analysis of female education managers' mentoring experiences was undertaken within the framework of a transformative feminist perspective, utilising a mixed-method research. In-depth interviews with nine female education managers and one representative from the Ministry of Education and Training, focus group discussions with fifteen female Heads of Departments and questionnaires with fifty female education managers were valuable for both the production of raw data as well as for addressing feminist research goals. Data from the in-depth interviews and focus group discussions were organised into over-arching themes. The results of investigations were combined to present a well substantiated framework.

The major findings were that although there were disparities in the mentoring experiences of female education managers, the commonalties were that most female education managers did not obtain mentorship for coping in their management positions. Female education managers recognise that although they are capable of becoming competent managers, they need to be prepared for the position before and during the course of their careers. For most females, a commitment to contribute to making a significant difference in female education management in

Lesotho's secondary schools became apparent. The findings highlight the necessity for the Ministry of Education and Training and the education institutions in Lesotho to ensure that males are trained as mentors and protégés before accessing management positions in order to annihilate any potential incompetency.

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1

ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Lesotho Government (LG) in the Lesotho Education Sector's Strategic Plan (LESSP, 2005-2015:108), acknowledges that women have made impressive advances in educational attainments in Lesotho. This has come about despite dominant and unequal relations that still feature where, among others things women's rights are marginalised and their educational advantage over men does not translate into economic, political and social empowerment. Responding to multiple gender challenges it is faced with, the LG through the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) in the LESSP (2005-2015:110) committed itself to engaging in a number of activities including reviewing and reforming the gender discriminatory legislation in education and other pieces of legislation that continue to marginalise women from equal participation in the economic, social and political life of the country, in particular those targeting customary laws and the Education Act. The LESSP

(2005-2015:110(d)) stipulates that the process of recruitment, placement and promotions within the MOET shall be reviewed and made gender responsive to appropriately benefit both women and men, thereby instituting Affirmative Action to ensure that more women are elevated to senior management positions in the entire education system.

At the same time, females are progressively breaking through the 'glass ceiling' in the contemporary era, accessing vertical mobility to management positions in the Education Sector, from about 26% in 2005, female education managers comprise a population of about 34% in 2008 per the MOET, Lesotho's Education Statistics Bulletin, 2004-2006. Morrison, White, Velsor and the centre for creative leadership (1987:13) coined the phrase, "glass ceiling", to describe the impermeable obstacles facing women managers who wish to move towards senior management. Notwithstanding the MOET's progress towards achieving the LG gender equality commitment, there are still no training programmes designed specifically for female education managers in Lesotho, despite Murphy and Hallinger's (1987:247) observation that existing management training programmes for school principals are in need of revision and Morai's (2000:85) recommendation that it is imperative that relevant training programmes that would address the particular needs of female education managers in Lesotho be developed. This state of affairs in Lesotho confirms the Commonwealth Secretariat's (1996: iii) observation that there is certainly a problem throughout Africa, where without the necessary skills; many heads are overwhelmed by the task with inadequate strategies for training and support, assuming that good teachers can become effective managers and leaders without specific preparation.

Literature abounds with recommended strategies for professional development of school managers who thoroughly recommend mentoring emphasising that it is an effective and

positive professional development activity for school principals. According to Garvey and Alred (2003:3) research in recent years has attested to the success of mentoring and most researchers readily agree that mentoring can be an important career-building factor. It seems that the notion: "One generation can help the next", echoing the familiar African proverb: "It takes a village to raise a child," is certainly more fundamental today than it was in the past. It also confirms Hayes (2005:442) perception that "Success often depends not only on what you know but whom you know – not only on hard-work, but on guidance, support and advocacy from those already established in the system". It is indeed difficult to imagine how modern civilization would have evolved, or even survived, if each successive generation did not build effectively on the lessons learned from the past (Enerson, 2001:7).

Levinson, Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978:253) describe a mentor as "one of the most significant relationships available to a man". Nevertheless, since the late 1970s, researchers have argued that mentorship is just as developmentally important for women in any profession as it is for men (Ehrich, 1994:13). Corroborating Ehrich's (1994:13) view, Noe (1988:65) indicates that the chances of career success improve when females and members of minority groups entering management obtain mentorship. This implies that mentorship has begun to be recognised as a significant process for women. In this regard, Ehrich (1994:13) recommends access to a mentor relationship for women educators who are aspiring to higher positions in the educational hierarchy because of its fundamental nature as a career tool with positive implications for women.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In spite of the explicatory worth of mentoring, female education administrators and female educators aspiring to leadership positions within the school system have been filtered out of the explicit and implicit mentoring experience (Ehrich, 1994:14); a situation that exacerbates the limited number of female mentors in the school system. Byrne (1989) cited in Ehrich (1994:14) defines explicit experience as including recommendation for awards, scholarships and publications and implicit experiences as informal and subtle experiences such as sharing knowledge with some and not others. Noe (1988:66) observes that although some women are advancing to upper management positions, the absence of women mentors to offer support can still be very acutely felt because the number of women reaching management positions does not appear to keep pace with the increasing number of women needing mentors.

Research studies reveal that mentors tend to associate with protégés who are similar to themselves in terms of gender, race, and social class (Chandler, 1996:82). Men, who occupy higher-level positions in organisations and can provide much of the available mentoring, are usually less likely to enter into intensive dyadic mentoring relationships with women (Hansman, 1998:67). According to Chandler (1996:82 and Hansman, 1998:67) men prefer interacting with and mentoring males who they perceive to be more like themselves and may choose to develop protégé relationships with other men and exclude women colleagues as protégés. Hansman (1998:67) concurs that when assigned to women protégés; men provide much less career development and psychosocial functions, such as career planning, performance feedback, and personal support. Contrary to Allen, Day and Lentz's (2005:157) contention that recent studies have revealed that women who are mentored by other women

are more likely to enhance, expand and advance their careers and skills to receive higher salaries and enjoy their work more; Ragins and Scandura (1994:459) suggest that potential female mentors may decline mentoring other women to circumvent the "feminist troublemakers" label since the combination entails greater risks and accusations of preferential treatment and negative reactions resulting in "female power coalition" pigeonholing.

Numerous studies have been conducted pertaining to the mentoring of education managers. While Bush and Chew (1999:48-50) report their observations regarding positive mentoring of principals in Singapore and England, Daresh and Playko's (1992) study, on the other hand, reviews some of the major issues associated with the adoption of mentoring schemes for beginner school principals. In addition, Stott and Walker's (1992) research reviews the experiences of a mentoring programme which has been used in Singapore since 1984 for preparing school principals. Ehrich's (1984) work which is one of the few studies conducted in respect of female education managers proposes a mentoring programme at the pre-service level for women aspiring to principalship. Specifically to the Lesotho situation, though distinct from education managers' mentorship, Mohono-Mahlatsi and Tonder's (2006) work reported on the student teachers' and tutors' perceptions of the effectiveness of mentoring in the Distance Teacher Education Programme at the Lesotho College of Education.

The above elucidation is substantiated by the results of a preliminary quantitative investigation by means of a questionnaire (see Addendum A) distributed among fifteen female secondary school heads of department (HoDs) drawn from the Maseru and Mafeteng districts in Lesotho. The HODs were drawn only from secondary schools which offer both junior certificates and Cambridge overseas school certificates, widely referred to as high

schools. A purposive sampling method was used to select the participants who received hand-delivered questionnaires. All the questionnaires were completed and returned by the participants. The findings illustrated that most respondents' superiors are male and fall into the age category of 40 years and above. They also revealed that female HoDs whose superiors are male, were either dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with the mentoring provided by their superiors. This is evident from the high mean values ranging from 4.5 to 4.8. This statistical depiction is a confirmation to Gibson's (2004:265) argument that mixed-gender pairs submit themselves to a number of risks and may be useless for women. Female HoDs were also very dissatisfied with the mentoring of their female superiors. Nonetheless, they were satisfied in other mentoring areas provided by their female superiors. The means for female education managers mentoring ranges from 3 to 4.8 corroborating Ragins and Scandura's (1994:459) viewpoint that the risks of mentorship for female mentor – female protégé may still be compounded by the underlying repercussions attached to the combination. The results of the preliminary findings are a manifestation that female education managers in Lesotho have as many mentoring needs as male education managers. Table 1.2.1 below provides a summary of the total means for both females and males.

1.2.1: A Summary of the total mean and rankings of the mentoring areas for male and female education managers

AREAS IN NEED OF MENTORING	TOTAL MEAN		RANKINGS	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
Professional Development Opportunities	4.8	4.5	1	3
Feedback	4.7	4.8	2	1
Motivation and encouragement	4.7	4	2	4

Leadership opportunities	4.7	4.6	2	2
Information tips	4.5	4	3	4
Nurture and support	4.5	3	3	5
Existing networks	4.5	4	3	4
Coaching	4.5	4	3	4

While the mean value for mentoring areas with respect to male managers' ranges from 4.5 to 4.8, it ranges from 3 to 4.8 with respect to female education managers.

The depictions of the above table suggest that the following areas have to be addressed, while further exploration of issues pertaining to female mentoring for Lesotho education managers need to be addressed. These areas are chronologically listed:

- feedback;
- leadership opportunities;
- professional development opportunities;
- motivation and encouragement;
- coaching;
- existing networks;
- information tips; and
- nurture and support;

From the above delineations, it is clear that the present operating mentorship strategy in Lesotho is ineffective, particularly in terms of the provision of feedback, leadership

opportunities and the provision of professional development opportunities, motivation and encouragement, coaching and creating networks. The problem necessitates an exploration of female education managers' mentoring experiences and the meaning they ascribe to the experiences, because it is primarily when female education managers divulge their mentoring experiences that progress can be made in the provision of a sustainable operational mentoring strategy that will meet the particular needs of females in Lesotho's secondary schools.

The overarching questions for this study are:

- What theory surrounds mentorship?
- What should form the basis of the development of a mentorship strategy?
- What is the current mentorship situation for female education managers in Lesotho?
- What are the mentorship needs among female staff members in Lesotho?
- What should be followed to address the mentoring needs of female staff members in Lesotho?

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

1.3.1 Goal

The intention of this study is to describe the lived female education managers' mentorship experiences in Lesotho in order to determine the development of an operational strategy that would address the specific mentoring needs of female staff members in Lesotho.

1.3.2 Objectives

In order to accomplish the above mentioned-purpose, the following objectives will be logically considered:

- To view the theory surrounding mentorship.
- To conduct a strategic management analysis of the present mentoring strategy for women in Lesotho secondary schools as a base-line for future improvement.
- To apply a mixed-method approach to explore the needs of female education managers in Lesotho as well as to investigate a variety of implementation strategies.
- To construct an operational mentoring strategy based on the strategic management analysis and the data that emerged from the empirical investigations.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.4.1 Methodology

The study under investigation is a feminist research project; a study not just about women but done for women to be used to transform their sexist society in Lesotho. As maintained by Campbell and Wasco (2000:778) what most centrally, and reliably defines research as feminist, is its guiding philosophy on the nature of knowledge, (epistemology) and the process by which research is created, (methodology). In her introduction to *Feminism and Methodology*, Sandra Harding (1987:3) states that "A methodology is a theory and analysis of how research does and should proceed" and it can be considered distinctive to the extent that it is shaped by feminist theory, politics and ethics and grounded in women's experiences. Inherent in a feminist epistemology on the other hand, is the multiplicity of women's voices of their lived experiences which are accepted as legitimate sources of knowledge (Reinharz, 1992:11). Feminist methodology evolves from the epistemological

assumption that women's experiences provide new resources for research (Harding, 1987:7). As such, feminist research is uniquely feminist because it is feminist beliefs and concerns that act as the guiding framework to the entire research process.

According to Creswell (1998:83) the foundations of feminist research are those of critical theory, and thus, this research model is critical and emancipatory, perceiving reality, science and research within this context. This implies that this study aims to contribute to social change, particularly the improvement of women's experiences and positions in society, raising consciousness for women empowerment and emancipation (Pini, 2002:341). It aims at an ideological goal of a dialectically educative encounter between the researcher and the participants so that both become, in the words of singer-poet Chris Williamson, the "changer and the changed" (Lather, 1987:5).

Campbell and Salem (1999:68) warn that several researchers have suggested that the goal in feminist research should be to develop methods, either quantitative or qualitative, that can best answer a particular research question, and do so in ways that are consistent with feminist ideology. In addition, Campbell and Wasco (2000:784) observe that contemporary feminists embrace both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. This study will accordingly adopt a mixed-method approach; an approach that contains elements of both the qualitative and quantitative approaches, a concept which Denzin (1978) cited in Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher and Pérez-Prado (2003:19) dubbed "triangulation."

The investigation of this study employs a feminist postmodernism underpinning defined by Campbell and Wasco (2000:772) as an integration of post-positivist constructivism with radical feminism which is reported to favour qualitative methods of investigation (Campbell and Wasco, 2000:783). An existential phenomenological study of the qualitative investigation

will, as a result, be followed to explore and expose the meaning of female education managers' lived mentoring experiences. This supports Garko (1999:168) perception that lived experiences are as much fundamental to feminism as they are to existential phenomenology. As indicated by Creswell (1998:53), a phenomenological study describes the meaning of lived experiences about a concept or a phenomenon, with an attempt to understand empirical matters from the perspective of those being studied (Creswell, 1998:275).

Grounded in positivism, a quantitative investigation by means of questionnaires will also be undertaken for purposes of testing theories and making predictions in an objective, value-free way (Campbell and Wasco, 2000:780) where the researcher is detached from both the participants and the research process so as to remain free from biases that could interfere with obtaining knowledge.

1.4.2 Methods of data collection and rationale for the choice of method

Cook and Fonow (1990:72) observe that many feminists reject 'masculine' notions of objectivity, value neutrality and scientific detachment because they are thought to reinforce the objectification, exploitation and subordination of women. Therefore, feminist post-modernism has been selected for this study because it rejects the notion that there is a single truth or reality in any form. Olsen (1994:164) notes that post-modernism feminists regard the concept of truth as a "destructive illusion". This underpinning is essential for its emphasis on understanding the language people use in constructing their social realities and its focus on commonalities and differences in the meanings people ascribe to their lived experiences (Campbell and Wasco, 2000:783). According to Campbell and Wasco (2000:783), the emphasis in feminist post-modernism is that the conception of knowledge as

a mirror of reality is replaced by knowledge as a linguistic and social construction of reality. In other words, feminist post-modernism focuses upon the interpretation and negotiation of the meaning of the lived world.

Investigating and understanding the everyday world of women's experiences is paramount to feminism and feminist research (Stanley and Wise, 1993:146). Existential phenomenology is therefore well suited to satisfy the lived-experience criterion of a feminist approach to researching women's lives. As maintained by Garko (1999:168-69), the focus of existential phenomenology on description and understanding, its openness to the life-world and its celebration of experience and the experiencing person, letting both speak; all the qualities for which the feminist research perspective advocates, makes existential phenomenology useful in studying concealed mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho.

The positivist viewpoint rooted in the ontological assumption of an objective reality is indispensable for this feminist study to produce background, statistical and generalisable data capable of being objective, a prerequisite to being scientific (Gelsthorpe and Morris, 1990:86) about female education managers' mentoring experiences. In this mode, the researcher is seen as an outsider, a foundation which minimises the response bias due to the interviewer effect and interpretation bias, causing excessive empathy with the world of the respondent. The information gathered in this investigation is envisaged to provide an overview of an area that can reveal patterns and/or inconsistencies among the individual participants, and, in the process, validating and corroborating the qualitative investigations.

The process of data collection and analysis will begin with an exploration of the literature to examine previous research and teachings on female education managers mentoring experiences in order to define and describe the phenomenon of interest in the light of that

literature. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions will be conducted to collect participants' descriptions of their experiences that will be analysed following Giorgi's (1985:11) four-step approach to data analyses which embraces the following: open reading of all data in order to get a sense of the whole; division into meaning units within varying perspective; transformations of the subjects' everyday expressions into several distinct varying perspectives; with step four being divided into a synthesis of transformed meaning units into consistent statements or themes and a consistent description of all material into a general structure. Giorgi's (1985:11) phenomenological approach will facilitate the analysis of the individual reports and descriptions of experience to identify an operational mentoring strategy that will address the specific mentoring needs of female education managers in Lesotho, while concurrently empowering the women with a feminist consciousness.

Having utilised a questionnaire to collect quantitative data, a content analysis of responses will be employed for scoring data validating Cohen, Manion and Morrison's (2000:147) definition of data analysis as involving organising, accounting for and explaining the data in a manner that makes sense of the participants' definition of the situation by noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities. The questionnaire will then be classified into categories and units of analysis (Kerlinger, 1986:127) that covered the main area of content in order to establish essential findings that suggest extremes, trends, or patterns in the data (Mertens 1998:139). Data will then be displayed using tables and charts. The qualitative and the quantitative data will facilitate the comparisons and contrasts of the qualitative findings with the quantitative statistical results and validate or expand the quantitative results with qualitative data (Creswell and Clark 2007:62).

1.4.3 Sampling

Data collection in this mixed method study will be undertaken in such a way that in addition to it addressing the research question at hand, it will also fit the concurrent variant of the triangulation design (Creswell and Clark, 2007:110). As a result, the quantitative and qualitative data, independent of each other, will be collected at roughly the same time from female education managers at the principal and Head of Department (HoD) level.

Purposive sampling or judgemental techniques which are strategies used to choose small groups or individuals likely to be knowledgeable, as well as informative about a phenomenon of interest (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993:413) will be used to select participants for the qualitative study. Creswell (1998:118) recommends "Criterion" sampling for a phenomenological study emphasising that it works well when all individuals studied represent people who have experienced the phenomenon. Ten female education managers will therefore be selected for the in-depth study as rooted in Polkinghorne (1989) cited in Creswell's (1998:122) proposition that "...10 subjects in a study represents a reasonable size". These will be participants who could better articulate their conscious experiences. Homogeneous samples of female education managers' will be used in the focus group discussions to describe the mentoring experiences of female HoDs who share similar characteristics (Mertens, 1998:262).

In view of Creswell and Clark's (2007:112) suggestion that in quantitative research, the intent of sampling individuals is to choose individuals that are representative of a population so that the result can be generalised to a wider population. Based on Mertens' (1998:254) suggestion that a researcher within the transformative paradigm, should aim to represent populations that have been traditionally under-represented in research, the population for this

mixed-method study comprises exclusively female education managers. The ideal population is 100 female education managers. However, in a Researcher Designed Questionnaire (RDQ) investigation, a systematic random sample of 50% amounting to a sample of 50 participants will be selected on the basis of Neuman's (1997:31) recommendation that a survey researcher should use a small sample, but apply the results to a larger group, because "it is not possible to understand any phenomenon without reference to the context in which it is embedded" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:302).

1.4.5 Value of the Research

In 1982, the secretary for education in Papua New Guinea, Roakeina (1983:7-10) emphasised that education research should not only be done for the benefit of education researchers. According to Roakeina (1983:7-10) every researcher should ask himself or herself "what good will my research be to the citizens of this country?" As feminist education research therefore, the study is aimed at empowering female education managers and female educators with a 'feminist consciousness' (Stanley and Wise, 1993:32), which involves a profound personal transformation in behaviour and consciousness, as well as a radically altered consciousness about oneself, others and the world.

1.5 Delimitation of the field of study

The study will address the mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho using a strategic management approach. All activities will be viewed from an educational perspective as taking place within the school as an organisation and the sub-discipline of Education Management which is concerned with the effective running of the school as an organisation.

1.6 Chapter Division

In order to investigate and explore the mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho, the following brief outline of the key contents in each chapter will be logically followed.

Chapter 2: Literature review:

This section is devoted to a comprehensive review of the literature related to mentorship in general and female mentorship in particular

Chapter 3: Literature review:

The section is devoted to a comprehensive review of the literature related to strategic management analysis as a basis for developing a mentorship strategy for female education managers in Lesotho

Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

This chapter features a qualitative investigation into the female education managers' current mentorship situation in Lesotho

Chapter 5: Research design and methodology

The chapter features the quantitative investigations into the mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho

Chapter 6: Synthesis of the findings, conclusions and implications for future research

This chapter is a summary, including statements indicating the differences between the mentoring literature review and the findings, recommendations for future studies, the identification of limitations and a discussion about implications.

1.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter the problem to be researched and the background, as well as the rationale has been explained with, assumptions are clearly stated. The research design and method have been outlined. The orientation chapter (Chapter 1) forms the structural frame of reference for the rest of this research and poses the following question: What theory surrounds mentorship?

2

AN OVERVIEW OF MENTORSHIP AS A THEORY AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO GENDER DEVELOPMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the related literature that presents an overview of mentorship as a theory and its relationship to gender development. Specifically, it focuses on mentorship theory in general, exploring the mentoring process for both the mentor and the protégé with the characteristics, functions and benefits to the two parties as well as the challenges of mentoring relationships in different phases. In view of the inference that men and women experience mentorship differently (Ragins and Scandura, 1994:957), the chapter also explores the mentorship of both females and males in homogeneous and diversified mentoring relationships considering also the theories prevalent in the selection of any mentoring relationship.

2.2 META-THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON MENTORSHIP

Mentoring has a long history, one that originates in Greek mythology where, in Homer's epic 'Odyssey', the goddess Pallas Athena, daughter of Zeus, introduced in Homer's *Odyssey* as an old family friend, appears to Telemachus, Odysseus's son, outfitting herself as the mighty warrior named '*Mentes*'; a Greek word meaning 'mentor' and she has come to intercede for Odysseus by becoming Telemachus's teacher, entrusted with the character formation, education and the provision of wise tutelage to Telemachus during his father's long absence (Ross, 1996:35). Mentor's method of teaching was to lead by example and to provide opportunities for experiences, assisting the prince to learn his most significant lessons about life and become an effective ruler, with courage, prudence, honesty and a commitment to serve others so that he could finally reclaim the responsibilities of his inheritance (Gibson, 2004:260). Hayes (2005:442) asserts that since Homer's character introduced us to the concept of mentoring, the practice has had heuristic value, whether the participant was labelled apprentice, protégé, sponsor, godfather or coach. The word 'mentor' may therefore bring to mind various images of supportive people who have aided us and continue to uphold us in our professional and personal lives.

The classical origin of mentoring in Homer's *Odyssey* stresses the value of mentoring by helping Telemachus negotiate an important transition from youth to manhood, prince to king. Similarly, in the modern context, the idea of transition remains relevant; be it of a psychosocial nature or a career change, such as the induction into a profession or a teacher taking on the new responsibility of an education manager. Drawing on inspiration from the relationship between Mentor and Telemachus, Alred and Garvey (2000:269) believe that current interest and extensive research in mentoring has continued emphasising the

relevance of the mentoring image in today's organisations. The focus is on the development and education of leaders, implying that leadership may be developed through guided experience. Equally, the literature shows modern day mentoring in professional and educational realms to be a concept diverse in interpretation, often part of an encompassing and integrated system of human resource development and training.

A mammoth of mentoring research, including Pisimisi and Loannides (2005:478), has emphasised that the relationship between Mentor and Telemachus still seems to inspire researchers to investigate the various characteristics of mentoring relationships. On the other hand, the Mentor and Telemachus image continues to live in many recent definitions of mentoring today. It is evident from mentoring results that mentoring to enhance professional preparation is the oldest information and support method. Ancient Greeks considered effective mentoring to be grounded in ethics, logic and relationships (Sosik and Lee, 2002:18) and in recent years, programmes and schemes based on mentoring considerations are developed and implemented in a more systematic way by education institutions or other organisations for career advancement (Pisimisi and Loannides, 2005:478). Although contexts and practices vary considerably, a central feature of mentoring is a certain kind of learning relationship between mentor and protégé.

Jacobi (1991:506) observes that although many researchers have attempted to provide concise definitions of mentoring or mentors, contemporary definitional diversity of mentoring continues to characterise the literature. Nonetheless, most definitions of mentoring continue to capture elements of a strong correlation between academic or career success and the contact; thus, highlighting the guiding and nurturing characteristics individuals receive from experienced professionals. Murray and Owen (1991: xiv) defines mentoring as "a process by

which persons of special ranks, special achievements and prestige, instruct, counsel, guide and facilitate the intellectual and/or career development of persons identified as protégés". This suggests that a more skilled or experienced person (a mentor) is paired with a lesser skilled or inexperienced person (a protégé) in an intense caring relationship with the agreed upon goal of having the lesser skilled person grow both personally and professionally and to develop specific competencies.

Nonetheless, Haring (1999:17) decries the lack of a standard definition of mentoring to guide both research and practice. To fill the perceived void, she defines mentoring as a dynamic, reciprocal relationship in a work environment between an advanced career incumbent (mentor) and a beginner (protégé) aimed at reaching the organisation's goals and at the same time promoting the career development of the parties involved. This definition provides recognition of reciprocity in the relationship, expecting career development of both the mentor and the protégé in the relationship, concentrating therefore on transitions and by implication aiming to make a significant difference. In Haring's (1999:17) words "whereas good advice is helpful, mentoring by definition makes the difference".

It can therefore be deduced from the definitions that the importance of a relationship component of the ancient Greek conceptualisation of mentoring has not been lost in mentorship. It is also perceptible that a mentoring relationship can be characterised in a variety of ways. Mentoring can be characterised:

- As an intentional relationship, meaning that it is established with purpose and specific goals just as Mentor carried out his duties toward Telemachus;
- As a nurturing process with the aim of providing guidance in the context of a caring relationship;

- As insightful to enhance the transformation and growth of the protégé, with the mentor staying primarily on the agenda of the protégé;
- By the support and protection provided by the mentor;
- As a mutual and reciprocal process aiming to aid the development of both the; mentor and the protégé.

2.2.1 A mentoring process and the benefits of the mentoring process

Historically, the term 'mentor' has been used to denote a wise and trusted guide, adviser or counsellor, confidant, a teacher, coach and role model who has knowledge and expert status and is willing to take a personal interest in nurturing another in a non-competitive way (Wunsch, 1994:29). This means that a mentor was conceptualised as a transitional figure helping the young man/woman shift from being a child in relation to parental adults to being an adult in a peer relation with other adults (Levinson et al., 1978:99).

Hayes (2005:442) opines that the urge to mentor occurs as a convergence of the desire and need to give back to the organisation or profession by bringing along a newcomer who needs career or professional support and guidance and at the same time recognising that the endeavour has the potential to offer a unique opportunity to rejuvenate his/her career and set new goals while passing on the wisdom and experience they have learned throughout their careers.

Ragins and Scandura (1999:496) refer to mentors as influential individuals with advanced experience and knowledge who are committed to providing upward mobility and support to their protégés' careers. Phillips-Jones (1982:21) is in agreement with the above-mentioned mentor definitions, maintaining that mentors are influential people who significantly help the protégé reach major life goals with their advanced experience and knowledge. Embedded in

this notion of the mentor serving as a guide to adult development is the expectation that this person would engage in generativity, or “concern for and interest in guiding the next generation” which includes “everything that is generated from generation to generation: children, products, ideas and works of art” (Merriam, 1983:164).

Although some authors make allowances for peer relationship in defining mentors; for example, Hansman (2002:7) who indicates that mentors maybe persons with more experience within organisations or may be peers of the protégé, the important defining quality is that of a mentor’s ability to aid in both psychosocial and career support. Gibson (2004:267) contends that a mentor is more fully involved in the organisation or some part of it, than the protégé in terms of experience, maturity, competence, knowledge and usually power. As a consequence, he or she is able, personally and professionally, to assist the protégé to participate more fully in the legitimate activities of the organisation while still learning, producing knowledge and being ready to benefit from the mentoring process and other learning-enhancing activities.

It is evident from the aforementioned definitions that there are a number of common elements that appear in most mentor definitions. Inherent in these definitions is an agreement that mentors:

- are usually high ranking, influential and senior members of an organisation;
- have significant experience and knowledge that they are willing to share;
- make important contributions to the career success of the inexperienced individual such as acting as key support mechanisms taking responsibility for another person’s learning; and
- enhance both the protégé’s both personal and career development.

According to Gibson (2004:262), mentors can also be described by the functions and benefits the mentoring process provides. In the publication *The Seasons of a Man's Life*, Levinson et al. (1978:98) suggest that a mentor's role is to support and facilitate the realisation of the Telemachus dream; the kind of life each man/woman envisions for him/herself as an adult, alluding to the observation that mentors facilitate in the overall development of the protégé by providing various functions. In examining these functions, Kram (1983:614) and Kram and Isabella (1985:117) suggest that mentors assist the protégé through various career and psychosocial developments as primary functions of the mentoring relationship.

2.2.1.1 Career enhancing functions

Kram (1983:614) and Kram and Isabella (1985:117) define career enhancing functions as the functions through which the protégé learns about the organisation by focusing on career advancement and the achievement of targets and raising issues of evaluation and cost-effectiveness. According to Kram (1983:614), career enhancing functions include: provision of information, provision of leadership opportunities, coaching, nurture and support, exposure and visibility, challenging work assignments and feedback. Below is an exposition of the in-depth analysis of career-enhancing functions:

(i) Provision of information

Stone (2007:159) advocates that a mentor provides information, resources and knowledge of the organisation to the protégé; sharing understanding of important issues in order to broaden the protégé's perspective and to enhance his/ her ability to navigate in the organisation. In addition, a mentor needs to communicate the informal and formal realities of progression in the organisation, recommending appropriate strategies for career direction

and advancement, reviewing the protégé's development plan on a regular basis and helping the protégé to identify obstacles to career progression and to take appropriate action (Stone, 2007:159). Sharing their wisdom and insight, as well as creating high expectations and standards that will stretch protégés; thus, becoming feedback champions of an honest, accurate, timely feedback with conscious intentions (Kram, 1983:616), mentors need to provide clear explanations to the protégé by providing information. Thus, the protégé relies on this information to help make the organisation and its people more effective (Colky and Young, 2006:441).

(ii) Provision of leadership opportunities

Noe (1988:66) suggests that a mentoring relationship should provide a protégé with leadership opportunities including nominations for desirable projects, lateral moves and promotions. At the same time, the relationship should inspire the protégé to take action by saying, doing, or demonstrating something that can ignite his/her initiative, motivating and stimulating him/her to discuss impressions, ideas, visions and creative concepts that are inside or outside of his/her work context.

(iii) Exposure, visibility and challenging work assignments

In addition to the provision of leadership opportunities, the mentor needs to assign the protégé challenging work supported with training and ongoing performance feedback which develops the protégé's essential technical and managerial skills thus increasing his/her visibility to the organisational key figures and exposing him/her to future opportunities (Noe, 1988:66). This author further suggests that the mentor needs to provide protégés with responsibilities that allow for the development of relationships with key figures to enable them to learn about other parts of the organisation and organisational life at a higher level

consequently enhancing their exposure and visibility. According to Stone (2007:159), mentors should create opportunities for specific learning experiences by championing the ideas and interests of the protégé so that the latter gains visibility and exposure corroborating Noe's (1988:66) viewpoint of having as the centrepiece of the mentoring relationship, the dream of the protégé, not the agenda of the mentor.

(iv) Feedback

Bell (2000:55) opine that mentors should appraise protégés' behaviour by giving them a chance to review their strengths and weaknesses, providing feedback and thereby providing a risk-free environment for protégés' to express their frustrations and share difficulties. In other words, the mentor needs to be frank, honest and candid at the same time, need to demonstrate through actions and words that what the protégé is saying makes sense, because when people feel heard, they feel valued; when they feel valued, they are more likely to innovate and take risks (Clutterbuck, 2005:5). Therefore, a mentor needs to be genuinely interested in a protégé's thoughts, feelings and opinions, since it is only through feedback that a mentor can tell how the protégé is absorbing and integrating the materials and lessons.

(v) Coaching

The coaching function requires a mentor to outline specific strategies for accomplishing work objectives and achieving career aspirations, clarifying and communicating the organisation's culture, political structure, vision, goals and objectives to encourage the protégé to correctly direct his/her efforts and avoid the political traps that could derail him/her from fast tracking within the organisation (Noe, 1988:66). Hwang (1996:4) points out that a coach is involved in hands-on, day-to-day work with the protégé to build his or her managerial and technical

skills, clarify performance goals and develop needs through teaching and suggesting specific behaviour in which the protégé needs to improve, as well as creating avenues for the protégé to discover his/her own mistakes and learn from them.

(vi) Nurture and support

Noe (1988:66) recommends that a mentor should provide a shield for the protégé to protect him/her from unwarranted criticism and untimely or potentially damaging contact with hostile individuals within the organisation by taking the blame in controversial situations or intervening when the protégé is ill-equipped to achieve a satisfactory resolution. In other words, the mentor should reduce unnecessary risks that might threaten the protégé's reputation.

2.2.1.2 Psychosocial functions

Psychosocial functions are concerned with personal development and raise issues of power, control and interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects of the mentoring relationship (Kram, 1983:614). This implies that psychosocial functions are a form of relational learning, the value of which is increasingly being recognised in less hierarchical team environments (Bieremas, 1996:157). Thus, women in particular, have been found to favour relational learning, believing that relationships inform them about their organisation's culture and help them process both cognitive and experiential learning experiences (Bieremas, 1996:157). Psychosocial functions include role modelling, motivation and encouragement and attentive listening, all of which enhance the protégé's feelings of competence, clarity of identity, managerial effectiveness and self-worth (Kram, 1983:614). A comprehensive analysis of the various psychosocial functions will now be discussed.

(i) Role modelling

Role modelling involves the mentor's setting a desirable example and the protégé's identifying with it (Stone, 2007:17), confirming Cox's (2005:511) recognition that human behaviour is learned through modelling and by observing others. Mentoring is therefore a particularly intensive form of modelling where the mentor's skills, knowledge or personality provide a model for the protégé to emulate (Stone, 2007:173). By identifying with role models, protégés experiment with their own identities, thus confirming Cox's (2005:411) opinion that if the inspiration and role-model elements of the activity are not allowed to exist, there is a degradation of the term 'mentor'. For example, in ancient Greek, Mentor provided Telemachus with a standard of behaviour that he could understand; she took a human form with whom Telemachus could readily identify; an outward appearance that allowed for accessibility (Knox and McGovern, 1988:38).

Kram's research (1988:33) suggests that role modelling is "both a conscious and an unconscious process", where the mentor may not be aware that he or she is providing an example and the protégé may be unaware of the strength of identification and yet, the role model's endeavour results in the enrichment of the protégé's self-image, demonstrating that particular attributes are effective due to the emotional attachment that is formed during the process. This therefore emphasises that protégés look to role models for perspective, style and a sense of empowerment.

However, there are arguments against the role-model function. For example, Cox (2005:405) maintains that role modelling could be viewed as the transmission of values and attitudes, which may or may not be desirable, in that an individual may observe the behaviour of a role model who has achieved desirable results, and estimate the skill and ability required to

perform the same task. This implies that the effects of role modelling are enhanced when the individual is allowed to perceive for him/herself the similarity in terms of personal characteristics and capabilities between him/herself and the role model. Then again, Cox (2005:411) maintain that it is essential that protégés choose appropriate role models who can help in their progression through any learning curve in a controlled and protected fashion for professional and personal satisfaction.

(ii) Motivation and encouragement

Feist-Price (1994:14) asserts that the mentor needs to provide an encouraging forum for the protégé to engage in, in a social interaction with the mentor, enjoying an informal exchange about work and non-work experiences and talking openly about anxieties and fears. This attempt should deepen mutual liking and understanding between the protégé and the mentor, thereby demonstrating friendship which Hunt and Michael (1983:479) suggest enables protégés to feel like peers with their mentors, while mentors can maintain a connection with more youthful parts of the self and extend the connection with the next generation. Steinmann (2006:35) adds that mentors may also need to ask the protégé to paraphrase his/her statements in order to maintain his/her attention and keep him/her participating in the discussion, verbalising feelings by sharing relevant stories of the mentor's own experiences in similar situations, in order to open up meaningful dialogue with the protégé so that he/she becomes equally open. This suggests that mentors need to maintain mutual feelings of respect, admiration, trust, appreciation and gratitude and the sharing of personal values and other aspects of the relationship, as well as encouraging and supporting the protégé during difficult or stressful times. In this sense, the mentoring relationship fosters openness, trust and mutual respect (Rylatt, 1994:237).

(iii) Attentive listening

According to Bell (2000:54), effective mentors show their acceptance through attentive, dramatic listening. Attentive listening is not just their goal; they make it a priority by opening their mind to what the protégé is saying, demonstrating interest and attention, encouraging him/her to speak and holding back on filling the silences (Steinmann, 2006:35), because listening done well, is complete absorption (Bell, 2000:54). Bell (2000:54) furthermore recommends that a mentor's success should lie not in the questions he/she asks but in his/her sensitive listening skills. In dramatic listening, the mentor hears beyond the protégé's words and gets to the message, intention and meaning; an indication that the mission of listening is to be so crystal clear about the other person's message that it becomes a 'copy and paste' execution from one person's brain to the other's. In enhancing listening ability, the mentor needs to mirror during the discussions so as to allow the protégé to open up and most importantly, feel heard (Clutterbuck, 2000:5). Bell (2000:55) recommends that if people wish to be effective mentors, they should start by placing emphasis on listening and encouraging the protégé to speak, rather than on talking themselves.

Linked with attentive listening, Clutterbuck (2005:5) advocates the use of body language such as eye contact and nodding, used in conjunction with verbal prompts, as well as the suspension of thoughts and views and in doing so, pay attention to what is said in order to maintain a healthy interpersonal skills and thus good mentoring relations between the mentor and the protégé. In other words, good verbal skills combined with effective body language create interest and a lasting impression on the minds of protégés and their involvement in the mentoring relationship.

An analysis of career and psychosocial functions demonstrate that a mentor has made a considerable investment in the relationship which needs to benefit both him/herself and the protégé, as well as providing on-going feedback which is not always possible in the absence of any kind of mentoring system. According to Ragins and Scandura (1994:958), recognition and respect, confirmation and support and the satisfaction that a mentor receives from nurturing the professional and personal development of a protégé, watching the novice bloom, validates his/her efforts and status. Hunt and Michael (1983:479) add that a mentor also benefits from the creative and youthful energy of their protégés that has the potential to renew their mentoring careers. As a result of the benefits of the relationship, Rylatt (1994:237) believes that a mentor should take risks and experiment with new behaviours with the protégé without fear of failure.

With regard to the one who is being mentored, the nurturing, protection and opportunity for personal and professional growth and advancement promote his/her self confidence, aiding him/her deal with organisational change, strengthening his/her ability to develop a career and develop a sense of self-efficacy, together with the belief that he/she will be able to take on a new role successfully and become a fully participating member of an organisation or profession (Kram, 1983:614;) and (Mathew 2003:318). In this sense, a mentoring relationship helps establish a sense of loyalty and attachment for the protégé to the organisation, because employees think twice about leaving when they feel these emotional ties.

Mathew (2003:317) further indicates that mentoring relationships help address many recruitment and retention problems currently faced by institutions. According to her, (2003:329) mentoring relationships serve as a significant inducement for attracting staff to an organisation, particularly the re-entry employees, as they signal to candidates that the

organisation is committed to staff development and staff retention, aiming to reduce employee stress, assisting in socialising and improving or upgrading job competencies in order to enable employees to better understand the organisation (Clutterbuck, 1991:24;) (Klasen and Clutterbuck, 2002:107). This ultimately leads to the attraction of employees to the organisation and improves the chances of the organisation's retaining employees.

The foregoing exposition demonstrates that the career and psychosocial functions that mentors provide have associated benefits. The following summative table depicts the functions of mentoring and the benefits of the process to the mentor, the protégé and the organisation.

Table 2.2.1 Mentoring functions with the associated benefits to the protégé, the mentor and the organisation

Mentoring functions	Career enhancing functions	Psychosocial functions
Definitions	These are the functions through which the protégé learns about the organisation focusing on career advancement and the achievement of targets, raising issues of evaluation and cost-effectiveness	These are the functions concerned with personal development and raise issues of power, control and interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects
Benefits to the Mentor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A mentor gets recognition and respect, confirmation and support and the satisfaction from nurturing the professional and personal development of a protégé • The creative and youthful energy of the protégés renew their mentoring careers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Derive a sense of self from positive regard conveyed by the protégé
Benefits to the Protégé	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chances of promotions are enhanced • Have access to information and resources that broaden their perspective • Ability to navigate in the organization is enhance • Their ideas are supported helping to promote self confidence and competence • Unnecessary risks that might threaten their reputation are reduced • Their technical and managerial skills are developed increasing their visibility and exposure to future opportunities • Aided to deal with organizational change • Their ability to develop a career is strengthened • self-efficacy is enhanced 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allowed to experiment with their own identities • Derive a sense of self from positive regard conveyed by the mentor. • Encouraged to engage in social interaction with the mentor • Mutual liking and understanding is deepened • Allowed friendship with the mentor • Clarity of identity, and self-worth
Benefits to the Organisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Help address many recruitment and retention problems Faced by institutions • Serve as a significant inducement for attracting re-entry employees • Improves job competency and reduces employee stress 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improves the chances of the organisation to retain employees • Assisting in socialisation

Despite the delineations of the benefits of mentoring relationships above, Kram (1985:13) theorised that "mentoring relationships are dynamic and changing, while enhancing at one time, a relationship can become less satisfying and even destructive". The concept of differing degrees of satisfaction within the mentoring relationship is also reflected in the work of Levinson et al. (1978:100). They observe that mentoring relationships vary tremendously in the degree and form of the mentoring involved and emphasises that mentoring "is not a simple, all, or none matter". Wunsch (1994:17) posits that a mentoring relationship normally begins with the expectation that it will be mutually valuable to the protégé, the mentor and the organisation, usually developing into true lifelong friendships. Nonetheless, most mentorship researchers report that some mentoring relationships become counterproductive and negative and can even be used as an occasion for abuse either by the mentor or the protégé or both (Wunsch, 1994:17).

Eby and Allen (2002:471) provide a tripartite definition of negative mentoring experiences. They indicate that negative mentoring experiences are operationalised as specific incidents that occur between the mentor and the protégé, the mentor's characteristics, manner of interacting with the protégé's or the mentor's characteristics that limit his/her ability to effectively provide guidance to the protégé. In a study examining the protégé's perceptions of negative mentoring experiences, Eby and Allen (2002:471) clustered common unethical mentor's behaviours into a category labelled distancing/manipulative behaviour which includes deceit, credit taking, sabotage, intentional exclusion and general abuse of power concluding that these behaviours "appear to be marked by a bad intent on the part of the mentor" and are therefore unethical. Levinson et al. (1978:100) and Burke and Mckeen (1990:323) add that mentors can be excessively critical, demanding and authoritarian toward the protégé's and can even exploit or undercut the protégé's career undermining his/her

feeling of self-worth and independence which may be a risk if he/she terminates the relationship with his/her mentor and yet continue with the organisation.

On the contrary, Burke and Mckeen (1990:323) note that a mentoring experience may involve risks of censuring and backstabbing by ambitious or disloyal protégés'. These authors further posit that the protégé may lack the talent to perform at a high level and if the protégé is of opposite gender, the mentor's relationship may be seen by outsiders as sexual. Concurrently, the mentor may lack the talent to perform at a high level such that being attached to that particular mentor may be problematic.

From the discussion above, it is clear that mentoring is an intense interpersonal relationship where a mentor needs to provide certain functions to the protégé for an empowering mentoring relationship for both the mentor and the protégé in order to obtain a recognisable proportion of benefits. However, like all other types of relationships, mentoring may be affected by many dynamics that can have both positive and negative influences, ranging from unpleasant incidents of minor episodes, such as arguing, to serious incidents such as physical or psychological abuse. A mentoring relationship therefore requires the efforts of the protégé to contribute meaningful initiatives for a thriving relationship to occur.

2.3 THE PROTÉGÉ AS FOCUS OF THE MENTORSHIP PROCESS

The protégé, who is usually a newly appointed education manager often experiences feelings of uncertainty and incompetence when she/he first takes up his/her new post (Playko, 1990:31), because he/she must constantly lead while learning to lead (Reeves, Mahony and Moos, 1997:50). This means that a protégé often enters into a new stage of professional or personal development with only a vague sense of his/ her potential or identity, an indistinct vision for his/her future and the possibilities ahead that may be only a

dream. In order to give that dream greater definition, Playko (1990:31) suggests that the protégé, together with the mentor who is responsible for affirming the emerging professional capabilities and dreams of the protégé through words and actions, just as Mentor spoke words of hope about the future to Telemachus, must find ways to assist the protégé to have his/her dream remain alive. In other words, the mentor is faced with an immeasurable responsibility of facilitating the transition of the protégé from one post to the next; that of teacher to that of the education manager (Playko, 1990:31).

2.3.2 The mentoring process for the protégé

Mentoring provides informal instructions by example about demeanour, etiquette, collegiality and day-to-day interpersonal relations to a protégé who may be defined as a less experienced adult, who accepts the responsibility for his or her own professional development by depending on the mentor to help him/her to acquire the necessary skills, as well as to define an individual's professional conviction in order to handle the post effectively (Daresh and Playko, 1990b:10). One of the main advantages of a mentoring relationship for the protégé is that the education manager learns the so-called "tricks of the trade" (Playko 1990:31). Thus, the acquisition of technical management skills occurs on the basis of proven techniques and strategies, which mentors have already experienced in practice. On the other hand, Hayes (2005:442) believes that a mentoring relationship has the potential to smooth the progress of the protégé's development of confidence and competence in a new role as he/she feels secure under the protection of a guide and sponsor who provides opportunities and resources to promote his/her success. Concurring with the above, Barnett (1990b:22) points out that a mentoring relationship assists the protégé to obtain insight into the real management task of the educational manager, contributing to the acquisition of self

confidence and the cultivation of management expertise in the beginner education manager, thus giving the protégé a chance to put theoretical knowledge into practice.

In addition, Daresh and Playko's (1990a:52) work suggests that a mentoring relationship has a positive influence on the professional growth of the protégé, including the fact that a protégé manifests a more purposeful approach in management tasks; demonstrates a more serious approach to finer details and acquires a greater awareness of what education management entails. Daresh and Playko (1990b:10) assert that the fact that the protégé is associated with a mentor who understands the nature and essence of the specific work situation is of immense value to the protégé.

According to Garvey and Alred (2003:4), there are certain preconditions for successful mentoring activities for the protégé, in order that a mentoring relationship becomes a true partnership. According to these authors, the protégé must be a learner, a self-developer, a communicator, a listener and an implementer.

2.3.2.1 Pre-conditions for the mentoring activities of the protégé

a) The protégé as a learner

Garvey and Alred (2003:4) suggest that the protégé needs to be willing to learn from the mentor by demonstrating active learning abilities; a flexible approach and commitment to one's own learning; honesty and openness about one's behaviour through believing in the concept of lifelong learning and bearing in mind that the mentorship process depends largely on the quality of his/her learning. These authors further maintain that in addition to developing existing abilities and skills, the ability to work as a team player and a willingness to take risks, will demonstrate reflective, reflexive abilities and an eagerness to learn new skills and

knowledge. According to Peyton, Morton, Perkins and Dougherty (2001:351), since the mentoring relationship relies on trust, the protégé should trust that what the mentor says is accurate.

b) The protégé as a self-developer

According to Garvey and Alred (2003:4) the protégé needs to have the ability to show initiative and conscientious involvement in the development of his/her own potential, not only demonstrating an open, positive, flexible and objective attitude and recognition of one's need for his/her support without feelings of being threatened, but should also present a genuine commitment to the execution of envisaged plans and activities in order to rise above the level of the required minimum standard in his/her achievements. Garvey and Alred (2003:4) highlight that the protégé needs to have a sense of humour and enthusiasm for his/her work as well as enthusiasm for his/her personal involvement in the study of the work sphere, demonstrating a greater degree of insight in him/herself and others together with a willingness to put time and effort into relationship building and maintaining trust, because a mentoring relationship just like any other relationship, depends on trust.

c) The protégé as a communicator

According to Peyton et al. (2001:351), the protégé should be a proactive and competent communicator of his/her ideas, problems and concerns with the mentor and use the knowledge and skills of the mentor to improve his/her communication skills. The protégé's communication skills should incorporate listening skills which are foremost in the implementation of the action plans decided upon with the mentor. The protégé needs to attentively listen, together with taking note of key issues pointed out by the mentor (Peyton et al., 2001:351).

d) The protégé as an implementer

Peyton et al. (2001:351) suggest that a protégé needs to be an implementer, meaning that the relationship between the mentor and protégé is not merely based on interaction and communication as a yardstick for the success of the mentoring relationship, but the protégé needs to implement action plans decided upon with the mentor.

In the light of the above, it may be accepted that mentoring relationships develop, support and integrate protégés, providing them with mechanism to socialise and integrate into institutions, thus giving experienced members and administrators an opportunity to influence and guide the next generation. It is of overriding importance that protégés become receptive to all learning opportunities that may occur in the institution, consulting mentors if necessary, seek advice on certain aspects, as well as being receptive to any available suggestions. If this is not implemented, the protégé may assume a superior attitude and the mentor may lose interest in his/her personal and career development. What should be borne in mind is that, the mentoring relationship is still subject to change over time.

2.4 PHASES OF MENTORING

There is considerable agreement among those who have studied mentoring, that in order to understand fully the nature and impact of this developmental relationship, it is necessary to examine how it changes over time (Kram, 1983:610). Kram (1985:47) examined mentorship in private organisations and observed that different types of relationships are appropriate at various times in a person's career. Clutterbuck (2005:3) acknowledges that Kram's original and insightful studies of mentoring in the early 1980s have been the foundation for later research on mentoring. Kram (1983:614-620) identified four phases of mentoring, namely: initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition. Nonetheless, Clutterbuck (2005:3) suggest

five phases that characterise the developmental relationship, namely: rapport-building, the direction-setting phase, progress-making, winding down, and moving on or professional relationship. For the purposes of this study, the phases of mentoring will be discussed as reviewed by Clutterbuck (2005:3).

a) Rapport-building

Schaller (1996:231) calls this the first peaceful stage of the mentoring relationship in which the protégé idolises the mentor, idealises the relationship and identifies strongly with the mentor; in other words, 'a fantasy stage' which sets the tone for the future development of the relationship. According to Scandura and Williams (2001:343-344), rapport building is a one-person relationship where the protégé is in love with the mentor's reflection of what the protégé wants to become; a form of self love, admiring another person who is unconsciously seen as simply the perfect version of the self. In this context, rapport-building is characterised by a sense of dependence that the protégé feels because of the strong sense of uncertainty as the new relationship begins; thus mentors are required to be fully prepared to put the protégé ahead of themselves, cultivating trust and ensuring that the relationship starts on a strong foundation because as it is said "a good start effects good growth". This corroborates Kram (1983:615) perception that the tone created at the first meeting can determine whether the relationship will be fruitful or fraught with fear and anxiety.

Steinmann (2006:14) advocates that mentors remove the mask of supremacy and create a relationship or rapport, a French derivation meaning 'a bringing back' or 'connection renewed', at this stage. Bell (2000:54) concurs by proposing that a mentor's challenge is to recognise a lack of rapport and manage it positively, confronting the issue openly and reviewing with the protégé the kind of person that might best meet their needs negotiating how the relationship

will be conducted and being explicit in what each expects of the other, particularly in terms of behaviour.

b) Direction-setting phase

The direction-setting phase is where the mentor and the protégé achieve clarity about what each aims to achieve from the relationship and how (Steinmann, 2006:14), meaning that the two parties are in a gap analysis phase in order to establish where the protégé needs to be either personally or professionally (Bell, 2000:54). Scandura and Williams (2001:344) characterise the phase as an interpersonal bonding phase between the mentor and the protégé where mentoring functions such as vocational support, psychosocial support and role modelling occur. This phase therefore, has a sense of purpose for the relationship which is fundamental to achieving commitment to it.

c) Progress-making

Clutterbuck (2005:3) suggests that progress-making is the hard core of the mentoring relationship requiring time and energy. This phase requires the mentor to guide and support the protégé in defining and committing to personal change (Kram, 1983:617), providing a sense of autonomy to the protégé, a clear revelation encompassing increasingly independent work by the protégé resulting in a decreasing need for guidance by the mentor (Colky and Young, 2006:440). Most of the efforts in this phase occur during mentoring meetings, through telephone conversations and other means of communication such as via e-mails.

The stage is therefore characterised both as the most productive and critical phase for the protégé and requires the mentor to create progressively more challenging assignments to expose the protégé to the right development at the right time, ultimately matching

development needs with development opportunities (Steinmann, 2006:109). This implies that mentors should be able to facilitate confidence-building, inculcate self-belief and encourage the competence of the protégé in an attempt to ensure a personal and a professional identity.

d) Winding down

This phase occurs as the relationship has delivered or helped to deliver the desired outcomes, or when the protégé begins to outgrow the mentor (Steinmann, 2006:14). It is not always obvious when the time has come for the protégé to leave the comfort of the mentoring nest; in any event, the mentor needs to be sensitive to this issue and to some extent pre-emptive, reviewing the value-added component of the relationship with the protégé from time to time. It is also obligatory for the mentor to have a vision of where the relationship might go, although it should not be one that restricts or restrains its potential by being too fixed or too narrow (Clutterbuck, 2005:3).

e) Moving on/professional friendship

This phase is marked by the move from a mentoring relationship that is rich, engaging, and intimate to a less committed, more casual relationship, or professional friendship, (Clutterbuck, 2005:3). This said, Bell (2000:56) suggests that the phase has to be characterised by managing the adjournment as a visible expression of achievement and happiness, despite the acquisition of the bitter-sweet aftermath of this transition. Bell (2000:56) acknowledges the fact that a healthy mentoring relationship involves separation as a tool for growth; besides,

"an effective adjournment of a mentoring relationship paves a way for the successful inauguration of the next mentoring relationship, which is a powerful symbol in moving on to the next learning plateau".

Clutterbuck (2005:3) equates this phase with a child achieving independence and attaining collegial interaction with the parent. As a result, the phase demands the elimination of the greater element of protection that has the capacity to intensify the difficulties for both parties to achieve positive independence of each other. It is imperative at this point that mentors decide to let go, appreciating that they have empowered the protégé adequately to operate autonomously, take initiatives with reduced interaction between himself or herself and the mentor, acknowledging at the same time, that a mentoring relationship may still continue informally for years.

It is important that mentors become familiar with these phases and understand the unique needs of the protégés in each phase by fulfilling different roles as the relationship grows. There are diverse types of mentors who are suitable for the personal and career development of the protégé.

1.5 TYPES OF MENTORS

The aforesaid phases of mentoring calls for multiple mentors substantiating De Janasz, Sullivan and Whiting's (2003:81) perception that individuals are better served by a variety of mentors who can provide different perspectives, knowledge, and skills and who can serve different mentoring functions. Current research suggests that mentoring is a process of establishing multiple relationships with mentors that vary in terms of functions fulfilled; relationship strengths and relationship lengths. In this regard, Peyton et al. (2001:351) describe several types of mentors found in the organisational environment: peer mentors;

information mentors; competitor mentors; retiree mentors; and grandparent mentors. Additionally, Herrera, Vang and Gale (2002:8) and Ensher, Heun and Blanchard (2003:269) suggest the inclusion of group mentoring and on-line mentors respectively, considering that mentoring has been transformed from the traditional master-apprentice relationships into multiple developmental relationships that extend beyond functional, organisational and geographic boundaries.

a) Information mentor

The information mentor is typically an experienced, respected individual usually sought out because of his/her expertise to discuss topics in casual situations, providing new information and serving as a teacher (Peyton et al., 2001:351), because the individual is a step-ahead of the protégé (Ensher, Thomas and Murphy, 2001:420-421). According to Colky and Young (2006:441) this type of mentoring can frequently be observed at professional conferences where junior staff asks questions and advice from more senior experts.

b) Peer-Mentor

According to Kram and Isabella (1985:112), a peer mentor is an individual who holds a comparable position in terms of status and experience to the protégé. In other words, peer mentors typically exist between workers of equal status and tenure and are at the same professional level or just one step ahead of their protégés. Kram and Isabella (1985:111) and Peyton et al. (2001:351) observe that the peer mentor will share his or her interests and information with the understanding that reciprocation may occur at a later time. This type of mentoring is more visible in a situation where the boss is not physically present and might check up the employee infrequently. In this case, a peer is often the only employee available to answer questions and give advice (Colky and Young, 2006:441). This type of mentoring is

advantageous because peers may be easier to connect with and exchange ideas relating to evaluation processes, work requirements and other job related aspects (Peyton et al., 2001:351). This means that peer mentoring can be an especially valuable mechanism for colleagues to increase their knowledge and expertise. Peer mentoring provides a non-threatening avenue for colleagues to obtain support, guidance, and information about the inner workings of their organisation or department (Peyton et al., 2001:352). This means that a member of staff may feel better able to express concerns or ask questions to another colleague with a similar perspective.

e) Competitor Mentor

The competitor mentor does his/her mentoring through working in a parallel position in another company but offers advice, information, understanding, encouragement and support to a person in a competing organisation through knowledge of the problems that are idiosyncratic to that particular position (Peyton et al., 2001:352).

f) Retiree Mentor

The retiree mentor is an individual who is no longer employed in the organisation but has institutional memory; that is, knowledge of the inner workings of the organization (Colky and Young, 2006:441). In other words, the mentor is experienced in the complexities of the organisation and may be one of the best sources of knowledge in that organisation. A retiree mentor can therefore be equated with the traditional mentor who often performs the classic 'godfather' role to the protégé. According to Peyton et al. (2001:351-352), the retiree mentor will know all of the intricacies of an organisation and will know the best methods of career advancement. This means that this mentor can be extremely beneficial in providing

information on the operations of the organisation based on personal history and coaching to enhance competencies such as critical thinking and empowerment.

a) Grandparent Mentor

The grandparent mentor is defined as a person with long-standing experience in an organisation who mentors new or inexperienced employees (Colky and Young, 2006:442). Peyton et al. (2001:352) realises that since the mentor is still employed with the organisation, he or she is invaluable for the provision of a context for inexperienced members of the organisation who have to get their work done quickly and yet may not have time to assimilate the organisation's culture.

b) Group Mentors

According to Herrera, et al. (2002:8) the objective of group mentoring is to place a small group of between four to six protégés with an experienced mentor who is afforded an opportunity to act as a facilitator, guide and catalyst for sharing personal experiences and insights and to create a forum for discussion and learning to a wider pool of employees in order to foster joint learning across the whole organisation. Herrera, et al. (2002:8) observes that this type of mentoring provides many advantages to the protégé, including the ability to contribute to the vibrancy of a mentoring culture, especially when coupled with one-to-one mentoring, thus promoting diversity of thinking, practice and understanding which are powerful motivators for employee development. According to these authors, group mentors support individual accountability and establish a more-connected workplace, providing a welcome alternative for those who learn better in group settings.

g) Online Mentors

Knowing each other or having had one intensive face-to-face meeting, a mentor and a protégé agree to conduct a mentoring relationship primarily at a distance, by computer-mediated communication whenever circumstances allow (Ensher, Heun and Blanchard, 2003:269 and 270). According to Ensher et al. (2003:269-270), online mentoring provides an opportunity for a protégé to gain exposure to a wider area of information and resources with information being effectively shared through computer-mediated communication which provides opportunities for protégés to network and share experiences with their peers. These authors recommend the support of a facilitator and/or coordinator for the effectiveness of online professional development.

From the above discussion, it is evident that the changing nature of technology, organisational structures, and marketplace dynamics has transformed mentoring into a process that extends beyond a single individual who represents a single function, organisation or country. These suggest therefore, that a protégé need not rely only on one individual but rather on multiple, diverse individuals for a thriving mentoring relationship. For the growth and sustainability, motivation and encouragement of any mentoring relationship, there is a need for both technology and face-to-face contact between protégé and mentor to supplement each other. There are however, differences in mentoring relationships in females and males.

2.6 AN OVERVIEW OF GENDER AND MENTORSHIP IN A FEMINIST RESEARCH

Hell (2002:11) suggests that the aim of mentoring is a mastering, never-ending, ever-expansive journey of perpetual growth, capable of yielding abundant benefits to the mentored, although Godshalk and Sosik (2000:106-107) are adamant that these benefits do

not guarantee that mentoring for women will take place. Besides, the differences in outcomes for men and women in terms of receiving mentorship have been evidenced in the research, confirming the significance of mentoring relationships for women (Noe, 1988:66;) (Wunsch, 1994:17) since they face gender-related obstacles to advancement (Ragins and Cotton, 1991:939). Young, Cady and Foxon (2006:149) therefore opine that gender issues related to mentoring need to be addressed, since it appears to be a confounding variable when it comes to evaluating the research on mentoring functions. A feminist research approach therefore is selected as the most appropriate approach for this study.

2.6.1 Feminist research perspectives

While there is no homogeneous, unified approach to feminist research, there is a generally accepted perception that feminist research is the privileging of women's lived and diverse experiences as sources of knowledge (Adler, Laney and Packer, 1993:34-35). This means that feminist research is about taking women's location and standpoint in the world as the basis for research, from where it will proceed as a perspective that values women's experiences, ideas and needs, so that they become part of the main body of knowledge because they are studied on their own terms, rather than in relation to male experiences or rather assuming that females are like men (Enomoto, 2000:392). To undertake feminist research therefore, is to put the social construction of gender at the centre of one's inquiry, since feminist research is predominantly connected in principle to the feminist struggle (Lather, 1991:71). In other words, feminist researchers see gender as the basic organising principle which profoundly shapes or mediates the concrete conditions of people's lives. For this reason, at the heart of this feminist research is the goal and the obligation to give greater visibility to the subjective experience of women and to increase the involvement of the

participants in the research process (Neuman, 2000:283). Quoting Callaway (1981:460), Lather (1991:71-72) explains further that the overt ideological goal of feminist research in the human sciences is to correct both the invisibility and distortion of female experience in ways relevant to ending women's unequal social position which entails the substantive task of making gender a fundamental category for our understanding of the social order; that is, to see the world from women's place in it. This feminist study therefore is intended to bring about change in women's lives (Maynard and Purvis, 1995:16), meaning that the study is embarked upon for the researcher to equally become part of the process of discovery and understanding, in order to attempt to create and initiate social change. Embracing the change aspect in feminist research, Reinharz (1992:251) emphasises that the focus on creating social change appears to be a theme across much of feminist thought; whether a researcher recommends explicit policy recommendations or less overtly social implications of his or her findings.

.6.2 Mentoring relationships for women and men

A considerable volume of research has focused on the role that gender composition plays in the mentoring relationship and examines specifically, how the protégé gender, mentor gender and the dyadic gender composition of mentorship influence the mentoring received (Allen and Eby, 2004:130). According to Young, et al. (2006:151), mentoring research provides contradictory findings related to gender and mentoring, indicating that while some researchers have found that men and women have equal access to mentors; other researchers contend that men and women are equally willing to mentor others. Other findings have shown that men and women experience vastly different outcomes depending on the gender of a mentor and protégé.

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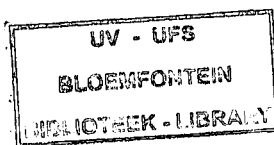
The results of research conducted by Ragins, Cotton and Mitller (2000:1179) suggest that mentoring relationship initiatives in institutions are often of an informal nature, usually occurring spontaneously through mutual attraction or identification between the protégé and the mentor. Mentors choose protégés whom they view as younger versions of themselves and protégés select mentors whom they view as role models (Kanter, 1977:184), resulting from a sense of personal identification between mentor and protégé. This mutual identification contributes to the often-cited closeness and intimacy of the mentoring relationship (Schaller, 1996:165) which ironically, normally excludes women from key networks, reducing their chances of interacting with senior executives and being identified as rising stars. Consequently, this contributes to mentorship being equivocal for women, as there is more similarity between two men than between a man and a woman.

Extending this perspective further, Noe (1988:67) argues that males hold more centralised and critical positions that give them access to valuable information concerning, among other things, managerial decisions, thus giving them a wider base of power that enables them to set realistic career goals, to provide greater visibility to important organisation members and to have access to more valuable resources than a female mentor; this increases their chances of being selected as mentors. Quinlan (1999:32) adds that males are likely to select a male protégé thus avoiding sexual politics that usually impede the development of a productive male - female mentoring relationship, thereby perceiving greater returns of investments made in men than in women. Consequently, females are less eager to become mentors in organisations. This substantiates O'Neill and Blake-Beard's (2002:53) observation that exceptionally senior women and junior men mentoring pairs are relatively scarce, thus compelling females to step forward and initiate a mentoring relationship (Wunsch, 1994:18). These are a demonstration that mentoring relationships are purposed at effecting how actively

individual women seek out and cultivate multiple developmental relationships (Higgins and Kram, 2001:281) having been excluded from informal networks.

Much of the writing on mentors suggests that women often lack mentors who can be instrumental in their career advancement; since although the activities male mentors pursue on behalf of their male protégés are basically the same as those they pursue on behalf of female protégés, there may be a difference in emphasis (Burke and McKeen, 1990:323). This difference may be due to the fact that females often have unique needs and concerns different from their male counterparts and which may not be adequately addressed by a male mentor (Quinlan, 1999:32). As a result, Ragins and Scandura (1994:960) encourage mentoring relationships for women, realising that women may expect and receive greater benefits from the mentorship than men, not only because the relationship meets their developmental needs, but because the mentoring role expectations are more aligned with the gender role expectations of women. Anderson (2005:70) supports Ragins and Scandura's (1994) perception by positing that mentoring relationships are essential for women to eliminate the barriers particular to women's career advancement.

In addition to the significance of mentoring relationships for females, Catalyst (1992:47) asserts that mentoring relationships provide opportunities to women in particular, to participate in the informal corporate network and to interact with high-level male employees because "if mentoring is left on an informal basis only a small number of employees will end up taking part". Anderson (2005:61) concurs with Catalyst's (1992) viewpoint suggesting that mentoring relationships contribute to women's continued career advancements in educational institutions by uncovering, nurturing and developing employees with potential, so that they can steer their organisations in the right direction, a direction which is not always easy to



discern in a competitive and highly energised environment such as education institutions. Accordingly, mentoring relationships for females in organisations are indispensable to increase the opportunities for women and minorities to gain exposure, skills and experience required for career progression (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright, 1994:482) and for these females to act as mentors to other females since they have the potential to relate to the causes of stress unique to females and as such can alleviate female stress by increasing the protégé's self-confidence, forewarning her of career stress and suggesting ways to deal with it (Ragins and Scandura 1994:957;) (Burke and Mckeen, 1990:318).

On the other hand, Cox (2005:406) observes that within the mentoring literature, it is often argued that the quality of the match between mentor and protégé could affect the benefits of mentoring in such a way that where there is compatibility between mentor and protégé, it follows that there is the potential for substantial and often rapid professional growth. Then again, where there are disparities in personal outlook or professional principles, the benefits may be limited, (Bush, Coleman, Watt and West-Burnam, 1996:122). Therefore the benefits of mentoring relationships are prone to differ in homogeneous and diversified mentoring relationships.

6.2.1 Homogeneous and diversified mentoring relationships

Mentoring relationships may be dichotomised as diversified or homogeneous relationships (Ragins, 1997:92). According to her, diversified mentoring relationships are composed of mentors and protégés' who differ, on one or more group membership levels associated with power in organisations. For example, diversified mentoring relationships in male-dominated organisations may involve the pairing of a majority mentor (a male) with a minority protégé' (a woman) or a minority mentor and a majority protégé, albeit Noe (1988:67) underlines the

fact that this is a less common diversified mentoring relationship. Ragins (1997:91) indicates that the term 'minority' refers to group power rather than to numerical status and may include race, ethnicity, gender, physical abilities, age, class, religion and sexual orientation. On the other hand, homogeneous mentoring relationships are composed of two minority members or two majority members (Ragins, 1997:92) which may be a female mentor and a female protégé in the case of minority members and a male mentor and a male protégé in the case of majority members.

2.6.2.2 Homogenous mentoring relationships

A common theme running through mentoring literature is that in Homer's *Odyssey*, Athena became a man to mentor Telemachus, suggesting that mentoring is linked historically to relationships between men, as the term 'mentor' is borrowed from *Mentes*, the male guide in Greek mythology (Packard, Walsh and Seidenberg, 2004:72), thus in contrast leaving women out of this historical mentoring landscape (Noe, 1988:66) consequently creating the largely prejudiced view of mentoring. On the contrary, much of the early research on mentoring assumes that the gender of either the mentor or the protégé does not affect how the relationships are formed or the quality of the interactions between mentor and protégé (Hansman, 1998:66). Contrary to expectations though, Noe's (1988) work found that mentors in cross-gender relationships reported that they were more effectively utilised by their protégé than did mentors in same-gender relationships. On the other hand, Sosik and Rodshalk's (2000) study indicates that female mentors are seen as providing less career development support, compared to male mentors. Mentorship theory however, suggests that greater benefits are to be realised within same-gender, versus cross-gender mentorships (Allen, et al., 2005:157). This finding corroborates Tanner's (1990:42) perception that women

...speak and hear a language of connection and intimacy, while men speak and hear a language of status and independence. Tanner (1990:42) explains further that in this manner, communication between men and women can be viewed as a cross-cultural communication, which is prey to a clash of conversation styles such that instead of being viewed as different dialects, it has been said men and women speak different gender-lects.

Portraying the benefits of same-gender mentoring relationships, Ragins (1997:510) predicts that "Minority mentors in homogeneous relationships will report more generativity and fulfilment than any other combination of the mentoring relationship" since they are likely to identify with their minority protégés and feel an intense sense of fulfilment and contribution from passing along their strategies for career advancement. These predictions are similar to the results of Ragins and Scandura (1994:957) which reveal that female protégés who have female mentors are likely to report that their mentors provide role modelling that protégés of the other combinations do not. The results of Ragins and Cotton's (1999) work on "*Mentor functions and outcomes: a comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships*" further suggest that men in the same sex mentoring relationship report receiving greater benefits than women or men in cross-gender mentoring relationships. Supporting the results of Ragins and Cotton's (1999) work, Quinlan (1999:36) emphasises that men in homogeneous mentoring combinations bracketed with homophilous tendencies, that is, to choose mentors and protégés who are similar in appearance, social background and experiences, are likely to serve both expressive instrumental purposes, since men can interact with other men in ways that are both career enhancing and psychosocially supportive. This corroborates Clutterbuck's (1998:100) view that "left to their own devices, mentors will tend to seek protégés who remind them of themselves and 'protégés left to themselves tend to seek out mentors who are more powerful and can influence their careers

rather than people from whom they can learn". Sosik and Godshalk (2000:105) and Scandura and Williams (2001:349) infer therefore, that the theoretical perspectives and empirical findings on mentoring suggest that identification and interpersonal comfort should be lower in diversified dyads and therefore the degree of psychosocial and role modelling mentoring functions provided in such dyads should be less than those in homogeneous dyads.

Nonetheless, Ragins and Scandura (1994:960) point out that due to the limited number of females in management positions who are potential mentors, females may be overwhelmed and have other pressures limiting their availability to protégés while ironically, protégés may demand more time and emotional energy than women mentors are willing or able to provide. Chandler (1996:81-82) adds that homophilous ties are likely to be disadvantageous in female pairs since they are epitomised by the prevalence of psychosocial functions of friendship and social support which are reported to not always propel women ahead in organisations. This may be due to their reported provision of the limited type of career help that is valued in the workplace. Equally, due to females' management style characterised by Adler, Laney and Hacker (1993:14) as empowering people as opposed to managing, Quinlan (1999:36) draws attention to the fact that homophilous ties for females may be problematic because even female protégés may view female mentors as having less power and therefore, less influence as mentors in the workplace. Cox (2005:406) supports this assertion that where learning is to occur, dissimilarity may be an advantage.

6.2.3 Diversified mentoring relationships

Cox (2005:406) notes that there is ongoing debate around gender and the desirability of matching male and female together in a mentoring pair. However, Burke and McKeen

1990:326) contend that there are unique problems with long-term mentoring relationships between males and females with issues of sexuality, marital disruption, damaging gossip and power likely to inhibit the quality of the relationship. For example, sexual involvement, real or perceived, can produce anxiety and confusion in both the internal relationship between the mentor and protégé, as well as in the external relationship between the mentoring dyad and the rest of the organisation. Concurring with this, O'Neill and Blake-Beard (2002:54) indicate that concerns about real or perceived sexual involvement in the female mentor, male protégé relationship may very well influence the willingness of both men and women to enter into such a relationship, thus explaining the small number of female mentor, male protégé relationships.

Clawson and Kram (1984) quoted in Burke and McKeen (1990:326) label the consequence of a female mentor, male protégé or male mentor, female protégé relationship as a "developmental dilemma", expounding that it is an assimilation of the desire to develop subordinates, a condition that demands a close relationship between the mentor and the protégé while at the same time adhering to the desire to avoid complications. This demands distance from them, thus insinuating that both men and women in organisations struggle with creating developmental relationships with the other sex while managing the complexities and difficulties associated with close male/female working relationships. This status quo confirms Avery, Tonidandel, and Phillips's (2008:73-74) opinion that diversified mentoring relationships are likely to receive less mentoring functions thereby placing them at a relative disadvantage to those in homogeneous mentoring relationships. Noe's (1988:70) concurrence with this assertion is coupled with her warning regarding the limitations of cross-gender relationships, maintaining that these relationships lack role-modelling potential which is an obstruction to positive mentoring experiences. As a result, Barnett (1990a:4-5)

advocates that the issue of gender matching should be critically calculated upon forming mentoring pairs so as to avoid the recurring domino effect of the report that in mixed gender relationships (male mentors, female protégés), many protégés report feeling social distance, over-protectiveness and discomfort.

From the discussions above, it is apparent that mentoring relationships for females encompass added challenges, especially in a diversified mentoring relationship. Noe (1988:67) categorises the challenges of mentoring relationships for females into the following: lack of access to information networks, tokenism, stereotypes and attributions, socialisation practices and reliance on ineffective power bases. What Follows will be a detailed exploration of the potential challenges to diversified mentoring relationships.

) Lack of access to information networks

Noe (1988:67) confirms that evidence suggests that females have fewer interactions with the dominant male coalition who are in positions of power in the organisations; this is probably due to a lack of knowledge of how to develop informal networks, as well as a preference for interacting with others of similar status in the organisation. In the same manner, male mentors may be reluctant to share their institutional knowledge with their female counterparts because they may be uncomfortable or incapable of promoting learning through relationships with females that require close, interpersonal transactions (Hale, 1995:329). This implies that male mentor - female protégé interactions are likely to be a restrictive exercise due to the male mentor's lack of access to communication networks with men who dominate the powerful positions, thus resulting in a limited amount of support that female mentors have to enhance the protégé's direction-finding chances within the organisation. It is therefore not surprising to find that females receive fewer promotions than men and do not advance as far

in the organisational hierarchy (Noe, 1988:67). Myerson and Fletcher (2000:136) corroborate this perception by opining that the barriers to advancement for females are not only above them; rather, they are all around them, because it is apparent that it is not only the glass ceiling that is holding females back but also the whole structure of the organisation in which both females and males work.

) Tokenism

According to Chandler (1996:84) "tokenism" refers to the accomplished women or minority-group members who, once selected into a commonly male inner circle, become labelled as the "token" representative for their group. Owing to their disproportionate representation, organisations may use affirmative action plans giving women preferential treatment for jobs which are prerequisites for managerial positions (Noe, 1988:67-68). This perspective suggests that females are placed in the organisational limelight, implying that they are likely to face increased performance pressures and stereotypical expectations, with their actions scrutinised and their performance becoming public knowledge. The suggestion here is that females are likely to face more obstacles to assuming a mentoring role than their male counterparts. Additionally, a protégé female is likely to feel special or unlike his/her peers, resulting in a reluctance to encourage the success of others (Chandler, 1996:84).

Socialisation practices

Neill and Blake-Beard (2002:54) suggest that males and females are socialised along culturally suitable sex-roles that result in females valuing and developing greater sensitivity to the feelings of others, thus embracing personality traits and behaviours such as fear of success and an unwillingness to take risks that are contrary to those needed to be a successful manager, which may result in their being perceived as not possessing the

desirable leadership qualities of assertiveness, competitiveness and emotional control. Men, on the contrary, may develop a stronger autonomous motivation for achievement. Therefore, a male mentor is likely to respond to instrumental forms of helping such as problem solving which integrates heroic and chivalrous forms of helping which are central to career development functions; while female mentors are likely to respond to social, nurturing and the caring forms of helping (Sosik and Godshalk, 2000:107). As such, within traditionally male-dominated organisations, both male and female protégés may shy away from female mentors when seeking career development functions leading to promotions, believing that greater compensation will be associated with male mentors than female mentors.

) Stereotypes

According to O'Neill and Blake-Beard (2002:54) stereotyping classifies individuals into groups according to visible criteria such as age, race and sex, where sex in particular, becomes an immediately perceptible feature that elicits stereotypes of his/ her gender, regardless of his/her inclinations. Sosik and Godshalk (2000:105) believe that gender stereotypes may help explain how the gender composition of the mentoring dyad influences mentoring functions received, regardless of Feist-Price's (1994:15) warning that stereotyping usually carries with it a negative connotation because it is often inaccurately applied to specific individuals and is a source of or an excuse for social injustice. Reviews of the gender role literature indicate that masculinity has been associated with an instrumental orientation that focuses on getting the job done; while femininity is associated with an expressive orientation and concern for the welfare of others (Feist-Price's, 1994:15). This stereotyping may lead male mentors of female protégés to adopt an overprotective role, downplaying a male protégé's contribution or maintaining a greater social distance (Sosik and Godshalk,

2000:105), resulting in turn, to female mentors' inclination to avoid mentoring relationships with male protégés and male mentors avoiding relationships with female protégés.

e) Ineffective power base

There is a body of research that supports the importance of the mentor's power to achieve outcomes for the protégé. In this regard, Sosik and Godshalk (2000:107) note that both men and women perceive men as possessing more and different forms of power than women; while on the other hand, studies have demonstrated that women use more indirect acquiescence and influential strategies which are characterised by an acceptance of the power imbalance and dependent strategies, as well as helpless behaviour instead of relying on dependency strategies in their leadership role as a result of socialisation. Noe (1988:69) cautions that if female employees fail to stress their expertise and instead concentrate on helplessness or acquiescence, or stress incompetence in order to gain influence, it is likely that they will not be sought out for mentorships. This author further asserts that potential male mentors may not select females as protégés because they are unaware of female employees' expertise, or they may hold the perception that female protégés can provide only limited assistance in the achievement of personal or work group tasks and objectives. From another perspective, O'Neill and Blake-Beard (2002:57) show that power is typically associated with men and thus, men may react negatively to women who display power. For example, Ragins and Cotton (1991:940) observe that women may fear that assertive behaviour which attempts to initiate relationships will threaten potential male mentors and they may therefore wait for the potential mentors to initiate the relationships. Ragins (1997:100) stresses however, that because men are generally seen as more powerful than

women, male mentors may be believed to offer greater access to valued opportunities and resources and they may therefore be selected as mentors.

There are variations in research findings examining the prevalence of differences pertaining to mentorship in cross-gender and homogeneous mentorship. O'Neill and Blake-Beard (2002:54) suggests that existing mentorship theory and research show that the selection process in the development of mentoring relationships is driven primarily by two theories: the similarity-attraction paradigm and the social exchange theory.

1.6.3 The similarity-attraction paradigm

Rooted in the social psychology view of relationships which integrates aspects such as similarity, attractiveness and liking, the similarity-attraction paradigm explains that human beings have a natural tendency to be drawn to and thus feel attracted and liking for individuals perceived to be similar in terms of physical characteristics, personality, attitudes and behaviours (O'Neill and Blake-Beard, 2002:54) and (Young, et al., 2006:152). This corroborates Byrne's (1961) early work as quoted in Avery, et al. (2008:73) on the attraction-similarity paradigm confirming that individuals are more attracted to others whom they believe hold similar attitudes to themselves and rate those individuals as more intelligent, knowledgeable and well-adjusted. This means that similarity in attributes such as attitudes, values and beliefs will facilitate interpersonal attraction and liking, where liking and similarity reinforce each other and create a movement toward symmetry. In other words, people will avoid communicating with those they dislike or with those who hold opinions or views differing from their own as a means of reducing the strain produced by the disagreement.

Byrne's (1961) affect theory of attraction cited by Avery, et al. (2008:73) indicates that one's evaluation of another is a result of reinforcement associated with the other where such

reinforcement is similarity, repeatedly found to predict positive evaluation and thus, attraction. This explains people's tendencies to seek information about the other's personality, values, preferences, likes and dislikes when making an acquaintance. Avery, et al. (2008:73) citing Tajfel and Turner (1986) caution that in the absence of definitive information, individuals often use readily available cues, such as sex, to surmise unknown information about others, perceiving unfamiliar same-sex others to be more similar to themselves than those belonging to the opposite sex. Avery, et al. (2008:73) maintain that higher perceptions of similarity, whether accurate or not, produce greater attraction and liking, highlighting that similarity is a reinforcing stimulus.

According to Lincoln and Miller (1979) quoted in Ragins (1997:99), the tendency for interpersonal similarity to result in higher attraction and liking has significant implications for mentoring relationships. Ragins (1997:99) posits that interpersonal similarity increases the ease of communication in relationships with interpersonal comfort being a key factor affecting the development of mentoring relationships, such that the selection of mentors and protégés may be influenced by the degree of interpersonal comfort involved in initiating the relationship. In this context, the similarity-attraction highlights the fact that due to the difference in gender, there might be a lower comfort level in cross-sex relationships (Scandura and Williams, 2001:346); therefore it is a key barrier to the development of diversified mentoring relationships (Ragins, 1997:99). This implies that gender similarity and attitude similarity are some of the factors that have been found to be relevant to similarity attraction and mentoring. Based on the similarity-attraction paradigm therefore, men and women may be drawn to mentoring relationships with those most like themselves. For example, Young, et al. (2006:153) finds that male mentors reported greater similarity to male protégés. Likewise, female mentors may prefer female protégés because of similar attitudes,

beliefs, values and social factors. Avery, et al. (2008:74) emphasise that similarity attraction stresses the importance of feelings of comfort that come from developing relationships with similar others so much so that there is a certain perceived reward from recognising shared attitudes between oneself and another person, whereas there is an inherent discomfort or punishing effect associated with dissimilarity.

6.4 The social exchange theory

Social exchange theory was initiated by Homans (1950, 1958, and 1961); Blau (1964) and Emerson (1972) in attempt to understand the behaviour of humans in an economic undertaking. Social exchange theory therefore exists in many forms, but all of them are driven by the same central concept of actors exchanging resources through a social exchange relationship. The crux of the theory is still best captured in Homans's (1958:606) words:

"Social behaviour is an exchange of goods, material goods but also non-material ones, such as the symbols of approval or prestige. Persons that give much to others try to get much from them and persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them. This process of influence tends to work out at equilibrium to a balance in the exchanges. For a person in an exchange, what he gives may be a cost to him, just as what he gets may be a reward and his behaviour changes less as the difference of the two, profit, tends to a maximum."

Social exchange theory is based on the premise that human behaviour or social interaction is an exchange of activity, tangible and intangible, particularly of rewards costs and secondarily symbolic attributes (Homans, 1961:317-318) where exchange transactions represent the basis of human behaviour and permeate all social phenomena (Coleman, 1990:37). Social

exchange theory views the exchange relationship between specific actors as actions contingent on rewarding reactions from others (Blau, 1964:91). Social exchange theory therefore demonstrates that mentors will be attracted to protégés who are thought to bring something of value to the relationship (Blau, 1994:152-153). Based on the characteristics of the protégé, mentors are as a result, likely to develop perceptions regarding the costs and benefits associated with being a mentor, as well as the costs and benefits associated with mentoring a particular protégé before selecting any particular protégé. In other words, mentors are likely to weigh the potential benefits and risks of a mentoring relationship such that when the risks associated with mentoring a particular protégé outweigh the rewards, they will not select certain protégés, and in the case of an already started mentoring relationship, they will choose to terminate or abandon the relationship.

Additionally, mentors are likely to select protégés on the basis of the norm of reciprocity identified as another important aspect of satisfaction in dyadic relationships which suggests that an exchange is defined as a social interaction characterised by reciprocal stimuli or mutual reinforcements, such that exchange relations are by definition reciprocal and if this reciprocity is broken, the relationship will be extinguished over time (Emerson, 1969: 387-389). In other words, the mentor and the protégé are likely to engage in a mentoring relationship with the assumption that such a mentoring relationship will be mutually rewarding, suggesting that the exchange of rewards is a starting mechanism of social relations that is not contingent on norms prescribing obligations (Blau, 1994:152-156). In essence, the task of social exchange theory is then to investigate the reciprocal, mainly material advantages that individuals draw from their exchange transactions on the premise that they engage in and sustain most social, including non-economic relations, in the rational expectations of such advantages, independently of normative or group considerations.

Mentorship theory and research on gender and mentorship have suggested that there may be variations in mentoring functions for those engaged in same-gender and cross-gender relationships. While there may be barriers in homogeneous mentoring dyads of female mentors and female protégé pairs, it is also evident from the foregoing discussion that the diversified model of mentorship incurs many more challenges to mentoring. It is therefore appropriate to suggest that mentors do not need to be perfect, only human in order to pursue a set of fundamentals that will contribute to the success of a mentoring relationship.

1.7 SUMMARY

An overview of mentoring was the focal point of this chapter, beginning with the foundations of mentoring from Greek mythology, extending to the relevance of the Mentor and Odysseus's relationship in today's organisations. The chapter also provided a detailed delineation of the concepts of a mentor and a protégé, examining specifically the part they play in a mentoring dyad particularly in the different phases of the mentoring relationship. Thus, the functions and skills they display in various phases suggest that certain competencies and skills are requirements for being an effective mentor and a protégé. The literature reviewed in this chapter has highlighted that although there may be difficulties in mentoring relationships in general and in the homogeneous mentoring relationship in particular, diversified mentoring relationships have more challenges especially for female mentors, male protégés and male mentors female protégés dyads. In addition, there is evidence provided by mentoring studies that men and women have difficulties forming mutually beneficial mentor relationships. Having examined the impact of homogeneous mentorship and diversified mentorship in females and males, it is evident that same gender

mentoring pairs may be particularly valuable to females. The following is a summative table of this chapter.

Table 2.7.1: A summative table

ITEMS NO.	DIMENSION	MANAGEMENT IMPLICATION
2.7.1.1	MENTORSHIP	<p>Mentorships is characterised:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As an intentional caring relationship (c.f. 2.2.1). • As a nurturing process with the aim to provide guidance (c.f. 2.2.1). • As insightful to enhance the transformation and growth of the protégé (c.f. 2.2.1). • By the support and protection provided by the mentor (c.f. 2.2.1). • As a mutual and reciprocal process aiming to aid the development of both the mentor and the protégé (c.f. 2.2.1).
2.7.1.2	Mentors	<p>Mentors are characterised:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As high ranking, influential, senior member of the organization (c.f. 2.2.2). • Have significant experience and knowledge that he or she is willing to share (c.f. 2.2.2). • Make important contributions to the career success of the inexperienced individual such as acting as key support taking responsibility for another person's learning (c.f. 2.2.2). • Enhance the protégé's both personal and career development (c.f. 2.2.2).
2.7.1.3	career functions	<p>Mentors provide:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information (c.f. 2.2.2). • Leadership functions (c.f. 2.2.2). • Exposure and visibility (c.f. 2.2.2). • Challenging work assignments (cf. 2.2.2). • Feedback (c.f. 2.2.2). • Coaching (c.f. 2.2.2).
2.7.1.4	psychosocial functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nurture and support (c.f. 2.2.2). • Role modelling (c.f. 2.2.2). • Motivation and encouragement (c.f. 2.2.2).

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attentive listening (c.f. 2.2.2).
2.7.2 2.7.2.1	The benefits of the mentoring to the mentor	Mentors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Get recognition and respect (c.f. 2.2.2). • Confirmation and support (c.f. 2.2.2). • The creative and youthful energy of the protégés renew their mentoring careers (c.f. 2.2.2). • Derive satisfaction and fulfilment from nurturing the protégé's development (c.f. 2.2.2). • Derive a sense of self from positive regard conveyed by the protégé (c.f. 2.2.2).
2.7.2.2	The benefits of the provision of mentoring functions to the protégé	Protégé's: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chances of promotions are enhanced (c.f. 2.2.2). • Have access to information and resources that broaden their perspective (c.f. 2.2.2) • Ability to navigate in the organization is enhanced (c.f. 2.2.2). • Their ideas are supported helping to promote self-confidence and competence (c.f. 2.2.2). • Unnecessary risks that might threaten their reputation are reduced (c.f. 2.2.2). • Their technical and managerial skills are developed increasing their visibility and exposure to future opportunities (c.f. 2.2.2). • Aided to deal with organizational change (c.f. 2.2.2). • Their ability to develop a career is strengthened (c.f. 2.2.2). • Self-efficacy is enhanced (c.f. 2.2.2). • Allowed to experiment with their own identities (c.f. 2.2.2) • Derive a sense of self from positive regard conveyed by the mentor (c.f. 2.2.2) • Encouraged to engage in a social interaction with the mentor (c.f. 2.2.2). • Mutual liking and understanding is deepened (c.f. 2.2.2). • Allowed friendship with the mentor (c.f. 2.2.2). • Clarity of identity and self-worth (c.f. 2.2.2). • Nurturing, protection and opportunity for personal and professional growth and advancement (c.f. 2.2.2). • Strengthen protégés to develop their careers (c.f. 2.2.2). • Enhances protégé's self-confidence, competence and job acceptance (c.f. 2.2.2). • Enhances professional growth (c.f. 2.2.2).

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourages self-efficacy in the protégé (c.f. 2.2.2).
2.7.2.3	The benefits of the provision of mentoring functions to the organisation	<p>The organisation benefits in that mentoring:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Help establish a sense of loyalty and attachment to the organisation (c.f. 2.2.2). Help address many recruitment and retention problems faced by institutions (c.f. 2.2.2). Serve as a significant inducement for attracting re-entry employees (c.f. 2.2.2). Improves job competency and reduces employee stress (c.f. 2.2.2). Improves the chances of the organisation to retain employees (c.f. 2.2.2). Assisting in socialising employees (c.f. 2.2.2).
2.7.3	Type of mentors	Mentors provide:
(i)	information mentor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Informal discussions (c.f. 2.2.4) (a). New information (c.f. 2.2.4) (a). Serve as teachers (c.f. 2.2.4) (a).
(ii)	Peer mentor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A non-threatening avenue for colleagues to get support, guidance, and information about the inner workings of their organisation (c.f. 2.2.4) (b).
(iii)	Competitor mentor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Advice, information, understanding, encouragement and support (c.f. 2.2.4) (c).
(iv)	Retiree mentor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Information on the operations of the organization based on personal history (c.f. 2.2.4) (d). Coaching to enhance critical competencies such as critical thinking and empowerment (c.f. 2.2.4) (d).
(v)	Grandparent mentor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mentors are resource persons (c.f. 2.2.4) (e).
(vi)	Group mentors	<p>Mentors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are facilitators, guides and catalysts for sharing personal experiences and insights (c.f. 2.2.4) (f). Create a forum for discussion and learning to a wider pool of employees (c.f. 2.2.4) (f). foster joint learning across the whole organisation (c.f. 2.2.4)(f)
(vii)	On line mentors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides opportunity for a protégé to gain exposure to a wider level of information and resources (c.f. 2.2.4) (g). Provides opportunities for protégés to network and share experiences with their peers (c.f. 2.2.4) (g).

2.7.4	The mentoring process for the protégé	Mentorship exercise: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide assistance to the protégé's to obtain insight into the real management task of the education (c.f. 2.3.2). • Help protégé gain self-confidence and the cultivation of management expertise (c.f. 2.3.2). • Give a protégé a chance to put the theoretical knowledge in practise (c.f. 2.3.2). • Provides positive influence on the professional growth of the protégé (c.f. 2.3.2).
2.7.4.1	Pre-conditions for the protégé mentoring process	Protégé are required to be: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners (c.f. 2.3.2.1) (a). • Self- developers (c.f. 2.3.2.1) (b). • Communicators (c.f. 2.3.2.1) (c). • Implementers (c.f. 2.3.2.1) (d).
2.7.5	Phases of mentoring	Mentor are required to:
i)	Rapport-building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be approachable and available (c.f. 2.4.2) (a). • Strive for patience and cultivating trust (c.f. 2.4.2) (a). • Guide and support the protégé in defining and committing to personal change (c.f. 2.4.2) (a). • Facilitate confidence-building (c.f. 2.4.2) (a). • Challenge/encourage competence, and so ensure a personal and a professional identity (c.f. 2.4.2) (a)
ii)	Direction-setting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Become acquainted with the protégé (c.f. 2.4.2) (b). • Clarify expectations, agree on rules and create a framework for the relationship (c.f. 2.4.2) (b). • Be influential, unwrap opportunities and encourage opportunism (c.f. 2.4.2) (b). • Build on differences – understanding matters of diversity (c.f. 2.4.2) (b).
iii)	Progress-making	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Donate wisdom and insight (c.f. 2.4.2) (c). • Create high expectations (c.f. 2.4.2) (c). • Build confidence and develop self-belief(c.f. 2.4.2) (c). • Become a feedback champion (cf. 2.4.2) (c). • Confront conflict or harmonise disagreements (c.f. 2.4.2) (c).
iv)	Winding-down	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sensitivity and pre-emptive (c.f. 2.4.2) (d). • Visionary on the future of the relationship (c.f. 2.4.2) (d).

(v)	Moving on/professional friendship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appreciate growth and maturity (c.f. 2.4.2) (e). • Celebrate success (c.f. 2.4.2) (e). • Promote the benefits of a profitable relationship (c.f. 2.4.2) (e). • Find ways to say goodbye (c.f. 2.4.2) (e). • Have the heart of loneliness (c.f. 2.4.2) (e).
2.7.6	GENDER AND MENTORSHIP	
2.7.6.1	Benefits of the mentoring process	<p>Mentoring relationship has a potential to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Afford women a chance of interaction with male managers (c.f. 2.6.2). • Contribute to women's continued career advancement (c.f. 2.6.2). • Uncover, nurture and develop women with potential so that they can steer their organisations in the right direction (c.f. 2.6.2). • Empower and socialise women (c.f. 2.6.2). • To increase the successful transfer of training into practice (c.f. 2.6.2). • Increase the opportunities for women to gain exposure, skills and experience required for career progression (c.f. 2.6.2).
	Homogeneous mentorships	<p>Homogeneous mentoring suggest that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The degree of psychosocial and role modelling is high in homogeneous dyads (c.f. 2.6.2.1). • Men homogenous mentoring combinations bracketed with homophilous tendencies usually result in expressive instrumental purposes (c.f. 2.6.2.1). • Men can interact with other men in ways that are both career enhancing and which are psychosocially supportive (c.f. 2.6.2.1). • Female mentor, female protégé interactions are likely to be a restrictive exercise because female mentors lack access to communication networks with men who are dominating the powerful positions (c.f. 2.6.2.1). • Females may be overwhelmed and have other pressures limiting their availability to protégés (c.f. 2.6.2.1). • Protégés may demand more time and emotional energy than women mentors are willing or able to provide (c.f. 2.6.2.1). • Female pairs are epitomized by the prevalence of psychosocial functions of friendship and social support (c.f. 2.6.2.1). • Female protégés may view female mentors as having less power, therefore, less influence as mentors in the workplace (c.f. 2.6.2.1).

2.7.6.2	Diversified mentorships	<p>diversified mentoring relationships implies that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Men and women may be reluctant to enter into cross-mentoring relationships (c.f. 2.6.2.2). • Mixed gender relationships may be epitomized by feelings of social distance, over-protectiveness and discomfort females have fewer interactions with the dominant coalition who are men those in positions of power (c.f. 2.6.2.2).
2.7.6.3	Barriers to diversified mentorships	<p>Barriers to diversified mentoring relationship include the fact that:</p>
(i)	Lack of access to information networks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Females lack knowledge of how to develop informal networks as well as a preference for interacting with others of similar status in the organization (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (a). • Male mentors may be reluctant to share their institutional knowledge with their female counterparts (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (a). • Females are likely not to have the mentor with the required support to move the female protégé to the upper levels of the organization (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (a). • Females are unlikely to be visible enough to organizational decision makers, therefore, reducing their chances of promotions and job transfers (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (a).
ii)	Tokenism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Due to their disproportionate representation, organizations may use affirmative action plans which give women preferential treatment for jobs which are prerequisites for managerial positions (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (b). • females may be placed in the organizational limelight implying that they are likely to face increased performance pressures and stereotypical expectations with their actions scrutinized and their performance becoming public knowledge (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (b). • Females are likely to face more obstacles to assuming a mentoring role than their male counterparts (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (b). • Protégés women may feel special or unlike his or her peers resulting to a reluctance to encourage the success of others (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (b).
ii)	Socialisation practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Due to socialisation, women in society may be perceived as not possessing desirable leadership qualities of assertiveness, competitiveness, and emotional control as opposed to men (c.f.

		<p>2.6.2.2) (c).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Male mentors are likely to act as a protector and helper to a female protégé demonstrating his power and dominance over the female protégé (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (c). • a female protégé may rely excessively on her male mentor for guidance and advice, conveying that she cannot act autonomously (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (c). • a male mentor is likely to respond to instrumental forms of helping such as problem solving which integrates heroic and chivalrous forms of helping which are central to career development functions (c.f. 2.6.2.2)(c). • both male and female protégés may shy away from female mentors when seeking career development functions leading to promotions believing that greater compensation will therefore be associated with male mentors than female mentors (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (c).
(iv)	Stereotypes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Male mentors of female protégés to adopt an overprotective role, downplaying a female protégé's contribution or maintain a greater social distance (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (d). • Female mentors may incline to avoid mentoring relationships with male protégé (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (d). • Men may be reluctant to mentor women because of widely held perceptions that women lack managerial skills and are unsuitable for challenging positions (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (d).
v)	ineffective power base	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Men are likely to characterize women as less likely than men to exhibit successful managerial performance in terms of leadership ability and skill particularly in thought styles, potency and psychological health (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Men and women perceive men as possessing more and different forms of power than women hence men may react negatively to women who display power (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Women use more indirect and acquiescence influence strategies characterized by acceptance of power imbalance and dependent strategies as well as helpless behaviour instead of relying on dependency strategies in their leadership role as a result of socialisation (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Potential male mentors may not select females as protégés because they are unaware of female employees' expertise, or they may hold a perception that female protégés can provide only limited assistance in the achievement of personal or work group

		<p>tasks and objectives (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women may fear that assertive behaviour which attempts to initiate relationships will threaten potential male mentors and may therefore wait for the potential mentors to initiate the relationships (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Male mentors may be believed to offer greater access to valued opportunities and resources and they may therefore be selected as mentors (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Men are likely to characterize women as less likely than men to exhibit successful managerial performance in terms of leadership ability and skill particularly in thought styles, potency and psychological health (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Men and women perceive men as possessing more and different forms of power than women hence men may react negatively to women who display power (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Women use more indirect and acquiescence influence strategies characterized by acceptance of power imbalance and dependent strategies as well as helpless behaviour instead of relying on dependency strategies in their leadership role as a result of socialisation (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Potential male mentors may not select females as protégés because they are unaware of female employees' expertise, or they may hold a perception that female protégés can provide only limited assistance in the achievement of personal or work group tasks and objectives (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Women may fear that assertive behaviour which attempts to initiate relationships will threaten potential male mentors and may therefore wait for the potential mentors to initiate the relationships (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e). • Male mentors may be believed to offer greater access to valued opportunities and resources and they may therefore be selected as mentors (c.f. 2.6.2.2) (e).
2.7.7	Theories in Mentoring relationships	Mentors and protégés are likely to:

2.7.7.1	Similarity-attraction paradigm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be drawn to and thus feel attracted and liking for individuals perceived to be similar in terms of physical characteristics, personality, attitudes, and behaviours (c.f. 2.6.3). • Rate those with similar attitudes to themselves as more intelligent, knowledgeable, and well-adjusted (c.f. 2.6.3). • Will avoid communicating with those they dislike or with those who hold opinions or views differing from their own as a means of reducing the strain produced by the disagreement (c.f. 2.6.3).
2.7.7.2	Social exchange Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interact socially if they have an intangible and tangible activity to exchange particularly rewards (c.f. 2.6.4). • Mentors particularly are likely to select protégé on the basis of reciprocity (c.f. 2.6.4).

The foregoing discussions give rise to the question: What should form the basis for the development of a mentorship strategy?

3

A STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS AS A BASE LINE FOR DEVELOPING A MENTORSHIP STRATEGY FOR FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS IN LESOTHO'S SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous two chapters, mentorship was presented in order to lay a conceptual foundation for understanding the robustness of the field. It was further noted in these chapters that an in-depth appraisal mentoring research suggests that increased access to mentoring for females particularly in homogeneous dyads may be one step toward achieving their career advancement. Nevertheless, the foundation for mentorship requires more than a set of managerial decisions and actions that will determine the long-term performance of a mentorship programme for female educators in Lesotho's schools. Fidler's (1996:50) perception is that a rapid change in any environment may require an organisation to make more than small changes in order to keep pace with contemporary developments.

According to Loewen (1997:7), the foundation laid necessitates a strategic management approach recognised as likely to direct an organisation through what is termed "the stormy ocean of contemporary education management". Fidler (1996:50) opine that this concept is based upon a desire to be proactive rather than reactive; thus, to engage in a constant renewal process based on the realisation of the importance of attempting to establish some explicit overall direction for Lesotho's secondary schools in relation to the creation and implementation of a female mentorship strategy. This strategy would guide it through the plethora of change and improvement, thereby enabling it to operate more effectively without compromising its major aims and values. This chapter therefore focuses on the strategic management process, its sub-systems and strategic management models for the provision of a base line for constructing a mentorship strategy for female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools.

2 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT - THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Organisations today face increasingly complex, dynamic, turbulent and threatening environments which require a focus on both the running of the day-to-day affairs and adapting the organisation to changing environmental conditions, thereby compelling education institutions to increasingly use formal strategic management systems and techniques in their operations, leaving little to chance management (Middlewood and Lumby, 2002: ix-x). This means that organisations need to demonstrate that they understand the crucial need to devote equal or more time to the construction of more informed decisions considering both short and long-term consequences, instead of focusing on activities that are short-sighted, that do not reflect clear forecasting of future conditions, be they solving

internal, day-to-day operations or underestimating the strengths of competitors and other environmental factors (Middlewood and Lumby, 2002:9).

2.1 The strategic management process

Strategic management is a process by which organisations determine their purpose, objectives and desired levels of appropriate timescales and frequently in changing environment, implement those actions, assess progress and results, change or modify the actions whenever and wherever necessary (Thompson, 1997:18). This should be undertaken to ensure that an organisation develops and grows according to its mission and goals and that growth is matched with the environment in which it operates (Fidler, 1996:50). The strategic management process therefore, is an integral aspect of the organisation's management process that connotes the planning, implementation, evaluation, on-going maintenance and adjustment of the organisation strategy, in an attempt to match or fit the organisation with its changing environment, in the most advantageous way possible (Dugman, 1990:7, 32). This implies that at its heart, strategic management represents a learning process, where information is gathered through a search process of an organization's internal and external environments, and synthesised to generate knowledge which is key to the provision of a competitive edge. If this is applied successfully, it helps the organisations to deliver creative products and services and share, and implement them, thus contributing to the development of better performance (Olsen and Haslett, 2002:450). These authors further avow that strategic management is critical to the generation and application of learning which provides the opportunity for participants in the process, to reflect on their own decisions and behaviours and identify ways in which they may have contributed to outcomes and, where necessary, make appropriate changes. Furthermore, Thompson's

1997:18) opinion is that the process of strategic management needs to be understood, rather than viewed as a discipline which can be taught.

Brinkerhoff (1996:8) characterises strategic management as looking out, looking in, and looking ahead. According to this author, looking out is the exploration beyond the boundaries of the organisation to set feasible objectives, identify key stakeholders and build constituencies for change; while looking in implies critically assessing and strengthening systems and structures for managing personnel, finances and other essential resources. In addition, looking ahead is perceived as entailing melding a strategy with structures and resources to the policy goals, while monitoring the progress and adjusting the approach as needed. This implies that balancing strategic management's outward, inward, and forward-looking functions helps develop a vision and a strategy for where and how to move an organization forward. Strategic management therefore encompasses an integrated, future-oriented managerial perspective that is; outwardly focused, forward-thinking and performance-based (Glueck and Jauch, 1984:5) thus characterising strategic management as a journey, rather than a destination.

In view of the preceding, it appears that the strategic management process is a particular form of management which strives to introduce and sustain a capacity for adaptation and collective learning about change at all decision-making levels, encouraging decentralised initiative, innovation, personal involvement and includes co-operation through the exchange of information and network activity focusing on a concern for quality and the widest possible propagation of evaluation methods and quality standards. In other words, it is a participatory, critical, forward-looking process, leading towards institutional policies which seek essentially to enhance the potential for change in the school environment. It primarily takes a view of the

whole organisation, its key purpose, its direction and its place in the environment, looks at the changes in the internal and external environment that confront the manager, allowing the organisation to initiate and influence rather than simply respond and react to its environment, consequently, controlling its own destiny.

essentially, strategic management seeks to address the questions: "Where are we now; Where do we want to be; How do we get there; and How do we measure progress?"

Thompson and Strickland, 2003:6), thus demonstrating that strategic management is more specific, aiming at leading, driving and helping people, those inside the organisation and those outside. It is also involved in its development by focusing on the organisation's identity and image; questioning its worth in a new environment; fixing its longer-term growth, while raising its present capacity and fostering its 'potential' for development (Tabatoni, Davies and Farblan, 1998:5). This means that strategic management in schools will require new ways of thinking and acting corroborating Jones (1987:62), whose perception is that without having learnt the skills of strategic management and operational planning; heads are liable to find themselves involved in nothing but crisis management. The ultimate purpose of strategic management therefore is to help organisations increase performance through improved effectiveness, efficiency and flexibility. For this reason, strategic management has relevance for all educational institutions, regardless of size and composition (Middlewood and Lumby, 2002:9), for it prepares people to project themselves into the future, to face new situations in the near future without risk and uncertainty when dealing with changes in structures, models of action, roles, relations and positions.

The benefits of engaging in the strategic management process include organisational focus, the identification of priorities and goals, clarity and communication amongst stakeholders,

managing for results and a mechanism for anticipating and planning for change, while dealing with possible consequences, although the full benefit of the strategic management process is often not realised, possibly because of a failure to adopt a holistic view of the process (Olsen and Haslett 2002:450). In addition, strategic management give organisations framework for developing abilities, for anticipating and coping with change, as well as helping to develop the ability to deal with uncertain futures by defining a procedure for accomplishing goals (Bracker, 1980:221). Strategic management is therefore important for ensuring success because it is also the key to all other school management processes since it does not only inform, but also coordinates other management decisions.

Pearce and Robinson (1994:12) however, caution that the time that managers spend on the strategic management process may have a negative impact on operational responsibilities and if the formulators of strategy are not intimately involved in its implementation they may shirk their individual responsibility for the decisions reached. As a result, managers must be trained to minimise that impact by scheduling their duties to allow time for strategic activities, to limit their promises to performance that the decision makers and their subordinates can deliver and also to anticipate and respond to the disappointment of participating subordinates concerning unattained expectations (Pearce and Robinson, 1994:12). Subordinates may expect their involvement in even minor phases of total strategy formulation to result in both the acceptance of their proposals and an increase in their rewards, or they may expect a solicitation of their input on selected issues to extend to other areas of decision making. Sensitising managers to these possible negative consequences and preparing them with effective means of minimising such consequences will greatly enhance the potential strategic planning. Despite the identified pitfalls that may emanate from the strategic management processes, (Sallis, 1997:105) suggests that with practice, patience, dedication, and hard

work, the organisational learning that takes place through the application of strategic management will bring the organisation closer to realising its goals and vision.

The foregoing delineation denotes that strategic management is a process that:

provides a discipline that enables senior management to actually take a step back from the day-to-day activities and think about the future of the organisation without which the organisation can become solely consumed with working through the next issue or problem without the consideration of the larger picture;

provides a framework for decision-making in which the formulated strategy provides a framework within which staff can make day-to-day operational decisions and understand that those decisions are all moving the organisation in a single direction;

supports understanding and allows staff participation in the strategic discussion which enhances a better understanding of the direction the organisation is taking; that is, why that direction was chosen and the associated benefits;

forces an organisation to set objectives and measure of success which require that the organisation first determine what is critical to its on-going success and then forces the establishment of objectives and keeps these critical measures in front of management; and

takes the organisation's wide perspective and looks at all the components and the inter-relationship between the components, in order to develop a solution that is optimal for the whole organisation and not just a single component.

3 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT SUB-SYSTEMS: STRATEGIC PLANNING AND STRATEGIC THINKING

Strategic planning is the backbone of strategic management or rather a key aspect of the strategic management process in determining the direction of the school (Chambers, Baxter and Borthwick, 2001:11), not the entirety of the strategic management process when considering that managers have responsibilities other than planning. Even so, strategic planning is of seminal significance to the strategic management process focusing on strategy, helping managers discharge their strategic management responsibilities, which turn out to be the focus of the strategic management process as well (Heracleous, 2003:47). On the other hand, strategic management is linked with strategic thinking in that strategic management focuses on integrating all parts of an organisation in strategic thinking to enhance organizational performance which allows an organisation to be more proactive than reactive in shaping its own future (Heracleous, 2003:47).

3.1 The strategic planning process

Kaufman (2002:42) provides a comprehensive definition of strategic planning, viewing it as a philosophy, an attitude and a way of life; more of an intellectual exercise than a prescribed set of processes, procedures, structures or techniques. According to Kaufman, (2002:42) strategic planning is the systematic identification of opportunities and threats that lie in the future, which in combination with other relevant data, provide a basis for an organisation's improvement in current decisions so as to exploit opportunities and to avoid threats. It begins with setting organisational aims, defining strategies and policies to achieve these aims and develop detailed plans to make sure that the strategies are implemented in order to achieve the ends. Properly defined and accomplished therefore, strategic planning provides the basic

directions and rationale for determining where an organisation should be headed and provides the specifications against which any organisation may best decide what to do and how to do it (Kaufman, 2002:42).

In providing the characteristics of strategic planning, Chambers, et al. (2001:44) alludes to the fact that it focuses on the determination of the mission, vision, guidelines and employment infrastructure of an organisation, vital to encouraging all employees to focus on that common direction. Sallis (1997:105) asserts that strategic planning decides on the objectives, the resources used to obtain the objectives and the policies that are to govern the acquisition, use, and disposition of the resources. As a result, Chambers, et al. (2001:44) surmise that strategic planning is suitable as the responsibility of senior managers, although it does not preclude other stakeholders' involvement, thus emphasising the impossibility of a one-size-fits-all description. Therefore, it suggests that who, how and when of involvement will differ in every school and is dependent on the culture of the school. In accordance with Chambers, et al. (2001:44), Bryson (1995:227) underlines the fact that effective strategic planning is a collective phenomenon, typically involving sponsors, facilitators, teams, task forces and others in various ways at various times.

The strategic planning process is critically important as a means of facilitating the formulation of long-term priorities and institutional change to be tackled in a rational manner (Chambers, et al., 2001:11), as well as an integrating strategy and its implementation in schools and colleges, mapping a route between the perceived present situation and the desired future situation causing the school to track the changes that are happening or predicted in the outside world and consider their impact on the school and its pupils (Kaufman, 2002:42). In

Other words, strategic planning in this sense, is simply management speak for long-term future planning.

According to Graetz (2002:457) strategic planning is a discipline which can include innovative elements but focuses essentially on the rigour of making sure how to get from one position to another. It is as such, more of an art form than a science; a way of thinking which centres on opportunities rather than on problems, calling for risk taking and a questioning of the status quo serving to move the organisation into the future (Chambers, et al., 2001:44). The process can be undertaken with greater confidence by applying a systematic approach sequencing five basic components which are: building the vision; establishing goals; determining educational strategies; deriving resource strategies and managing the strategy into operation (Chambers, et al., 2001:44).

The preceding account designates that strategic planning:

can assist leaders and managers in getting direction when the future becomes unpredictable and turbulent, suggesting that it assists in designing a desired future in measurable terms and identifying the best means to achieve the results desired;

is a way of continuously keeping the organisation on course by making adjustments as internal and external contexts change;

demands most crucially, senior management's involvement although not prohibiting the other stakeholders' contributions; and

is carried out through its five basic components of developing a strategic vision; establishing goals; determining educational strategies; deriving resource strategies and managing the strategy into operation.

3.1.1 Components of the strategic planning process

) Developing a strategic vision

Chambers, et al. (2001:22) note that the development and use of a shared vision is a common feature of successful institutions because it forces a school to take a stand for a preferred state. Thompson and Strickland (2003:32) suggest that the development of a strategic vision is a careful thinking exercise about where the organisation needs to head to be successful; the first being direction setting and the pre-requisite of effective strategic management. Characterised as brief and direct, memorable, motivating, inspirational and communicating the ultimate purpose of the institution and what it stands for (Sallis, 1997:105), visions are described as expressions of a desirable direction and a future challenging state for the school; an image of what might be; an ideal which is unique to the person or the organisation; a preferred future; a desirable state and an expression of optimism despite the bureaucratic surroundings or evidence to the contrary (Chambers, et al., 2001:22). The implication is that a vision is a communication tool that articulates the way forward and helps staff, pupils and other stakeholders to understand what the school stands for and what it is seeking to achieve.

Chambers, et al. (2001:22) believe that visions go beyond a short, punchy, expressive statement, despite the general perception of visions as merely slogans. They therefore commend a development of a broader visionary guiding framework involving the vision, the mission and the mission statement of the organisation. The visionary guiding framework is a forward-looking philosophy of the school which serves to stimulate, guide and focus the work of the school as a learning organisation (Sallis, 1997:105) and is unique to the school in expressing its ambitions and ways of achieving them within its social, economic and

geographical context and acting as a magnet that draws staff and stakeholders together to understand and achieve a common purpose. As a component of the visionary guiding framework, aims are set out about what the school aims to achieve (Chambers, et al. 2001:22).

Although, both the strategic vision and mission statement are components of the visionary guiding framework, they are different but closely linked. While a vision's main concern is with 'where we are going', the mission statement deals with an organisation's present scope that 'who we are and what we do' (Thompson and Strickland, 2003:32). According to Middlewood and Lumby (2002:23), the strategic mission is a statement of an organisations unique purpose and the scope of its operations; that is, why it exists and what this means for its customers – both internal and external. In other words, it provides general descriptions of the service an organisation intends providing. Providing a clear direction for the present and the future, clarifying the difference between one organisation and others, assisted with a well-formulated long-term, quality strategy in order to express the goal in a mission statement (Hallis, 1997:107), a good mission statement needs to be pitchy and credible (Macmillan and Sampoe, 2000:73).

Summarising the need for a visionary guiding framework, Chambers, et al. (2001:22)

portrays the following as a visionary guiding framework:

- to guide the future decisions about all aspects of the school;
- to provide a reference point for the school;
- to provide a sense of higher purpose beyond the routine;
- to provide focus and the energy for learning;
- to inspire and redirect change;

- to create a sense of identity;
- to characterise the school in its community; and
- to articulate the values of the school.

) Establishing the performance goals and targets

Chambers, et al. (2001:26) believe that a visionary guiding framework is not sufficiently precise to define the performance of the school for management purposes. Therefore, following from developing a visionary guiding framework in the strategic planning process, Chambers, et al. (2001:26) recommends the setting of long-term goals and associated targets derived from the aims, as described in the vision defined by Thompson and Strickland (2003:10), as short-term and longer-term performance targets. According to Thompson and Strickland (2003:10), short-term objectives (targets) focus organisational attention on the need for immediate performance improvements and outcomes, while long-term objectives (goals) serve the valuable purpose of prompting managers to consider what to do to put the organisation in position to perform well in the longer-term. In other words, whereas the visionary guiding framework is long term and philosophical in nature, the performance goals of the school describe the desired performance to be attained in a particular time frame of about three to five years, while the performance targets describe the detectable differences the school wishes to achieve and by which it will measure the achievement of the goals, such that for each goal there will be a range of targets, each giving a different way of indicating whether the goal has been achieved or if the performance is moving towards the goal (Chambers, et al., 2001:26).

Thompson and Strickland (2003:32) recommends that for objectives to function as yardsticks of organisational performance and progress, they must be stated in quantifiable or

measurable terms; they must contain deadlines for achievement; and they should spell out how much of what kind of performance and by when. Thompson and Strickland (2003:42) hold the opinion that spelling out organisational objectives in measurable terms and holding managers accountable for reaching their assigned targets within a specified time frame substitutes purposeful strategic decision making for aimless actions and confusion over what to accomplish and provides a set of benchmarks for judging the organisation's performance and progress. In addition, Chambers, et al. (2001:26) suggest that targets should be SMART, an acronym for specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound. To ensure that the goals are achieved it is necessary to create a strategy.

Crafting a strategy

African proverb: "Strategy is better than strength."

The value of this African proverb is that indeed, without a strategy, an institution cannot be certain that it is best placed to exploit new opportunities as they develop (Sallis, 1997:105). This view substantiates Pascale's (1990) cited in Middlewood and Lumby (2002:7) opinion that "Having a strategy is no guarantee of success but lasting success is impossible without one". Strategy is therefore essential not only to assist failing schools to become at least reasonably effective but also to assist effective schools to remain so (Middlewood and Lumby, 2002:6-7). This implies that the significance of undertaking the strategic exercise is to direct senior managers' attention away from day-to-day issues and force a re-examination of the main purposes of the institution and its key relationships with its customers.

The key issue uniting all discussion of strategy is a clear sense of an organisation's objectives; a sense of how it will achieve these objectives and a clear sense of the organisation's distinctiveness, implying that while objectives are the 'ends', strategy is the

means' of achieving them. Thus, strategies represent management's answers to how to achieve objectives and how to pursue the organisation's business mission and strategic vision (Thompson and Strickland, 2003:32).

Strategy originates from the Greek word *strategos*, 'a general', which in turn, comes from roots meaning 'army' and 'lead', a meaning which evolved to encompass a coherent set of actions; the plan, usually concealed from the enemy, intended to achieve a specific military objective (Bracker, 1980:221). *Stratego* therefore means to "plan the destruction of one's enemies through effective use of resources" (Bracker, 1980:221). It is evident therefore that the definitions of 'strategy' have their roots in the military, which defines itself in terms of drafting a plan of war, shaping individual campaigns and, within these, deciding on individual engagements, that is battles with the enemy.

Strategy is defined as a broad overall direction in which an organisation wishes to move in, geared towards radical change and creating a new vision of the future (Middlewood and Lumby, 2002:6-7). In addition to the provision of the link between the vision of the organisation and its operational management, strategy helps to ensure integration between different parts of the school or college, suggesting that the overall plan to achieve organisational goals may be regarded as strategy and the subsequent decisions of the organisation are expected to be consistent with such a strategy (Thompson and Strickland, 2003:4). Strategy therefore refers to a general plan of action for achieving the goals and objectives of the organisation, responding to external trends and being concerned with planning for the successful long-term future of the organisation.

Strategy is a useful concept, even in all its diversity of interpretation and for it to be successfully implemented, staff at all levels in an organisation, increasingly need to be

involved in decision-making and policy formulation, although to varying degrees, as well as being encouraged to develop a sense of ownership and share of the organisation's mission (Hitt, Ireland and Hoskisson, 2005:103, 104). Therefore the managerial choices, explicitly bringing into play the critical managerial issue of how to achieve the targeted results in the light of the organisation's situation and prospects, are entailed in the strategy process. They may be defined as developing, forming or formulating strategies which can occur in a variety of ways, such as by identifying external and internal factors impacting on the organisation.

The three components of the strategic planning process are: building a strategic vision, establishing performance goals and targets and creating strategies constituting a strategic intent.

Thompson and Strickland (2003:46) define a strategic intent as a "big, hairy, audacious goal, or BHAG (*pronounced bee-hag*)" with a long-term time horizon of about 20 or 30 years which should focus on the search for the necessary resources and so drive the organisation beyond the constraints of its present resources. It is concerned with the ends and purposes of the organisation and combines a vision of the future with the intent to make that vision a reality (Macmillan and Tampoe, 2000:70). It exists when all employees and levels of a firm are committed to the pursuit of a specific and significant performance criterion, contributing to the identification and the controlling of an organisation's resources, capabilities and core competencies to accomplish the organisations goals in the competitive environment (Hitt, et al., 2005:21, 22). In other words, strategic intent is a reflection of what a firm is capable of doing with its core competencies and the unique ways they can be used to exploit a competitive advantage. According to Macmillan and Tampoe (2000:73) a mission statement may be used as a means of publicising the strategic intent of the organisation using relatively

new words; a slogan to be precise, for its effectiveness. Furthermore, the generation of a strategic intent is the prime responsibility of top management who are also responsible for ensuring that it is compelling.

Thompson and Strickland (2003:32) define developing a strategic vision and mission as establishing objectives and deciding on a strategy as basic direction-setting tasks, mapping out where the organisation is headed; that is, its short-range and long-range performance targets and the competitive moves and internal actions or approaches to be used in achieving the targeted results. Chambers, et al. (2001:41) in concurring with Thompson and Strickland (2003) propose direction-setting tasks, forming a hierarchy of strategic intent with three different levels, constituting a strategic plan designed for coping with the organisation's conditions; the expected actions of the organisation; and the challenges and issues that stand as obstacles to the organisation's success.

According to Fidler (1996:163) a strategic plan contains the aims and values of the organisation and the glue which binds together and coordinates the other sub-plans and provides the framework, direction and guidelines for the strategic management process. This enables the schools to be proactive by developing a coherent approach to raising levels of quality. Fidler (1996:163) further points out that the success of strategic plans is reliant on how thorough the strategic analysis has been, adding further that in order to develop a strategic plan that is suitable, feasible and acceptable to all who have a stake in the school, it must be comprehensible in its approach. According to Middlewood and Lumby (2002:9), strategic plans should be developed and made final prior to developing and implementing operational plans for the planning process to work correctly.

) Strategic implementation

Chambers, et al. (2001:38) draw attention to the fact that the sizeable amount of time and energy that have been invested into the drawing up of the strategic plan needs careful management at this stage to sustain the overall coherence, direction and purpose of the entire process. Macmillan and Tampoe (2000:9) opine that strategic management is incomplete and of little value without effective implementation and together with Thompson and Strickland (2003:18), the former authors maintain that strategic implementation is fundamentally an action-oriented, make-it-happen process with the key tasks of developing competencies and capabilities, policy making, motivating, culture-building and leadership. This suggests that to effect the planned changes, the organisation needs appropriated capabilities, trained and motivated managers, strategic information, fluid and responsive systems and structures in order to determine what should be done to put the strategy in place, carry it out proficiently and produce good results. Peace and Robinson (1994:297) believe that this shift results in the identification, measurable and mutually determined annual objectives, developing specific functional strategies and communicating concise policies to guide decisions.

Strategic evaluation

In addition to strategic implementation requiring a managerial exercise of putting a freshly chosen strategy into place, it also concerns the managerial exercise of supervising the ongoing pursuit of the strategy, making it work, improving the competence with which it is executed, and showing measureable progress in achieving the targeted results (Thompson and Strickland, 2003:18). This means that managing the strategy execution is primarily hands-on and close-to-the-scene administrative tasks.

is always incumbent on management to evaluate the organisation's performance and progress after the strategic implementation process. Thompson and Strickland (2003:32) hold the view that it is the management's duty to stay on top of the organisation's situation, deciding whether things are going well internally and monitoring outside developments closely. These suggest that sub-par performance or too little progress, as well as significant new external circumstances will require corrective actions and adjustments in a company's long-term direction, objectives, model and strategy.

The revelations above suggest that strategic planning is a continuous process such that at any one time, the school will be engaged in one of the components and the management stages of the process. Nonetheless, the fact that a goal may be established for a certain period does not mean that strategic planning takes place only within that period; rather, it is a continual process of amendment, reshaping and clarification, of seeking ever more detailed information, of consulting more widely and involving more people in the process.

3.2 The strategic thinking process

Strategic thinking is defined as the way in which people in the organisation use intuition and creativity to formulate an idea of where the organisation should be heading (Heracleous, 2003:47). It is not about establishing right or optimal solutions, but about understanding complex relationships and the uncertain environment. Thus, "It is impossible to formulate a strategy, let alone a 'best' or preferred strategy, without engaging in strategic thinking" (Braham, 2006:5), meaning that thinking strategically provides another dimension to the process of strategy making.

Strategic thinking is defined as the cognitive process in which an individual contemplates the future development of the organisation while considering its attributes, its past and present

and the external realities within which it operates (Tavakoli and Lawton, 2005:159). Kaofman (2002:40-41) subscribes to Tavakoli and Lawton's (2005:159) view, arguing that strategic thinking is the way in which people in an organisation think about, assess, view, and create the future for themselves and their associates. This implies that it is more than responding to day-to-day as well as long-term problems, opportunities and new realities; rather, it is about creating tomorrow.

Strategic thinking in action therefore, involves asking searching questions to seek out appropriate alternative strategies, often done as part of a strategic planning process and of confronting traditions (Chambers, et al., 2001:30) in order to come up with the right strategy for an institution that might increase stakeholder value and perhaps make it a stronger competitor or find a competitive arena that it can dominate (Abraham, 2006:5). This confirms Mintzberg's (1995:82) definition as quoted in Middlewood and Lumby (2002:7) of strategic thinking that of carrying a connotation of the ability of the strategic thinker to make intelligent guesses about the future; an ability which involves an element of risk taking. Concurring with us, Chambers, et al.(2001:30) observes that strategic thinking involves imagining potential solutions to a problem as opposed to having an answer to every problem, when making a decision to adopt a particular education strategy. It is simply imagining the results one wants to achieve in the future which Kaofman (2002:40-41) equates to 'dreaming'.

In discussing strategic thinking and knowledge management, Tavakoli and Lawton (2005) recognise that potential ways to develop strategic thinking capabilities in individuals is through training and selection, as well as through shadowing or apprenticeship, which Grant (2002) quoted in Tavakoli and Lawton (2005:157) suggests, are useful for transferring tacit knowledge. Members of communities of practice and strategic forums are also ways in which

strategic capabilities could be developed (Tavakoli and Lawton, 2005:157). According to them, strategic forum is a proactive approach that could be employed by senior management teams wishing to maximise the benefits of its strategic thinkers, who meet regularly to focus on areas likely to be important to the organisation over the next five to ten years. Communities of practice are, on the other hand, self-forming and informal networks which are deliberately organised as a means of sharing skills, knowledge and experiences among employees from different sectors and geographical areas.

In addition to the ways of developing strategic thinking capabilities, Bonn (2001,) quoted in Tavakoli and Lawton (2005:155) and Liedtka (1998) quoted in Graetz (2002:456-457) presents the following attributes for the strategic thinking process:

Strategic thinking reflects a system or holistic view that appreciates how different parts of the organisation influence and impinge on one another, as well as on their different environments. As a result, strategic thinking needs to recognise a holistic understanding of the organisation and its environment, recognising the link and complexity of the various sub-structures and relationships to occur.

Strategic thinking embodies a focus on intent. In contrast with the traditional strategic planning approach that focuses on creating a fit between existing resources and emerging opportunities, strategic intent intentionally creates a substantial must-fit between these two entities.

Strategic thinking involves thinking in time; that is, it understands the interconnectivity of the past, present and future. Thus, it requires creativity which is *'thinking out of the box'*, for new ideas and for the frequent reworking of old ideas and practices. It requires above all, a vision for the future of the organisation.

Strategic thinking is hypothesis driven; thus, hypothesis generativity and testing is central to strategic thinking activities. This presupposes that strategic thinking spans the analytic intuitive dichotomy where thinking is synthesis and planning is analysis.

Strategic thinking involves the capacity to be intelligently opportunistic, to recognise and take advantage of newly emerging opportunities.

Exploring the concept of strategic thinking further, Chambers, et al. (2001:30) point out that thinking strategically about educational changes in particular, requires innovative and creative thought and an ability to rise above the detail essential for leadership and the management of schools and colleges in the twenty-first century. It requires a different way to do what the organisation now does or to adopt an organisational model different from its competitors, a concept Abraham (2006:5) terms 'differentiation' which can take many different forms, such as being better than or different from the competitor in ways that are valued by customers. Some examples are better quality services, better reliability and being stronger and simpler; the implication being that if done correctly, differentiation can enhance an organisation's brand image, create loyal customers, and help an organisation achieve better benefits.

Kauffman (2002:40-41) states that strategic thinking can be applied any day at any time and is responsive to the new realities and the accelerated rate of change in today's and tomorrow's world. This belief suggests that strategic thinking always involves change and often profound personal change, necessitating a shift in a person's present paradigms, ways of thinking, relating and performing. Parallel to Kauffman's (2002) view, West-Burnham (1994:97) emphasises that developing a strategic mode of thinking is essential for the leadership and management of schools and colleges in the twenty-first century.

can therefore be summarised that strategic thinking is a future oriented precondition to the process of strategy making that has ways of developing strategic thinking capabilities in individuals as well as attributes that assist a school to be idiosyncratic. The result of this is a less chaotic, smoother running organisation in which everyone has a sense of where the organisation is going and the role of each person in getting there.

3.3 The relationship between strategic planning and strategic thinking

Heracleous (1998:482) recognises that strategic planning and strategic thinking are distinct but interrelated and complementary thought processes that are equally important to sustain each other for effective strategic management. For example, Heracleous (1998:485) observes that creative and ground-breaking strategies emerging from strategic thinking have to be operationalised through convergent and analytical thought which is strategic planning. This view substantiates Tavakoli and Lawton's (2005:157) observation that strategic thinking is the input to strategic planning and Mintzberg's (1994:156-157) deduction that strategic planning can take place only after strategic thinking has happened. Mintzberg (1994:156-157) further highlights the fact that while planning concerns analysis; that is, establishing and formalising systems and procedures, thinking in contrast involves synthesis, which involves encouraging intuitive, innovative and creative thinking at all levels of the organisation. Tavakoli and Lawton (2005:157) therefore infer that while strategic thinking is an individual experience which takes place informally without any action or decision following, strategic planning on the other hand, requires a degree of formality and structure and generally entails some decisions and actions such that bad planning can conversely discourage strategic thinking. This implies that planning takes place at the top of the organisation while strategic

thinking can be done by any member of the organisation up and down the hierarchy at any time.

Porter (1985:20) posits that strategic planning is a logical, systematic, conventional prescriptive and convergent process that assists in the realisation and support of strategies developed through strategic thinking process and integrates these back into the organisation. Strategic thinking, on the other hand, is the synthetic, divergent, creative, intuitive and innovative process that assists in seeking innovation and imagining new and very different features that may lead an organisation to redefine its core strategies and even its business. It is evident from the discussions above that effective strategic thinking and planning require everyone to shift their paradigms and agree on common destinations. This means that many people at all levels in an organisation should usually unlearn previous ways of thinking and performing; they should then learn better ways to achieve the desired/required performance.

4 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT MODELS

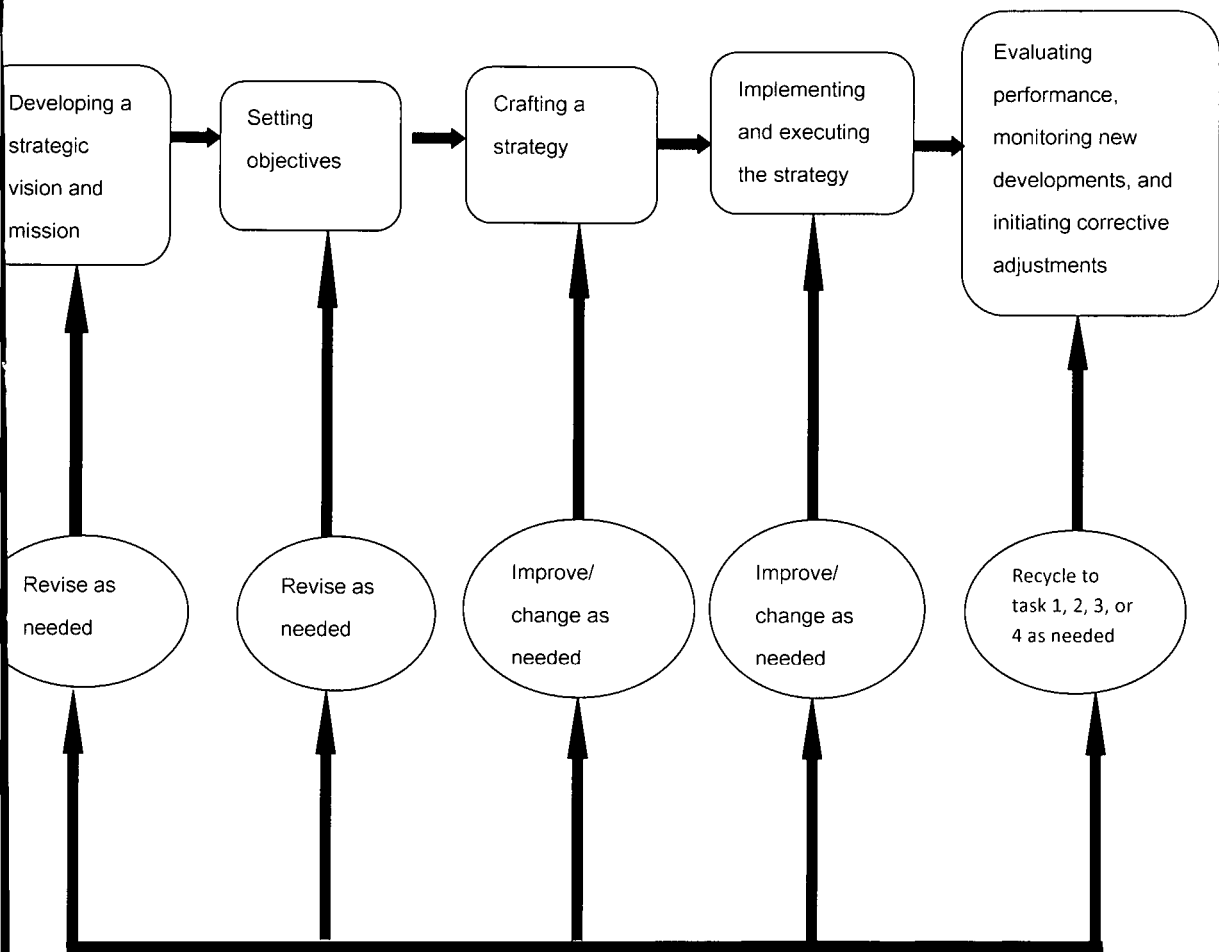
The literature abounds with diverse strategic management models but for the purposes of this chapter, Macmillan and Tampoe's (2000), Thompson's (1997), Thompson and Strickland's (2003) and Hitt, et al. (2005) strategic management models will be discussed and compared to ascertain their disparities and resemblances in an attempt to provide a provincial strategic management model for the creation of a mentorship strategy for Lesotho's secondary schools.

4.1 Thompson and Strickland's (2003) strategic management model

The strategic management model of Thompson and Strickland (2003:6) is defined by five strategic tasks: developing a strategic vision; setting objectives; crafting a strategy to achieve

the objectives; implementing and executing the strategy and evaluating a performance which monitor new developments and initiate corrective adjustments which are strictly linear with parallel checkpoints that result in the model being cyclic in nature. The diagram below illustrates the model:

Figure 3.4.1 (a) Thompson and Strickland (2003) strategic management model



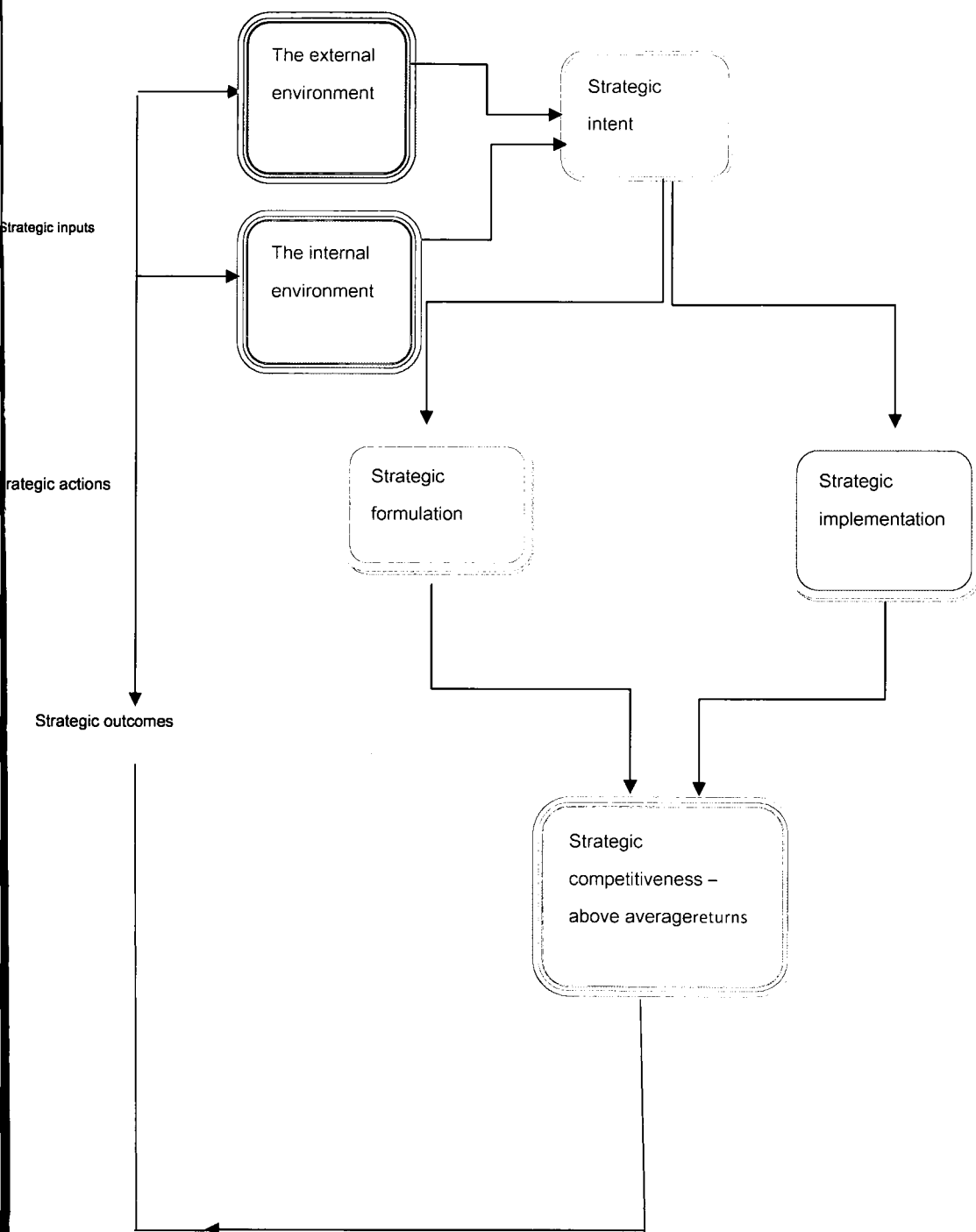
Thompson and Strickland's (2003:20) strategic management model suggests that there is interplay and recycling among the five strategic tasks, such that deciding on the organisations' mission and vision evolves into setting objectives which require both sequential priorities; thus, necessitating the handling of them as a package and not individually. The first and the second strategic tasks of building the vision and establishing

the goals and objectives require revision as needed. On the other hand, the strategy formulation and strategy implementation tasks require change and improvement. Finally after evaluating the performance, monitoring new developments, and initiating corrective adjustments, the model necessitates recycling the tasks all over again. Thompson and Strickland's (2003:117) model recommends a SWOT analysis in order to produce a suitable fit between an organisation's resource capability and its external situation, as well as to determine what the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats reveal about the organisational situation and thinking, and about what actions are needed. Thompson and Strickland (2003:123) believe that understanding the method behind the SWOT analysis involves evaluating the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats and drawing conclusions about how the organisation's strategy can be matched to both its resource capabilities and its market opportunities and how urgently the organisation needs to correct which particular resource weaknesses and subsequently guard against which particular external threats.

) Hitt, Ireland and Hoskisson's (2005:5) strategic management model

Hitt, et al. (2005:5) indicates that this strategic management model is intended to be a rational approach to help an organisation to effectively respond to the challenges of the 21st century's competitive setting. According to Hitt, et al. (2005:5), the strategic model is dynamic in nature and involves a full set of commitments, decisions and actions required for an organisation to achieve strategic competitiveness and earn above-average returns.

Figure 3.4.1 (b) Hitt, et al. (2005:5) strategic management model



The model begins with an analysis of the internal and external environments, a process necessary for effective strategy formulation and implementation, resulting in relevant strategic inputs. In other words, the model illustrates that an organisation needs to study both

the external and internal environment to identify opportunities and threats and determine how to use its resources, capabilities and core competencies to pursue its desired strategic outcomes. This knowledge will assist the organisation to form its strategic intent to leverage its resources, capabilities and core competences and to win competitive battles (Hitt, et al., 2005:5). On the other hand, the organisation's strategic inputs provide the foundation for its strategic actions to formulate and implement strategies which are critical to achieving strategic competitiveness and earning above-average returns. As suggested by this model, the horizontal arrow linking the two types of strategic actions, formulation and implementation should be simultaneously integrated. In formulating strategies, Hitt, et al., (2005:5) caution that thought should be given to the implementation. During this process, effective strategic managers also seek feedback to improve selected strategies and only when these two sets of actions are carefully integrated, can the firm achieve its desired strategic outcomes.

) Macmillan and Tampoe's (2000) strategic management model

Macmillan and Tampoe (2000:8) describe the strategic management process with four elements: the context; strategy formulation process; strategic content; and the strategy implementation process. The figure below demonstrates the strategic management process suggested by these authors.

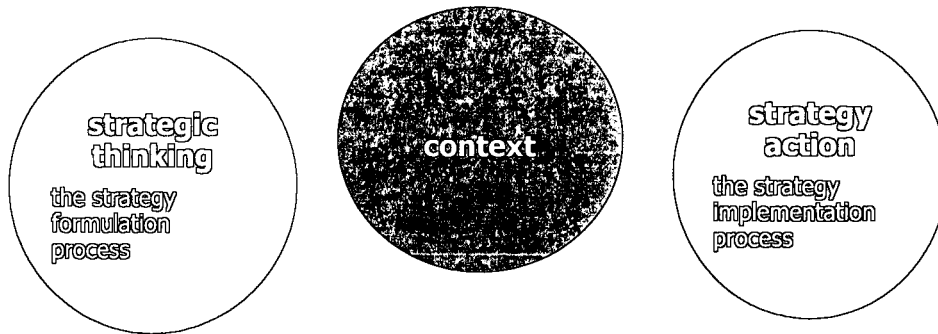


Figure 3.4.1 (c) Macmillan and Tampoe's (2000) strategic management model

According to Macmillan and Tampoe (2000:8) the elements depicted above form a conceptual framework for strategic management. The context determines the issues which strategic management must address and thus the agenda and scope of the process for each organisation. All effective strategic management should therefore start from a deep understanding of the context in order to formulate a strategy which is defined in the model as the process of what particular strategies are considered, conceived, compared and chosen within a particular organisation, in view of arriving at an agreed view of how the organisation will succeed in the future. Strategic formulation involves three elements: the strategic intent; strategic assessment; and strategic choice. The model recognises that strategic assessment requires an understanding of the external environment of the organisation; that is, what may

effect the future of the organisation as a whole from outside itself. The PEST analysis is recommended to help study the external environment. On the other hand, the internal resources, capabilities and culture of the organisation will be studied using the SWOT analysis (Macmillan and Tampoe, 2000:95). The strategic implementation is the element which completes the strategic management process ensuring that the content and the strategy take the needs and capabilities into account.

d) Thompson's (1997) strategic management model

Thompson (1997:19) defines the strategic management process using three essential elements: awareness; formulation; and implementation as depicted in the diagram below:

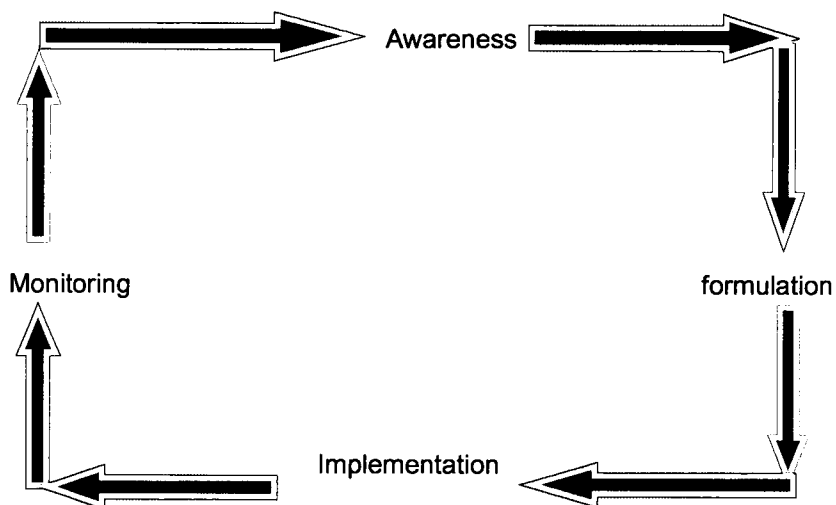


Figure 3.4.1(d) Thompson's (1997) strategic management model

According to Thompson (1997:18, 26), it is vital that first of all, there is an understanding of the strategic situation; that is, how strong the organisation and its strategies are and how circumstances change. This involves looking at the company's external and internal

environments and the context in which the company fits into those environments. It begins with observing the company's internal environment and investigating how employees interact with one another at all levels. The model recognises the need to utilise the SWOT and PEST analyse in order to study the internal environment and to help monitor the changing opportunities and threats in the study of the external environment. It is helpful to hold discussions, interviews and surveys to get a clearer picture of the current environment. To analyse the external environment, managers should look at the interactions between the stakeholders outside the organisation's environment. Being aware of the internal and the external environment then, suitable strategies can be chosen. This process requires management, monitoring and controlling, suggesting that a proper implementation is critically important in this model, with continuous monitoring progress which is essential for keeping up to date with the strategic situation. Strategy implementation involves putting the formulated strategy in place. Management processes will focus on methods and procedures designed to execute their strategies, as well as the order in which strategies should be implemented. The final step in the strategic management process involves observing the results of an implemented strategy; thus the process comes full circle. This analysis is essentially looking at the internal and external environments and the company's context within them to determine if a plan should be reformulated.

The foregoing models of strategic management as viewed by Thompson and Strickland (2003), Hitt, et al., (2005), Macmillan and Tampoe (2000) and Thompson (1997) highlight key principles of strategic management and show a strong resemblance to one another, even though they were developed from different perspectives for different environments and in different contexts. Tabulated below is a comparison of the models.

Table 3.4.1 Comparisons of the strategic management models

STAGES	STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT MODELS			
MODELS	Thompson and Strickland's (2003) model	Hitt, Ireland and Hoskisson's (2005) model	Thompson's (1997) model	Macmillan and Tampoe's (2000) model
Strategic analysis	<p>Recommends analysis in the strategy formulation stage having developed the vision, the mission and the strategic goals.</p>	<p>Identifies the analysis phase as the beginning of the strategic management process which helps to form the organisations strategic intent.</p>	<p>Regards the analysis stage as the first step in the strategic management process which has to consider the organisation's external and internal environments. The phase is referred to as the awareness phase.</p>	<p>Integrates the internal and external analysis in the strategic assessment stage to study what may affect the future of the organisation from inside and outside the organisation.</p>

<p>Strategic intent</p>	<p>The direction setting tasks; vision building, goal formulation and strategy creation forms the strategic intent</p>	<p>Strategic intent is formed with the knowledge gathered in the analysis phase</p>	<p>Strategic intent is integrated in the strategic formulation phase</p>	<p>Strategic intent is integrated in the strategic formulation phase with strategic assessment and strategic choice</p>
<p>Strategic implementation</p>	<p>implementation is the same with all the models, done after the strategy formulation process</p>	<p>The model refers to strategic formulation and implementation as strategic actions and suggest that they must be simultaneously integrated such that during formulating strategies, thought should be given to</p>	<p>This is the third stage in the model which involves putting the formulated strategy into place. The model also requires that progress is monitored continuously to keep up to date with the strategic situation.</p>	<p>The stage is considered as the last process of the strategic management process</p>

		implementing them		
Strategic evaluation	Evaluation occurs after implementation but is integrated in all the phases as revisions, improvements and modifications	Feedback is sought during strategic implementation to improve selected strategies	The final step in the strategic management process involves observing the results of an implemented	Monitoring follows the strategic implementation stage and its meant to modify or change the strategic actions whenever necessary

4.2 A synthesis strategic management model

The key points highlighted in the comparison of the strategic management models give rise to the following synthesis model of strategic management:



Figure 3.4.2 A synthesis strategic management model

The implications of the preceding synthesis model to mentorship comprise the fact that a strategic management model suitable for mentorship requires an organisation to undertake a number of steps.

4.2.1 A strategic analysis

An organisation that requires to developing a mentorship strategy needs to commence with the execution of a strategic analysis; that is, it is required to systematically evaluate its position first within its environment by identifying its internal strengths and weaknesses pertaining to the current mentorship strategy for females in schools. This is then examined through the resource base such as the skill's base and financial resources with the model taking account of whether the organisation has the wherewithal to achieve its stated objectives or to put into motion its strategies. In addition, the model will also have to explore the external environment; that is, the political, social, economic and technological changes

occurring outside the organisation because they are likely to influence the direction and shape of an organisation's policies and objectives with regard to the operating mentorship strategy.

4.2.2 Strategic intent

A strategic management model suitable for mentorship also implies that an organisation needs to determine its vision; that is, a communication tool that articulates the way forward assisting staff, pupils and other stakeholders to understand what the school stands for and what it is seeking to achieve (Chambers, et al., 2001:22), particularly by the creation of a mentorship strategy. Once the vision and mission have been established, they need to be translated into achievable goals in order to describe the desired performance to be attained in a particular time frame of several years. Wunsch (1994:29) supports this idea highlighting that defining, planning, and structuring activity with a goal and within a time frame is not a choice in mentoring but a necessity, because even though the recipients of mentoring may be different and the time requiring adjusted goals, the earliest records show that mentoring begins as a planned and structured process. For example, historically, during the period when Odysseus asked Mentor to protect, advice, guide and train his son during his absence, Mentor had specific mentoring goals. She was to teach the young prince the skills needed to become a warrior, a leader of men, the head of a household and a future king. Thus, the goals of the mentoring strategy should be clear to all organisational members, specifically regarding the intended outcomes (Mathew, 2003:316). For any goal to be achieved there will be a range of objectives (Ehrich, Hansford and Tennent, 2004:534), each giving a different way of indicating whether the goal has been achieved or that the performance is moving towards the goal (Chambers, et al., 2001:26). These authors observe that clarification of the

vision, mission, goals, objectives and strategies are fundamental to the initiation of the strategic process amounting as well, to a statement of where the organisation is, what it does and how it goes about its business. This process should also help clarify which policies or demands can be facilitated by the organisation and which will be impeded.

4.2.3 Strategic implementation

Educational strategies are driven by goals and come from a systematic analysis and evaluation of the current internal and external processes of the school (Chambers, et al., 2001:22). Therefore, a strategic management model suitable for mentorship also implies poring out ideas regarding the future needs of the mentorship strategy from the participants and other stakeholders (Ehrich, et al., 2004:534). Stakeholder's expectations and influences should be taken into account by analysing both the current internal and external review data in relation to the provision of the mentorship strategy, involving top management, mixing participants views, communicating results and reactions to feedback, prioritising and selecting a mentorship strategy (Ehrich, et al., 2004:534). Once the strategic analysis has been undertaken, a mentorship strategy can then be designed and implemented through developing an action plan aimed at marshalling and applying resources for a successful mentorship strategy.

From the outset, there is a need to have a policy mandating the construction of a mentorship strategy for females in secondary schools from which a mentorship program can be designed (Ehrich, et al., 2004:535). Following from the programme design, is a need to appoint key staff such as the facilitator to be part of the programme planning and to remain in an advisory capacity throughout the duration of the programme, as well as an internal coordinator to deal with the administrative aspects of the programme. Both the facilitator and the coordinator will

have expertise in the execution of a mentorship programme. Ehrich, et al. (2004:535) opine that the mentorship strategy requires a widely experienced consultant in conducting mentorship strategies such that if this experience is not available within the institution, an external expert will have to be engaged. With the assistance of the facilitator and coordinator, a plan for the mentoring programme will need to be drawn up, followed by the publication of an announcement regarding the proposed programme, using all existing communication channels such as newsletters, notice boards, circulars and e-mails. This will ensure that all eligible staff is informed and by holding information sessions for all interested participants, including people not in the initial programme will be brought on board.

A careful selection of mentors and protégés will then follow; substantiating Wunsch's (1994:30) opinion that planned mentoring requires a rationale for choosing participants and pairing them. Cox (2006:406) observes that within the mentoring literature, it is often argued that the quality of the match between mentor and protégé could affect the benefits of mentoring, that where there is compatibility between mentor and protégé, it follows that there is the potential for substantial and often rapid professional growth. Then again, where there are disparities in personal outlook or professional principles, the benefits may be limited (Wunsch, Coleman, Watt and West-Burnam, 1996:122). However, on the basis of Armstrong, Robinson and Hayes's (2002:1112) observation of how "forced coupling can fuel discontent, anger, resentment and suspicion", and in consideration of the general belief that one of the reasons for problems associated with formal systems may be that forced pairing violates the true spirit of mentoring, Cox (2005:406) recommends that mentoring projects should place considerable emphasis and staff time, on matching protégés with the most appropriate and beneficial mentors. Furthermore, Merriam (1983:171) asserts that forced matching of mentors and protégés ignores a characteristic crucial to the more intense mentor

relationships that the two people involved are attracted to each other and wish to work together.

The selection process is followed up by the provision of training for both mentors and protégés supporting Daresh and Playko's (1990:149) position that not all experienced school managers are necessarily capable of serving as mentors and even when they want to serve as mentors and possess all the desirable characteristics of effective mentors, they still need additional training to execute the mentoring role. Focusing on female education manager mentoring, Ehrich (1994) emphasises that training is an important ingredient in a professional mentoring programme aimed at assisting women educators in particular, where potential mentors would need to be encouraged to participate in a training course which prepares them for their mentoring role.

4.2.4 Strategic evaluation

Following to the fact that strategic management undergoes continual change, mechanisms will have to be developed for monitoring and analysing the performance of the organisation with respect to achieving the goals and objectives of the mentorship strategy set in the action plan. According to Middlewood and Lumby (2000:164), monitoring action is about making adjustments to the plan, both small and large, during the implementation process and looking and checking without necessarily making value judgments. In addition to the monitoring process, it is necessary to have a periodic evaluation which is more in-depth, thoughtful and considered, to find out the answers to the questions: Did we do what we set out to do? If not, why not? (Middlewood and Lumby, 2000:164). Thus, evaluation is needed to check on progress and correct mistakes, as well as helping the manager take account of changes and their effects on the organisation's progress. Middlewood and Lumby (2000:164) suggest that

valuation may draw on information gathered through monitoring or assembled at the point of evaluation and normally takes place at the end of the cycle in order to see if the educational organisation is achieving what it set out to achieve. If not, why not; as part of a feedback to compare strategy formulation and implementation with the results so that where attention and results do not match, corrective action can be implemented.

The aspects of strategic management discussed above manifests the following disclosures about a strategic management model suitable for a mentorship strategy:

strategic analysis

- analyse the internal mentorship situation through interviews with female education managers and female HoDs
- analyse the external mentorship situation through interviews with the MOET

strategic intent

- determine the vision and the mission statement of the mentorship strategy by means of establish the goals and the objectives of the strategy
- source out ideas regarding the future needs of the mentorship strategy through questionnaires with female education managers and female educators

- policy formulation pertaining to the creation of a mentorship strategy
- determine the kind of mentorship program to design
- determine key staff members required in the programme
- draw up a strategic plan
- determine the means of publicising and announcing the proposed program
- ensure that educators are all informed about the program
- select the participants - the mentors and the proteges
- determine the appropriate training to institute for the participants

- determine the means of reviewing the strategy
- determine the means of correcting mistakes

Figure 3.4.3 The strategic management model suitable for a mentorship strategy

The depiction above is an indication that if the strategic management models are integrated and synthesised in consideration with the aim of the study, a more market-based approach to

mentorship in education would be adopted, so as to carry out the analysis required for the formulation of a long-term mentorship strategy that would be relevant and effective.

5 A FRAMEWORK FOR DEVELOPING A MENTORSHIP STRATEGY

The following mentorship framework is provided for developing a mentorship strategy; however, it will be further developed as the study unfolds:

Table 3.5.1 A strategic management framework for females in Lesotho's secondary schools

PHASE NO.	STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PHASE	STRATEGIC ACTION REQUIRED	STEPS REQUIRED FOR MENTORSHIP STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT
3.5.1 (a)	Strategic analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Environmental scanning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gather both internal and external information pertaining to participants mentoring experiences using the SWOT and the PEST analysis.
b)	strategic intent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Vision and mission building 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inquire from the participants and other stakeholders what they would want the vision, aim and the mission statement as well as the goals and the objectives of the mentoring strategy to be.
c)	strategic intent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establishing goals and objectives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyse current performance of the school in terms of the provision of mentorship. Analyse the future performance needs of the mentorship strategy in the schools. Create mentorship ideas for new performance goals. Select and prioritise mentorship goals.

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify mentorship target areas. • Record and communicate. Mentorship goals and targets.
d)	strategic intent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guiding the strategy formulation process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Source out ideas regarding the future needs of the mentorship strategy. • Analyse current internal and external review data in relation to provision of the mentorship strategy. • Take stakeholders expectations and influences into account • Mix views of the participants. • Involve top management • Communicate results and reaction to feedback. • Select a mentorship strategy and priorities on basis of value, capability, and capacity. • Sequence and record the mentorship strategy. • Audit current range of assets against goals and strategies. • Select and prioritise ideas in relation to possible scenarios. • Formulate into plans for each resource area.
	Strategic implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • supervising the on-going pursuit of the strategy (making it work) and creating an organization culture and work climate conducive to successful strategy implementation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce the objectives of the initiative. • Have a policy mandating the construction of a mentorship strategy. • Design a mentorship programme.

		and execution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appoint key staff such as the facilitator who will be part of the programme planning and remain in an advisory capacity throughout the duration of the programme. • Appoint an internal coordinator to deal with the administrative aspects of the programme. • Draw a plan for the mentoring programme. • Publicise and announce the mentorship programme using all existing communication channels such as newsletters, notice boards, circulars and e-mails. • Hold information sessions to inform all eligible staff and all interested participants, including people who were not in the initial program. • Carefully select mentors and protégés. • Provide training to both mentors and protégés.
e)	Strategic evaluation	• Monitoring and feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make efforts to change the mentorship culture in schools. • Build new competencies and capabilities. • Refurbish activities and work processes. • Revisit budgets. • Change policies. • Reorganise.

6 SUMMARY

The literature into the phenomenon of strategic management has been the focal point of this chapter, presenting strategic planning and strategic thinking as sub-systems of the strategic management process. There has been consideration of a range of strategic management models in order to bring to the surface a synthesis model appropriate for the creation of the mentorship strategy for females in Lesotho's secondary schools. The strategic management literature facilitated the provision of a framework for developing a mentorship strategy which is needed today to lead and manage the operation of any school system effectively. The following is a summative table of the concept of strategic management.

Table 3.7.1: A summative table of the strategic management process

ITEM NO.	STRATEGIC DIMENSION	MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS
3.7.1 3.7.1.1 3.7.1.2	Strategic management requires: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both strategic planning and strategic thinking • New ways of thinking and a futuristic approach 	Managers need to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure that ground breaking strategies emerging from strategic thinking have to be operationalised through convergent and analytical thought which is strategic planning (c.f. 3.3.4). • Take a step back from the day to day activities and think about the future of the organisation (c.f. 3.2.2). • Make day to day operational decisions and understand that those decisions are all moving the organisation in a single direction (c.f. 3.2.2) • Allow staff participation in the strategic discussion (c.f. 3.2.2). • Set objectives and measure of success (c.f. 3.2.2). • Develop a solution that is optimal for the whole organisation and not just a single component (c.f. 3.2.2).

3.7.2	Strategic planning	<p>Managers are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assisted in getting direction and designing a desired future in measurable terms and identifying the best means to achieve the results desired (c.f. 3.3.2). • Required to continuously keep the organisation on course by making adjustments as internal and external contexts change (c.f. 3.3.2). • Are required to be involved (c.f. 3.3.2).
3.7.2.1	<p>Strategic planning is executed through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The establishment of a strategic intent 	<p>Managers need to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a vision, aims and the mission statement (c.f. 3.3.1.1) (a). • Establish goals and objectives (cf. 3.3.1.1) (b). • Define strategies and policies to achieve the aims (c.f. 3.3.1.1) (c).
3.7.2.2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The implementation of strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develop detailed strategic plans to make sure that the strategies are implemented in order to achieve the ends (c.f. 3.3.1.1) (d)
3.7.2.3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The evaluation of the strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluate the implemented strategies (cf.3.3.1.1) (e).
3.7.3	<p>Strategic thinking requires:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • intuition and creativity 	<p>Managers need to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulate an idea of where the organization should be heading (c.f. 3.3.3). • Have a holistic understanding of the organisation and its environment (c.f. 3.3.3). • Recognise the linkages and complexity of the various sub-structures and relationships (c.f. 3.3.3). • Understand the interconnectivity of past, present and future (c.f. 3.3.3). • “Think out of the box” for new ideas and frequent reworking of old ideas and practices (c.f. 3.3.3). • Have a vision for the future of the organisation (c.f. 3.3.3). • Have the capacity to be intelligently opportunistic, to recognise and take advantage of newly emerging opportunities (c.f. 3.3.3).

3.7.4	strategic management model suitable for mentorship	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ensure that an organisation identifies its internal strengths and weaknesses and external threats and opportunities (c.f. 3.4.2.1).• Determine the vision and the mission that need to be translated into achievable goals and objectives (c.f. 3.4.2.2).• Design a strategy (c.f. 3.4.2.2).• Implement the strategy (c.f. 3.4.3).• Evaluate the strategy (c.f. 3.4.4).
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The aforementioned discussion prompts the question: What are the mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho?

4

AN EXPLORATION AND INVESTIGATION OF FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS' MENTORING EXPERIENCES IN LESOTHO'S SECONDARY SCHOOLS – A QUALITATIVE INVESTIGATION

1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters addressed the topic and rationale of the study. This chapter contains an exploration and investigation of female education managers' mentoring experiences, particularly the presentation of a strategic analysis of the descriptive and statistical overview of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats pertaining to the mentoring of females in Lesotho's secondary schools. The driving force behind the investigation is the feminist research design and methodology which focuses on including women as active participants, active creators and active interpreters in research. In Campbell and Salem's words (1999:67), putting women "in the driver's seat of research" and enhancing the

likelihood that the entire investigation process actually reflects women's experiences, attitudes, and understandings" in an attempt to foster empowerment, emancipation and the promotion of social change and social justice for women, while at the same time increasing the knowledge of feminist research. This is in accord with Eisenstein's (1983: xiv) perception that feminist research holds an element of visionary and futuristic thought.

2 FEMINISM - THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Feminist research is chiefly grounded in feminism, with its origins deriving from a feminist ontology (Stanley and Wise, 1993:8; 1993:192). It is the philosophy of feminism where "feminism is nothing if not paradoxical" (Reinharz, 1992:241); thus it is defined as a broad-based philosophical perspective and not a method that accommodates several species under its genus (Tong, 1989:1). Feminisms are the moral and political viewpoints which draw from different theoretical and pragmatic orientations, different nationalities and contexts and dynamic developments (Campbell and Wasco, 2000:775), it is therefore, more correct to speak of feminisms, instead of feminism, because there is no one feminist perspective or position; feminisms seem to be divergent. However, feminisms broadly focus on women's inferior position in society and with discrimination encountered by women because of their sex and differing only though in how they conceptualise women's marginalization (Arneil, 1999:3), inferring therefore, that feminisms share some common ground (Warren and Wells-Lowe, 1994:16).

According to Lather (1991:71-72), feminisms argue the centrality of gender in shaping our consciousness, skills and institutions as well as the distribution of power and privilege. For this study, coupled with the gender concept is the commitment to uncover and understand what causes and sustains oppression in all its forms for women and to work individually and

collectively in everyday life to end all forms of oppression (Maguire, 1987:79). Warren and Wells-Howe (1994:16) therefore infer that feminisms are not merely a perspective, a way of being, nor even an epistemology or a way of knowing, but also an ontology or a way of being in the world.

Feminist researchers such as Campbell and Wasco (2000:775) have identified many forms of feminisms which differ in many respects and suggest distinct approaches to social change which ironically are divisions regarding differences about what women's interests are and what constitutes women's liberation (Warren and Wells-Howe, 1994:17), rather than strategies or tactics that will best serve women's interests. Freedman (2001:1) emphasises that these feminisms are united by the belief that the unequal and inferior social status of women is unjust and calls for change. From this perspectives therefore, feminism is regarded as a world view leading to change and whose base line is an understanding of patriarchy.

Within the different feminist perspectives, feminist philosophies of science reflect a interpretation of the epistemological models of positivism, realism, critical theory and constructivism. These feminist epistemologists have developed their approaches to the positioning of knowledge within three broad epistemological traditions: feminist standpoint theory, feminist postmodernism and feminist empiricism.

2.1 Feminist philosophies

Standpoint feminists stress a particular view that builds on and from women's experiences, since women's specific location in patriarchal societies is actually a resource in the construction of new knowledge (Olsen, 1994:162-163). According to Andersen (1994:373) standpoint feminists should construct knowledge that reflects the experiences of both the dominant and subordinate groups in order for that knowledge to spawn liberation because

the systems of oppression shape the consciousness of the oppressed. In addition, they are obligated to reflect upon and share with their readers how their own social group status influences the interpretations of their data. According to Campbell and Wasco (2000:782), research conducted from the perspective of standpoint theories utilises a variety of methodologies within both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to engage research participants who are typically members of the oppressed groups in a reflection on how their gender, race, social class, and sexual orientation shape their experiences in the social world. All these components of the feminist standpoint make it a relevant feminist thinking for this study. Nonetheless, my own orientation to this feminist study tends to be more post-modern than standpoint feminist.

According to Olsen (1994:164), a feminist post-modernism perspective allows women under study to "speak for themselves" because as Harding (1987:188) indicates, there can never be a feminist psychology, but only "many stories that different women tell about the different knowledge they have." As such, post modernists refuse to centre, congeal and cement women's separate thoughts into a unified truth that would be too inflexible to change, but rather appreciate the fact that there are more than one woman, thus making this feminist thinking more eligible for this study because "the more feminists thoughts available, the better" (Tong, 1989:7). This study intends to listen to different female managers and the meaning they give to their experiences and further use their meanings within the research which includes hearing how they reflect upon their experiences and the feelings and meanings that are conveyed through their use of language.

As a gender method, a feminist post-modernism challenges the possibility of speaking in one unified voice about women, meaning that it focuses on issues of diversity and differences

among women, thus challenging the attempts to find integration and agreement to establish the specifically feminist standpoint that could represent how women see the world (Olsen, 1994:164). Tong (1989:7) rejects this combination labelling it as neither feasible nor desirable because women's experiences differ across class, racial and cultural lines. Moreover, it is not desirable because 'the one and the true' are the philosophical myths that have been used to club into submission the differences that, in point of empirical fact, best describe the human condition.

Avoiding the danger of trying to provide an explanation for why women are oppressed or the steps all women should take in order to achieve true liberation (Tong, 1989:7), as well as rejecting the notion of a fixed female identity and therefore overcoming the problems of essentialism which other feminisms have had to face, post-modernist feminists consider not only differences between men and women, or differences between women themselves, but also differences within and constitutive of the female subject or a difference within woman (Evans, 1995:125). In other words, postmodernist feminists recognise that women experience oppression differently and as such, even the way to achieve true liberation for them, does not necessarily have to be uniform. Tong (1989:217) suggests however, that feminist post-modernists' diversity in thinking offers women an opportunity to become themselves; the more reason for this feminist perspective underpinning this research, because it is believed that this perspective should promote the welfare of women.

2.2 Feminist research

Feminist research is as diversified and dynamic as feminism itself. According to Reinharz (1992:241) feminist research is characterised by epistemological and methodological diversity, drawing approaches ranging from the phenomenological and experiential, to the

positivist and experimental. Feminist research is, as such a model based on sound methodologies and producing valuable and high quality research findings; a combination of a variety of theoretical paradigms, as well as methods and procedures adjusted to comply with feminist principles. In line with the principles and ideologies of feminist research, McCormick and Bunting's (2002:822) outlined numerous feminist research characteristics. According to these authors, a feminist research:

- values women and attaches validity to their experiences, ideas and needs;
- recognises the conditions that oppress women;
- has a desire to bring about social change through criticism and political action;
- has as issues of central concern, women and gender;
- has questions and answers that are for the benefit of some groups of women, rather than simply about women;
- recognises women's current and historical context relevant to the research variables
- emphasises subjectivity and women's context of experiences;
- embraces collegiality and mutual dialogue between different level of research;
- teams between the researcher(s) and the participant women;
- embraces the idea of interactions that are non-hierarchical in nature and structure;
- encourages reflexivity; and the on-going of the self-questioning of the researchers' assumptions and biases;
- honours flexible, open boundaries; and
- recognises that bias is impossible to eliminate completely.

Iterating the ideologies and principles of feminist research, Reinharz (1992:240) posits the following as recurring themes in feminism and feminist research. According to Reinharz:

- feminism is a perspective, not a research method;
- feminists use a multiplicity of research methods;
- feminist research involves ongoing criticism of non-feminist scholarship;
- feminist research aims to create social change;
- feminist research strives to represent human diversity; and
- feminist research frequently includes the researcher as a person.

The above delineation is a manifestation of the multiple diversities amongst feminist approaches in which a researcher can be positioned attributed to the researcher holding different epistemological assumptions or principles that subsequently inform their choice of research methodologies and research methods. Pivotal in a feminist research is the fact that women's experiences and standpoint are grounded in the larger social and political context of culture, thus bringing about changes in the attitudes and roles of women; making women, as well as men aware of the impact of gender on their lives and choices, an awareness that can lead to their liberation.

3 FEMINIST RESEARCH METHODOLOGY – THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Theoretical framework, theoretical orientation or theoretical perspective, refers to the way of looking at the world; the assumptions people have about what is important and what makes the world work (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998:33). The theoretical framework, as distinct from a theory, is sometimes referred to as a paradigm or worldview (Creswell and Clark 2007:21) and influences the way knowledge is studied and interpreted (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998:33). In other words, a paradigm provides a conceptual framework for seeing and making sense of the social world.

To be situated within a particular paradigm is to view the world in a particular way," (Burrell and Morgan, 1979:24) because each paradigm produces a unique form of knowledge since it is the choice of a paradigm that sets down the intent, motivation and expectations for the research. This implies that without nominating a paradigm as the first step, there is no basis for subsequent choices regarding methodology, methods and the literature or research design. A number of theoretical paradigms are discussed in the literature, the most common of which include: interpretivist/constructivist, positivist, post-positivist, transformative and pragmatism paradigms. The study under investigation drew potency from the transformative paradigm with a focus on binding together all branches of feminist research with a strong commitment to changing the status of women (Weston, 1988:148), reflecting the dynamic and cumulative process of consciousness-raising, combining personal and social change in a continuing and reflective process (Maynard and Purvis, 1995:28).

3.1 A transformative paradigm

The transformative paradigm for this study arose partially due to the dissatisfaction that the existing and dominant research paradigms of the interpretivist and constructivist approaches did not adequately address issues of social justice and marginalised people (Creswell, 2003:9). Transformative researchers believe that inquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and contain an action agenda for reform that may change the lives of the participants, the institutions in which individuals work or live and the researcher's life (Creswell, 2003:9-10). This view is particularly relevant to this feminist study because the study intends to address the social conditions of women in a sexist, male stream and patriarchal society, in order to enlighten people about taken-for-granted sexist practices and the gender-blindness of government and community practices (including publications) that have displaced, ignored

and silenced women, thereby leading to an unequal and discriminating social order and holding them captive for millennia.

Somekh and Lewin (2005:275) suggest that transformative researchers may utilise qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis methods in much the same way as the interpretivists or the constructivists. However, Somekh and Lewin (2005:275) highlight that a mixed-methods approach provides the transformative researcher with a structure for the development of more complete and full portraits of the social world through the use of multiple perspectives and lenses allowing for an understanding of a greater diversity of values, stances and positions. On the basis of Lather's (1991:72) suggestion that, "feminist empirical work is multi-paradigmatic" this study embraced a mixed-method approach by conducting a qualitative, *phenomenological design*, in the form of in-depth interviews and focus group discussions to improve and strengthen the research process (Gorard, 2004:7). A quantitative investigation was also conducted by means of; a *survey design* in the form of a questionnaire. This validates Denzin's (1989:307) view that by combining multiple observers, theories, a variety of methods and data sources, researchers can hope to overcome the intrinsic bias that comes from single-methods, single-observer and single theory studies.

3.2 A mixed-method approach – a feminist emancipatory approach

The dictum that feminism requires research on, by, and for women presupposes that there is a common set of methodological yardsticks with which to measure feminist research. However, as Weston (1988:149) rightly states: "*The challenge is to continue to search for new and better topics, methodologies and strategies which will liberate women and, perhaps more than that, challenge us to be feminists first in our research efforts*". This presupposes that crucial to a study on gender and mentorship is the need to ensure that our techniques

and strategies do not distract us from the actual problems facing women in their everyday life. Stanley and Wise (1993:192) insist that feminist research methods should reflect feminist ontology, epistemology and methodology which are developed from the experiences of women. Concurring with this, Campbell and Salem (1999:66) are adamant that the greatest challenge facing feminist researchers is the development of research techniques that articulate women's experiences.

While most authors agree that in real life, human sciences research uses both quantitative, that is, collecting data in the form of numbers and qualitative methods which is collecting data in the form of words or pictures – sometimes consciously, sometimes unconsciously (Gougeon and Delport, 2002:81). Creswell and Clark (2007:4) insist on the use of a combination of both the quantitative and the qualitative approaches, referred to as a mixed-method approach explicating that all these approaches have underlying philosophical assumptions that guide the inquirer. This means that, the “exact nature of the definition of research whether quantitative, qualitative or mixed method research is influenced by the researcher's theoretical framework” (Mertens, 2005:2).

According to Creswell (2003:81) “A mixed method approach is useful to capture the best of both quantitative and qualitative approaches”. Creswell and Clark (2007:5) define the mixed-method approach as one with philosophical assumptions, as well as methods of inquiry in which, whereby as a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the selection of the collection and the analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Emphasising Creswell and Clark's (2007) definition, Rocco, Bliss and

allagher, Pérez-Prado (2003:19) affirm that mixed method research is generally characterised as research that contains the elements of both the quantitative and qualitative, with research with the central premise of better understanding the research problems than in either approach alone. This confirms that the advantages of the use of both the quantitative and qualitative methodologies in research are a way of compensating for the shortcomings of any one method. A mixed-method approach therefore strengthens the research process by the awareness of the weaknesses and strengths of each approach; recognising that while purely quantitative research tends to be less helpful through its oversimplification of causal relationships, purely qualitative research on the other hand, tends to be less helpful through its selectivity in reporting.

Creswell and Clark (2007:58) recommend that once a researcher has selected a mixed method approach for a study, the next step is to decide on the specific design that best addresses the research problem. They suggest that there are different types of mixed-methods designs and advance four major mixed-methods designs: the explanatory design; the exploratory design; the embedded design and the triangulation design with variants within each type. However, this feminist study adopted the triangulation mixed-method design where the research question was addressed by the collection and analysis of both the qualitative and the quantitative data at the same time (Creswell and Clark, 2007:62).

The concept of triangulation evolved more than 40 years ago with quantitative researchers such as Campbell and Fiske (1959,) as quoted in Rocco, et al. (2003:19) who suggest mixing methods to accurately measure a psychological trait. Their call for multiple methods, that of ensuring that the variance is reflected in the trait and not in the method (Creswell, 1994:174), was later expanded into what Denzin (1978, as quoted in Rocco, et al. 2003:19) dubbed

triangulation. Rocco, et al. (2003:20) further expound that triangulation initially evolved to include using multiple data collection and analysis methods, multiple data sources, multiple analysts, and multiple theories or perspectives. As a mixed method design however, triangulation is appropriately used to facilitate the comparisons and contrasts of the quantitative statistic results with qualitative findings or to validate or expand quantitative results with qualitative data (Creswell and Clark, 2007:62). In other words, the intent of using the design is to bring together the differing strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses of quantitative methods (large sample, trends, generalisations) with those of qualitative methods (small sample, details, depth) (Creswell and Clark, 2007:62). This corroborates Krippner's (1979:604) view that the effectiveness of triangulation rests on the premise that the weaknesses in each single method will be compensated for, by the counter-balancing strengths of another.

The triangulation design has four variants, namely: the convergence model; the data transformation model; the validating quantitative data model and the multilevel model (Creswell and Clark, 2007:64). The study followed the convergence model in which quantitative and qualitative data are collected separately and independently on the same phenomenon and the results are then converged, by comparing and contrasting the different results during interpretation. Accompanying the comparisons of results, the study aimed to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic to best understand the research problem, in order to corroborate qualitative results with quantitative findings, ending up with valid and well substantiated conclusions about a single phenomenon (Creswell and Clark, 2007:65). This substantiates Neuman's (2000:125) viewpoint that the two methods have complementary strengths. Nevertheless, Creswell and Clark (2007:67) caution that it can be

very challenging to converge (integrate) the quantitative (generalisation) and the qualitative (in-depth description) sets of data and their results in a meaningful manner.

It is evident from the discussions above, that a mixed-method research is a practical method which allows the researcher to freely use all methods possible to address a research problem, guided by both numbers and words, to combine inductive and deductive thinking and to employ skills in observing people, as well as recording behaviour. Thus, it is the preferred method in this feminist study to present a complete picture and to make the study persuasive. According to Creswell and Clark (2007:116), proficiency in conducting a mixed-method study is reliant on a thorough knowledge of the general procedures of collecting data (both the quantitative and the qualitative techniques since mixed-method research involves collecting both forms of data).

3.3 A qualitative investigation from a feminist perspective

Merriam (1991:90-91) suggests that as both feminist and critical educational methodologies focus on meaning making in human experience, "more interactive, contextualized, humanly compelling research methods gain increasing legitimacy" and the power of absolutes and essentialist categories declines. On the other hand, Wilkinson (1999:233) argues that feminist researchers adopt data collection practices that foster egalitarian and non-hierarchical research relations, such that methods are chosen that will minimise harm to participants and which will shift the balance of power and control toward the research participants. According to Wilkinson (1999:233), the overriding concern in feminist research is to avoid imposing the researcher's own analytic categories and concepts on what respondents say and to encourage them to assert their own interpretations and agendas. In this way, the researcher gains access to participants' own language, meanings and

vocabulary, their opinions and conceptual worlds. Lather (1991:90-91) infers that this is a paradigm shift which will produce a change-enhancing social theory and praxis. However, Oakley (1998:707) cautions that this commitment to an emancipatory social science does not rule out the use of quantitative methods, such as surveys and questionnaires.

Qualitative inquiry was adopted in this study for its potential to reveal rich, deep, detailed descriptions and fruitful explanations of processes occurring in a local context (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000:25-26) and its ability to investigate objects in their natural settings, focusing on the context and lived experience of the participants. This will produce the findings arrived at from real-world settings where the "phenomenon of interest unfolds naturally", (Patton, 2002:39). The approach is fundamental for this feminist study because it enables the researcher to learn at first-hand about the social world being investigated by means of involvement and participation in that world, through a focus upon what individual actors say and do. This emphasises Smaling's (1992:174) point of view that the object of study in qualitative investigation is the world as defined, experienced or constituted by the investigated people confirming Denzin and Lincoln's (2000:25-26) opinion that the approach serves to discover not only the *etic* viewpoint (the perspective of the observer or researcher), but also the *emic* viewpoint (the perspective of the observed or participant).

Qualitative inquiry is a blanket term designating a diverse range of research approaches including narrative inquiry, ethnography, phenomenology, grounded theory and case studies research (Creswell and Clark, 2007:53). Owing to the fact that this study aims to explore and investigate females mentoring experiences, a phenomenological approach is accordingly allowed in this study for its potential to serve as a rationale supporting efforts to understand

individuals by entering into their field of perception in order to see life as these individuals see it (Streubert and Carpenter, 1999:56).

Phenomenology is an interpretive research methodology that is directed at gaining an in-depth understanding of the nature and meaning of everyday experience (Creswell and Clark, 2007:53). In Van Manen's (1997:4) words, "phenomenology describes how one relates to lived experience" meaning that phenomenologists' interest is in "addressing, identifying, describing, understanding and interpreting the experiences people have in their day-to-day lives, precisely as those people have the experiences and understand them" (Crotty, 1996:14). Smith (1983:8) adds that phenomenology seeks deep understanding of experience and views knowledge not as existing independently of the knower, but as a matter of agreement within a socially and historically bounded context. In other words, the relationship between the researcher and the research participant is seen as a subject-subject interaction in which values and facts reside within each individual and cannot be separated. This suggests that humans and their being in the world cannot be understood by procedures that reduce them to autonomous parts, but can be fully understood only within a context in which relating and meaning are primary. Smith (1983:8) further posits that phenomenologists' take an experiential view toward understanding such phenomena, highlighting human experience not only as valid, but of great importance to understanding human existence.

This feminist phenomenological approach is essential to studying the mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools and the meanings these experiences have to them, since it is the meaning of these experiences that constitutes reality which is consequently "socially constructed" (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:34). In order to

grasp the meaning of a person's behaviour, the phenomenologist attempts to see things from that person's point of view. This reiterates Bogdan and Biklen's (1998:34) assertion that phenomenologists do not assume they know what things mean to the people whom they are studying; rather, "Phenomenological inquiry begins with silence" (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998:34) which is an attempt to grasp what it is they are studying in order to gain entry into the conceptual world of their subjects; in order to understand how and what meaning they construct around events in their daily lives.

To provide a solid foundation of phenomenology as a research methodology in human sciences, existential phenomenology as a philosophical tendency within phenomenology was employed in this investigation because of its objectivity and openness and its description and understanding of human experience on its own terms and not in operationally defined terms (Colaizzi, 1978:52). Valle and Halling (1989:9) suggest the above are the beginning and ending points of understanding and the foundation upon which existential-phenomenological thought is built. Entrikin (1976:623) defines existential phenomenology as a combination of the phenomenological method with the importance of understanding man in his existential world.

Existential phenomenology in particular is conducive to investigating unexplored and misinterpreted mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools because it sees the relationship between the individual and the world as being interdependent and dialogically co-constituted (Merleau-Ponty, 1962:410) meaning that it is through communication that the individual and the world become inextricably and meaningfully united. This approach is not unlike that of Paulo Freire who stated that in conducting research there should be a "fundamental recognition of the people's right to be

the subject of research that is attempting to know them better, not the object of research that specialists do around them” (Freire and Macedo, 1987:46). Existential phenomenological research therefore takes place between core-searchers who communicatively co-create their relationship; thus, existential phenomenology and a feminist research perspective are compatible in the way they conceive the relationship between the subject and object of research, because both assume that the researcher and the researched are interdependently and humanly linked and not individualistically and mechanically separated.

4 DATA COLLECTION FROM A FEMINIST TRANSFORMATION PERSPECTIVE

Fawcett and Kimmel (1999:4-5) note that feminist researchers do not simply collect and analyse data but they also “create knowledge, make social judgments about the applicability of that knowledge, and advocate for social change to benefit women”. In order to collect data that fosters empowerment and emancipation thus promoting social change and social justice for women, in-depth interviews and focus group discussions were identified as the best strategies for collecting qualitative data in this study.

4.1 In-depth interviews

Major distinguishing features of feminist research are the questions asked, the location of the researcher within the questions, and the purpose of the work (Maynard and Purvis, 1995:4). Feminist researchers begin this quest with the rejection of hierarchical relationships, by shifting to allow the development of a closer relation between the interviewer and the respondent, attempting to minimize status difference and doing away with the traditional hierarchical situation in interviewing” (Oakley, 1981:49).

in the event of examining the issues of power and attempting to dispel any and all unequal distributions of power in research, this feminist study opted for unstructured or in-depth interviews which (Stanley and Wise, 1983:137) characterise as providing a greater breadth than other interview methods. Defined as open-ended, the discovery-oriented method aims to obtain detailed information about a topic from a participant, as well as exploring in depth a respondent's point of view, experiences, feelings, and perspectives (Mertens, 1998:321). In-depth interviews are particularly concerned to expose women's hidden experiences from their own standpoint and within the social context which shape those experiences (Reinharz, 1992:48). Thus feminist research helps women find their own voices or rather, to make women's voices audible in order to use them to change their oppressed situation and status. The Vault (1999:56) expresses that women's voices hold meanings worth discovering. Reinharz (1992:19) explains how interviewing is a way in which feminist researchers have attempted to access women's hidden knowledge:

Interviewing offers researchers access to people's ideas, thoughts, and memories in their own words rather than in the words of the researcher. This asset is particularly important for the study of women because in this way learning from women is an antidote to centuries of ignoring women's ideas altogether or having men speak for women.

The implication above is that in-depth interviews in feminist research are a triumph of accumulating women's standpoint as the grounding for research which entails attending to how women construct and articulate their experiences in their own words, mindful of the fact that "the essential meaning of women's meanings can be grasped only by listening to the women themselves" (Kasper, 1994:266). The prime means of accessing and subsequently understanding phenomenon is through descriptions of it in the person's own words and

allowing a woman to be interviewed by a woman, which Reinharz (1992:23) notes is better, because men do not share the same experiences of being in the world as women do.

Montana and Frey (2000:668) suggest that in-depth interviews are essential for feminist research because:

They shift the task of giving meaning and interpreting the social world from the researcher to the participants and so give value to the voices and subjectivities of women.

Feminists view it as a potentially empowering method, since it offers the opportunity to engage in a more equitable research relationship because it involves face-to-face contact and interaction between the researcher and participants and may allow for reciprocity and rapport between the two.

It has been seen as useful for research which aims to empower, because it is a responsive and flexible method which allows the researcher the opportunity to contextualise approaches to address particular situations or individuals.

Turns (2000:582-583) on the other hand, state the following advantages and disadvantages of in-depth interviews as a data collection technique:

Depth: In-depth interviews can uncover valuable insights and enable the finding out of the real story from the people who know it best.

Disclosure: Respondents are more likely to open up on a one-on-one basis.

Quality of data: Skilled interviewers are able to respond to questions and probe for greater detail. Questions can be added or altered in real-time if needed.

Short timelines: Data can be collected faster than other research methods -usually within a few weeks;

Every effort should be made to design a data collection effort, create instruments, and conduct interviews to allow for minimal bias.

Given the length of each interview and the associated costs, the number of in-depth interviews to be completed within a research project will be small. Although there is no standard number of interviews, a total of between 10 and 15 interviews would not be uncommon.

Interviews can be a time-intensive evaluation activity because of the time it takes to conduct interviews, transcribe them and analyse the results. Qualitative data can therefore be ambiguous, resulting in a more difficult analysis, particularly for less experienced analysts.

The interviewer has the responsibility to ensure that the participants are comfortable and appear interested in what they are saying. The interviewer should avoid 'yes' or 'no' answers to questions, use appropriate body language and keep their personal opinions in check.

depth interviews are nevertheless valuable, because they occur with one individual at a time, providing a more involving experience, deeply exploring the participant's point of view, feelings and perspectives and in this sense, yield richer information.

1.2 Focus group discussions

Kitzinger (1994:103) defines a focus group as a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research. Therefore focus groups involve the "explicit use of group interaction to produce research data" (Kitzinger, 1994:103). Moreover, the "hallmark of the focus group is the explicit use of group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible

without the interaction found in a group" (Morgan, 1988:12). This active participation empowers group members to feel that their views and experiences are valued. Focus groups are therefore a form of group interviewing that relies not on a question-and-answer format of interview, but on the interaction within the group. Kitzinger (1994:113) describes this form of interaction as an opportunity for participants to not simply agree with one another but rather, misunderstand, question, try to persuade one another of the justice of their own point of view and sometimes vehemently disagree. This interactive aspect of focus group discussions thus provides an opportunity for people to explore different points of view, and formulate and consider their own ideas and understandings.

Feminist qualitative researchers are often drawn to focus group methods because they believe that if feminist research is to be change-oriented, it must not only offer critique of aspects of society, but also help women to collectively change their consciousness by fostering collective identities and solidarities (Montell, 1999:54). The possibility of a dialogue among female education managers in a focus group discussion, thus provides a feminist researcher with the opportunity of conducting research that is consciousness raising and potentially empowering, as each female education manager will not only tell her own story, but will have the opportunity to question and challenge the other participants in an effort to gain understanding. The implication here is that focus group discussions not only go beyond uncovering already existing meanings produced by already constituted subjectivities, but go on to bring into being new meanings and new subjectivities. In this way, participants gain access to new information, new ways of thinking, such that they have the right to speak and the authority to act; simply put, a sense of emancipation is fostered (Pini 2002:342). Mies (1983:128) believes that a series of focus group discussions helps women overcome their structural isolation and to understand that their individual sufferings have social causes.

regardless of the fact that focus group discussions are valuable research tools which offer a number of advantages within social research, Stewart and Shamdasani (1990:16) argue that they are not a panacea for all research needs and thus, have their limitations. In spite of their empowerment possibilities, Goss and Leinbach (1996:122) contend that an unequal power relationship remains in focus group methods, because the researcher initiates the procedure, selects the participants and sets the agenda to some extent, with the researcher being ultimately responsible for the analysis and interpretation of data. In other words, focus group participants' voices do not speak for themselves. Carey (1994:236) adds that a major pitfall of the focus group technique is the potential impact of censoring and conforming; the processes that occur when a person adjusts his or her own behaviour in response to personal impressions of the group members and in relation to his or her own needs and story. Additionally, Carey (1994:236) explains that while conforming involves a person's selecting to tailor his/her contributions to be in line with the perceptions of group members and/or the leader, censoring on the other hand, comprises a person's withholding potential contributions, often due to a lack of trust of in the leader, or in other members, or in the future use of the data. Therefore, not only is possible that members could conform or censor their input to be socially acceptable, but also they may actually mentally reconstruct or cognitively reframe their experiences on the basis of the ongoing dialogue (Carey, 1994:236). Carey (1994:238) further notes a particular problem of the focus group discussion as the fact that the technique is not consensus-building. Carey (1994:238) maintains that the tendency toward consensus is particularly a problem when a member has not yet formed an opinion and his or her contributions are therefore likely to be affected by the information in the group discussion. This 'bandwagon' effect lessens the meaningfulness of the data.

Overall, as Bloor, Frankland, Thomas and Robson (2001:17) note: "Focus groups provide a valuable resource for documenting the complex and varying processes through which group norms and meanings are shaped, elaborated and applied." This re-emphasises that interactions between focus group participants make this research technique an exciting and valuable tool for clarification purposes and to enrich understandings of participants' experiences and meanings.

5 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The logic of a phenomenological study is to collect in-depth data to describe the meaning of a phenomenon for a small number of individuals who have experienced with it (Creswell and Clark, 2007:131). In other words, the goal is not necessarily to make generalisations, but to collect extensive detail and to look at a process or the meanings individuals attribute to their given social situation (Neuman, 2000:198). This calls for purposive sampling procedures that allow the researcher to scrutinise and garner full and rich descriptions of the lived experiences by sampling those participants that offer, "useful manifestations of the phenomenon of interest" (Patton, 2002:40). Criteria and homogeneous samples were used for in-depth interviews and focus group discussions, respectively.

5.1 Participants' recruitment

On the basis of Mertens's (1998:254) recommendation that researchers within the emancipatory paradigm should choose a sampling approach with the focus on representing populations that have traditionally been under-represented in research, criteria and homogeneous samples of female principals were selected for this investigation. The intention is that the phenomenon under study is described and revealed by participants who

possess special knowledge, status, or communicative skills and are willing to share that knowledge and skills with the researcher.

Participants from Leribe, Maseru, Mafeteng and Mhaleshoek were telephonically approached for a brief telephone interview for screening purposes, presenting mature and meaningful explication of the category of information being requested and the reasons for seeking such information. A compilation of the relevant details of the screened female education managers was drawn and thoroughly evaluated to determine the suitability of the males to participate in the in-depth interviews. These were female education managers at the principal level. Nine participants were selected to participate in the in-depth interviews on the basis that they could better articulate their conscious experiences. Attributable to the fact that a change in the status quo for female education managers in Lesotho is dependent largely on the contributions of the MOET, a body mandated to develop and implement policies for the development of a productive and quality human resource base through education and training, one participant from the senior inspectorate for secondary schools within the MOET was invited to also participate in the interviews. Thus, there were ten participants in total for the in-depth interviews.

Similar to in-depth interviews, focus group discussions participants were telephonically approached for a brief telephone interview for screening purposes in order to determine their suitability to participation in the focus group discussion. Mertens (1998:262) recommends focus group discussions for homogeneous samples to describe the experiences of sub-groups of people who share similar characteristics. Concurring with this belief, Neuman (2000:274) highlights that homogeneity in groups reduces monopoly by the dominant group and reduces conflict. As a result, twenty-one female education managers at Head of

department (HoD) level in different schools were telephonically invited to participate in focus group discussions to be formed from three groups of seven members each. Neuman (2000:274) recommends that a minimum of six participants should form a group in a focus group discussion. These ranges of focus groups with similar characteristics were assembled, thus ensuring homogeneity within the group and heterogeneity between them.

5.2 Data gathering

5.2.1 In-depth interviews

Lincoln and Guba (1985:270) recommend that interviewees should be briefed with respect to the nature and purpose of the interview as part of the informed consent procedures. As a result, when making appointments with the participants, the researcher briefed the participants about the purpose of the study, the possible duration of the interview and a choice of where the participant would like to be interviewed. Interviews were held according to the choice of the participants in terms of date, time and place.

Feminist qualitative interviewing practices require an open, trusting, and often long-term relationship between the interviewer and the participants. The purpose of such a relationship is clearly articulated in the conclusion of Andrea Fontana and James Frey chapter *The Interview: From structured questions to negotiated text*, in which Fontana and Frey (2000:668) simply state "to learn about people we must treat them as people, and they will work with us to create accounts of their lives". Therefore, for each interview, the researcher introduced herself in a friendly yet professional way, spelling out the purpose of the interview without giving too much information that could influence the views of the participants and lead to bias on the part of the participants.

The main purpose of the interviews was the acquisition of information pertaining to female education managers mentoring experiences with the focus on consciousness-raising and female emancipation. In addition, it was also appropriate to obtain information from the policy-making body within the MOET in terms of the development of female education managers in Lesotho, particularly through mentorship. In other words, the study also valued the Ministry's views, feelings and opinions about female manager mentorship. The acquisition of information was done in a manner that ensured that participants were not treated as research objects, because according to Stanley and Wise (1993:168), it is "morally unjustifiable."

Hertens (1998:268) recommend that interviews should begin with informed consent and the signing of a consent form (refer to Addendum C). Consequently, prior to commencing the interview, each participant was issued with consent form to read and sign, thereby granting permission to the researcher to conduct and record the interview. This implies that the researcher was allowed to quote parts of the interview, use the data for the data report and interpret the material in the light of the rest of the research. The researcher gave the assurance that what was said in the interview would be treated confidentially. The interviewer handed a copy of the agenda of questions to each participant and began the interview. Each interview lasted approximately forty-five minutes. The qualitative interviewer guided the interview session, always keeping to the agenda of questions and seeking to preserve an easy, friendly, yet professional atmosphere.

Data in qualitative research are present in a vast variety of forms such as field notes, observations, conversations and interviews. In this qualitative study therefore, unstructured and semi-structured open-ended interviews were the dominant strategies used in data

collection, since they are widely used methods in feminist research to "convey a deeper feeling or more emotional closeness to the persons studied" (Jayaratne, 1983:145). Described as a social interaction, an unstructured interview was employed to particularly obtain research-relevant information (Berg, 1995:29). A broad opening prompt was presented to female education managers: "Tell me as much as you are comfortable sharing with me, your mentoring experiences as a female principal." What are the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the endeavour?" This was done to elicit stories, feelings and memories of the females mentoring experiences.

A series of follow-up prompts or probing questions to frame or focus the interview conversation was also prepared in advance. However, the wording of the questions often changed to reflect the story and experience of the participant being interviewed. The interviewer frequently asked cross-referencing questions in order to make sure that the interviewee's understanding of what was said was the intended meaning, to check that aspects of the story were clear, to ensure rigour in interviewing and for clarification of experiences narrated. Following data the collection, the preliminary findings were reported back to the respondents for their critical comments on the findings, with the critiques being incorporated into the findings.

Listed below are the probing questions for the in-depth interviews:

How did you succeed in entering your current management position?

Would you please share with me how you were developed to perform the responsibilities of a principal?

Thinking back over all the years that you have been a principal, please share with me the most challenging experiences you had as a principal.

Would you please share with me the other things that gave life to your career?

What is your dream for female managers in the country?

Would you please share with me how you are using the experience that you have accumulated over the years to assist teachers in your school.

The following open-ended questions were formulated and presented to the MOET participants:

It is interesting to note lately, that females are accessing principal positions in astounding numbers, despite the previous male dominance of these positions. Would you please share with me what the Ministry is doing, to assist females in particular, to adjust to their principal positions?

The Lesotho Education Sector Strategic Plan (2005-2015) through the MOET has clearly stated that the government of Lesotho, through the MOET, has envisaged reviewing and reforming the education act to make it gender responsive to appropriately benefit both women and men, instituting Affirmative Action to ensure that more women are elevated to senior management positions in the entire education system. What have been the progress of the review and the reform of the act so far?

The interviews were held in the interviewees' offices and this helped to make participants comfortable. The interviews began with a warm-up exercise with the interviewees where they were asked some biographical data, such as their teaching experience and the period that they have been principals. This conversational approach created a relaxed, friendly, informal and hence conducive atmosphere of trust and openness that ensured the participants' cooperation and allowed them to show spontaneity and rapport with the researcher.

As the interview proceeded, the researcher decided on when to probe, motivating the participants to respond and stimulating them through probing and directing them to the research topic. Questions became more and more specific as the interview continued and the interviewer began to sense what was more relevant concerning the information the participant was providing. The researcher asked probing questions in a friendly, reassuring and non-threatening manner, making it clear that although a given response was acceptable, further information was required. Participants were assured that there are no right or wrong answers; an honest opinion and information was required; therefore, no input was rejected. To prevent data bias, no value judgments were made by the researcher during probing and the researcher asked open-ended questions. Interviewees were asked for clarification and more information in a casual way, with the interviewer sometimes giving a reflective summary of the ideas, opinions and feelings expressed during the interview. This was done to ensure that the interviewees had been correctly understood.

Interviews were ended with an open-ended question allowing for the informants to share any relevant information or experience that had not been addressed during the interview. As the interviews drew to a close, the interviewer thanked the interviewees for the courtesy of giving her time.

The interviews were tape-recorded according to Patton's (2002:380) idea that voices need to be heard both to facilitate the entire process of note-taking, thereby conserving time and lessening the distraction of handwritten notes, as well as facilitating the process of quoting passages from the interview. It was essential to be mindful of the fact that the power of direct quotations captures vividly what could be expressed dully and less economically in the researcher's own words.

Following the interview, the participants were formally debriefed and thanked for their participation. There were numerous comments from the participants' at the closure of the interview. The following were some of the comments: "I appreciate this opportunity where one gets to share one's experiences as a female principal; perhaps this is the beginning of better things for female principals in this country". "The only reason I agreed to do this interview is because its focus is on female principals' mentorship, which captured my attention". These comments were encouraging to the researcher that females appreciate the relevance of the study to their particular situations.

5.2.2 Focus group discussions

Following the recruitment of participants, data gathering was conducted within a feminist qualitative research paradigm. The researcher issued consent forms to participants for completion before the questioning began (refer to Addendum C). Consent forms were then collected and reviewed for completeness. Employing a prepared script (refer to Addendum), the researcher welcomed participants and introduced herself, reminding participants of the purpose of the focus group discussion, as well as laying down the ground rules. Having dealt with the necessary introductory phase, the researcher then guided the participants into the questioning.

Female HoDs were guided into the following questions:

Would you share with us how female managers contribute to assisting particularly other females, to access management positions and adjust in these positions?

What opportunities do female education managers make available to other female educators to experiment with, in order to strengthen their leadership skills?

With the experience you have, how do female education managers assist in the provision of necessary information, knowledge and resources to broaden other female educators' perspectives?

What else would you like female managers to do to improve mentorship in schools?

The deliberations were tape recorded with the permission of the participants. The moderator encouraged the exploration of a topic, introducing new topics, keeping the discussion on track, encouraging agreement and disagreement, curbing talkative group members and encouraging quiet participants. Concluding the focus group discussion, the moderator reviewed the key points of the discussion, providing a sense of completion and allowing participants to clarify and correct the summary. The moderator ended the focus group discussion by verbally thanking participants for taking the time to attend and for their contributions.

6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

King (1992:302) concurs with the general agreement that all research studies should be open to critique and evaluation, stating that evaluation is an essential pre-requisite of the application of the findings and is centred on the assessment of reliability and validity. According to Hammersley (1992:69) "an account is valid or true if it represents accurately those features of the phenomena that it is intended to describe, explain or theorise". Providing a qualitative perspective on reliability, Hammersley (1992:67) acknowledges the active involvement of the researcher, suggesting that reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions.

enzin and Lincoln (2005a:25) acknowledge that researchers who work within feminist, ethnic, Marxist, cultural studies and queer theory paradigms seek to produce work that is evaluated in terms of their emancipatory implications with accountability criteria of passion, feeling, caring, discourse and personal accountability that determine the evaluative measures to be used. As a result, traditional and relational evaluation criteria will be incorporated to test the 'true value' of the study. Quality measurement concepts of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985:301-320), were employed and the relational evaluation criteria or emancipatory paradigm criteria of positionality or standpoint epistemology, community, voice, critical reflexivity, reciprocity and sharing the perquisites of privilege were used to maximise the quality of the data and consequently the results (Mertens, 1998:185).

6.1 Traditional evaluation criteria

Alternative but matching constructs of traditional evaluation criteria of credibility, transferability, and confirmability as proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985:301-320) were incorporated to test the 'true value' of the study.

6.1.1 Credibility

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985:290) in order to test the true value of the study, the following question needs to be asked "How can an inquirer persuade his or her audience (including self) that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of?" In this study therefore, bracketing or suspending belief was adhered to in order to make it possible to focus on the participants' experiences, while allowing them to construct and give meaning to their own realities (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3). Equally, in preparing data and findings, the study was written in a way that made explicit use of participants' language,

allowing for representation in establishing credibility (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3). For example, one participant used the sentence: "I messed up a lot when I first became the principal" and the participant's words have been used accordingly with those of other participants.

According to Smaling (1992:317), credibility in qualitative research can be ensured by preparing a comprehensive register of data, notes of relevant events and the state of affairs. These notes should be studied on a regular basis in order to establish categories and their importance to the research study. The researcher therefore spent some time writing extensive field notes, which were also used as a measure of triangulation. Paying attention to triangulation validity, the researcher strengthened evidence through the use of multiple data sources, such as interviews, a recording machine, multiple informants and multiple methods, such as focus group discussions with in-depth interviews (c.f. 4.6.1 and 4.6.2).

The study is organised in such a manner that the verbatim and edited narratives are made available for review and scrutiny so that analyses and interpretations can be tested for adequacy against the raw data (c.f. 4.8.1, 4.8.2 and 4.8.3), thereby responding to referential adequacy. Creswell (1998:202-203) considers member checks to be the most critical techniques for establishing credibility. For this study therefore, information received from the participants was restated, summarised and paraphrased during the interview to ensure that what was heard or written down was in fact correct (c.f. 4.6.2.1) and (c.f. 4.6.2.2). Secondly, following the data collection, the preliminary findings were reported back to the respondents and their critical commentary on the findings and the critiques were incorporated into the findings (c.f. 4.6.2.1), thereby granting authority to the participants' perspectives and, in the process, managing the threat of bias (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993:391-392). The two forms of member checking added accuracy and richness to the final report of this study.

6.1.2 Transferability

Smaling (1992:318) purport that transferability is a process in which the researcher lays out the findings in a manner that other researchers will be able to determine their usefulness in similar situations and with similar research questions or practice. Smaling (1992:318) indicates that transferability parallels external validity in quantitative research. To enhance transferability therefore, the study outlined an accurate description of the research process, reasons for the choices of methods, the circumstances under which and the context in which the research was conducted for an exposition of a 'thick description' of the research situation and context (Smaling 1992:318). This will assist other researchers to ascertain whether and to what extent the research results may be applied to other situations or individuals (c.f. 4.4)

6.1.3 Dependability

Dependability involves determining whether the process of the study is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 278). Dependability determines the acceptability of the process of inquiry. Therefore, for this study, an audit trail was used to meet these conditions by making and keeping a record of raw data, data reduction and reconstruction, synthesis products and subsequent analysis.

6.1.4 Confirmability

To ensure confirmability, audiotapes, a field diary, written field notes, process and personal notes and transcriptions of in-depth interviews and focus group interviews were kept as an audit trail (c.f. 4.6.1). The researcher undertook transcriptions of in-depth interviews and focus group discussions verbatim after each interview session, ensuring that the

Contextualised voices of respondents are to a large extent, retained in the transcriptions for data accuracy purposes (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3). The data reports were sent to the respondents to check if they were a true reflection of the interview (c.f. 4.6.2.1).

6.2 Relational evaluation criteria or emancipatory paradigm criteria

iii) Reciprocity

According to Lather (1991:57), reciprocity suggests a “give and take, a mutual negotiation of meaning and power”. In order to maximise reciprocity in this study, the researcher ensured that the participant-researcher relationships was characterised by a deep sense of trust, safety, caring and mutuality which Brush (1990:60) argues is the most important factor in producing accurate data on women. The researcher’s role included social behaviours such as chatting, making participants feel comfortable, a non-judgmental disposition and building a shared humanity as the basis of understanding (c.f. 4.6.2.1). In addition, the researcher engaged telephonically with the participants prior to and after the interview session, in the process, building trust with the participants (c.f. 4.6.1). For example, the researcher explicitly informed the participants that they were the experts and she would describe their experiences only as they presented them, assuring them of confidentiality and anonymity, as well as indicating that the interview data, audiotapes, and transcriptions would be kept in a secure, locked location (4.6.2.1).

iv) Attention to voice

The researcher must seek out those who are silent and must involve those who are marginalised,” (Mertens 1998:186). This study therefore endeavoured to ‘give voice’ to

women adhering to the feminist principles of ensuring that the active voices of women participants are heard in the research account in order to enhance construct validity.

) Sharing perquisites of privilege

Throughout the phenomenological investigations the researcher strove to balance the participant-researcher relationship and in the final dedication session of the project, the researcher formally thanked the participants for their contributions (4.6.2.1 and 4.6.2.2).

Merriam (1991:69) summarises the necessity for measures of reliability and validity by pointing out that "if we do not develop such procedures, our theory building will suffer from a failure to protect our work from our own passions and limitations".

7 DATA ANALYSIS – THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

The study utilised existential phenomenological strategies developed by Giorgi (1985) to analyse the qualitative data because the nature of the research lent itself to Giorgi's (1985) approach to phenomenological analysis and gathering both the thematic and structural understanding of the experience or the phenomenon. Giorgi (1985:11) gives the following four steps in doing a protocol analysis:

1) open reading of all data in order to get a sense of the whole;

2) division into meaning units analysis within a varying perspective;

3) transformations of the subjects' everyday expressions into several distinct varying perspectives; and

step four is divided into:

- a) synthesis of transformed meaning units into consistent statements or themes; and
- b) consistent description of all material into a general structure.

7.1 Open reading of all data in order to get a sense of the whole

Doing a protocol analysis using the existential phenomenological approach, Giorgi (1975:87) suggests that a researcher engages in a familiarisation stage in order to get the sense of the whole, a gestalt. Therefore, in this stage, the interview tapes were listened to over and over again after each interview, as they are a means that provides an important data source (Patton, 2002:380). To facilitate the analysis of all recorded data, all the recorded interviews were transcribed after each interview reflecting in addition, the interaction between the researcher and the participants. They were then typed out word-for-word by the researcher in order to ensure a high degree of accuracy and freedom from bias. These transcriptions which Miles and Huberman (1994:51) view as important in ensuring reliability and validity, were read noting the significant non-verbal and para-linguistic communications enabling the researcher to review the errors and make corrections where necessary. This was done in accordance with Giorgi's (1985:48) affirmation that "Whatever presents itself to consciousness should be taken precisely with the meaning with which it presents itself and one should refrain from affirming that it is what it presents itself to be". In other words, this first reading does not suggest that the researcher should make an interpretation of the participant's experience. In Giorgi's (1985:11) words: "The general sense grasped after the reading of the text is not interrogated nor made explicit in any way. Primarily it serves as a ground for the next step".

7.2 Division into meaning units analysis within a varying perspective

Once the researcher had read the protocol and had a sense of the whole, she divided the protocol or the description into what (Polkinghorne, 1989:53) calls meaning units. The task in this step was to discriminate the different units or blocks that expresses a self-contained

meaning. According to Polkinghorne (1989:54), these divisions are those that naturally appear in the text, rather than those imposed by the expectations of the researcher's theoretical position. As the researcher divides the protocol into meaning units, she has to bear in mind the sense of the whole of the participant's description in order not to impose meaning not expressed by the participant. This means that the different meaning units are not arbitrarily imposed but are established according to the general meaning that the participant expresses in the description (see Addendum D).

7.3 Transformations of the subject's everyday expressions into several distinct varying perspectives

The next step is the transformation of the meaning units into a more psychological language. Polkinghorne (1989:54) shows that this transformation originally consists of two steps. Firstly, the researcher has to state in his or her own language and as simply as possible, the meaning that dominates each meaning unit. This first transformation from the participant's words to the researcher's words should still retain the participant's context in which her or his experience has occurred. Later, the researcher interrogates each meaning unit in light of the topic under study. As Polkinghorne (1989:54) says: "The question of study is put to each meaning unit and its accompanying first transformation". In this stage, Giorgi attempts to use one of the most important concepts of Husserl's phenomenology, the imaginative variation. According to Giorgi (1985:17), the intent of the method is to arrive at the general category by going through the concrete expressions and not through abstractions or formalisations which are selective according to the criteria accepted. By using the imaginative variation, the researcher begins to follow the concrete experience of the participant and reflect on the different possibilities of the meaning in his/her experiences. The researcher tries to reach the

essential and unchangeable meaning of the participant's experience at the same time that he/she discards those meanings that are not essential for the participants in his/her concrete experience and situation.

7.4 Synthesis of transformed meaning units into consistent statements or themes and consistent description of all material into a general structure

The next step refers to the synthesis and integration of the insights made by the researcher about the transformed meaning units of each protocol in order to make a final consistent description of the psychological structure under study (Giorgi, 1985:19). According to Giorgi (1985:10), the researcher synthesises all of the transformed meaning units into consistent statements regarding the subject's experience which is usually referred to as the structure of the experience and can be expressed at a number of levels. Giorgi (1985:19-20) provides the situated structure (the specific description), which is focused on the concreteness of the situation in which the phenomenon takes place. This means that the researcher synthesises the meaning units of each description or protocol in order to make a descriptive statement of the particular and specific characteristics of every subject. Completing these specific or situated descriptions of each protocol, the researcher makes a general structure of each of them, in which he/she tries to show the most general and essential meaning of the phenomenon under study. This general structure or description is focused on attending to the aspects of the protocol that transcend a specific situation, in order to find a general or universal validity. At this point, the researcher is not focused on the particulars of the specific situation of the protocol, as he/she was in the situated or specific situation description, but he/she is trying to make a general statement about the essential and invariant aspects of the participant's experiences that are trans-situational. Von Eckartsberg (1998:42) explains that

Merriam brings in another important distinction into the methodology by identifying the situated structure and the general structure. He works with the individual experiences and protocols until he reaches the level of articulation of the situated structure. Only then, does he/she universalise or 'essentialise'; that is, transcend the existentially situated specificity in favour of an essential trans-situational understanding.

Finally, once the researcher has made a general description of the phenomenon under study, he/she has to make a single general analysis in which he/she integrates and synthesises the transformed meaning units from all the protocols of the study in order to describe what all the descriptions have in common. Polkinghorne (1989:55) comments that for the final step, the term 'situated' can be dropped if the participant's insights and experiences can be subsumed in one typology. The researcher then tries to universalise the findings of the study by focusing on the essential aspects and characteristics of the studied phenomenon. It is also important in this step to bear in mind the intentionality and the sense of the whole of the participant's experiences in order to find a coherent and final identification of the essences of the phenomenon. The researcher can now present the findings to the general public, providing the descriptions, the analysis meaning units and data analysis.

3 DATA AND RESULTS OF THE QUALITATIVE INVESTIGATION

This section presents the findings from the in-depth interviews and the focus group discussions.

3.1 In-depth interviews

In descriptive research it is important that readers see the raw data as well as the processed data or results. Quite often the raw data is too voluminous to put into the body of a report

Patton, 2002:432). As a result, in this study a participant portrait of each description of a mentoring experience was produced for all the ten participants. These were derived and condensed from the transcriptions with the aim of reducing the entire story to the important themes and key aspects of the experience making every effort to stay faithful to participants' descriptions. The portraits generated further insights into the essential structural components of the mentoring experiences. In addition to developing participants' portraits, thematic and illustrative quotations were extracted from the transcripts to reveal the many expressions of the mentoring experiences, uncover themes and hence organize a rich evocative structural description of the phenomenon (Patton, 2002:438).

Below is a presentation of the accounts of the participants' portrayals of the mentoring experiences. In order to maximise confidentiality and anonymity, pseudonyms were selected.

Lineo

Lineo is the education manager between the ages of sixty and above. She says she has a B.A. Ed degree and was an assistant teacher in another school when she was appointed by the board of the school which she happened to be a member of at the time to become the principal. She has been a principal for more than twelve years now and she has a female deputy, one female HoD and three male HoDs. Lineo was not developed in any way when she got the position except for the MOET management and leadership training which came a year or two later. Nonetheless, she has had opportunities to meet and network with other principals from overseas where the school is affiliated to, to share her experiences and to learn from them. At the present moment, Lineo is about to retire but she does not want to leave the school as yet. She feels the need to work towards her dream of seeing the school offer A-levels and developing more and more. She wants to contribute to that by mentoring

her successor. Lineo says that her successor is definitely a woman who is presently her deputy. She says she would like to be in the school for a little longer not because she does not trust her successor but because she believes that she will need her assistance more as a principal than now as a deputy. Lineo says that she works harmoniously with her deputy and she believes that her deputy will do a remarkable job as a principal.

Thuto

Thuto is the education manager between the ages of sixty and above who has a BA Ed degree. She mentions that she was a deputy in the same school for a year and after a year she was appointed by the board of the school to become the acting principal for the school. She has been a principal in the school for eighteen years. She says she has a female deputy and all female HoDs. Thuto says that her appointment was a big challenge in the school because as a deputy principal, she did not have the opportunity to work hand in hand with the former principal such as sharing information about the running of the school. As a result, she did not have the opportunity to practice with leadership skills. She explains that the principal of the school left unceremoniously and blamed her for his dismissal and started harassing her. She further mentions that her other challenges included the fact that as the acting principal, teachers did not believe in her, knowing her weaknesses perhaps and therefore did not trust that she could handle the principal's responsibilities. And in the absence of any training at the time, Thuto felt very helpless and insufficient for the position.

Thuto did not receive any mentorship or training of any kind pertaining to her role as a principal until a year later when she attended the MOET principal's workshop on management and leadership training after encountering too many challenges in her career. Thuto says that females' teachers in this school have been her greatest strength helping her

to believe in herself and restoring her faith that she is the right person for the job. Thuto says she would also attribute her support to the two associations that she is a member of; the Lesotho Principals Association (LPA) and the African Principals Association (APA) where principals from the African continent meet and share principal's experiences together. She says that being a member in these associations is a very empowering experience because some of the things learnt during these meetings are problems they usually encounter in their schools and have had no solutions.

Thuto says that females are ruling this world especially Lesotho. She explains that a proper search will reveal that more females are getting into big positions such as ministerial positions, public secretaries, director positions and even the police commissioner in the country is a female now and this is really history in Lesotho. Thuto believes that even with the job of a principal, females need to be trained, guided and empowered by all means possible in order to handle the responsibilities of a principal before they get into those positions. She personally would have loved to be trained first before becoming a principal but fortunately the education system did not operate in that way. She however hopes that someday the ministry can devise means to capacitate principals with necessary skills before they get into the duties of a principal.

Mpho

Mpho is the education manager between the ages of sixty and above who holds a BA Education degree. She says that she started her principal career in primary schools but for the position she presently holds, she applied for it and was successful during the interviews and has been a principal for twelve years now. Mpho has a female deputy principal and four HoDs; one male and three females.

Mpho never received training or mentorship of any kind and although she was a principal in primary schools she says she messed up a lot when she started her career in high schools. She further explains that when she was already messing up two years later the MOET organized a workshop for principals pertaining to management and leadership issues which in her opinion were supposed to have come much earlier. Mpho has had other training opportunities for principals and she feels now that she can be a better mentor for upcoming principals especially females to make them aware of the challenges of the principal's job to help them avoid the mistakes that she personally made.

Mpho says that her dream is to see more females aspiring for the management positions not just to be subject teachers. She explains that experience has taught her better that females are very capable of handling management responsibilities. She gave examples of developments made in all the schools that are managed by females. She draws her strength from these women, sometimes she calls them if there is anything she feels she cannot handle on her own. Mpho says that she believes so much in females but she recommends that females be trained before becoming managers.

Naleli

Naleli is the education manager between the ages of sixty and above and holds a Masters degree in Education. She says that she started her career as a principal in primary schools and she moved to become a high school principal through the appointment of the church secretariat. She says she has been a high school principal for about twenty one years now and for her current position where she has spent only a year, she was taken out of her retirement leave to become the principal of the school. Naleli has a female deputy principal and all female HoDs.

aleli says that she has never been trained for her position but she has always been motivated by other females' experiences. She explains that seeing them in leadership positions and excelling in those positions, she has always wanted to become like them. Hence, the minute she got the chance to become the principal she started modelling those female leaders and practicing every other style they exerted.

aleli believes that women are the best candidates for the principal positions in Lesotho in terms of grooming the learners in totality, not just concentrating on the academic side of the learners. She says that females are capable of instilling discipline in the learners, inculcating cleanliness in them and generally inspiring learners to be better people in the future. She explains that it is the reason why their school has only female management team. However, she recommends that females be mentored and trained in their management roles.

Tholoana

Tholoana is the education manager between the ages of fifty and fifty nine and holds an honours degree in Education. She says that she was appointed by the board to act as a principal of the school three months after she got her teaching job. She says that she was a very young teacher by then but she believes that she was entrusted with the duties of the principal at that time probably because of her contributions in the discipline of learners in the school at the time when everybody else had lost hope. She explains that at that time no one wanted to be the principal of the school because of the discipline problem the school was facing. However, Tholoana says that her appointment then lasted for a year and a year later the founders of the school from overseas brought someone from overseas to become the principal of the school. She explains again that she was supposed to be the deputy during the appointment of this new principal but to her surprise they worked as two principals, the

officially appointed principal literally mentoring her. She says that she had an empowering experience during this time and she learned a lot of skills from this principal especially teamwork. She explains that they made decisions together and she was aware of everything happening around the school. She mentions that she practiced much with leadership skills at this time. However, a year later, the principal left and a new principal was appointed after Tholoana refused the offer. Tholoana says that she was now the deputy principal but this time it was different, the principal of the school did not make use of her at all as a deputy whether he would work issues with other male teachers he trusted and Tholoana would just show the results like any other teacher in the school. Tholoana says she had a very disappointing experience with her principal after all the encounters she had in the previous two years. Tholoana says that she had no opportunities to practice with leadership skills at this time. Nonetheless, she explains that the principal left two years later and this time she agreed to the board's offer to become the principal of the school. As a principal, Tholoana says that she worked with many male teachers who had been teachers for a long time and these men provided her with the most powerful support. Tholoana has been a principal for sixteen years now.

Tholoana says that being a member of principals association helped her to adjust in her position as a principal because it assisted her to learn through other principals' experiences. Nonetheless, she explains that at the present moment principals associations do not last in the country no matter how applicable they are because men who are predominantly members and leaders in these associations are not ready for a change of behaviour in terms of managing schools. She believes that if more females could become principals then there would be many schools which are performing well academically and also have quality discipline of learners and teachers. Tholoana gave examples of the schools managed by

females to illustrate the performance of those schools as compared to the other schools and to show that the country need to train more females for the principal's position to be more productive. Tholoana goes on to explain that she personally trust working with women such that she went out of way to 'steal' the woman she is working with as her deputy from another school because she wanted to be supported by a woman. Nonetheless, she explains that all the HoDs in the school are males because they are more senior than their female counterparts in the school.

Palesa

Palesa is the education manager between the ages of fifty and fifty nine and holds a Masters degree in Education. She says that she was approached by the chairman of the board as a teacher in another school to become the principal of this school. She explains that at that time she was neither the principal nor an appointed head of department. However, she had voluntarily acted as a subject head assisting new teachers in handling of their subject. She says that she agreed to be the principal of the school and she has been the principal for twelve years now.

Palesa says that she had a number of challenges as a beginning principal. Firstly, she was not given a chance to become the principal of the school because the board was literally running the school on daily basis, making decisions which were supposed to be made by her as the principal of the school, supervising teachers, handling school finances such as depositing collected school fees to the bank and purchasing items for the school and in worst cases getting involved in teachers personal affairs. Palesa says that the chairman of the board was acting as the principal of the school and he kept reminding her that her duties are to teach and to ensure that other teachers are also teaching. She says that she used to only

write school requisitions and give them to the chairman of the board who would do the purchasing for the school where in most cases the purchased items would not even be the property of the school though the money used would be the school's money. Palesa says that as a principal she felt obstructed in her job, she says she never felt principal enough and she was always confused on what her responsibilities were due to the over involvement of some members of the board especially the chairman. She explains that she felt undermined and still feels that this was happening because of her female status.

She explains that she encounters challenges now mostly involving her female staff members. She says that they are not a big problem but they are a problem because they like making noise, complaining about a lot of things. However, she explains further that she believes that she does not encounter these challenges because she is a female principal but perhaps it is because women like making noise. Palesa mentions that in most cases, female teachers complain a lot about some of the decisions she makes without consulting them. She says that although they do not have the strength to confront her she will always learn from their reactions that they are not happy about something. Palesa says that she sometimes makes decisions without their input, she says that in other occasions she does not even involve her deputy who is a female and she does not feel guilty about that. Irrespective of the problems she usually come across with female teachers, Palesa has a strong believe that females are capable of making strong principals because of their strong characters and striving to always be the first. She explains that indeed in their school female teachers score most points in most school activities; academically, debates and sporting activities. She says that female teachers in the school love the challenge that is the reason why the school has a female deputy and more female HoDs, three in number and just one male HoD.

Lipalesa says that she was trained a year later as a principal in a MOET training which gave her directions on what her responsibilities were with respect to school administration and handling of finances. She explains that the MOET also assisted her with its resource personnel who visited the schools enlightening both the deputy and the HoDs. She explains that this assistance and the new school board which is aware of its jurisdiction helped her to become a better principal and she says that she is enjoying her job now.

f) Lipalesa

Lipalesa is the education manager between the ages of fifty and fifty nine who holds an honors degree in Education. She says that she was a head of department and a deputy principal in the same school before her appointment as the principal of the school. She has been a principal for four years now. She says that the only training she received for her position is the MOET leadership and administration training which was a two to three hours training that she never got the chance to repeat after that first experience. Lipalesa says she is learning lately that a principal does not get to attend the training many times as invitations are only sent to new principals.

Lipalesa explains that the most challenging moments in her career are handling male teachers who are constantly challenging her authority, harassing and belittling her as well as skipping classes. Because of the behaviour of male teachers in this school, Lipalesa explains that she is forced to frequent classes for monitoring and supervision purposes to ensure that teachers go to classes. However, she is happy because she works closely with female staff members who are very supportive most of them. Lipalesa says that she has a female deputy principal and four head of departments who are all females and they work together as a team. She explains that it would have been very difficult to have male teachers

the management of the school because they are always trying to prove that females are wrongly appointed into the positions.

mpalesa says that schools that are managed by females are performing very well in the country today. This proves that females are capable to be in management positions especially principalship. However, she believes that they still need an intensive training and some guidance before occupying those positions so that they will be able to handle magnitudes of challenges that usually arise when one is a principal especially a female principal. For example, she explains that with the challenges posed in the school by male teachers, had she received enough training before occupying this position, with regards to handling different sexes, she might be in a good position to handle some of these challenges posed by males in the schools. She further explains that sometimes, she becomes emotional and act unprofessionally while she is being provoked in the meetings by a teacher trying to raise an issue that was not on the agenda in an attempt to challenge her authority.

i) Sebatatso

Sebatatso is the education manager between the ages of forty and forty nine who holds a masters degree in Humanities. She says that she was an assistant teacher in another school and she applied for the position of a principal and was successful on interviews. Sebatatso says that she has been in-serviced with the MOET training on leadership and management issues once in her four years as a principal which she believes was not enough because it is meant to cover a lot of content in a very short space of time. She says that she did not go through any formal mentorship but after her appointment as a principal she was sharing the office with a primary school principal who had been a principal for a long time in the same school. This principal is the one person that she regards as her mentor because she assisted

er to adjust in her position and to make her aware of a lot of administrative issues that she could have otherwise struggled handling them on her own. Sebatatso says that she has not had a lot of challenges so far except that she has female staff members who gossip a lot about her and other teachers even with the learners and this has been a big challenge for the whole school. Sebatatso says that so far in her career she has enjoyed working with male teachers explaining that although she has not been given deputies and HoDs in the school, she has a male teacher she works closely with. She explains that she did not choose a female teacher for this position because she does not have a female teacher that she can trust for the responsibilities of a deputy. Nonetheless, she says that she trusts females for management positions. Sebatatso explains that it is obvious from the results of the schools managed by females that females are capable as managers with some hard work on their part and intensive leadership training.

Thato

Thato is an education manager between the ages of sixty and above and she holds a masters degree in Education. She says she has been a principal for as long as she can remember and in her twenty six years as a principal she has never applied for the job but she is always appointed. Thato started her career as a primary teacher where she had a very supportive female principal at the time. She says that her principal helped her to experience leadership skills at that early stages of her profession and helped install the love of teaching in her. During that very first year of teaching she mentions that she became in charge of music in the school and other activities and she had a mentor who believed so much in her, constantly reminded her that she is capable of more than just being a primary teacher. She says that she was always encouraged by her principal. She mentions that after

Two years she moved to teach in a high school with her diploma certificate. She explains that at that school she met another principal who was always very supportive. She says that she was also mentored by this principal. Thato says she always had mentors not because there were mentorship programmes around but because of her positive attitude which attracted people to volunteer to mentor her and also because she is a very easy to approach person. She mentions that after two years she was appointed a primary school principal and left the school but she could not stay long as a principal because six months later she left to further her studies. She mentions that upon completion of her degree, she went back to the high school where she taught for two years. She explains that three months later, she was appointed to act as a principal of the school. Thato says that while in her acting position she was understudying the principal who mentored her before, who was leaving the school now. She further explains that this principal guided her for a year and after a year she handled the responsibilities of the principal on her own. She says that the guidance she received helped her to become the confident principal she is now. Thato says that in between her principalship she was appointed a coordinator of the church schools ensuring that female principals in particular are capacitated with necessary skills to become competent in their career. She mentions personally mentoring some principals.

Thato mentions that with the vast experience she has both as a principal and a coordinator, she makes efforts to mentor her teachers and she mentions that she works better with her male teachers than female teachers because male teachers are usually more attentive and obedient while female teachers are always resistant and question every decision that she makes. Nonetheless, she believes that females can make better principals with their otherly advantage over men although they need their confidence to be boosted by given instant feedbacks. Thato says that she has a female deputy and all her HoDs are females.

he encourages all females who would like to be principals to go for it in order to increase the high performing schools in the country.

MOET representative

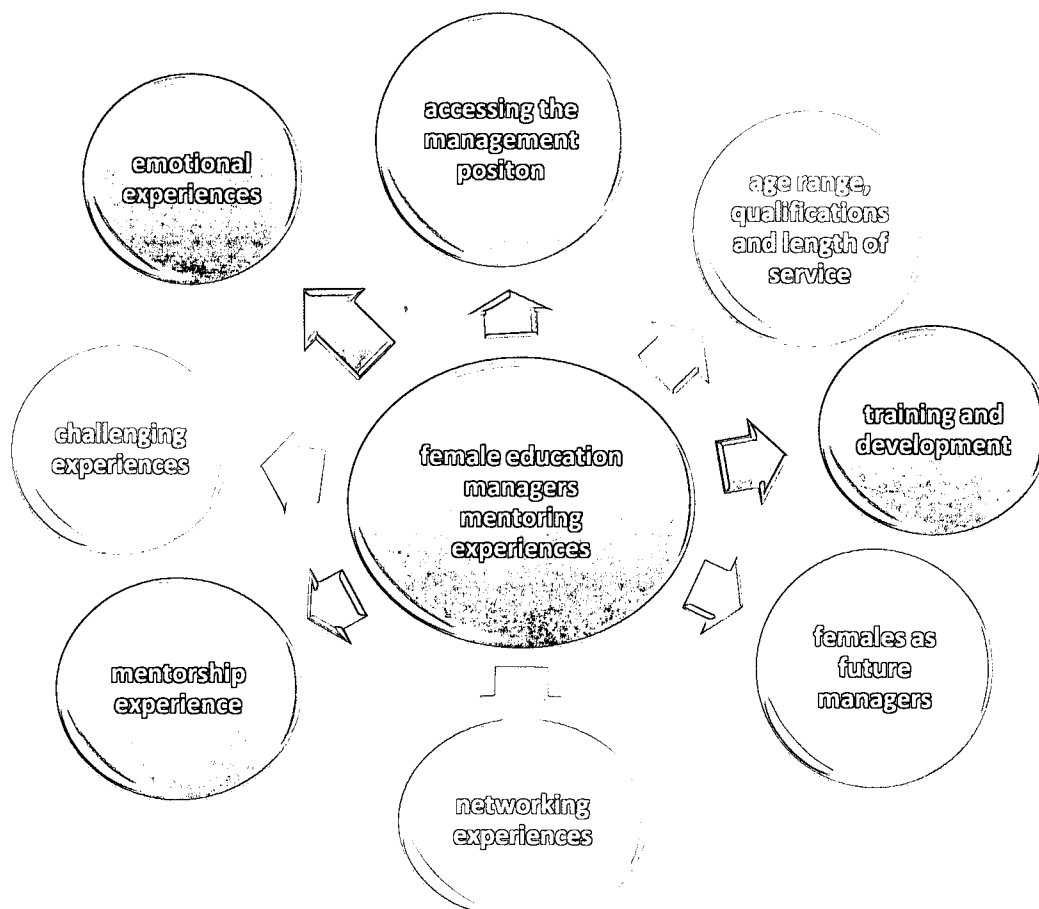
The MOET representative says that there is not much that the ministry is doing to assist principals in their positions and the ministry does not have any programme that specifically focuses on female principals' issues. However, she mentions that schools are the ones responsible to select the candidate they want from a pool of applicants who best fit the criterion which in the Lesotho case should be minimum, someone who holds a degree in education. The representative further explained that with the eleven government schools that have been opened, the ministry is particularly aware that those principals in the government schools need to be in-serviced particularly because most of them have never been in management positions before. The MOET representative mentions that the ministry has not started with the in-service programme for these principals because of lack of funds. The MOET representative says that the ministry has inspections for principals only pertaining to handling finances of the school and other issues that are of concern to that particular school. The representative further explains that the inspectorate assist principals in the smooth running of the schools by carrying inspections in the schools which are in different types, the inspections that focuses on the principals is called management and administration inspection.

The MOET representative mentions that the MOET does not distinguish between females and males, because according to them they are all principals who encounter similar problems such that when the ministry organises workshops, it invites both females and

males without discriminating males from females. As far as the representative knows, the ministry does not have plans to organise any programmes for female principals only.

From the analyses of the females' experiences, the following seven themes were delineated: accessing the principals' position, length of service as a principal, training and development experience, networking experiences, mentorship experiences, challenging experiences, emotional experiences, and the females as future principals in Lesotho secondary schools.

Diagram 4.8.1 below depicts the delineated themes from the qualitative data:



8.2 Themes in the mentoring experiences of female education managers experiences in Lesotho's secondary schools

An approach followed in this study is well documented with transcripts taken from raw data to illustrate and substantiate the assertions made highlighting Patton (2002:47) assertions that examples of raw data within the presentation help to provide an opportunity for the researcher to check the level of validity of research data.

Theme (I): Age range and length of service

One of the most prevalent themes in female education managers mentoring experiences was the age range of the participants and their length of service. From the accounts of the participants, it appears that generally female education managers in Lesotho are over sixty years and have been in their positions for at least ten years. Thato mentioned for example that "I am a principal between the ages of sixty and above and have been a principal for twenty six years". Tholoana mentioned that "I am a principal between the ages of fifty and fifty nine and I have been a principal for sixteen years". On the other hand, Lipalesa indicated that "I am a principal between the ages of forty and forty nine and I have been a principal for four years". It is clear from the participants' accounts that although there are new upcoming female education managers, most female education managers have been in the positions for long time.

Theme (II): Accessing the management position

The other category of the themes, accessing the management position is twofold: some female education managers applied for their jobs while most female education managers were appointed for the management positions. All the female managers were teachers

efore. It becomes comprehensible then that there was a customary practice of appointing education managers than the candidates looking for the positions as opposed to the recent practice also corroborated by the MOET participant which requires candidates to apply for the principal position and then be subjected to interviews before being appointed to serve in those positions. This is evident from the data provided that most female education managers who have been in the positions for over ten years were appointed in those positions. For example, Naledi says "I have never applied for the job of the principal but have always been appointed". Palesa adds "I was approached by the chairman of the board to become the principal of the school while I was an assistant teacher in another school". On the other hand, Sebatso who is only four years in the position mentions "I applied for the job of a principal and was successful on interviews". Authenticating Sebatso's view, the MOET representative mentioned that:

"schools are the ones responsible to select the candidate they want from a pool of applicants who best fit the criterion which in the Lesotho case should be minimum, someone who holds a degree in Education".

Theme (III): Training and development

Following the appointment of female education managers, it is apparent that generally there is no other training or mentorship that the female education managers received except for a year or two for all of them when the MOET organised them training. Most female principals feel it was supposed to have come much earlier before they made a lot of mistakes in order to empower them with skills to handle the principal's challenges.

"I never received training or mentorship of any kind and believe me although I was a principal in primary schools before, I messed up a lot when I started my career in high schools and when I was already messing up, two year later the

MOET organised a workshop for principals pertaining to management and Leadership issues which in my own opinion was supposed to have come much earlier". (Mpho)

"I did not receive any mentorship or training of any kind pertaining to my role as a principal until a year later when I attended the MOET principal's workshop on management and leadership training after encountering too many challenges in my career". (Thuto)

Theme (IV): Mentorship experiences

The next category is the mentorship experiences of female education managers where it is generally comprehensible that most female education managers have had no encounter with mentorship of any kind in their management positions with the exception of Thato and Tholoana who had opportunities to understudy a principal while acting in the same position. It is worth mentioning that there were no mentorship programmes in these schools, the education managers were informally selected by their mentors for guidance. These mentors from both Thato and Tholoana understudied were from overseas brought to the country and their schools to set the standard for the schools.

"I was supposed to be the deputy during the appointment of this new principal but to my surprise we worked as two principals, the officially appointed principal literally mentoring me. I had a very empowering experience during this time and I learned a lot of skills from this principal especially team work. We made decisions together and I was aware of everything happening around the school. I practiced a lot with leadership skills at this time". (Tholoana)

"While in my acting position I was understudying the principal who mentored me before, now she was leaving the school. This means that I had someone

guiding me for a year and after a year I handled the responsibilities of the principal on my own. The guidance I received helped me to become the confident principal I am now". (Thato)

Sebatso also had some guidance as a beginner principal working with someone who experienced with the same responsibilities she was faced with before.

"... appointment as a principal I was sharing an office with a primary school principal who had been a principal before me in the same school. This principal is the one person that I can call my mentor because she assisted me to adjust in my position and to make me aware of a lot of administrative issues that I would have otherwise struggled handling them on my own". (Sebatso)

Other female education managers have had no guidance; they had to struggle on their own from the beginning of their careers.

"...did not have the opportunity to work hand in hand with the former principal such as sharing information about the running of the school and as a result I did not have the opportunity to practice with leadership skills". (Thuto)

Although Mpho and Lineo never had any mentorship themselves, they feel that the experience they have accumulated over the years is enough to qualify them for a mentorship position for upcoming female education managers especially at the beginning of their careers.

"I feel now that I can be a better mentor for upcoming principals especially females to make them aware of the challenges of the principals job to help them avoid the mistakes that I personally made". (Mpho)

"I have a dream to see this school develop more and I still want to contribute to that by mentoring my successor". (Lineo)

Theme (V): Challenging experiences

Challenging experience is another delineated theme where it is pertinent that female education managers experiences with regard to challenges have commonalities and do intersect because their challenges included among others 'being harassed' and in some stages particularly at the beginning phases in their careers, female education managers felt that their authority is being challenged.

"As a principal, I have had challenges' with regard to handling male teachers who are always challenging my authority, harassing me and belittling me in front of my staff". (Lipalesa)

"As a principal it was very challenging because the former principal left unceremoniously since his contract was terminated and he blamed me for his dismissal so he was harassing me in the school". (Thuto)

"I was not given a chance to become the principal of the school, the board ... running the school on daily basis, making decisions..., supervising teachers, handling school ... fees to the bank and purchasing items for the school and ...involved in teachers personal affairs. ...the chairman of the board waspurchasing for the school". (Palesa)

Theme (VI): Networking experiences

Female education managers are all members of some principals association and they attribute most of their empowerment in them whether in or outside the country. For example,

ineo says "I have had opportunities to meet and network with other principals from overseas where our school is affiliated to, to share my experiences and to learn from them".

Theme (VII): Emotional experiences

Most female principals have had many emotional experiences in their career as principals.

This is how they expressed the emotions they have had: "She was very helpful; I do not know what I would have done without her", (Sebabatso). "I felt undermined because I was a female principal", (Lipalesa). "I felt very much alone", (Thuto). "I am happy because I work closely with female teachers who are very supportive", (Lipalesa). "Female teachers in this school have been my greatest strength helping me to believe in myself and restoring my faith that I am the right person for the job", (Thuto).

Other emotions were expressed as thus:

"It was very difficult for me because I was never given a chance by the board which appointed me to become the principal of the school. ... I felt obstructed as a principal and I never felt principal enough." (Palesa)

"I had a very disappointing experience with my principal, I never had a chance to practise with leadership skills as a deputy because we did not have good working relationships. He was not sharing anything with me as a deputy. He had other men whom he shared information with regarding the running of the school not me." (Tholoana)

"I love working with male teachers because they are usually more attentive and obedient while female teachers are always resistant and question every decision that I makes". (Thato)

Theme (VIII): Female capabilities

Regarding the capabilities of females to become managers in Lesotho, females generally agreed that the country needs female managers even in schools. Expressing her trust to women and their capabilities, Thuto remarked that "females are ruling this world now specially in Lesotho". She goes on to explain that "A proper research will show you that more females are getting into big positions such as ministerial positions, public secretaries, director positions and even the police commissioner in this country is a female now ...".

Expressing her trust to women's capabilities and support, Tholoana says "I went out of my way to steal my deputy who is a female from another school because I wanted to be supported by a female". Supporting the views about the capabilities of women Naleli says that "women are capable of instilling discipline in the learners, inculcating cleanliness in them, remember, "Cleanliness is close to God," and generally inspiring learners to be better people in future".

Concurring Lipalesa says "I work closely with female staff members who are very supportive. I have a female deputy principal and four head of departments who are all females and we work as a team together". With the exception of Sebatatso who does not have a deputy and HoDs, all female education managers have female deputies and most of the schools have all female HoDs with the exception of one school having all male HoDs and one school having three males and one female HoD. Working with all females in the management is an indication that females trust other females support.

Nonetheless, females recommended training and mentorship for females before getting into the principals' positions in order to be empowered with necessary skills to handle responsibilities in that role. For example, Lineo explicitly indicated that she wants to mentor

her successor although she believes in her ability to manage the school in her absence now that she is retiring as a principal. She says "I am sure she will do a remarkable job as a principal". Mpho on the other hand affirmed that she would love to assist new incoming female principals in order that they would not make the same mistakes she made as a principal. These views are supported by Enomoto (2000:392) emphasizing that learning of teachers and administrators should be emphasized to the same degree as that of the learners.

8.3 Focus group discussions

Patton (1990:379) asserts that data generated by qualitative methods is usually very large. Nonetheless, each issue in the study, reference, tentative conclusion is supported by reference to one or more extracts from the participant's discourse by means of verbatim accounts. As far as possible in selecting quotes, the researcher attempted to provide a balance of selections so that no one participant is over quoted or omitted.

From the focus group discussion data, six themes were delineated: provision of information and resources, motivation, encouragement and feedback, developing leadership skills, communication and listening, leniency, emotions, accommodating gossip and favouritism.

Theme I: Provision of information and resources

From the discussions with the HoDs, it became apparent that generally female education managers share information with their HoDs as well as providing necessary resources to develop the departments and the school. Group C, Participant D indicates that "the principal engages in various management activities that builds the school and provides us with all the necessary information and resources". Other HoDs expressed that:

"my experience is that flow of information from the manager to head of departments is very smooth. Our manager, for example, provides us with information pertaining to our roles as head of departments, constantly updating us with new information when it arises. Communication is easy between the principal and head of departments because the principal is approachable and always available". (Group A, Participant C)

Although group C, participant C does not attribute her growth to the contribution of the principal, she does acknowledge that the principal shares information that empowers them.

"I personally do not attribute my development in my career to the contribution of the principal. To begin with, she is not ... who promoted me into this position, although I am aware that ... recommendations to the Teachers Service Commission (TSD) regarding my application to be a HoD. What she only does is attend principals' associations' and comes back and share the information from the workshop with us and we get empowered in the process. Although, I have not been trained in my position, I believe that I have grown as a HoD because I do not handle matters the same way I did when I was first appointed into this position". (Group B, participant C)

Nonetheless, some HoDs believe that provision of information in particular as a challenge in their particular schools.

"information transmission is a challenge in the school particularly with matters that have been discussed in the board meetings because we will just see things happening in the school without knowing why such things are happening. I feel that we are entitled to that information and if it is a decision, the reason behind its implementation". (Group B, participant D)

is clear from the data above that although there are still instances where some females question the degree of information transmission in the school environment; the general views are that female education managers do provide information as required in good time.

Theme II: developing leadership skills

From the accounts shared by the participants, it is apparent that HoDs generally do not go for any training for their roles, however; they appreciate that female education managers allow them an opportunity to practice with leadership in their roles.

"I have very positive experiences in a school managed by a female manager. My principal makes sure that I know my responsibilities but she does not do my job for me. I interact more with the teachers under my department than the principal interacting more with the teachers. I am able to say this with certainty because before this school was managed by the current principal, we had a male principal and at the time I was still an HoD but I had no responsibilities because the principal was doing all the work for us as HoDs, for example, he used to collect scheme of work from teachers, for monitoring purposes while now I collect and check them before forwarding them to the principal. I remember at that time, I would go to a meeting just like any other teacher without having information about such a meeting. However, that has changed now because for any meeting held, HoDs would be aware of the meeting and the issues to be discussed in such meetings. HoDs interact with the principal and we feel we are part of the management of the school. I personally feel recognised and valued".

(Group B, Participant A)

"She contributes a lot to building our leadership skills in the school because as the head of department I have total control over matters in the department. Even the sports master has total control over matters concerning sports in the school seeking financial support from the principal. The principal does not

my job for me. However, if you want to see favouritism at its best, be in a school that is managed by a female". (Group C, Participant D)

The above results are in consistent with Adler, Laney and Packer's (1993:45) view that through blending their all-embracing experiences as teachers, female education managers are able to provide a fresh, inclusive vision of school management.

Theme III: Motivation and Feedback

From the accounts shared by the participants, it is generally apparent that HoDs feel motivated, encouraged, satisfied and proud to be in the school managed by a female principal suggesting that indeed women provide a different interpretation of reality (Adler, et al., 1993:45). According to the accounts shared, HoDs describe their female principals as creators of excellent and pleasant work environments by their charisma and energy.

"I have a lovely experience of getting feedback from the female manager. Every time she provides us with feedback motivating us to keep doing the good work. And again, if she is not satisfied with the way things have been handled in the school, she does not hesitate to confront the person responsible. However, she confronts us in the manner that builds rather than makes us feel useless". (Group C, participant A)

"I have worked with the principal for quite some time now. And it is important for me to mention that our school's image has changed a great deal from the results to the discipline of both teachers and learners and the school environment generally. To begin with, if you look at our results, they may not be as perfect as we want them as yet. However, you will notice that there is an improvement every year. This is due to everybody's commitment in the school from the learners to the teachers. We never had this kind of environment before and believe me, we are indeed very proud of ourselves and our principal. She has gone through a lot of hard work to change the bad image the school had before. Answering from the

head of department perspective, I believe that we would not be as committed as we are now if it were not because of the motivation and encouragement we receive from our principal. She is a mother to us all of us and I personally have a number of examples on that regard. I remember in one year, I did not teach a poem which I was supposed to have taught the learners, and very unfortunately for me and the learners the poem came up in the exams. Actually, I forgot to teach that poem. In the middle of apprehension in the school environment after that exam, the principal invited me to her office. Of course, I expected her to judge me like everybody else but to my surprise she told me she has gone through the paper and there were a lot of poems to choose from in that paper and the learners were not obliged to choose a poem they never did. Therefore, she told me "you need not worry about that one poem". Isn't my principal something? This is the one person I was more worried about than anybody else, but she encouraged me in a way I never thought I would be encouraged". (Group B, Participant D)

Theme (IV): Communication and listening

The data concerning communication and listening illustrates that generally female education managers do devise means to communicate with their HoDs listening to them and considering their opinions in decision making where necessary. For example, Group B, participant C expresses that "our principal listens to us even though sometimes she will use her own discretion, she will have listened to our opinions regarding the issue being discussed". Other HoDs mention that:

"we have regular meetings with the principal and most of the time the decisions made are in line with our opinions. This is a clear indication that the principal listens to our ideas and supports our initiatives by all means possible to develop the school. she accommodates our contributions and we usually feel that our participation is important". (Group C, participant D)

This finding substantiates Adler, et al (1993:114) findings that women's perspectives and experiences often challenge current theories, knowledge and assumptions about the leadership replacing them with dialogues and ideas that are more inclusive, open and democratic.

Theme (v): leniency

A general view of the discussion was that female education managers are sometimes taken advantage of because of their leniency and caring attitude which is more observable in their exercise of considerate style of leadership than control. The following were some of the views regarding leniency of female education managers:

"my experiences in a school managed by a female are that there is more of welfare considerations than control. Female principals are caring and considerate. If I tell her that I have to leave early because my child is sick, she will understand, but if I had to tell a male manager the same story, the response might be different". (Group A, Participant A)

"I find progress very difficult if a principal is a female because they have the tendency to be very lenient with the teachers and this leniency hampers our progress with the teachers as head of departments especially if we have to enforce a certain strategy". (Group A, Participant B)

"female managers are easily taken advantage of because of their caring attitude. Knowing the demands of the department, a teacher might ... skip the HoD and ask for permission ... the principal herself to...".(Group A, Participant D)

These results are consistent with the findings of Marshall (1995:488) revealing that women principals are more attuned to teaching, curriculum and instruction and children perhaps because they spend more time as teachers and as mothers before they become

administrators. Concurring, Blackmore (1989:113) indicates that women tend to focus more on relationships between individuals and communities and view power as being multi-dimensional and multi-directional process to empower others rather than having the power over them.

Theme (VI): emotional, accommodating gossip and favouritism

From the data collected it appears that female education managers tend to become emotional, accommodate gossip and tend to favour some subordinates over others in the school environment. For example, Group B, Participant C are concerned that female education managers get emotional and this hampers good working relationships. Moreover, Group C, Participant E underlines that female managers have the bad tendency of 'accommodating gossip and love playing favourites' in the work environment highlighting that 'female principals sometimes do not control their emotions, when they love someone, they openly show it'.

Both the in-depth and focus group discussions data revealed that female education managers possess some skills and perform some functions identified as relevant for mentorship. It has been revealed that female education managers communicate well with their staff members, provide resources, motivate their staff members and develop their leadership skills. Nonetheless, female education managers tend to become emotional, accommodate gossip and are good at playing favourites. Some skills and functions identified as relevant and required for mentorship were not identified as possessed by the female education managers. For example, the findings did not reveal that female education managers possess role-modelling skills and coaching skills and the findings of the in-depth

Interviews also did not reveal that female education managers were accustomed to any role-modelling and coaching in their career except in Thato and Tholoana's situation.

9 SUMMARY

The chapter discussed the feminist thinking behind this study and the rationale for a choice of a mixed method research in a feminist study. From the discussions, it is evident that a feminist research emphasises non-hierarchical, reflexive and interactive approach to research. As a result, a qualitative investigation through the use of in-depth interviews and focus group discussion were utilised on the basis that they were the most appropriate methods aimed to produce a feminist research that can act as a catalyst for the emancipation of women. The rich descriptions shared in this chapter both from the in-depth interviews and focus group discussions illuminate female education managers mentoring experiences. The descriptions highlighted to a large extent both the differences and commonalities in female education managers mentoring experiences. It is apparent from the descriptions that there is neither training nor mentorship programmes for female education managers and the females recognise the need to have such programmes in place in the school environment in an attempt to be proficient. It is also evident from the descriptions that female education managers possess certain skills which are identified in the literature as useful for mentorship despite the fact that they do have mentorship challenges in other areas. Nonetheless, it is apparent that a mentorship strategy for schools in Lesotho can be developed with the necessary commitment from all stakeholders including the government of Lesotho through the MOET. These discussions prompt the question: can we investigate feminist issues using quantitative research methods?

5

AN INVESTIGATION OF FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS' MENTORING EXPERIENCES IN LESOTHO'S SECONDARY SCHOOLS – A QUANTITATIVE INVESTIGATION

1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter explored and investigated female education managers' mentoring experiences in Lesotho's secondary schools using qualitative methodology. Consistent with Ford and Taylor's (2004:1) opinion that more strength can be realised through the appropriate combination of both the qualitative and quantitative investigation, this chapter will employ quantitative investigation methods in order to compare and contrast, as well as to validate, corroborate and authenticate the qualitative with quantitative investigations in an attempt to end up with well-substantiated conclusions.

1.1 Quantitative investigation – a feminist perspective

Quantitative investigations are associated with positivist forms of enquiry which are concerned with the search for facts and are devoid of opinions, beliefs, assumptions and feelings and exclude from knowledge such domains as morals, politics and judgment (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998:4). Bogdan and Biklen (1998:4) opine that the positivist believes that the researcher's personal beliefs and values could interfere with assessment of that objective reality and as such, these human factors are prohibited from entering into the scientific process and throughout the process of research, the researcher is a detached observer who can hold an impartial, value-free perspective. Equally, the identity of the researcher or the 'knower' is not especially relevant, as proper use of the scientific method is expected to capture the objective reality (Campbell and Wasco, 2000:780). This means that positivists aim to test a theory or describe an experience "through observation and measurement in order to predict and control forces that surround us" (O'Leary, 2004:5).

Quantitative research therefore leads us to regard the world as made up of observable, measurable facts (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992:6). According to Horna (1994:121), quantitative research designs are characterised by the assumption that human behaviour can be explained by what may be termed social facts, which can be investigated by methodologies that utilise the deductive logic of the natural sciences. Quantitative investigations look for distinguishing characteristics, elemental properties and empirical boundaries and tend to measure how much or how often (Horna, 1994:121). Thus, the terms objectivity, productivity, generalisability and numbers are features often associated with quantitative research.

A positivist underpinning is central to this feminist study for the provision of statistical data that is generalisable about the mentoring experiences of female education managers. Emphasising the significance of quantitative methods in feminist research, Maynard (1994:13) highlights the role that quantitative methods play in identifying the feminisation of poverty, arguing for the magnitude of the political potential of such work. Maynard (1994:13) therefore, suggests that feminist research should produce statistics in order to support the formulation of legislation because "figures can be very persuasive to policy-makers" (Gorard and Taylor, 2004:7). Similarly, Reinharz (1992:80) points to the use of quantitative data in the formulation of laws and policy making, highlighting that:

statistical information about sexual harassment ... contributed to its rectification in ways that encouraged the establishment of sexual harassment committees in universities and ... eventually provided legal redress for individuals.

As a result, in an attempt to make those in authority take feminist issues seriously, it is essential to speak the same language as a research audience expects. Governments, for example, are less concerned with the concerns of individuals *per se* but rather, they are concerned with the wider picture and, it may be argued, they are more likely to take issues seriously if they are presented according to their expectations and most importantly, in their language.

The study also acknowledges the positivist assumptions about the importance of objectivity in research and the need for distance between the researcher and the researched (Pini, 2002:340), in an attempt to provide a more democratic research relationship which provides the space for representing participants and their own subjectivities. However, Stanley and Seaman (1993:6) perceive this as a clear sign of the approach which places the researcher in a

knowledge hierarchy above those being researched, revealing its foundationalist origins which rest on an epistemological position. This sees a single conserved reality existing out there which the special expertise of science can investigate and explain as it really is, independent of observer-effects, assuming that research knowledge gathered in one set of circumstances can be applied unproblematically in others, which are seen as to be the same. Linn (2002:341) however, argues further that the provision of this space is necessary, not simply to recognise that women experience disadvantage or to describe and analyse the causes of women's disadvantage; rather, it is necessary to enable a researcher to work with women to challenge and intervene so as to end this disadvantage. As Stanley (1990:15) writes, "the point is to change the world, not only to study it". Differently expressed, but with the same intent, is the much quoted phrase that feminist research is 'research for women' rather than 'research on women' (Edwards, 1990:479).

Jayaratne and Stewart (1991:89) however, acknowledge that there is a growing passion for qualitative approaches in feminist research driven by "a deep suspicion of quantitative methods as having concealed women's real experiences" and the belief that women must be allowed to describe the world as they experience it. This view supports Mertens's (1998:109) comment that other feminists express a deep distrust of survey research and other statistically based forms of research. Jayaratne (1983:144) therefore warns feminists against total rejection of quantitative methods, reinforcing that to link feminist research with qualitative methods simply strengthens traditional dichotomies that may not be in the best interests of any feminist research. Roberts (1981:23) argues however, that the reason that relatively few women are involved in quantitative research may be explained by the inadequacy of certain statistical procedures when looking at sex differences, in which crude and simplistic data-labelling does not reflect the complexity of women's experiences.

Similarly, Gelsthorpe (1990:91) suggests that the problem is perhaps not quantification itself, but insensitive quantification. Needless to say, if quantification is crudely done, it is invalid.

Pushing the line of argument one step further on the issue of statistics, Faran (1990:110) adds that rather than statistics being a representation of social reality, they are actually a construct of reality. She argues that statistics are divorced from the context of their construction and thus lose the meanings they have for the people involved. This has also been highlighted by Pugh (1990:109) who argues that statistics need "chaperoning" as they are often used out of context, as well as being generalised. Highlighting the subjectivity involved in composing questions for a survey, Graham (1983:132 and 133) criticises many aspects of the survey method, arguing that the survey may well frustrate, from its inception, a feminist programme because it treats all individuals as equal units and therefore does not reflect the patriarchal society in which the data are gathered.

However, writing from a domestic violence perspective, Gelsthorpe and Morris (1990:86) argue that although positivist quantitative methods are generally abandoned by feminists in favour of qualitative approaches, the value of quantitative methods in the research field depends greatly on the questions being asked that will prove useful in producing background data. Essentially, not all feminists have argued against the use of quantitative methods within feminist research; in fact, arguments in favour of quantitative methods are strengthened by many examples of their effective use. For example, O'Neill (1995:343) emphasises that quantitative methods are particularly useful in showing the patterns and influences of multiple factors in shaping attitudes in society. In addition, Jayaratne (1983:158-159) argues that quantitative methods are predominantly beneficial to "counter the pervasive and influential quantitative sexist research which has and continues to be generated in the social sciences".

With this as a foundation of research, feminist research should therefore “acknowledge the ethical and political issues involved in what we do, how we do it and the claims we make for it”, if we are to undertake the quantitative approach to research (Stanley and Wise, 1993:7).

1.2 Collecting quantitative data

Survey research was used to collect the quantitative data in this study. A research survey is defined as “The assessment of the current status, opinions, beliefs and attitudes by questionnaires or interviews from a known population, set out to describe and to interpret what is” (McMillan and Schumacher, 2001:602). Creswell (2003:154) explains the purpose of survey design as one which generalise from a sample to a population so that inferences can be made about characteristics, attitudes or behaviours of the population.

According to Neuman (2000:251), a survey researcher follows a deductive approach, beginning with a theoretical or an applied research problem and ends with an empirical measurement and data analysis. There are various surveys which a researcher can embark upon, all of which place different demands on the respondent. For example, in telephone and face-to-face surveys, interviewers control the pace and the sequence of the questions, while mail and self-administered questionnaire surveys, respondents control question pace and sequence (Salant and Dillman, 1994:18). This study employed a self-administered RDQ.

2 DEVELOPMENT OF A QUESTIONNAIRE

A questionnaire is a unique and an extremely important part of research since it is a common face instrument for observing data beyond the physical reach of the researcher to convince respondents that they should fill in the questionnaire (Salant and Dillman, 1994:102). As a result, in this study the most important goal of the designed self-administered questionnaire

was to motivate respondents to respond. A questionnaire was therefore compiled after a thorough review of the related literature which made it easier for the researcher to identify all the variables to be included in the study. The assistance of an expert in the questionnaire's development was sought at every stage of its construction by utilising the professional feedback, all the necessary changes were made and a suitable pilot sample was found to pilot the instrument.

Following a preceding portrayal, below is a discussion of a RDQ structure and the choice of items as part of the questionnaire:

2.1 The structure of the questionnaire

The RDQ was divided into the following main sections:

Section A which was a personal profile that gathered information on age, the qualifications of the respondent, the number of years in the teaching and management positions and the marital status of the respondent.

Section B comprised professional information regarding career preparation and the mentoring experiences of the participants.

Section C contained information regarding the mentorship skills possessed by education managers. This section had 18 items rated on a scale 1 to 5 where: 1 was assigned strongly agree; 2 assigned agree; 3 assigned undecided; 4 assigned disagree; and 5 assigned strongly disagree.

Section D was composed with information regarding mentorship functions that require training. The section had twenty-seven items rated on a scale one to five where: 1 was assigned extremely needed; 2 assigned needed; 3 assigned fairly needed; 4 assigned somewhat needed and 5 assigned not needed at all.

Section E contained information regarding mentorship challenges faced by female education managers. This section contained fourteen items rated on a scale 1 to 5 where: 1 was assigned strongly agree, 2 assigned agree, 3 assigned undecided, 4 assigned disagree and 5 assigned strongly disagree

Section F comprised information regarding useful mentorship strategies required to create a mentorship strategy. The section had nineteen items rated on a 1 to 5 scale where: 1 is assigned extremely useful; 2 assigned useful; 3 assigned fairly useful; 4 assigned somewhat not useful and 5 assigned not useful at all.

3 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Before the RDQ questionnaire was administered, a pilot study was conducted as explained below.

3.1 The pilot study

Pilot testing a questionnaire means that a questionnaire is tried out with a small sample similar to the intended group of respondents to make certain that the data collection instrument developed is of a high standard (Mertens, 1998:117). To determine the standard of the instrument therefore, the researcher went through many pilot tests. First of all, a number of professionals knowledgeable about the instrument and its measurement in the targeted sample were consulted to review the prototype and to check in particular, content validity in addition to relevance for the target population. After revision had been made the prototype was tried out twice on the same population of the non-probability convenience sample of eight female managers who were the intended respondents. This was done to get an idea of the quality of information, as well as any problems in administration and scoring.

The questionnaires were all returned for the test and the re-test and the researcher was satisfied that the questions asked complied with the requirements of the study.

3.2 Data collection

The ideal population for this study was all female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools where there are about 100 females in this position. Nonetheless, since the primary goal in this study was to get a representative sample or a small collection of units or cases from a much larger collection or population, so that the researcher could study the smaller groups and produce accurate generalisations about the larger group (Neuman 2000:195), questionnaires were sent to a random sample of 50% of female education managers. A list of all education managers arranged according to schools in the districts with the names of the principals was obtained from the MOET. The list facilitated the process of selecting the schools that are managed by females from those managed by males. The list that consisted of schools managed by females formed the sample frame and this made it easier for the researcher to select the representative sample of female education managers. The representative sample was chosen using systematic random sampling from the list of female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools.

Data was therefore collected from 50 female managers worked out as follows:

$$100 \times 50\% = 50 \text{ female managers}$$

100

$$\text{Sample interval} = \frac{100}{50} = 2 \text{ female education managers}$$

50

The sample interval is 2 female education managers; therefore every 2nd school in the sample frame was selected to form part of the sample.

Having identified the potential participants for the questionnaire, a carefully and thoughtfully structured questionnaire consisting of a combination of close-ended pre-coded and open-ended items designed to illicit data from the fifty identified female education managers, was sent and delivered to the participants who expressed their willingness to participate in the survey. The questionnaire was accompanied by an annotated letter of inquiry (see addendum F) formulated in such manner as to build persuasion into the correspondence, while simultaneously adhering to the principles that courtesy, understanding, and respect for others pay large dividends in a milieu where a researcher needs the cooperation of others.

Precisely two weeks after the conveying of the questionnaire to the respondents, a follow-up telephone call was made to female education managers that had not responded to the questionnaire. This was handled in the same vein as the initial telephone call and it was followed-up by the delivery of another questionnaire accompanied by a follow-up letter; a follow-up measure effected specifically to guard against any one of the dozens of contingencies that could have happened to the first questionnaire. Ultimately, all the questionnaires were returned.

4 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY IN QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Biondo-Wood and Haber (1998:561) assert that the quality of the research methods depends both on reliability and validity. According to these authors validity in quantitative forms is the determination of whether a measurement instrument actually measures what it is reported to measure, that is, the degree to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Neuman (2000:168) distinguishes between face validity and content

validity. To him face validity is a judgment by the scientific community that the instrument really measures the construct. It addresses the question: On the face of it, do people believe the method of measurement is suitable for the purpose for which it is designed? Face and content validity will be checked in this study through the engagement of expert researchers to assess a RDQ so that their recommendations

content validity on other hand, is a special type of face validity. It addresses the question: Is the full content of a definition represented in a measure? Measures should represent all ideas or areas in the conceptual space. For Neuman (2000:168), content validity is a kind of validity by assumption. To check validity, two expert researchers were requested to assess the RDQ and their recommendations were finally incorporated in the adjustment of the questionnaire's final version (Neuman, 2000:168). To ensure the validity of the RDQ, the questions portrayed 'real-life' situations which are positive attributes of content validity (Kerlinger, 2000:418).

In quantitative terms, LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (1998:558) indicate that reliability is the consistency or constancy of a measuring instrument such that it is the degree of consistency or dependability with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure. In other words, reliability in quantitative research is the extent to which a measuring device is consistent in measuring whatever it measures, in that an instrument is unreliable if, for some factors, the results are caused to fluctuate when they should not. Reliability therefore means dependability or consistency, suggesting that the same thing is repeated or recurs under the identical or very similar conditions (Neuman, 2000:164). To measure the consistency of the data collection instrument, a test-retest or an internal consistency is carried out. According to

Gall, Gall and Borg (1999:229) test-retest reliability is an analysis of how consistently respondents respond to an instrument from one occasion to another.

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:90) expound that reliability coefficients vary from 0 with no consistency to 1 with maximum consistency, such that a perfect agreement will yield a correlation of 1.00. Therefore, a correlation of 0.95, means that the two sets of scores are in near perfect agreement. However, according to Cronbach (1970:153), reliability coefficients should, in practice, be expected to exceed a value of 0.70. For this pilot study, the reliability coefficient was 0.743. Gall et al. (1999:229) expounds that the level of statistical significance usually accepted at 5% (0.05) or less, thus the lesser the results, the more significant they become. For example, $p < 0.001$ means that one can generalise with confidence beyond the two sets of tests that if the tests are redone over and over, the respondents would respond in similar manner.

To improve the reliability of the study, the reliability of a RDQ instrument was tested with the test-retest reliability as explained below:

3.1 Test-retest reliability of the RDQ

Tabbie (1998:159) recommends a test-retest reliability to be done and a test-retest reliability coefficient to be calculated ascertaining the trustworthiness and the reliability of the quantitative results. For the test-retest reliability, the respondents were requested to fill in the questionnaire on two different occasions. A test-retest was done and the test-retest reliability coefficient was calculated using STATA 8.2 and Excel. The results were similar. Therefore, the RDQ was trustworthy and reliable resulting in a final Cronbach Alpha of 0.82.

5.5 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This section contains a detailed analysis of fifty responses to a comprehensive questionnaire of eighteen items (see Addendum E). The questionnaire proved a useful instrument for gathering a large amount of information from the respondents, because the level of response to the questionnaire was high; all respondents responded to most of the questionnaire items. Having captured the raw data as required on the questionnaire, the data were computed using the statistical packages of STATA 8.2 and Excel, both of which increased the trustworthiness of the results.

This section therefore includes the quantified responses in Section A according to the demographic information encompassing the following categories: age, highest academic qualification, number of years as a manager, teaching experience and marital status. In Section B, the responses have been quantified according to career preparation and mentorship experiences, incorporating the following categories: assistance in accessing the position, formal training, the nature of the training and lessons learnt. Section C embraces the quantified responses of the mentorship skills; Section D comprises the quantified responses of mentorship functions; Section E consists of the quantified responses of mentorship challenges and finally, Section F is composed of the quantified responses of the mentorship strategies. Tables and charts are used to show the results of the quantitative investigation.

SECTION A

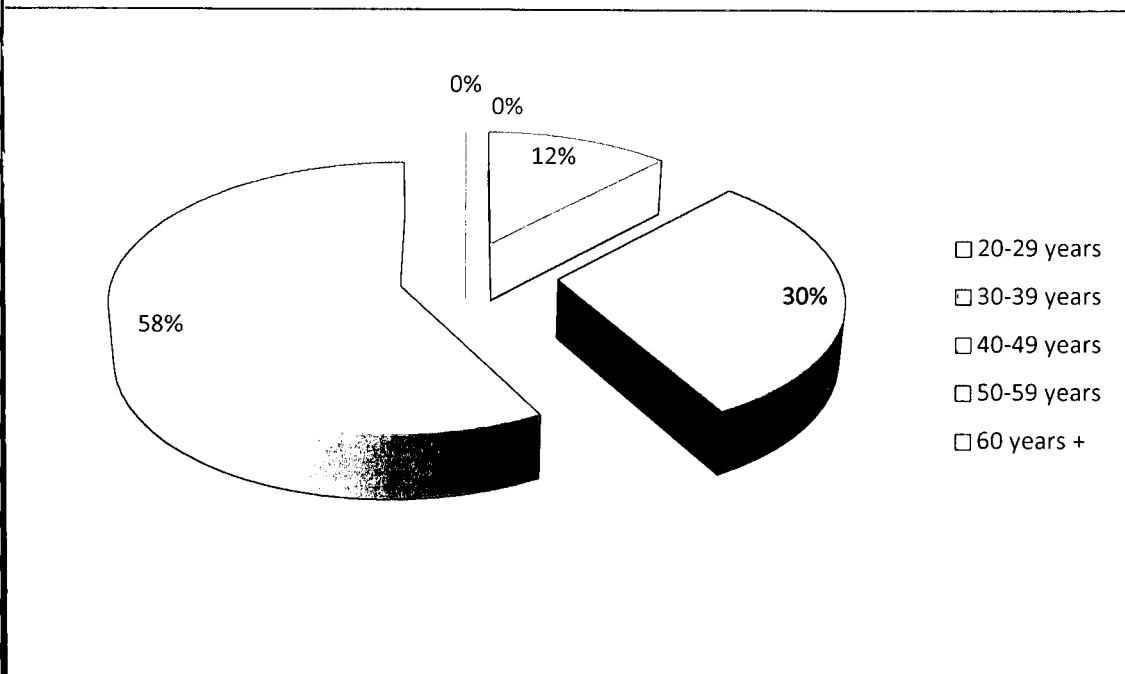
5.1 Demographic information

50 female education managers returned the questionnaires.

) Age in category of years

Of the 50 female education managers, there are no females with age categories of 20-29 and 30-39. However, 6 women, that is (12%) were of the age categories of 40 - 49 years, 15 women (30%) were of the age categories of 50 - 59 and 29 women, that is (58%) were of the age categories of 60 and above. This result is demonstrated in figure 5.5.1 below.

Figure 5.5.1: age categories of respondents

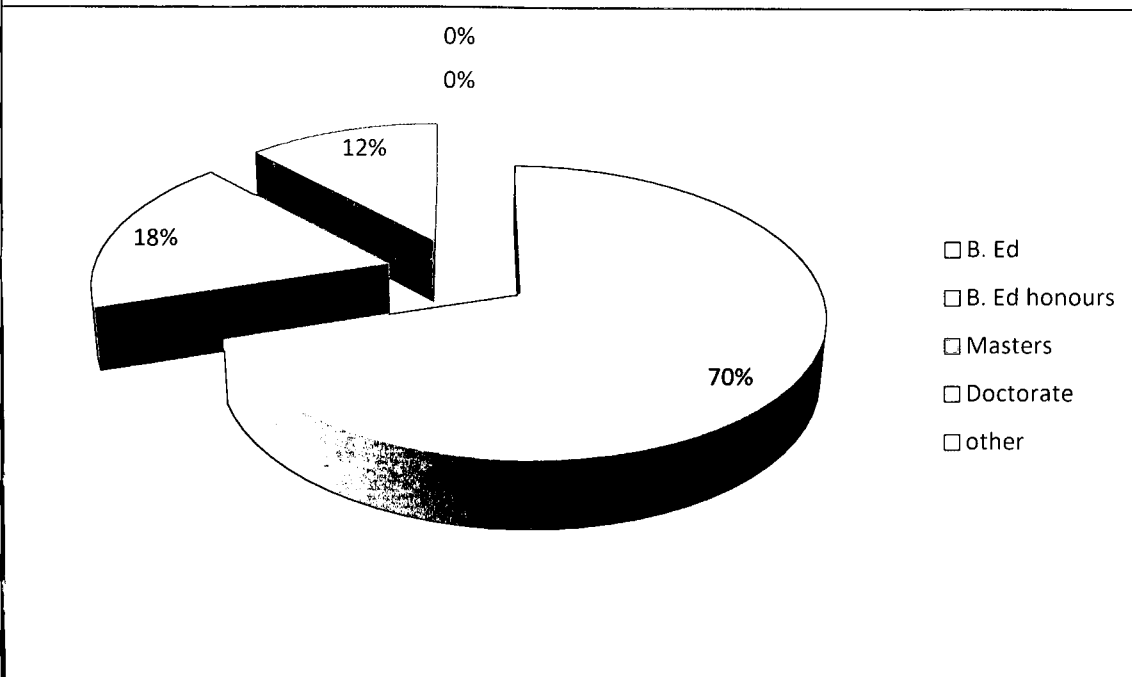


From the above depiction, one may deduce that most female education managers are mature women.

Highest academic qualification

Of the 50 participants, 35 women (70%) hold a B. Ed degree, 9 women (18%) hold B. Ed honours, and 6 women (12%) hold a Masters degree. The categories of doctorate and the other were not represented. This result is illustrated in Figure 5.5.2 below.

Figure 5.5.2: qualification categories of the respondents



from the above depiction, one may deduce that female education managers have the required minimum qualification per the information provided by the MOET representative indicating that in order to qualify as an education manager; a candidate must have a minimum of a B.Ed degree.

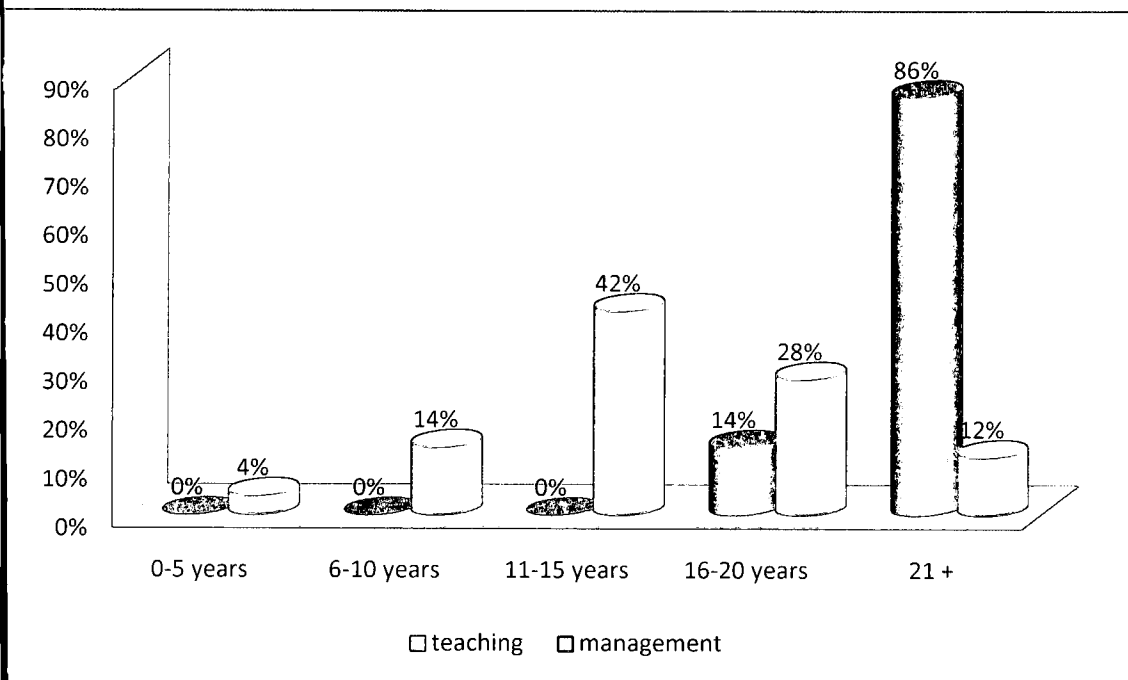
Number of years in a management position

of the 50 participants, 2 women, (4%) have been in the management position for a period between 0-5 years, 7 women, (14%) have been in the management position for a period between 6-10 years, 21 women, (42%) have been in the management position for a period between 11-15 years, 14 women (28%) have been in the management position for a period between 16 - 20 years, 6 women (12%) have been in the management position for a period 21 years and above.

l) Teaching experience

Of the 50 participants, 7 women (14%) have been in the teaching profession for a period between 16-20 years while 43 women (86%) have been in the teaching profession for a period of 21 years and above. There were no women within the categories of 0 - 5, 6 - 10 and 11- 15 years teaching experience. The chart below is a depiction of the results of (c) and d) above.

Figure 5.5.3: Teaching and Management



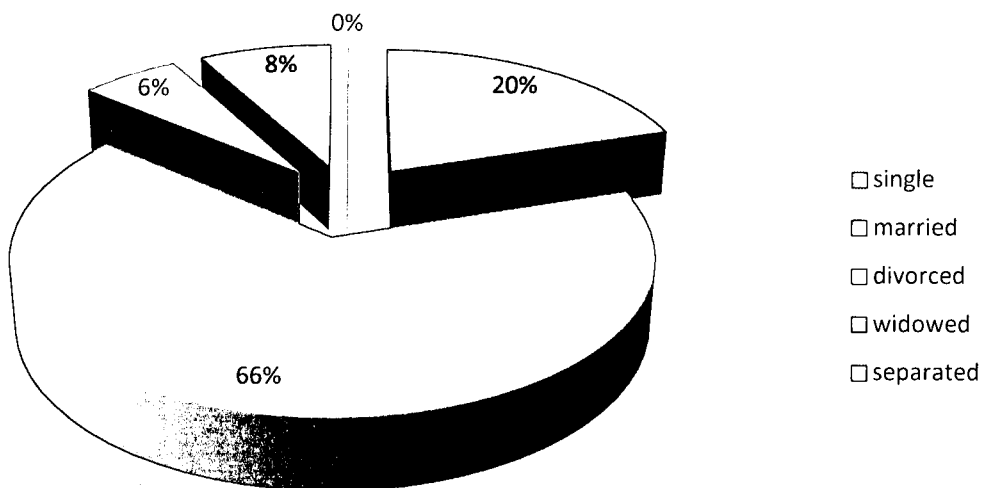
The above depiction suggests that although all female education managers who participated in this investigation have been in the teaching profession for a period more than fifteen years, they have been in the management position for at least five years with the exception of 4% of the women who have only been in the management positions for a period less than five years. These depictions validate the qualitative investigations of the in-depth interviews (c.f.

8.2) and Blackmore's (1989:113) perception that females serve as teachers for a number of years before stepping into the management position.

Marital status

Of the 50 participants, 10 women (20%) were single never married, 33 women (66%) were married, 3 women (6%) were divorced and 4 women (8%) were widowed. No women responded to being separated. This result is demonstrated in figure 5.6.5 below:

Figure 5.5.4: Marital status



The above illustration reveals that most female education managers are married.

SECTION B

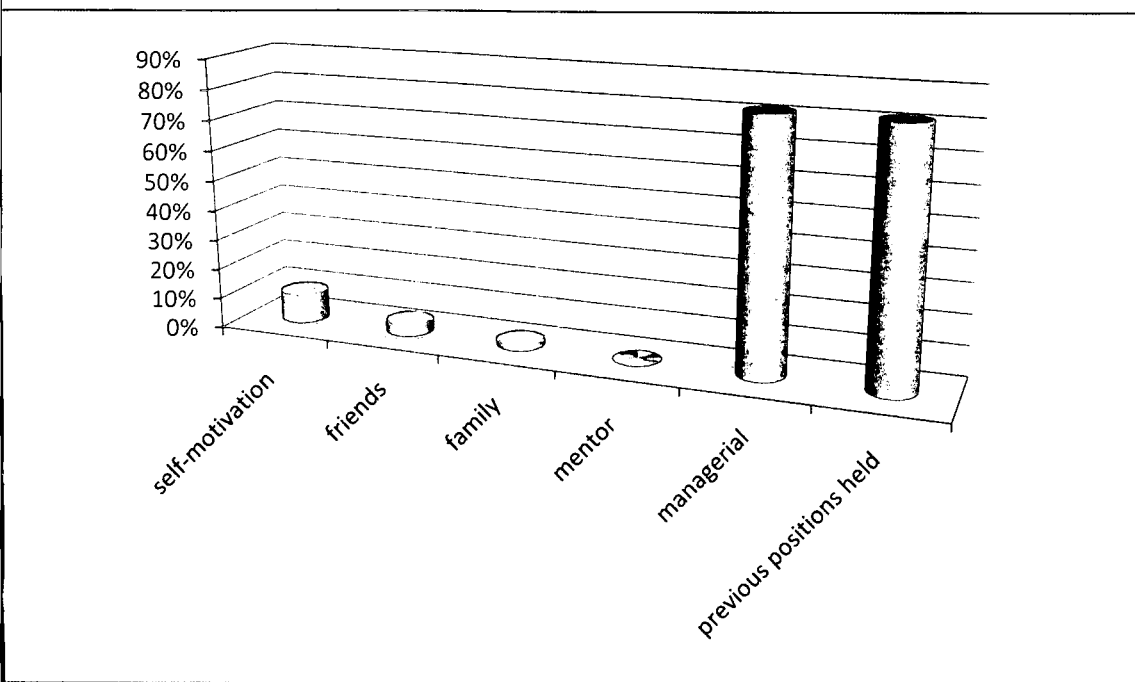
5.6 CAREER PREPARATION AND MENTORSHIP EXPERIENCES

5.6.1 Accessing the management position

Of the 50 participants, 2 women, that is (4%) attained their positions through self-motivation, 1 woman, (2%) was encouraged by friends, 1 woman, (2%) was encouraged by family, no woman was encouraged by a mentor and 41 women, that is (82%) indicated that they accessed the position through both managerial involvement and previous positions held and 10 women indicated that their qualifications contributed to them accessing the positions.

This result substantiates the results of the qualitative investigation (c.f. 4.8.2) which revealed that although some females were subjected to interviews before their appointment into a management position, most females were never subjected to interviews, rather, they were just appointed. In addition, this result confirms the in-depth-interviews findings (c.f. 4.8.2) which revealed that most female managers had a management experience before their appointment. For example, while some female education managers were deputies before their appointments, some were acting in the management positions and some were principals though in primary schools. This result is demonstrated in figure 5.6.1 below:

Figure 5.6.1: Accessing the management position

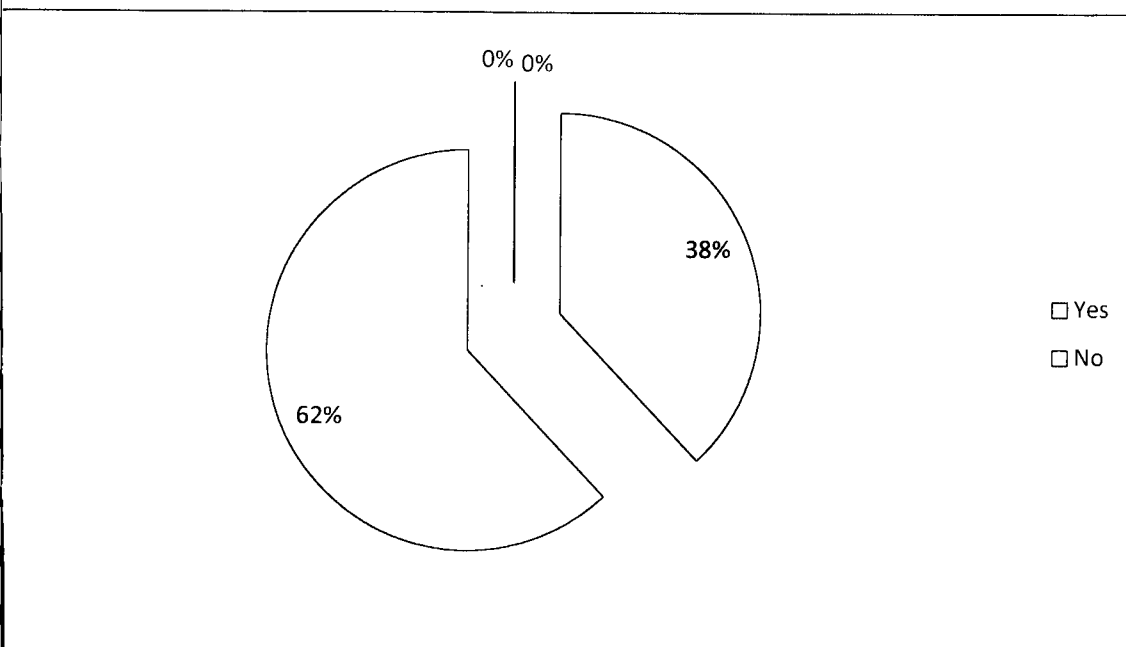


4.6.2 Training for the management position

Of the 50 participants, 14 women, that is (28%) received training while 31 women (62%) indicated they never received training. This finding validates female perceptions in the in-depth interviews (c.f. 4.8.1 and 4.8.2) and focus group discussions (4.8.3) which suggested that formal training is not a prerequisite for appointment in a management position. Equally, even after the appointment, training seems to be both non-available and non-obligatory for managers. For example, in-depth interviews findings indicated that female education managers obtained training only a year later in their management positions and there are those female managers who have not obtained the basic principal's training four years after their appointment (c.f. 4.8.1 and 4.8.2). In addition, the findings of the focus group discussions (c.f. 4.8.3) indicated that there is no training at all for HoDs.

This result is demonstrated in figure 5.6.2 below.

Figure 5.6.2: Formal training for the management position



6.3 Type of training

Although the results of (c.f. 5.6.2) above indicated that 38% participants were trained, only 5 women, that is (20%) participants responded to the question into the type of training they received. Female managers indicated that they received the MOET training.

6.4 Lessons learnt

Only 15 women, (30%) participants responded to this question. The following table depicts the lessons learnt by the participants and the number of times a lesson was identified and its ranking:

Table 5.6.4: lessons learnt in the management position

Items	Lessons learnt	Responses	Mean scores	ranking
5.6.4.3	Determination and dedication	11	0.22	1
5.6.4.4	Involvement and accepting anything that comes along	11	0.22	1
5.6.4.11	Consistency	11	0.22	1
5.6.4.12	Alert	11	0.22	1
5.6.4.13	Appropriate decision making skills	11	0.22	1
5.6.4.15	Positive interpersonal skills	11	0.22	1
5.6.4.16	Self-motivation	11	0.22	1
5.6.4.17	Initiative	11	0.22	1
5.6.4.2	Commitment to work	12	0.24	2
5.6.4.5	Perseverance	12	0.24	2
5.6.4.9	Empathetic	12	0.24	2
5.6.4.14	Listening	12	0.24	2
5.6.4.10	Careful	13	0.26	3
5.6.4.18	Trust	13	0.26	3
5.6.4.1	Confidence	14	0.28	4
5.6.4.6	Patience	15	0.3	5
5.6.4.8	Accommodative	15	0.3	5
5.6.4.7	Forgiving	16	0.32	6

By studying the table above, it appears that communication, listening, taking views of their staff members in making decisions as well as providing feedback in a positive manner have the highest frequency. These findings validate the qualitative investigations of both the in-depth interviews and the focus group discussions which revealed that female education managers possess skills in communication, listening, taking views of their staff members in making decisions as well as providing feedback in a positive manner suggesting therefore that, female managers possess positive interpersonal skills (c.f. 4.8.3).

SECTION C

5.7 MENTORSHIP SKILLS

The questionnaire presented participants with skills identified as required for mentorship. They were asked to use the given rating scales and indicate the extent to which they agree that the skills describe their mentorship strengths. The results are presented in tables 5.7.1 and 5.7.2 below.

Table 5.7.1 Mentorship skills

Items	Mentorship Skills	Strongly agree	agree	undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
5.7.1.1	Communication	50	0	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.2	Facilitation	50	0	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.3	Teaching	50	0	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.4	Coaching	42	8	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.5	Role modelling	31	19	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.6	Attentive listening	29	21	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.7	Approachable and available	23	27	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.8	Patience	17	33	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.9	Receptivity and sensitivity	20	17	13	0	0	50
5.7.1.10	Pre-emptive	17	24	9	0	0	50
5.7.1.11	Friendly	50	0	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.12	Nurturing	22	28	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.13	Advising	50	0	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.14	Sociable	36	14	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.15	Influencing	25	18	7	0	0	50
5.7.1.16	Supporting	50	0	0	0	0	50
5.7.1.17	Respecting	33	12	5	0	0	50
5.7.1.18	Encouraging	11	39	0	0	0	50
	TOTAL	606	260	34	0	0	900

The distribution of responses in table 5.7.1 above suggests that participants possess strengths in all the identified mentorship skills.

Table 5.7.2 Mean table for mentorship skills and their ratings

Item	Mentorship skills	number of responses	mean	standard deviation	ranking
5.7.2.1	Communication	50	1.00	0.0000	1
5.7.2.2	Facilitation	50	1.00	0.0000	1
5.7.2.3	Teaching	50	1.00	0.0000	1
5.7.2.4	Advising	50	1.00	0.0000	1
5.7.2.5	Friendly	50	1.00	0.0000	1
5.7.2.6	Supportive	50	1.00	0.0000	1
5.7.2.7	Coaching	50	1.16	0.3703	2
5.7.2.8	Sociable	50	1.28	0.4536	3
5.7.2.9	Role modelling	50	1.38	0.4903	4
5.7.2.10	Attentive listening	50	1.42	0.4985	5
5.7.2.11	Respecting	50	1.44	0.6749	6
5.7.2.12	Approachable and available	50	1.54	0.5035	7
5.7.2.13	Nurturing	50	1.56	0.5014	8
5.7.2.14	Influencing	50	1.64	0.7216	9
5.7.2.15	Patience	50	1.66	0.4785	10
5.7.2.16	Encouraging	50	1.78	0.4185	11
5.7.2.17	Receptivity and sensitivity	50	1.86	0.8083	12
5.7.2.18	Pre-emptive	50	1.84	0.7103	13

The mean table 5.7.2 above confirms the finding that participants possess strengths in all the identified mentorship skills. It suggests that the participants possess the greatest strength in skills of communication, facilitation, teaching, advising, friendliness and being supportive all which have the lowest mean value of 1. Although participants possess the mentorship skills of receptivity and sensitivity and pre-emptiveness, the highest means of 1.86 and 1.84 respectively implies that the participants do not rate themselves to possess as much strength they do in other skills.

5.8 MENTORSHIP FUNCTIONS

The questionnaire provided participants with a series of mentorship functions identified in the literature as relevant in any mentoring relationship. The participants were asked to use the given rating scales and indicate the extent to which they agree that mentorship training is needed in these areas.

Table 5.8.1: The extent of need for training in mentorship functions

Items	Mentorship functions	Extremely needed	Needed	Fairly needed	Somewhat needed	Not needed at all	Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
5.8.1.1	Providing information	15	16	15	0	4	50
5.8.1.2	Providing leadership functions	43	7	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.3	Providing exposure and visibility	33	17	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.4	Providing challenging work assignments	39	11	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.5	Providing feedback	33	17	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.6	Providing recognition and respect	11	17	13	9	0	50
5.8.1.7	Providing confirmation and support	28	22	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.8	Providing motivation and encouragement	19	25	6	0	0	50
5.8.1.9	Challenging and encouraging competence	41	9	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.10	Being resource persons	29	21	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.11	Facilitating confidence building	31	19	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.12	Developing self-belief	29	13	7	0	1	50
5.8.1.13	Cultivating management expertise	29	21	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.14	Donating wisdom and creating high expectations	28	22	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.15	Confronting conflict or harmonising disagreements	46	4	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.16	Enhancing others ability to navigate in the organisation	38	8	4	0	0	50
5.8.1.17	Supporting others ideas	21	19	7	1	2	50
5.8.1.18	Cultivating trust	50	0	0	0	0	50
5.8.1.19	Enhancing transformation and growth of others	46	4	0	0	0	50

8.1.20	Enhancing personal and career development	44	6	0	0	0	50
8.1.21	Utilising the creative and youthful energy of others	42	8	0	0	0	50
8.1.22	Helping establish a sense of loyalty and attachment to the organization	15	18	8	4	5	50
8.1.23	Improving the chances of retention within the organization	6	9	18	7	10	50
8.1.24	Attracting re-entry employees	0	4	11	25	10	50
8.1.25	Reducing employee stress	50	0	0	0	0	50
	TOTAL	936	314	89	46	32	1250

from the distribution of responses in table 5.8.1 above, it appears that all the identified mentorship functions were rated as requiring training.

Table 5.8.2: Means for mentorship functions and the ratings

Items	Mentorship functions	No. responses	Mean	Standard deviation	Ranking
5.8.2.25	Reducing employee stress	50	1	0.143	1
5.8.2.18	Cultivating trust	50	1	0.143	1
5.8.2.2	Providing leadership functions	50	1	0.153	1
5.8.2.15	Confronting conflict or harmonising disagreements	50	1.1	0.148	2
5.8.2.19	Enhancing transformation and growth of others	50	1.1	0.148	2
5.8.2.20	Enhancing personal and career development	50	1.1	0.151	2
5.8.2.21	Utilising creative and youth energy of others	50	1.2	0.154	3
5.8.2.9	Challenging and encouraging competence	50	1.2	0.155	3
5.8.2.4	Providing challenging work assignments	50	1.2	0.158	3
5.8.2.3	Providing exposure and visibility	50	1.3	0.165	4
5.8.2.5	Providing feedback	50	1.3	0.165	4
5.8.2.16	Enhancing others ability to navigate in the organisation	50	1.3	0.164	4
5.8.2.11	Facilitating confidence building	50	1.4	0.168	5
5.8.2.13	Cultivating management expertise	50	1.4	0.172	5
5.8.2.10	Being resource persons	50	1.4	0.170	5
5.8.2.14	Donating wisdom and creating high expectations	50	1.4	0.171	5
5.8.2.7	Providing confirmation and support	50	1.4	0.171	5
5.8.2.12	Developing self-belief	50	1.5	0.182	6
5.8.2.8	Providing motivation and encouragement	50	1.7	0.159	7

5.8.2.17	Supporting others ideas	50	1.9	0.252	8
5.8.2.23	Improving the chances of retention within the organization	50	2.1	0.279	9
5.8.2.1	Providing information	50	2.2	0.218	10
5.8.2.22	Helping establish a sense of loyalty and attachment to the organization	50	2.3	0.312	11
5.8.2.6	Providing recognition and respect	50	2.4	0.221	12
5.8.2.24	Attracting re-entry employees	50	3.8	0.129	13

From the means table in 5.8.2, it appears that with the lowest mean values of 1 for each function; reducing employee stress and cultivating trust and provision of leadership functions were rated as requiring more training. On the other hand, attracting re-entry employees and providing recognition and respect were rated the lowest functions requiring training with the mean values of 3.8 and 2.4 respectively. Perhaps female education managers paid little attention to these items because they do not regard them as necessities in their particular situations. This result substantiates the qualitative findings from the in-depth interviews which revealed that female managers need training in their leadership endeavours, highlighting that the training they received was both insufficient in terms of the content and responding to their particular needs as education managers.

9 MENTORSHIP CHALLENGES

Participants were presented with mentorship challenges identified in the literature to be relevant for females in the work situation. The participants were requested to use the given rating scales and indicate the extent to which they agree that the given mentorship challenges are indeed challenges to them in the job situation. The results are presented in tables 5.9.1 and 5.9.2 below.

Table 5.9.1: Mentorship challenges

From the distribution of responses in table 5.9.1 above, it appears that women education managers do experience some challenges' in their managing endeavours.

Items	Mentorship challenges	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	strongly disagree	total
		1	2	3	4	5	
5.9.1.1	Establishing formal interactions with men in management positions	2	6	2	19	21	50
5.9.1.2	Preference for interacting with others of similar status in the organization	5	15	0	14	16	50
5.9.1.3	Sharing institutional knowledge with males	3	4	0	18	25	50
5.9.1.4	Promoting learning through relationships with males that require close, interpersonal transactions	3	9	8	16	14	50
5.9.1.5	Giving women preferential treatment for jobs which are prerequisites for managerial positions	5	2	4	17	22	50
5.9.1.6	Taking risks	9	9	5	10	17	50
5.9.1.7	Assertiveness	5	4	0	12	29	50
5.9.1.8	Competitiveness	4	3	2	14	27	50
5.9.1.9	Emotional control	19	7	3	10	11	50
5.9.1.10	Autonomous motivation for achievement	0	0	4	18	28	50
5.9.1.11	Responding to instrumental forms of helping such as problem solving	0	0	1	23	26	50
5.9.1.12	Accepting power	6	9	0	19	16	50
5.9.1.13	Reliance on dependent strategies	5	5	2	18	20	50
5.9.1.14	Reliance on helpless behaviour	0	0	0	14	36	50
5.9.1.15	Total	66	73	31	222	308	700

Table 5.9.2: Means and frequencies for mentorship challenges

Item No.	MENTORSHIP CHALLENGES	No. of responses	Mean	Ranking	Standard deviation
5.9.2.9	Emotional control	50	2.7	1	0.236
5.9.2.2	Preference for interacting with others of similar status in the organization	50	3.4	2	0.264
5.9.2.6	Taking risks	50	3.5	3	0.261
5.9.2.12	Accepting power	50	3.6	4	0.271
5.9.2.4	Promoting learning through relationships with males that require close, interpersonal transactions	50	3.6	5	0.270
5.9.2.13	Reliance on dependent strategies	50	3.9	6	0.236
5.9.2.5	Giving women preferential treatment for jobs which are prerequisites for managerial positions	50	4	7	0.285
5.9.2.1	Establishing formal interactions with men in management positions	50	4	7	0.286
5.9.2.7	Assertiveness	50	4.1	8	0.290
5.9.2.8	Competitiveness	50	4.1	8	0.291
5.9.2.3	Sharing institutional knowledge with males	50	4.2	9	0.289
5.9.2.10	Autonomous motivation for achievement	50	4.5	10	0.302
5.9.2.11	Responding to instrumental forms of helping such as problem solving	50	4.5	10	0.302
5.9.2.14	Reliance on helpless behaviour	50	4.7	11	0.281

The mean table 5.9.2 above indicates that a mean value close to 5 indicates the functions where participants do not have the greatest challenge while the mean value far below 4 implies the function which presents participants with greatest challenges. In this case, it appears that emotional control presents the most challenge for female managers ranking the first amongst the challenges with the lowest mean value of 2.7 validating the qualitative findings of the focus group discussions data which suggested that female managers are emotional (c.f. 4.8.3). Preference for interacting with others of similar status also presents the most challenge to female education managers', with a mean value of 3.4. This finding is

consistent with the qualitative investigations of the focus groups and in-depth interviews suggesting that female principals prefer female deputies and female HoDs (c.f. 4.8.2). It appears that taking risks also presents the most challenge to female education managers', with a mean value of 3.5.

5.10 MENTORSHIP STRATEGIES

Participants were presented with strategies identified as useful for creating a mentorship strategy. They were asked to use the given rating scales and indicate the extent to which they agree that the given processes would be useful for the creation of a mentorship strategy.

Table 5.10.1 Mentorship strategies

Items	Useful mentorship strategies	Extremely useful	Useful	Fairly useful	Somewhat not useful	Not useful at all	Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
5.10.1.1	Setting visions, aim and the mission statement as well as the goals and the objectives of the mentorship strategy taking into account views from participants and other stakeholders	24	26	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.2	Creating a mentorship vision and mission	40	10	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.3	Communicating visions in a way that secures commitment from members of the organisation	45	5	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.4	Communicating the meaning of visions and missions in order to energize others	35	15	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.5	Listening to other member of the organisation opinions	47	3	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.6	Persisting in the face of resistance, failure and disappointment	50	0	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.7	Being receptive and sensitive to others, listening to their hopes and fears	33	17	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.8	Creating mentorship ideas for new	29	11	10	0	0	50

	performance goals						
5.10.1.9	Selecting and prioritising mentorship goals	28	17	5	0	0	50
5.10.1.10	Identifying mentorship target areas	23	22	5	0	0	50
5.10.1.11	Recording and communicating mentorship goals and targets	30	10	10	0	0	50
5.10.1.12	Sourcing out ideas regarding the future needs of the a mentorship strategy	41	9	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.13	Analysing current internal and external review data in relation to provision of the mentorship strategy	40	6	4	0	0	50
5.10.1.14	Taking stakeholders expectations and influences into account	20	10	10	0	10	50
5.10.1.15	Involving top management	40	10	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.16	Communicating results and reacting to feedback	40	10	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.17	Having a policy mandating the construction of a mentorship strategy	50	0	0	0	0	50
5.10.1.18	Using powerful and emotive language to give life to the vision and mission	32	16	2	0	0	50
5.10.1.19	Analysing the future performance needs of mentorship in the schools	40	10	0	0	0	50
	TOTAL	677	207	56	0	10	950

The distribution of responses in table 5.10.1 above suggests that participants believe that all identified mentorship strategies would be useful.

Table 5.10.2: Means for mentorship strategies

ITEMS	Mentorship strategies	No. of	Mean	Ranking	Standard deviation
5.10.2.1	Setting visions, aim and the mission statement as well as the goals and the objectives of the mentorship strategy taking into account views from participants and other stakeholders	50	1.52	10	0.5046
5.10.2.2	Creating a mentorship vision and mission	50	1.2	5	0.4041
5.10.2.3	Communicating visions in a way that secures commitment from members of the organisation	50	1.1	3	0.3030
5.10.2.4	Communicating the meaning of visions and missions in order to energize others	50	1.3	7	0.4629
5.10.2.5	Listening to other member of the organisation opinions	50	1.06	2	0.2399

5.10.2.6	Persisting in the face of resistance, failure and disappointment	50	1.00	1	0.0000
5.10.2.7	Being receptive and sensitive to others, listening to their hopes and fears	50	1.34	8	0.4785
5.10.2.8	Creating mentorship ideas for new performance goals	50	1.62	13	0.8053
5.10.2.9	Selecting and prioritising mentorship goals	50	1.54	11	0.6764
5.10.2.10	Identifying mentorship target areas	50	1.64	14	0.6627
5.10.2.11	Recording and communicating mentorship goals and targets	50	1.6	12	0.8081
5.10.2.12	Sourcing out ideas regarding the future needs of the a mentorship strategy	50	1.18	4	0.3881
5.10.2.13	Analysing current internal and external review data in relation to provision of the mentorship strategy	50	1.28	6	0.6074
5.10.2.14	Taking stakeholders expectations and influences into account	50	2.4	15	1.5119
5.10.2.15	Involving top management	50	1.2	5	0.4041
5.10.2.16	Communicating results and reacting to feedback	50	1.2	5	0.4041
5.10.2.17	Having a policy mandating the construction of a mentorship strategy	50	1	1	0.0000
5.10.2.18	Using powerful and emotive language to give life to the vision and mission	50	1.4	9	0.5714
5.10.2.19	Analysing the future performance needs of mentorship in the schools	50	1.2	5	0.4041

he means table, 5.10.2 confirms this finding. With the lowest mean value of 1, persistence in the face of resistance, failure and disappointment and having a policy mandating the construction of a mentorship strategy were rated as the most useful strategies for the construction of a mentorship strategy for Lesotho schools. This finding substantiates Singh's(1997:12) perception that no matter how strong female aspirations are, and however much they support each other, progress will be extremely slow unless and until there is public recognition that a problem exists and needs to be tackled. In other words, gender equity policies and programmes merely represent good intentions unless they are backed up by appropriate legislation and infrastructure support. The results are presented in tables 5.10.1 and 5.10.2 below.

5.11 SUMMARY

The chapter discussed the feminist thinking behind the use of quantitative methods of investigation. From the discussions, it is evident that quantitative methods of investigation were appropriate to be used in this transformative feminist research which intends to influence policy-making in the MOET in Lesotho. The quantitative investigations revealed that some mentorship skills were identified as more crucial than others, that some mentorship skills were identified as requiring more training and that some mentorship strategies were identified as more useful for leadership in Lesotho schools. Below is a summative table of the quantitative findings.

Table 5.11.1: Summative table of the quantitative findings

1.	Most crucial skills for mentorship	<p>The following skills were identified as most crucial for mentorship:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communications skills • Facilitation skills • Teaching skills • Advising skills • Friendliness skills • Coaching skills • Role modelling skills
2.	Mentorship functions requiring more training	<p>The following mentorship functions were identified as requiring more training:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reducing employee stress • Cultivating trust • Confronting conflict or harmonising disagreements • Enhancing personal and career development • Providing leadership functions • Using creative and youth energy of others • Challenging and encouraging competence • Enhancing transformation and growth of others • Providing challenging work assignments • Providing exposure and visibility

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing feedback
3.	Mentorship challenges' for female education leaders	<p>Female education managers encounter most challenges in the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional control • Taking risks • Preference for interacting with others of similar status in the organization • Promoting learning through relationships with males that • require close, interpersonal transactions • Autonomous motivation for achievement • Accepting power • Reliance on dependent strategies
4.	Useful mentorship strategies	<p>The following were identified as most useful strategies:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having a policy mandating the construction of a mentorship strategy • Listening to other member of the organisation opinions • Communicating visions in a way that secures commitment from members of the organisation • Sourcing out ideas regarding the future needs of the a mentorship strategy • Creating a mentorship vision and mission • Involving top management • Communicating results and reacting to feedback • Analysing the future performance needs of mentorship in the schools

The findings of the quantitative investigations revealed certain trends which were prevalent in the qualitative findings of both the in-depth interviews and focus-group discussions. From both the quantitative and the qualitative findings, the following similarities can be observed. The findings of the two approaches reveal that:

Female managers are mature and possess the minimum required qualification to become managers.

Managerial involvement plays a major role in the appointment of education managers.

Female managers teach for many years before they could become managers.

There is no mentorship for female managers in Lesotho schools neither are there any exceptional training programmes organised to prepare females for the management positions.

Female managers do possess strength in a number of mentorship skills such as communication skills

Female managers value having other women in their management team

Female managers regard policy as a useful mentoring strategy that could be adopted in order to establish a mentoring strategy for females in Lesotho.

These findings prompt the question: What conclusions can be drawn from this study?

6

SYNTHESIS OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The aim of this research was to explore and analyse female education managers mentoring experiences and the meaning they ascribe to these experiences in an attempt to determine an appropriate mentorship strategy for female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools. This investigation was deemed indispensable, considering the fact that the last several decades in Lesotho's secondary schools in particular, have been a transforming period for females. The surfacing culture of females steadily making great strides into new occupations, new responsibilities and better, managerial positions has been notable. An investigation was therefore conducted by means of a literature study on mentorship (chapter 2) followed by a study into a strategic management analysis as a baseline for developing a mentorship strategy that female education managers need to respond with their particular needs in Lesotho's secondary schools (chapter 3). A mixed and multi-method research using

various qualitative strategies such as the in-depth interviews and focus group discussions (chapter 4) and a quantitative strategy research by employing questionnaires (chapter 5) was conducted to further explore female mentoring experiences. Subsequently, the different results were converged, by being compared and contrasted during interpretation. The mixed-method approach was meant to validate and corroborate qualitative results with quantitative findings in order to end up with valid and well substantiated conclusions about a single phenomenon.

5.1.1 Overview of the investigation

In this section an overview of the foregoing study is presented in taking into account the research problem set forth in 1.2, suggesting that, the present operating mentorship strategy in Lesotho is ineffective, particularly in terms of the provision of feedback, leadership opportunities and the provision of professional development opportunities, motivation and encouragement, coaching and creating networks.

In this study the mentoring experiences of female education managers were investigated. Lack of mentorship for female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools and the reluctance of the MOET to organise programmes for the empowerment of females has been well documented. It is obvious from the findings that training of any kind is not a pre-requisite to access a management position in Lesotho's secondary schools. Limited investigations have been made as pertain the experiences of females once they attain the management position. This study was motivated by a preliminary quantitative investigation into the gender representational patterns of mentorship functions in Lesotho. The findings revealed that female education managers have mentorship needs as male managers do. This prompted

an investigation into the mentoring experiences of female education managers entering the position as well as those experienced in the profession.

6.1.2 An overview of the literature study

In this section an overview of the foregoing study is presented in taking into account the research questions posed at the beginning of the study in 1.2, necessitating a review of the theory surrounding mentorship and construction of a strategic management analysis of the present mentoring strategy for women in Lesotho's secondary schools as a base-line for future improvement.

Mentoring to enhance professional preparation is arguably the oldest information and support method (c.f. 2.2.1) having its foundations in Greek mythology, extending to the relevance of Mentor and Telemachus's relationship in today's organisations (c.f. 2.2). Several mentorship studies have focused on a detailed delineation of the concepts of a mentor (c.f. 2.2.1) and a protégé (c.f. 2.3.1), examining specifically, the part they play in a mentoring dyad, particularly in the different phases (c.f. 2.4.2) of the mentoring relationship. Thus, the functions (c.f. 2.2.1) and skills they all display in various phases are evident, suggesting therefore, that certain competencies and skills are a requirement for being an effective mentor and a protégé (c.f. 2.3). A wide body of mentorship research has highlighted the benefits of mentorship to the mentor, the protégé and the organisation (c.f. 2.2.1), underscoring that although there may be difficulties in mentoring relationships in general (c.f. 2.2.1), and in homogeneous mentoring relationship in particular (c.f. 2.6.2.1), diversified mentoring relationships have many more challenges, especially concerning female mentors - male protégés and male mentors - female protégés dyads (c.f. 2.6.2.2). In addition there is convincing evidence provided by mentoring studies that men and women have difficulties

forming mutually beneficial mentor relationships. Having examined the impact of homogeneous mentorships and diversified mentorships in females and males, mentoring studies argue that same gender mentoring pairs may be particularly valuable to females (c.f. 2.6.2.3).

Many studies acknowledge that mentorship requires more than a set of managerial decisions and actions that will determine the long-term performance of a mentorship strategy. It is agreed that a rapid change in any environment may require an organisation to make more than small changes in order to keep pace with the new developments (c.f. 3.1). The literature on strategic management therefore recommends a strategic management process to provide a base line for constructing a mentorship strategy for female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools (c.f. 3.1). Many studies examine the phenomenon of strategic management as comprising two sub-systems; namely strategic planning (c.f. 3.3.1) and strategic thinking (c.f. 3.3.2), as well as a range of strategic management models (c.f. 3.4), all of which facilitate the surfacing of a synthesis model appropriate for the creation of the mentorship strategy for females in Lesotho's secondary schools (c.f. 3.4.1). The strategic management literature facilitated the provision of a framework for developing a mentorship strategy which is needed today to lead and manage the operation of any school system effectively (c.f. 3.6.1). From the results of the survey, it appears that a lot needs to be done in order to come up with a mentorship strategy that would address the specific needs of females in Lesotho's secondary schools.

Mixed-method research was therefore conducted by the use of both a qualitative investigation through the use of in-depth interviews (c.f. 4.8.2) and focus group discussions (c.f. 4.8.3), together with a quantitative investigation through the use of questionnaires (c.f.

5.6.1), in order to examine the mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools.

5.1.3 A summary of the qualitative investigation

In this section an overview of the foregoing study is presented in taking into account the research question posed in 1.2, necessitating an application of a qualitative investigation to explore the mentoring needs of female education managers in Lesotho schools as well as to investigate a variety of implementation strategies.

A qualitative study was conducted by means of in-depth interviews (c.f. 4.8.1) and focus group discussions (c.f. 4.8.3). Ten participants were interviewed in the in-depth interviews (c.f. 4.8.1) and thirteen participants with four members in two groups and five members in the other group were used in focus group discussions (c.f. 4.8.3). Both the in-depth interviews and the focus group discussions centred attention on the mentoring experiences of female education managers regarding their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. From both the in-depth interviews and the focus group discussion data, female education managers had varied and inter-related mentoring experiences. The data from the in-depth interviews data revealed that while Palesa, Lipalesa, Thuto, Mpho and Lineo did not have any formal mentoring experiences at all (c.f. 4.8.1), Sebatatso mentioned being assisted by primary school principal in that school as their school is a combined one (c.f. 4.8.1). Naleli, on the other hand, wanted to model what she had seen other leaders do (c.f. 4.8.1), and Thato and Tholoana had an opportunity to understudy their principals before they themselves took office (c.f. 4.8.2). An in-depth interview was also undertaken with one representative from the MOET (c.f. 4.8.1), with the focus on the contributions of the Ministry on assisting principals, especially female principals in their role. The information gathered from the MOET

representative corroborated, to a very large extent, those of the nine participants in their in-depth interviews. For example, the participants mentioned that they either received training late or the training was limited or both (c.f. 4.8.2). Concurring, the MOET representative indicated that there is not much that the Ministry is doing to assist principals in their positions and that the Ministry does not have any programme that specifically focuses on female principals' issues (c.f. 4.8.2).

The in-depth interviews also revealed that most female education managers believe that they can be of invaluable assistance in providing mentorship for principals, especially new principals, as the older ones retire (c.f. 4.8.2). For example, Mpho mentioned that as she has approached her retirement, she envisages holding a coordination position in which she would be involved in mentoring the many female education managers entering the position (c.f. 4.8.2). Equally, Lineo sees herself as a mentor for a new female education manager in her school (c.f. 4.8.1). In an attempt to create a mentorship programme for female education managers in Lesotho therefore, it becomes evident that mentors, who would possibly be retired principals, are already available for that endeavour.

Although in-depth interview findings revealed mixed views regarding whether female education managers are more comfortable working with males or females, it is clear from the descriptions that female education managers are generally comfortable working with other females in the management team (c.f. 4.8.1). All female education managers had female deputies whom they recommended for those positions and most of them had female HoDs whom they also recommended to hold those positions (c.f. 4.8.2). These findings substantiate a generally held view that women face a typically complex, inter-related set of

career issues that may be outside men's experience and may necessitate that mentorship programmes with female mentors-female protégés be developed (Quinlan, 1999:32).

On the other hand, the focus group discussion data delineated six themes: the provision of information and resources, motivation, encouragement and feedback, developing leadership skills, communication and listening, leniency, emotions and accommodating gossip and favouritism (c.f. 4.8.3). Of these themes, it emerged that female education managers do indeed possess the required mentorship skills and do appropriately provide the required mentoring functions, despite the fact that they need to work hard on other aspects, such as emotional control and leniency as these can present them with management challenges.

5.1.4 A summary of the quantitative investigation

In this section an overview of the foregoing study is presented in taking into account the research question posed in 1.2, necessitating an application of a quantitative investigation by means of a questionnaire to explore the mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho schools.

A quantitative study was conducted by means of questionnaires which were distributed among fifty female education managers who all responded to the questionnaire. The questionnaire had eighteen items; sixteen were tick-box items while two were open-ended questions. Although a questionnaire proved to be a useful instrument for gathering a large amount of information from the respondents with the tick-box items, it was quite the reverse with the open-ended questions because they were not responded to with the same intensity (c.f. 5.6.3 and 5.6.4). However, the participants responded to all the questionnaire items and the results of the questionnaire revealed that mentorship (c.f. 5.6.1) or formal training of any kind is not a pre-requisite to accessing a management position in Lesotho's secondary

schools (c.f. 5.6.2). Female education managers accessed their present managerial positions mainly through managerial involvement and their previous positions held (c.f. 5.6.1). Nonetheless, female education managers do access the MOET training during the course of their careers as managers (c.f. 5.6.3). The quantitative findings also reveal that female education managers learnt many lessons in their careers, including among other things: confidence, positive interpersonal skills, listening skills, trust and empathy (c.f. 5.6.4). Although the findings revealed that female education managers possess the mentorship skills (c.f. 5.7.1), the data simultaneously revealed that there is a need for training in mentorship areas (c.f. 5.8.1) and that certain mentorship strategies would be useful in the creation of a mentorship programme (c.f. 5.10.1), since female education managers are presented with a number of mentorship challenges in their careers (c.f. 5.9.1). The quantitative investigation corroborated, to a large extent, the qualitative data of the in-depth interviews and the focus group discussions. Therefore, a mixed-method research would be the most suitable approach to explore the mentoring experiences of females in Lesotho schools.

5.2 SYNTHESIS OF THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Significant findings which emerged from the qualitative and quantitative investigations are synthesised and interpreted in relation to the research questions and aims posed at the beginning of the study. In the process of synthesising and interpreting, the relevant findings are compared with those from the previous studies as reviewed in the literature presented in chapters 2 and 3. Tentative conclusions regarding female mentorship experiences are drawn and recommendations for institutional policy and future research are made.

The intention of this study has been to describe the lived mentoring experiences of female education managers' in Lesotho's secondary schools in order to determine the development of an operational strategy that would address the specific mentoring needs of female managers in Lesotho schools. The objectives of the study were as follows:

- To view the theory surrounding mentorship.
- To conduct a strategic management analysis of the present mentoring strategy for women in Lesotho's secondary schools as a base-line for future improvement.
- To apply a feminist mixed-method approach to explore the needs of female education managers in Lesotho as well as to investigate a variety of implementation strategies.
- To construct an operation mentorship strategy based on the strategic management analysis and the data that emerged from the empirical investigations.

The next section presents the essence of the female mentorship strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats as the participants commonly experienced them. A swot analysis matrix below depicts such strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.

Table 6.2.1 a swot analysis matrix of the themes delineated from the qualitative and quantitative data

INTERNAL (swot)	
Strengths	Weaknesses
<p>Female education managers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • are aware of their right to be equipped (4.8.2, 4.8.3 and 5.8.1) • are mature in terms of age, experience and qualifications to handle a management position (c.f. 	<p>Nonetheless:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • there are financial constraints (c.f. 4.8.2); • there are insufficient resources (c.f. 4.8.2); • there is limited experience (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3); • there is ineffectiveness (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3);

4.8.2 and 5.5.1);

- value the support they receive from particularly females staff members (c.f. 4.8.2 and 5.9.2);
- possess required mentorship skills such as provision of information, motivation and encouragement, provision of feedback, develop leadership skills of others, communication skills and are active listeners (c.f. 4.8.3 and 5.7.1);
- have networking experiences (c.f. 4.8.2).

- there is member dissatisfaction (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3);
- there is lack of mentorship experience (c.f. 4.8.2, 4.8.3 and 5.8.1)
- female managers are lenient (c.f. 4.8.3), emotional (c.f. 4.8.3 and 5.9.2) and tend to favour some over others (c.f. 4.8.3)
- female managers have not experienced with mentoring functions of protection, role-modelling and coaching (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3)

EXTERNAL (pest)

Opportunities

School system in Lesotho has:

- Structure (c.f. 4.8.2)
- Legislation (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3)
- the MOET training program (c.f. 4.8.2, 5.6.2 and 5.6.3)

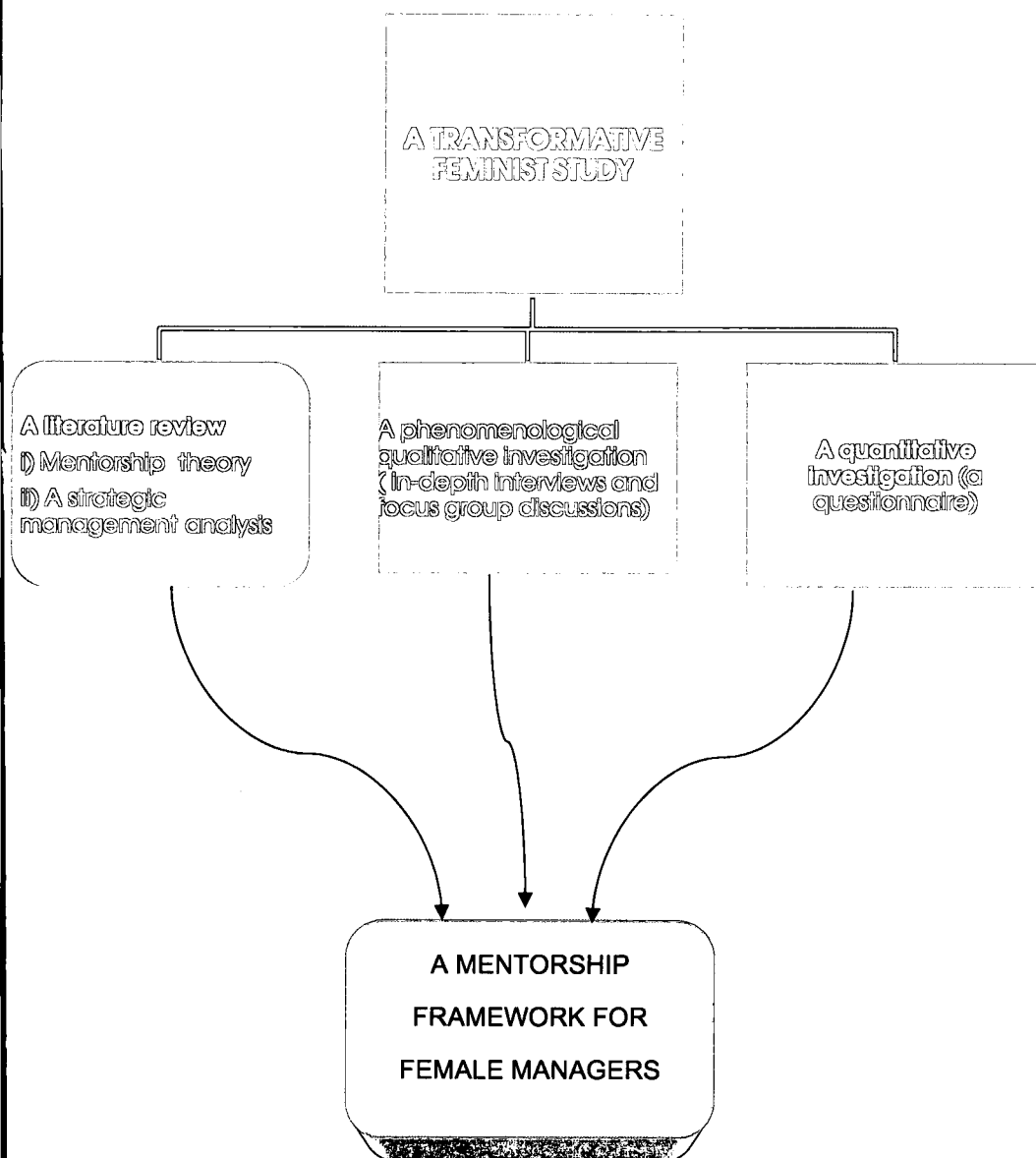
Threats

Nonetheless:

- there are insufficient Resources (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3)
- there are financial constraints (c.f. 4.8.2)
- there is no gender policy (c.f. 4.8.2)
- there is no plan for legislation concerning females in schools (c.f. 4.8.2)
- there are no programmes focusing on female principals (c.f. 4.8.2)
- there is no legislation that addresses the needs of female principals (c.f. 4.8.2)
- the MOET does not recognise the need to empower female principals on their own (c.f. 4.8.2)
- there is No HoDs training (c.f. 4.8.2)

The findings of this study create an integration model as depicted in diagram 6.2.2 below.

Diagram 6.2.2: An integration model



6.3 STRATEGIC ACTIONS FOR DEVELOPING MENTORSHIP STRATEGY FOR EDUCATION MANAGERS

The findings of this study have made it obvious that education management in Lesotho has nevertheless progressed in spite of the absence of any mentorship strategy for both the beginner and experienced female education managers. The objectives of the study as stated in section (c.f. 1.3.2) were attained and the interview and focus group discussion questions posed in section (c.f. 4.5.2.1 and 4.5.3 together with) the research questionnaire (as per Addendum F), were satisfactorily answered. The mentoring experiences of female education managers were described in section (c.f. 4.8.2 and 4.8.3).

In section (c.f. 3.4.2) a strategic management model suitable for mentorship was provided and a mentorship framework comprising the strategic actions required from education managers and the segments required for mentorship development, were tabulated. The qualitative and quantitative investigations revealed the need for a mentorship programme and training for beginner and the more experienced female education managers (c.f. 4.8.1, 4.8.2, 5.8.1, 5.9.1 and 5.10.1). Therefore, a mentorship programme for all female education managers is required and should:

Include the fundamentals of formal mentorship so that a mentorship strategy adheres to its primary requirement of a professional development activity for enhancing the learning and growth of potential beginner principals, as well as more experienced principals (c.f. 4.8.1, 4.8.2, 5.9.1 and 5.10.1). Then there has to be a common comprehension of the basics of particularly, formal mentorship as opposed to informal mentorship amongst all stakeholders, because the literature on mentorship has indicated that informal mentorship may not particularly work for women (c.f. 3.4.2.2).

- For the success of the mentorship programme, there has to be the full support of top management and an extensive orientation programme, clearly stating the responsibilities of each one of the parties involved (c.f. 3.4.2.2 and 5.10.1).

Below are the phases that are required for the establishment of a mentorship strategy in Lesotho's secondary schools.

3.3.1 Strategic analysis

Strategic analysis requires an education manager to systematically evaluate the situation within the school environment by identifying its internal strengths and weaknesses (c.f. 3.4.2.1 and 5.10.1). This pertains to the current mentorship strategy for females in schools to be examined through the resource base such as the skills base and the financial resources (c.f. 3.4.2.1 and 5.10.1). The model should consider whether the organisation has the wherewithal to achieve its stated objectives or to put into motion its strategies (c.f. 3.4.2.1 and 5.10.1.1). In addition, the education manager needs to explore the external environment; that is, the political, social, economic and technological changes occurring outside the organisation because this is likely to influence the direction and shape of an organisation's policies and objectives with regard to a developed mentorship programme (c.f. 3.4.2.1 and 5.10.1.13).

3.3.2 Strategic intent

Education managers need to devise means to determine the vision and mission for the school in collaboration with the staff and the pupils (c.f. 3.4.2.1 and 5.10.1.1). These serve as a communication tool that articulates the way forward so as to understand what the school stands for and what it is seeking to achieve, particularly with the creation of a mentorship

strategy. Once the vision and mission have been established, they need to be translated into achievable goals in order to describe the desired performance to be attained in a particular time frame of several years. These goals need to be clear to all organisational members, specifically regarding the intended outcomes. For any goal, a range of objectives, each giving a different way of indicating whether the goal has been achieved or that the performance is moving towards the prescribed goal, will need to be determined (c.f. 3.4.2.2 and 5.10.1.1).

Education managers need to determine the education strategies which are driven by the goals and come from a systematic analysis and evaluation of the current internal and external processes of the school. In this process, an education manager is required to out-source ideas regarding the future needs of the mentorship programme from the participants and other stakeholders and taking stakeholders' expectations and influences into account (c.f. 3.4.2.2, and 5.10.1.11). Both current internal and external review data should be analysed in relation to the provision of a mentorship programme, with the involvement of top management, mixing participants' views, communicating results and reacting to feedback (c.f. 3.4.2.2, 5.10.1.5, 5.10.1.7, 5.10.1.12, 5.10.1.14 and 5.10.1.15).

3.3 Strategic implementation

Once the strategic analysis has been undertaken, an education manager needs to design and implement a mentorship strategy through developing an action plan and actions aimed at marshalling and applying resources for a successful mentorship strategy.

There will be a need for a policy mandating the construction of a mentorship strategy for female and male education managers in secondary schools from which a mentorship programme can be designed (c.f. 3.4.2.3, 5.10.1.17 and 5.10.1.19). Following from the

programme design, the education manager should solicit key staff, such as the facilitator, to be part of the programme planning and he/she should remain in an advisory capacity throughout the duration of the programme (c.f. 3.4.2.3). An internal coordinator should be appointed to deal with the administrative aspects of the programme and both the facilitator and the coordinator should possess expertise in the execution of the mentorship programme. With the assistance of the facilitator and the coordinator, an education manager should then draw up a plan for the mentoring programme followed by the publication and an announcement regarding the proposed programme. All existing communication channels such as notice boards should be used, ensuring that all eligible staff is informed, as well as holding of information sessions for all interested participants, including men not in the initial programme (c.f. 3.4.2.3).

An education manager should then facilitate a careful selection of mentors and protégés where the protégés are matched with the most appropriate and beneficial mentors. The selection process is followed up by the provision of training for both mentors and protégés in order to execute the mentoring role (c.f. 3.4.2.3).

3.4 Strategic evaluation

An education manager will also need to facilitate the development of a monitoring process and analysing of the performance of the organisation with respect to achieving the goals and objectives of the mentorship strategy set into the action plan. An education manager will need to establish a periodic evaluation strategy in order to check on progress and to correct mistakes, as well as helping the manager take account of changes and their effects on the organisation's progress (c.f. 3.4.2.4).

6.4 DISCLOSURES

The investigations into the mentoring experiences of female education managers reveal that:

- The Lesotho education system does not have a mentorship programme for female education managers. The MOET expressed its insecurities about organising a programme for females only, since such a programme might be viewed as discriminatory (c.f. 4.8.1). It might be problematic for female education managers to mentor other females because they have not been empowered for this role (c.f. 4.8.1). Thus, the lack of a mentorship programme may result in criticisms about female education managers' incompetency and reluctance to mentor either females or males in the school environment.

The number of experienced and qualified female education managers to mentor and impart knowledge to other females in all the required areas of expertise is limited and in the absence of sufficient numbers of female education managers to mentor other females in secondary schools, females are likely to be reluctant to contest for education manager's position.

There are already approximately one hundred female educational managers in Lesotho's secondary schools who have been female deputies, female HoDs and assistant teachers. This situation suggests that accessing management positions for female education managers is no longer an issue of concern in Lesotho's secondary schools.

Lesotho's secondary schools have female education managers who are experienced, qualified and have developed a vast store of knowledge, expertise and know-how which can be used in the future to provide effective and efficient mentorships (c.f. 4.8.1).

Female education managers have extensive and longstanding contacts with other education managers in Lesotho and outside Lesotho with whom they can share

information and experiences regarding among other issues, issues related to female mentorships in schools. These networking avenues can be modified to incorporate the mentoring needs of experienced and beginner female education managers, resulting in the creation of mentorship networking programmes for female education managers in Lesotho (c.f. 4.8.1).

The education system in Lesotho has a national structure, with well recognised and settled divisions between the church, for church schools, the board and the government through the MOET. An effective service of the construction of a mentorship strategy can therefore be set up.

Sponsorship for the construction of a mentoring strategy may be a challenge because it has been difficult for the MOET to train new principals in recent years, due to a lack of funds (c.f. 4.8.1). Therefore, the failure to address mentorship issues will lead to increasing in-effectiveness.

In addition to the fact that female education managers are presented with mentorship challenges, they have not experienced a number of mentorship skills identified as relevant for mentorship, such as protection, coaching and role modelling (c.f. 4.8.1).

Although the Lesotho government recognises the need for capacity building in education management at school level, there is no gender policy aimed at benefiting both women and men. In particular no mentoring programme exists which focuses on women who have been marginalised and prevented from equal participation in the education system.

Female education managers prefer to work with other females in the management team.

Although female education managers do possess the relevant mentorship skills, they often have to overcome problems of being lenient, favouring some over others and becoming emotional.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the disclosures above, certain recommendations can be made, aimed at the following groups:

- Females in the positions of education management;
- The MOET; and
- Education institutions.

6.5.1 Female education managers in positions of leadership

It is recommended that female education managers who are in these positions:

- Create a mentorship networking programme for female education managers in Lesotho which could begin with networking programmes in different districts and one national network for all female education managers.

It is obvious from the findings of the study that most female education managers are due for retirement. Therefore, they should not simply leave their professions as they retire, but could perhaps volunteer to mentor females taking up these positions if it proves difficult to be hired to perform these tasks

6.5.2 The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET)

It is recommended that the MOET:

- Review and re-design its training programmes to meet the mentorship needs of female education managers focussing on among others things; protection, coaching and role-modelling.

- Have a recruitment policy for education managers that make it compulsory for teachers to go through an education management training programme that integrates mentorship in it, before being appointed to a management position.
- Establish formal training programmes that particularly address the mentoring needs of female education managers.
- Establish a national framework for the management development of education managers at all levels.
- Draw up a gender policy that aims to respond to women's needs and concerns.
- Train female education managers as mentors to females entering the management positions
- Train females in schools as protégés.

6.5.2 Education institutions

It is recommended that education institutions:

- Offer management programmes for all teachers aspiring to education management positions.

6.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The investigations into the mentoring experiences of female education managers' revealed the following limitations:

Despite the fact that twenty-one female HoDs were invited to participate in the focus group discussions, only thirteen participants attended, resulting in three groups with only four members in two groups and five in another group.

The timing and venue for the focus group discussions were negotiated with the participants. However, the agreed upon time coincided with a busy schedule experienced by participants. The focus groups had to start later or a participant had to be excused from the discussion proceedings, further reducing the already limited number of participants.

Although the questionnaire had a section with very few open-ended questions, most female education managers did not fill in this part.

6.7 AVENUES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The investigations into the mentoring experiences of female education managers' revealed that:

The study was not able to capture the unique opinions and views of male teachers and male HoDs regarding the mentorship contributions female education managers make to their particular situation since this was beyond the scope of the study. However, it would be informative and valuable to have a male perspective regarding female managers' contributions to their mentorship, since females manage both males and females; perhaps their situation might be significantly different.

The women who participated in the interviews were only those from Leribe, Maseru, Mafeteng, Teyateyaneng and Mochale's hoek districts. There is a need to record the views of women in other districts, especially in the mountainous areas, in order to have large enough samples that allow for an in-depth exploration of these important, but complex mentorship experiences.

Seriously consideration should be given to frequently expressed view that all new education managers and head teachers should be entitled to mentoring support as one

component of their management development. Moreover, it would be valuable to undertake an investigation into males' mentoring needs in order to determine the best mentoring strategy for them.

The currently reported financial situation within the MOET prohibiting principals from accessing even the initial training due to them, may be a grave disadvantage for the future cohort of principals not to have the training at all. The extent of this financial situation requires further investigation, because it is seminally important for both male and female principals to be developed.

6.8 CONCLUSIONS

The main aim of this study was to capture a broader picture of the female mentoring experiences in Lesotho's secondary schools, in order to determine the development of an operational strategy that would address the specific mentoring needs of female staff members. This phenomenon was explored from the transformative feminist perspective with the intent of initiating female emancipation. A description of the research methods comprising the literature study, a qualitative investigation and quantitative methods were detailed and an exposition of a summary of the findings comparing the literature and the findings was given.

Recommendations addressing the problems stated at the beginning of the study were provided (6.5) and avenues for further research were specified (6.6). Although the formal references consulted were essential to this study as sources of knowledge that informed the researcher and facilitated the interpretation of the findings of both the qualitative and quantitative investigations, it is however the responses of the women themselves that gave substance and reality to this strategic analysis of mentoring experiences of female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools.

The study revealed that there has been remarkable progress in terms of the review of the process of recruitment, placement and promotions within the MOET as premeditated in the LESSP (2005-2015:110(d) and made gender responsive. This was to ensure that more women are elevated to senior management positions in the entire education system (c.f. 1.1) and indeed, more women are currently entering education management positions. Nevertheless, it is disheartening to note that the Government of Lesotho through the Ministry of Education does not have a gender policy which addresses particularly, the mentorship needs and generally the training needs of female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools. Such a programme would ensure that women in schools realise their strengths and potential to advance as members of the schools as institutions and as creative individuals and professionals. This revelation obligates the Government of Lesotho through the MOET to establish a gender policy, addressing specifically mentorship needs of female education managers in Lesotho's secondary schools, as well as the general development and training needs of females.

This obligation is in line with the United Nations' (1996:33) opine that, the changed international context should have an influence on the national governments. According to the United Nations (1996:33), the signatories to the Beijing Declaration are now required to report regularly to the United Nations on the progress made on the twelve 'critical areas of concern' relating to the advancement of women and the achievement of equality between women and men as a matter of human rights. It is against this background that Singh (1997:12) cautions that the efforts of governments worldwide, devoting thought and energy to remove obstacles for females should be supported with policies and programmes, in order that females may be supported in real and authentic ways, so that the establishment of a mentorship programme for example, does not remain a 'buzzword' as opposed to a

meaningful professional development strategy. This state of affairs make the words of Samora Machel, President of Frelimo at the Founding Conference of the Organisation of the Mozamican Women (OMM) in (1973) as quoted in Urdang (1983:25) fundamentally pertinent to the Government of Lesotho when he declares that "the liberation of women is a fundamental necessity for the revolution, a guarantee of its continuity and a precondition for victory". Samora Machel (1983) further states that;

"the emancipation of women is not an act of charity, the result of a humanitarian or compassionate attitude. The objective of the revolution is to destroy the system of exploitation and build a new society which releases the potential of human beings, reconciling them with labour and with nature. This is the context within which the question of women emancipation arises".

Female education managers in Lesotho deserve nothing less than development, empowerment and training to become more efficient and worthy exponents of their noble profession.

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ADDENDUMS

ADDENDUM A

AN INTRODUCTORY LETTER AND A

A PRELIMINARY QUESTIONNAIRE

2010-02-03

Enquiries: M. Morai

Tel. No.: 58862075

The Head of Department
Secondary Schools
Lesotho

Dear participant

Research Project: Mahlape Morai

I am Mahlape Morai and I intend to submit my research proposal and subsequently enroll with the University of the Free State. Presently I am conducting preliminary investigations on mentorship experiences of female Head of Departments in order to find out the similarities and difference in the provision of mentoring functions by female and male principals.

Please find the time to complete this fifteen minutes questionnaire and return it with the envelope provided. All responses will be treated confidentially.

Yours sincerely

Mahlape Morai

MENTORSHIP FOR FEMALE EDUCATORS IN LESOTHO SECONDARY SCHOOLS

This questionnaire aims at establishing the extent to which women feel satisfied with mentorship in schools.

Please indicate the group that represents your particulars by means of an X.

1. Age

1.1 below 30

1.2 30-39

1.3 40-49

1.4 50-59

1.5 60 and above

2. Superiors

2.1 Male

2.2 Female

3. 3. Please circle the extent of your satisfaction in terms of the mentoring functions in your department by using the scale below.

Mentoring functions	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
(a) The nurture and support provided to help women grow personally and professionally	1	2	3	4	5
(b) The provision of information and simple tips that can have a life changing effect on women managers					
(c) The motivation and encouragement provided to women					
(d) The coaching provided to women at the work place					
(e) The feedback provided to women at the work place					
(f) The development opportunities provided to develop women to reach their potential					
(g) The existing networks in the department					
(h) The leadership opportunities provided to women at the workplace					

ADDENDUM B

CONFIRMATION LETTERS:

INTERVIEW AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

From:

To:

Subject: In-depth interview /focus group discussions confirmation letter

Greetings!

My name is Mahlape Morai. Fulfilling the demands and requirements for a PhD degree with the University of the Free State, I am currently undertaking a study on the topic: **A strategic management analysis of mentorship for female education managers in Lesotho**. Thank you for expressing your willingness to participate in an interview session or the focus group discussion. As discussed, it is my anticipation that your experience as a female education manager has enlarged your perspectives regarding female mentorship in Lesotho secondary schools. Therefore, I would like you to have the opportunity to share your ideas and opinions concerning female mentorship in Lesotho schools. Your responses to the questions will be kept anonymous.

Below are the details of the scheduled interview:

DATE OF THE INTERVIEW: _____

TIME: _____

If you need any clarification pertaining to the focus group discussion or will not be able to attend for any reason, please call Mahlape Morai at this numbers: 58862075 or 0027788611804. Otherwise we look forward to seeing you.

Yours sincerely

Mahlape Morai

ADDENDUM C

CONSENT FORMS:

INTERVIEWS AND THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Consent form to participate in an interview

May I please thank you for taking the time to meet with me today. My name is Mahlape Morai and I would like us to talk about your mentoring experiences as a female head of department or female educator. As initially indicated, the study is a strategic analysis of female education managers mentoring experiences in Lesotho secondary schools, meant to determine the development of an operational strategy that would address the specific mentoring needs of females in secondary schools.

The interview should take less than an hour. I will be taking notes during the session but because I cannot write fast enough to capture all your comments, I will also be taping the session. All your comments will be kept confidential. This means that focus group discussions responses will only be shared with my supervisor and Comparative Education and Education Management Department in the University of the Free State and we will ensure that the information included in the report does not identify you as the respondent.

Remember you do not have to talk about anything you do not want and you may end the interview at anytime.

Are there any questions about what I have just explained?

Are you willing to participate in this interview?

Participant: _____

Date: _____

Consent to participate in the focus group discussions

You have been asked to participate in a focus group discussion regarding female mentorship in Lesotho secondary schools. The purpose of this interview is to elicit as much information as possible regarding female mentorship experiences as either female educators or female education managers in order to determine the best strategy to mentorship strategy to construct for females in Lesotho secondary schools.

You can choose whether or not to participate in the focus group and stop at any time. Although the focus group will be tape recorded, your responses will remain anonymous and no names will be mentioned in the report. There are no right or wrong answers to the focus group questions. The idea is to hear many different viewpoints from everyone. It is therefore my anticipation that you are all going to be honest even when your responses may not be in agreement with the rest of the group. In respect for each other, let us allow one individual to speak at a time in the group and that responses made by all participants be kept confidential.

I understand this information and agree to participate fully under the conditions stated above:

Signed: _____

Date: _____

ADDENDUM D

PHENOMENOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

Lineo	
1. I was an assistant teacher in another school and was appointed by the board of this school which I happen to be a member of at the time to become the principal.	2. Lineo was an assistant teacher in another school and was appointed by the board of the school she is a principal in where she was a member of the board then, to become the principal of the school
3. I have a BA Ed degree	4. Lineo has a BA Ed degree
5. I have been a principal for more than twelve years now	6. Lineo has been a principal for more than twelve years now
7. I was not developed in any way when I got this position except for the MOET management and leadership training which came a year or two later.	8. She was not developed in any way when she got this position except for the MOET management and leadership training which came a year or two later.
9. I have had opportunities to meet and network with other principals from overseas where our school is affiliated to, to share my experiences and to learn from them	10. Lineo has had opportunities to meet and network with other principals from overseas where her school is affiliated to, to share her experiences and to learn from them
Thuto	
11. I was a deputy in the same school for a year and after a year I was appointed by the board of the school to become the acting principal for the school.	12. Thuto was a deputy in the same school for a year and after a year she was appointed by the board of the school to become the acting principal for the school.
13. I have a BA Ed degree	14. Thuto has a BA Ed degree
15. I have been a principal in this school for ten years now	16. Thuto has been a principal in this school for ten years now
17. My appointment was a big challenge in the school because as a deputy principal, I did not have the opportunity to work hand in hand with the former principal	18. Thuto's appointment was a big challenge for her because as a deputy principal, she never had the opportunity to work hand in hand with the former principal
19. I did not have access to information about the running of the school and as	20. She did not have access to information about the running of the school
21. I did not have the opportunity to practice with leadership skills	22. Thuto never had the opportunity to practice with leadership skills
23. The principal of the school left unceremoniously and blamed me for his dismissal and started harassing me	24. Thuto was harassed by the principal of the school who left unceremoniously and blamed her for his dismissal
25. My other challenges were that as the acting principal, teachers did not believe in me, perhaps they thought they knew my weaknesses and therefore did not trust that I could handle the principal's responsibilities.	26. Thuto encountered many challenges including the fact that as the acting principal, teachers did not believe in her, anticipating that they know her weaknesses and hence did not trust that she could handle the principal's responsibilities
27. And in the absence of any training at the time I	28. Thuto felt helpless and insufficient for the

also felt very helpless and insufficient for the position.	position too in the absence of any form of training
29. I did not receive any mentorship or training of any kind pertaining to my role as a principal until a year later when I attended the MOET principal's workshop on management and leadership training.	30. Thuto did not receive any mentorship or training of any kind pertaining to her role as a principal until a year later when she attended the MOET principal's workshop on management and leadership training.
31. Female teachers in this school have been the greatest support in my career helping me to believe in myself and encouraging me that I am the right person for the job.	32. Thuto feels female teachers in the school have been the greatest support in her career encouraging her to believe in herself and that she is the right person for the job.
33. I would also attribute my support to the two associations that I am a member of; the Lesotho Principals Association (LPA) and the African Principals Association (APA) where principals from the African continent meet and share principal's experiences together	34. Thuto attributes her support to the two associations that she is a member of; the Lesotho Principals Association (LPA) and the African Principals Association (APA) where principals from the African continent meet and share principal's experiences together
35. This is a very empowering experience because some of the things we learn during our meetings have been problems in our schools for a very long time	36. Thuto believes the associations meetings are a very empowering experience because some of the things they learn during this meetings have been problems in schools for a very long time

Mpho

37. I started my principal career in primary schools but for the position I am holding now, I applied for the position and I was successful during the interviews and	38. Mpho started her principal career in primary schools but for the position she holds now, she applied for the position and I was successful during the interviews and
39. I have a BA Ed degree	40. Mpho has a BA Ed degree
41. I have been a principal for twelve years now	42. Mpho has been a principal for twelve years now
43. I never received training or mentorship of any kind and believe me although I was a principal in primary schools I messed up a lot when I started my career in high schools and when I was already messing up two year later the MOET organized a workshop for principals pertaining to management and leadership issues which in my own opinion was supposed to have come much earlier	44. Mpho never received training or mentorship of any kind and although she was a principal before in primary schools she messed up a lot when she started her career in high schools and when she was already messing up two year later the MOET organized a workshop for principals pertaining to management and leadership issues which she believes could have come earlier
45. I have had other training opportunities for principals and I feel now that I can be a better mentor for upcoming principals especially females to make them aware of the	46. Mpho has had other training opportunities for principals and she feels she can be a better mentor for upcoming principals especially females to make them aware of the challenges of the

challenges of the principals job to help them avoid the mistakes that I personally made	principals' job to help them avoid the mistakes that she personally made
Naledi	
47. I started my career as a principal in primary schools and I moved to become a high school principal through the appointment of the church secretariat.	48. Naledi started her career as a principal in primary schools and moved to become a high school principal through the appointment of the church secretariat.
49. I have a Masters degree in Education	50. Naledi has a Masters degree in Education
51. I have been a high school principal for about twenty years now and for my current position where I have spent only a year now I was taken out of my retirement leave to become the principal of the school	52. Naledi has been a high school principal for about twenty years now and for her current position where she spent only a year now, she was coming from her retirement leave to become the principal of the school.
53. I have never been trained for the position of the principal but I have always been motivated by other females' experiences. Seeing them in leadership positions and excelling in those positions I have always wanted to become like them. Hence, the minute I got the chance to become the principal I started modelling those female leaders and practicing every other style they exerted.	54. Naledi has never been trained for the position of the principal but she has always been motivated by other females' experiences. Seeing them in leadership positions and excelling in those positions, she has always wanted to become like them. Hence, the minute she got the chance to become the principal she started modelling those female leaders and practicing every other style they exerted.
Tholoana	
55. I was appointed by the board to act as a principal of this school three months after I got my teaching job here	56. Tholoana was appointed by the board to act as a principal of this school three months after I got my teaching job here
57. I have a honors degree in Education	58. Tholoana has an Honors degree in Education
59. I was a very young teacher by then but I believe that because I contributed much in the discipline of learners in the school at the time when everybody else had lost hope, the board and the teachers thought I would be the right candidate for the job of me as his deputy rather he would	60. Tholoana was a very young teacher by then but she believes that because she contributed much in the discipline of learners in the school at the time when everybody else had lost hope, the board and the teachers thought she would be the right candidate for the job.
61. I have to mention that at that time no one wanted to be the principal of the school because of the discipline problem it was facing	62. Tholoana mentions that at that time no one wanted to be the principal of the school because of the discipline problem it was facing.
63. My appointment then lasted for a year and a year later the founders of the school from overseas brought someone from overseas to	64. Tholoana's appointment lasted for a year and a year later the founders of the school from overseas brought someone from overseas to

become the principal of the school.	become the principal of the school.
65. I was supposed to be the deputy during the appointment of this new principal but to my surprise we worked as two principals, the officially appointed principal literally mentoring me. principal literally mentoring me.	66. Tholoana was supposed to be the deputy during the appointment of this new principal but to her surprise she worked with the principal as two principals, the officially appointed principal literally mentoring me
67. I had a very empowering experience during this time and I learned a lot of skills form this principal especially team work	68. She had an empowering experience during this time and she learned a lot of skills from this principal especially team work.
69. We made decisions together and I was aware of everything happening around the school. my surprise we worked as two principals, the officially appointed	70. Tholoana made decisions together with the principal and she was aware of everything happening around the school.
71. I practiced a lot with leadership skills at this time.	72. She practiced a lot with leadership skills at the time
73. However, a year later, the principal left and a new principal was appointed after I refused the offer.	74. She refused the boards' offer to become the principal of the school
75. The principal did not involve me in the issues pertaining to the running of the school; it was a very disappointing experience to me after all the hardwork. He would rather use other male teachers he trusted and I would just know the results like any other teacher in the school.	76. She had a disappointing experience with the new principal who did not recognize her as his deputy, not involving her in any matters pertaining to the running of the school instead treating her like any other teacher in the school.
77. I had no opportunities to practice with leadership skills at this time. Nonetheless, the principal left two years later and this time I agreed to the board offer to become the principal of the school	78. Tholoana did not have opportunities to practice with leadership skills at this time. Nonetheless, the principal left two years later and this time Tholoana agreed to the boards' offer to become the principal of the school
79. I have been a principal for twelve years now	80. She has been a principal for twelve years now
81. I have worked with many male teachers who had been teachers for a long time and although I doubted my abilities due to the fact that I did not do education in school, I had powerful support of these teachers	82. She has worked with many male teachers who had been teachers for a long time and although she doubted her abilities due to the fact that she did not do education in school, she has had powerful support of her teachers
83. I have a female deputy and all my head of departments are males	84. She has a female deputy and all her head of departments are males
85. I have been a member of many principals associations which helped me a lot to adjust in my position as a principal because it helped me to learn through other principals'	86. She have been a member of many principals associations which helped her to adjust in her position as a principal because it helped her to learn through other principals' experiences

experiences	
Palesa	
87. I was approached by the chairman of the board as a teacher in another school to become the principal of this school	88. Palesa was approached by the chairman of the board as a teacher in another school to become the principal of this school
89. I have a Masters degree in Education	90. Palesa has a Masters degree in Education
91. At that time I was neither the principal nor an appointed head of department. However, I had voluntarily acted as a subject head assisting new teacher in handling of the subject	92. At that time she was neither the principal nor an appointed head of department. However, she used to voluntarily act as a subject head assisting new teacher in handling of the subject
93. I agreed to be the principal of the school and I have been the principal of this school for twelve years now	94. She agreed to be the principal of the school and has been the principal of the same school for twelve years now
95. I had a number of challenges as a beginning principal. Firstly, I was not given a chance to become the principal of the school, the board was literally running the school on daily basis, making decisions which were supposed to be made by me the principal of the school, supervising teachers, handling school finances such as depositing collected school fees to the bank and purchasing items for the school and in worst cases getting involved in teachers personal affairs. Literally speaking, the chairman of the board was acting as the principal of the school and he kept reminding me that my duties are to teach and to ensure that other teachers are also teaching. I used to only write school requisitions and give them to the chairman of the board who would do the purchasing for the school where in most cases the purchased items would not even the property of the school though the money used would be the schools money.	96. Palesa had a number of challenges as a beginning principal. Firstly, she was not given a chance to become the principal of the school, the board was literally running the school on daily basis, making decisions which were supposed to be made by her as the principal of the school, supervising teachers, handling school finances such as depositing collected school fees to the bank and purchasing items for the school and in worst cases getting involved in teachers personal affairs. Literally speaking, the chairman of the board was acting as the principal of the school and he kept reminding Palesa that her duties are to teach and to ensure that other teachers are also teaching. Palesa used to only write school requisitions and give them to the chairman of the board who would do the purchasing for the school where in most cases the purchased items would not even the property of the school though the money used would be the schools money.
97. I felt obstructed in my job, I never felt principal enough and I was always confused on what my responsibilities were due to the over involvement of the some members of the board especially the chairman. I felt undermined and still feels that this was	98. Palesa felt obstructed in her job, she never felt principal enough and she was always confused on what her responsibilities were due to the over involvement of the some members of the board especially the chairman. Palesa felt undermined

happening because of my female status	and still feels that this was happening because of her female status
99. I was trained a year later in a MOET training which gave me directions on what my responsibilities were with respect to school administration and handling of finances. The MOET also assisted me with its resource personnel who visited our schools enlightening both head of departments, deputy and the principal on management and administrative issues. This assistance and the new school board which were aware of their jurisdiction helped me to become a better principal and I am enjoying my job now	100. Palesa was trained a year later in a MOET training which gave her directions on what my responsibilities were with respect to school administration and handling of finances. The MOET also assisted me with its resource personnel who visited our schools enlightening both head of departments, deputy and the principal on management and administrative issues. This assistance and the new school board which were aware of their jurisdiction helped me to become a better principal and I am enjoying my job now.
101. I do encounter challenges as a principal not because I am a female principal. I encounter problems with female teachers who complain a lot about some of the decisions I make, they complain that they are not involved and of course I involve them in the decision-making of the school but some decisions I make them on my own or with my deputy who is a female too	102. Palesa does encounter challenges as a principal not because she is a female principal. She encounters problems with female teachers who complain a lot about some of the decisions she makes, they complain that they are not involved and of course Palesa says she involves them in the decision-making of the school but some decisions she makes them on her own or with her deputy who is a female too
Lipalesa	
103. I was a head of department and a deputy principal in the same school before my appointment as the principal of the school.	104. Lipalesa was a head of department and a deputy principal in the same school before her appointment as the principal of the school.
105. I have an Honors degree in Education	106. Lipalesa has an Honors degree in Education
107. I have been a principal for four years now	108. She has been a principal for four years now
109. The only training I received for my position is the MOET leadership and administration training	110. The only training I received for my position is the MOET leadership and administration training
111. The most challenging moments in my career are handling male teachers who are constantly challenging my authority, harassing and belittling me, dodging classes. because I work closely with female staff members who are very supportive most of them. I have a female deputy principal and four head of departments who are all females and we work as a team together. It would have been very difficult to have male	112. The most challenging moments in her career are handling male teachers who are constantly challenging her authority, harassing and belittling her, dodging classes. Because she work closely with female staff members who are very supportive most of them. She has a female deputy principal and four head of departments who are all females and we work as a team together. It would

teachers in the management of the school because they are always trying to prove that as a female one is wrongly appointed for the position	have been very difficult to have male teachers in the management of the school because they are always trying to prove that as a female one is wrongly appointed for the position
113.Because of the behavior of male teachers in this school I am forced to frequent classes for monitoring and supervision purposes to ensure that teachers go to classes.	114.Because of the behaviour of male teachers in this school she is forced to frequent classes for monitoring and supervision purposes to ensure that teachers go to classes
115.schools that are managed by females are performing very well in the country therefore I believe that females need to be trained on managing different sexes and how to handle challenges posed by males in the schools and their attitudes	116.Lipalesa believes that schools that are managed by females are performing very well in the country therefore she recommends that females be trained on managing different sexes and how to handle challenges posed by males in the schools and their attitudes
Sebatatso	
117.I was an assistant teacher in another school and I applied for the position of a principal and I was successful on interviews	118.she was an assistant teacher in another school and she applied for the position of a principal and was successful on interviews
119.I have a Masters degree in Humanities	120.She has a Masters degree in Humanities
121.I have been in-serviced with the MOET training on leadership and management issues once in my four years as a principal.	122.She has been in-serviced with the MOET training on leadership and management issues once in my four years as a principal.
123.I did not go through any formal mentorship but after my appointment as a principal i was sharing an office with a primary school principal who had been a principal for a long time in the same school. This principal is the one person that i can call my mentor because she assisted me to adjust in my position and to make me aware of a lot of administrative issues that i would have otherwise struggled handling them on my own	124.She did not go through any formal mentorship but after my appointment as a principal she was sharing an office with a primary school principal who had been a principal for a long time in the same school. This principal is the one person that she calls her mentor because she assisted her to adjust in her position and to make her aware of a lot of administrative issues that she would have otherwise struggled handling them on her own.
Thato	
125.I have been a principal for twenty six years as a principal	126.She has been a principal for twenty six years as a principal
127.I have a Masters degree in Education	128.She has a Masters degree in Education
129.I have never applied for the job of the principal but was always appointed	130.Thatato has never applied for the job of the principal but was always appointed
131.I started my career as a primary teacher where I had a very supportive female	132.Thatato started her career as a primary teacher where she had a very supportive female principal

principal at the time	at the time
133. My principal helped me to experience with leadership skills at that early stages of my profession and helped install the love of teaching in me. During that very first year of teaching I became in charge of music in the school and other activities	134. Thato had a principal helped her experience with leadership skills at the early stages of her profession and helped install the love of teaching in her. During that very first year of teaching she became in charge of music in the school and other activities
135. I had a mentor who believed so much in me, a person who constantly reminded me that I am capable of more than just being a primary teacher	136. Thato had a mentor who believed so much in her, a person who constantly reminded her that she is capable of more than just being a primary teacher
137. After two years I moved to teach in a high school with my diploma certificate. In that school I met another principal who was also very supportive. She mentored me	138. After two years Thato moved to teach in a high school with her diploma certificate. In that school she met another principal who was also very supportive and mentored her
139. I have always had mentors not because we had mentorship programmes around but because of my positive attitude which attracted people to volunteer to mentor me and also because I am a very easy to approach person	140. Thato has always had mentors not because there were mentorship programmes around but because of her positive attitude which attracted people to volunteer to mentor her and also because she is a very easy to approach person
141. After two years I was appointed a primary school principal and left the school but I could not stay long as a principal because six months later I left to further my studies	142. Thato was appointed a primary school principal and left the school but she could not stay long as a principal because six months later she left to further her studies
143. Upon completion of my degree, I went back to the high school where I taught for two years. Three months later, I was appointed to act as a principal of the school	144. Upon completion of her degree, she went back to the high school where she taught for two years. Three months later, she was appointed to act as a principal of the school
145. While in my acting position I was understudying the principal who was leaving the school. This means that I had someone guiding me for a year and after a year I handled the responsibilities of the principal on my own	146. While in her acting position she was understudying the principal who was leaving the school. This means that she had someone guiding her for a year and after a year she handled the responsibilities of the principal on her own.
147. The guidance I received helped me to become the confident principal I am now	148. Thato is a confident principal now because of the guidance she received
149. In between my principalship I was appointed as a coordinator of our church schools ensuring that female principals in particular are capacitated with necessary skills to become competent in their career	150. In between her principalship she was appointed a coordinator of church schools ensuring that female principals in particular are capacitated with necessary skills to become competent in their career
151. I have personally mentored some principals	152. Thato has personally mentored some principals

<p>153. With the vast experience I have both as a principal and a coordinator I make efforts to mentor my teachers</p>	<p>154. With the vast experience she has both as a principal and a coordinator, she makes efforts to mentor her teachers</p>
<p>155. It is easier for me to work with male teachers than female teachers because male teachers are usually more attentive and obedient while female teachers are always resistant and question every decision that I make</p>	<p>156. It is easier for Thato to work with male teachers than female teachers because male teachers are usually more attentive and obedient while female teachers are always resistant and question every decision that she makes</p>
<p>157. I believe that females can make better principals with their motherly advantage over men although they need their confidence to be boosted by being given constant feedbacks</p>	<p>158. Thato believes that females can make better principals with their motherly advantage over men although they need their confidence to be boosted by being given constant feedbacks</p>
<p>MOT</p>	
<p>159. There is not much that we are doing to assist principals in their positions and we the ministry does not have any programme that specifically focuses on female principals' issues</p>	<p>160. There is not much that the ministry is doing to assist principals in their positions and the ministry does not have any programme that specifically focuses on female principals' issues</p>
<p>161. Schools are the ones responsible to select the candidate they want from a pool of applicants who best fit the criterion which in the Lesotho case should be minimum, someone who holds a degree in Education</p>	<p>162. Schools choose the candidate they want from a pool of applicants who best fit the criterion which in the Lesotho case should be minimum, someone who holds a degree in Education</p>
<p>163. With the eleven government schools that have been opened, the ministry is particularly aware that those principals in the government schools need to be in-service particularly because most of them have never been in management positions before. The ministry has not started with the in-service programme for these principals because of lack of funds</p>	<p>164. The ministry is particularly aware that some principals in the government schools need to be in-service particularly because most of them have never been in management positions before. The ministry has not started with the in-service programme for these principals because of lack of funds</p>
<p>165. The MOET has inspections for principals only pertaining to handling finances of the school and other issues that are of concern to that particular school. The role of the inspectorate is to assist principals in the smooth running of the schools by carrying inspections in the schools which are in different types. The inspection that focuses on the principals is called management and administration</p>	<p>166. The MOET has inspections for principals only pertaining to handling finances of the school and other issues that are of concern to that particular school. The role of the inspectorate is to assist principals in the smooth running of the schools by carrying inspections in the schools which are in different types. The inspection that focuses on the principals is called management and</p>

inspection	administration
<p>167.MOET does not distinguish females from males, because they are all principals who encounter similar problems. When the ministry organizes workshops, it invites both females and males without discriminating males from females. As far as I know, the ministry does not have plans to organize any programmes for female principals only.</p>	<p>168.MOET does not distinguish females from males, because they are all principals who encounter similar problems. When the ministry organizes workshops, it invites both females and males without discriminating males from females. As far as I know, the ministry does not have plans to organize any programmes for female principals only.</p>

ADDENDUM E

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS INTERVIEWING ROUTE

INTRODUCING THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

- The moderator welcomes the participants and thanks them for agreeing to be part of the focus group, extending her appreciation for the participants' willingness to participate.
- The moderator introduces herself.

INTRODUCTIONS:

- Please introduce yourself: you're names and where you live, your school and the number of years of which you have been in the school and for how many years you have been the head of department.

PURPOSE OF FOCUS GROUPS

- The moderator/researcher introduces the purpose of the interview that it is to elicit as much information as we possibly can together regarding female mentorship experiences in order to determine the mentoring needs of females in Lesotho schools.
- The researcher mentions that contributions of participants are of high importance and request them to share their honest opinions and thoughts.

GROUND RULES

- The researcher urges participants to all participate and indicates that she will call on the participant if she has not heard from her in a while.

THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS

- The researcher assures participants that every persons experiences and opinions are important
- She urges participants to speak up whether you they agree or disagree.
- She underscores the importance of educing a wide range of opinions.

TAPE RECORDING THE GROUP

- The discussion will be tape-recorded to capture everything discussed. However, no one will be identified by name in the report, thus, you will remain anonymous. Therefore feel comfortable to share your experience.

FEMALE HEAD OF DEPARTMENTS WERE GUIDED INTO THE FOLLOWING

QUESTIONS:

- Would you share with us how female managers contribute to assist particularly other females to access management positions and adjust in those positions?
- What opportunities do female education managers make available to other female educators to experiment with in order to strengthen their leadership skills
- With the experience you have, how do female education managers assist in the provision of necessary information, knowledge and resources to broaden other female educators' perspectives?
- What else would you like female managers to do to improve mentorship in schools?

ADDENDUM F

ANNOTATED LETTERS OF INQUIRY AND A QUESTIONNAIRE

2010-02-03

Ref. No.: Research Project

The Principal
Secondary Schools
Lesotho

Dear Sir/Madam

Research Project: Mahlape Morai

Fulfilling the demands and requirements for a PhD degree with the university of the Free State, the above mentioned student has to conduct a research project through a questionnaire and qualitative investigation through interviews and focus group discussions on the topic: **A strategic management analysis of mentorship for female education managers mentoring experiences in Lesotho secondary schools.**

Permission is hereby requested for the student to conduct a research project at your school.

I hope you find this in order.

PROF S.M. NIEMANN

STUDY LEADER

2010-02-03

Enquiries: M. Morai

Tel. No.: 58862075

Ref. No.: Research Project

The Principal
Secondary Schools
Lesotho

Dear Sir/Madam

Research Project: Mahlape Morai

Dear participant

I am sure that we are witnesses to the reality that recent decade in the country is marked by a vast increase of females accessing education management positions; a situation which was rampant in Roman Catholic schools where managing the school was the responsibility of the sisters and few girls schools in the country. This implies growth in female confidence and stature in schools, a reputation which needs to be improved and maintained. However, I am sure that we are also witnesses to the fact that while women are accessing the management positions, there are no training programmes addressing their specific needs in those positions, there are no female mentors to mentor the newly appointed females in those positions and there are no policies protecting the rights of women.

It is for these reasons that an investigation is undertaken to gather relevant evidence that may be used to construct a mentorship strategy for female education managers in Lesotho secondary schools. The investigation is focused on eliciting and recording the experiences of female education managers in order that the envisaged mentorship strategy is constructed in consideration of the recorded experiences. It is my belief that as a female education manager in Lesotho secondary school, you will cooperate to facilitate educational excellence of female management in Lesotho schools.

Please find the time to complete this fifteen minutes questionnaire and return it with the envelope provided. All responses will be treated confidentially and will be accessed by myself and my supervisors only. Nonetheless, should you wish to get a summary of the study when completed, please fill in the section at the end with the name, address and phone numbers so that you can be contacted, otherwise your responses will remain anonymous.

For more information and or request for feedback please contact:

Mahlape Morai

E-mail: mahlapef@yahoo.com

Cell: (00266)58862075

(0027)788611804

Thank you very much for your cooperation in completing this questionnaire.

MENTORSHIP FOR FEMALE EDUCATION MANAGERS IN LESOTHO SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The questionnaire aims at establishing the mentoring experiences of female education managers in order to determine the desired mentorship strategy for female education managers in Lesotho secondary schools.

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

In all cases place a (X) in the appropriate box. Select one option only unless otherwise indicated.

1. Age in category of years

- 1.1 20 -29 years
- 1.2 30 -39 years
- 1.3 40 – 49 years
- 1.4 50 – 59 years
- 1.5 60 years and above

1	For office use only	
2		
3		
4		
5		<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Highest academic qualification

- A. B.Ed degree
- B. B. Ed (honours)
- C. Masters degree
- D. Doctorate degree
- E. Other (please specify)

1	
2	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	
4	
5	

3. Number of years as a female education manager

3.1 0-5 years	1	
3.2 6-10 years	2	
3.3 11-15 years	3	
3.4 16-20 years	4	3
3.5 21 years and above	5	

4. Teaching Experience

4.1 0-5 years	1	
4.2 6-10 years	2	
4.3 10-15 years	3	
4.4 15-20 years	4	4
4.5 21 years and above	5	

SECTION B

CAREER PREPARATION AND MENTORSHIP EXPERIENCES

6. What do you think assisted you in getting your present position?

Please place an (X) to all that apply.

6.1 Self-motivation	1	
6.2 Encouragement by friends	2	
6.3 Encouragement by family	3	
6.4 Encouragement by a mentor	4	
6.4 Managerial involvement	5	5
6.5 Previous position held	6	
6.6 Qualifications	7	
6.7 Other (please specify)		

7. Did you have any formal training for your current position?

7.1 Yes

7.2 No

1
2

8. If yes, please explain the nature of the training?

.....

.....

9. What have you learnt throughout the years that you would like to transfer to other teachers?

.....

.....

.....

SECTION C

MENTORSHIP SKILLS

10. Below is the list of skills identified as required for mentorship. Please read through the list and for each item use the rating scales to the right of each item to indicate the extent to which you agree that the above listed skills describe your mentorship strengths. Please use the scale below to indicate your responses:

1. Strongly agree; 2. Agree; 3. Undecided; 4. Disagree; 5. Strongly disagree

	mentorship skills	strongly agree	agree	Undecided	agree	strongly disagree	for office use only
10.1	Communication	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.2	Facilitation						7
10.3	Teaching						8
10.4	Coaching						9
10.5	Role modelling						10
10.6	Attentive listening						11
10.7	Approachable and available						12
10.8	Patience						13
10.9	Receptivity and sensitivity						14
10.10	Pre-emptivity						15
10.11	Friendly						16
10.12	Nurturer						17
10.13	Advisor						18
10.14	Sociable						19
10.15	Influential						20
10.16	Supportive						21
10.17	Respectful						22
10.18	Encourager						23

SECTION D

MENTORSHIP FUNCTIONS

11. Listed below are a series of mentorship functions identified as relevant in any mentoring relationship. Please read through the list and for each item use the rating scales to the right of each item to indicate the extent to which mentorship training in this areas is needed.

1. Extremely needed; 2. Needed; 3. Fairly needed; 4. Somewhat needed;

5. Not needed at all

Item No	mentorship functions	extremely needed	Needed	fairly needed	somewhat needed	not needed at all	For office use only
11.1	Providing information	1	2	3	4	5	24
11.2	Providing leadership functions						25
11.3	Providing exposure and visibility						26
11.4	Providing challenging work assignments						27
11.5	Providing feedback						28
11.6	Providing recognition and respect						29
11.7	Providing confirmation and support						30
11.8	Providing motivation and encouragement						31
11.9	Challenging and encouraging competence						32
11.10	Being resource persons						33
11.11	Facilitating confidence building						34
11.12	Developing self belief						35
11.13	Cultivating management expertise						36
11.14	Donating wisdom and creating high expectations						37
11.15	Confronting conflict or harmonising disagreements						38
11.16	Enhancing others ability to navigate in the organisation						39
11.17	Confronting conflict or harmonising disagreements						40
11.18	Supporting others ideas						41
11.19	Cultivating trust						42
11.20	Enhancing transformation and growth of others						43
11.21	Enhancing personal and career development						44
11.22	utilising the creative and youthful energy of others						45
11.23	Helping establish a sense of loyalty and attachment to the organization						46
11.24	Improving the chances of retention within the organization						47
11.25	Attracting re-entry employees						48
11.26	Reducing employee stress						49

SECTION E

MENTORSHIP CHALLENGES

12. Below is a list of mentorship challenges identified to be prevalent for females in the work situation.

Please read through the list and for each item use the rating scales to the right of each item to indicate the extent to which you agree that the following are mentorship challenges to you at your present job situation.

1. Strongly agree; 2. Agree; 3. Undecided; 4. Disagree; 5. Strongly disagree

Item No.	mentorship challenges	strongly agree	agree	undecided	Disagree	strongly disagree	for office use only
12.1	Establishing formal interactions with men in management positions	1	2	3	4	1	50
12.2	Preference for interacting with others of similar status in the organization						51
12.3	Sharing institutional knowledge with males						52
12.4	Promoting learning through relationships with males that require close, interpersonal transactions						53
12.5	Giving women preferential treatment for jobs which are prerequisites for managerial positions						54
12.6	Taking risks						55
12.7	Assertiveness						56
12.8	Competitiveness						57
12.9	Emotional control						58
12.10	Autonomous motivation for achievement						59
12.11	Responding to instrumental forms of helping such as problem solving						60
12.12	Accepting power						61
12.13	Reliance on dependent strategies						62
12.14	Reliance on helpless behaviour						63

SECTION F

MENTORSHIP STRATEGIES

13. Below are several measures identified as useful in creating any mentorship strategy. Please indicate the extent to which you agree that the processes would be useful to you in your present situation. Please use the scale below to indicate your responses.

1. Extremely useful; 2. Useful; 3. Moderately useful; 4. Somewhat not useful;
5. Not useful at all

Item number	useful mentorship strategies	extremely useful	useful	fairly useful	somewhat not useful	not useful at all	for office use only
13.1	Setting visions, aim and the mission statement as well as the goals and the objectives of the mentorship strategy taking into account views from participants and other stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	64
13.2	Creating a mentorship vision and mission						65
13.3	Communicating visions in a way that secures commitment from members of the organisation						66
13.4	Communicating the meaning of visions and missions in order to energize others						67
13.5	Listening to other member of the organisation opinions						68
13.6	Persisting in the face of resistance, failure and disappointment						69
13.7	Being receptive and sensitive to others, listening to their hopes and fears						70
13.8	Creating mentorship ideas for new performance goals						71
13.9	Selecting and prioritising mentorship goals						72
13.9	Identifying mentorship target areas						73

13.10	Recording and communicating mentorship goals and targets						72
13.11	Sourcing out ideas regarding the future needs of the a mentorship strategy						73
13.12	Analysing current internal and external review data in relation to provision of the mentorship strategy						74
13.13	Taking stakeholders expectations and influences into account						75
13.14	Involving top management						76
13.15	Communicating results and reacting to feedback						77
13.16	Having a policy mandating the construction of a mentorship strategy						78
13.17	Using powerful and emotive language to give life to the vision and mission						79
13.18	Analysing the future performance needs of mentorship in the schools						80

Thank you for your time!

Names:

Contact details:

ADDENDUM G

A FOLLOW-UP LETTER

2010-02-03

Inquiries: M. Morai

Tel. No.: 58862075

Ref. No.: Research Project

The Principal
Secondary Schools
Lesotho

Dear Sir/Madam

Research Project: Mahlape Morai

Dear participant,

All of us are busier these days that we have a hard time keeping abreast of those obligations which are essential and required. We know how the little extras sometimes receive our best intentions, but we also know that in reality, none of us have the time which we would desire to fulfill those intentions.

From the questionnaire which was hand delivered to you about three weeks ago, we have had no reply. Perhaps you misplaced the questionnaire or any one of the dozens of contingencies could have happened. In any event, another copy of the questionnaire is enclosed with the belief that all female education managers' contributions including yourself in this study will be highly invaluable. Most of the questionnaires have been returned and we would like to get all of them back. An appeal is therefore made once again that you try to find fifteen minutes somewhere in your busy schedule to check the items of the questionnaire and complete it.

We shall appreciate your kindness in this regard.

For more information and or request for feedback please contact:

Mahlape Morai

E-mail: mahlapef@yahoo.com

Cell: (00266)58862075

(0027)788611804

Thank you very much for your cooperation once again.

