

UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER

**GENDER AND MANAGEMENT STYLES OF
SECONDARY HEADTEACHERS IN ORT ISRAEL:
THE STYLE OF MANAGEMENT AND ITS IMPACT UPON PROMOTION
WITHIN THE TEACHING PROFESSION**

1st September 2004

Submitted by Sharona Kalderon

Supervisor: Dr. Mark Lofthouse

UMI Number: U194571

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



UMI U194571

Published by ProQuest LLC 2013. Copyright in the Dissertation held by the Author.
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

All rights reserved. This work is protected against
unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.



ProQuest LLC
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

ABSTRACT

This research based on Liberal feminism, attempts to explain the 'Glass Ceiling' phenomenon in the teaching profession at ORT Israel (the biggest educational-technological organization in Israel), in order to prevent the loss of valuable human capital and potentially effective management.

The main purpose of the study was to identify what are the perceptions of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management of ORT Israel, of the factors, particularly the perceived style of management, which affect the level of promotion to senior management positions at ORT Israel.

The research was undertaken on 73 secondary headteachers and four senior management members.

The research was conducted in two phases: 1. Quantitative research - as a preliminary research there was use of postal questionnaire, which included the BSRI questionnaire (Bem, 1974), the SBDQ questionnaire (Fleishman, 1953) and the BIM questionnaire (1992), in order to examine the controversial issue of gender (feminine/ masculine) differences in management style (people-oriented/ task-oriented style of management) on the research's population. 2. Qualitative research – there was use of a structural^{ed} interview which examined the perceived style of management and barriers to promotion of the ORT Israel's management.

The main conclusions drawn out of the findings were:

- Female heads relate to a higher average of feminine traits, while male heads identify to a higher average with masculine traits.
- Women heads differ from men heads in their management style. Women heads tend to manage in a people-oriented style of management, while men heads tend to manage in a task-oriented management style.
- There are various common and visible barriers to women heads' promotion at ORT Israel, including unique factors relating to the Israeli society.
- Management style perceived by ORT Israel's management as an influential factor on women heads' promotion to senior management positions, but it seems to be an invisible one.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Writing this thesis would not be possible without the inspiration, encouragement and support of those I would like to thank:

I would like to thank my dear parents who taught me the value and importance of learning and acquiring knowledge as a key to a successful and happy life.

I would like to thank my beloved husband, Yaniv and my beloved daughter, Eden for the support, tolerance and patience they showed along the way.

I would also like to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Mark Lofthouse who guided my work in a way that combined deep involvement in designing the structure and the work method, while giving academic freedom to the contents development. There are few words to express my thanks for his encouragement, help and support, which brought me to the finish line.

Frieden 

Helgesen 39
45



List of Contents

CONTENTS.....	...	1
TABLES.....	...	5
FIGURES.....	...	6
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....		7
Background.....		7
The status of women in Israel.....		13
<i>The Jewish attitude to woman.....</i>		13
<i>The Israeli attitude to woman.....</i>		14
<i>The current status of women in Israel.....</i>		15
The family and the military in Israel.....		18
<i>The role of a family centered culture.....</i>		18
<i>The role of the military in the reproduction of managerial elite.....</i>		19
Women in educational management.....		22
ORT Israel – background.....		25
Theoretical background.....		29
<i>Gender.....</i>		29
<i>Management styles.....</i>		32
<i>Gender differences in managerial behavior and management style.....</i>		35
<i>Barriers to promotion.....</i>		37
Conclusion		40
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....		41
Introduction.....		41
Gender.....		43
<i>Sex and gender.....</i>		44
<i>Gender identity.....</i>		45
<i>Gender roles and stereotypes.....</i>		50
Management styles.....		54
<i>Types of management styles.....</i>		55
<i>The manager's characteristics with the different styles.....</i>		58
<i>Gender differences in managerial behavior.....</i>		61
<i>Theoretical approaches of genderial differences.....</i>		63
<i>Gender differences in educational management.....</i>		67
Barriers to promotion.....		72
<i>Israel – cultural differences.....</i>		77
<i>Gender bias of management: family influences.....</i>		81

<i>Gender bias of the managerial sector: organization's influences</i>	82
<i>Management style as an influential factor</i>	83
Conclusion	92
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY	93
Introduction	93
The research's questions and conceptual framework	93
<i>Feminist research</i>	95
<i>Research's questions</i>	96
Methodological tradition	97
<i>Positivism</i>	97
<i>Interpretive</i>	98
Research design and strategies for data collection and researching	102
<i>Phase A</i>	102
<i>Phase B</i>	107
Data collection	112
The research sample	115
<i>The sampling strategy to be used</i>	116
<i>The research's population</i>	116
Validity and reliability	117
<i>Validity and reliability in questionnaires</i>	119
<i>Validity and reliability in interviews</i>	121
Triangulation	122
Procedure	123
<i>Analysis of the quantitative data (the questionnaire)</i>	123
Creating new variables.....	123
General statistical tools: marginal frequencies.....	124
Statistical tests and testing of the assumptions.....	124
<i>Analysis of the qualitative data (interview)</i>	124
Generalizability and significance of findings	126
Limitations of the study	126
Ethics	128
Access and acceptance	130
Conclusion	132
CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS	133
Introduction	133
Phase A – postal questionnaire	133
<i>The BSRI questionnaire</i>	134
<i>The SBDQ questionnaire</i>	134
<i>The BIM questionnaire</i>	134
Creating new variables.....	134
Marginal frequencies.....	135
Statistical tests and hypothesis checking.....	135

<i>Final conclusions</i>	138
<i>Reliability analysis – scale (ALFA)</i>	139
<i>Masculine traits</i>	140
<i>Feminine traits</i>	140
<i>Natural traits</i>	140
<i>Task-oriented management style</i>	140
<i>People-oriented management style</i>	140
<i>Charts of findings - phase A</i>	141
Phase B – interview	150
<i>Findings – part 1 – information</i>	150
Personal details.....	150
Career course.....	151
Management style.....	153
Discrimination tracks.....	154
<i>Findings – part 2 – opinions, attitudes and perceptions</i>	155
Career course.....	155
Style of management.....	156
Discrimination tracks.....	157
<i>Charts of findings – phase B</i>	160
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION	162
Introduction	162
Women’s/ Men’s way of managing	162
Gender identity - evaluation of self –perception	163
Task-oriented or people-oriented style of management? Women and men tendencies	164
Glass ceiling: barriers to women heads’ promotion	167
<i>Israeli society’s unique barriers</i>	170
Feminine style of management: an influential barrier to promotion?	173
Conclusion	179
CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSIONS	180
Introduction	180
Aim of research	180
Factual conclusions	181
Conceptual conclusions	182
Recommendations	183
Critique of the research	185
Research agenda	186
Contribution to knowledge	187
APPENDIX A	190
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ORT ISRAEL HEADTEACHERS.....	191
APPENDIX B	201
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR USE WITH ORT ISRAEL SENIOR MANAGEMENT AND HEADTEACHERS.....	202

APPENDIX C..... 204
AN INTRODUCTION LETTER OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE..... 205

APPENDIX D..... 206
A REMINDER LETTER OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE..... 207

BIBLIOGRAPHY..... 208

TABLES

TABLE 1: THE DIVISION OF OFFICERS IN THEIR PROFESSIONAL MILITARY SERVICE IN DIFFERENT RANKS ACCORDING TO GENDER.....	20
TABLE 2: PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN HEADTEACHERS IN THE SECONDARY EDUCATION.....	23
TABLE 3: GENDER PARADIGMS OF GRAY.....	35
TABLE 4: SUMMARY OF CAREER BARRIERS FACING WOMEN.....	74
TABLE 5: DIFFERING APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF BEHAVIOR.....	100
TABLE 6: T-TEST RESULTS.....	135
TABLE 7: ANOVA – ONE WAY RESULTS.....	136

FIGURES

FIGURE 1: ORT ISRAEL - ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE.....	27
FIGURE 2: RELATION OF A GENDER IDENTITY CONSTRUCT TO OTHER GENDER-RELATED CONSTRUCTS.....	47
FIGURE 3: SOCIAL-ROLE THEORY OF GENDER STEREOTYPES AND GENDER DIFFERENCES IN SOCIAL BEHAVIOR.....	51
FIGURE 4: FOURFOLD CLASSIFICATION, WHICH SEPARATES BIOLOGICAL SEX FROM PSYCHOLOGICAL SEX TYPING.....	53
FIGURE 5: THE POSITION OF THE FIVE MANAGEMENT STYLES.....	57

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background

In spite of the rise of 'post-feminism', when women are allegedly confident of equality and unconcerned about sexual politics, the position of women at the end of the twentieth century is inequitable. ^{was?}

and the beginning of the 21st.

A few highly paid businesses' women have become visible, but in many areas even highly qualified professional women still suffer from discrimination in pay and career progression. Many women give up on the continuous war over "drops" (little acknowledgement and few opportunities), and they leave their organization.

This kind of phenomenon of outstanding women who leave their work place serves as evidence for the failure of the organizations that lose valuable human capital (well educated, highly skilled and with an open-minded and intelligent management approach) when they ignore their contribution (Hall, 2000). *[Why underlined?]*

The promotion of women's ^{s?} social, personal and economical status is a vital interest of society itself and not only of women. /

"The status of women in work, in management and in economy of every country is the "litmus paper" to examine their situation in society. Integrating women in society and in a world as equal to men is not a positive goal onto itself but the best protection against assault, violence and humiliation. Women's goal is to breakthrough into cycles of "dominant elites", in which necessarily there is room for man only or mainly" (Maor, 1998, p. 9). ?

Women's entrance into managerial positions has social importance beyond their breakthrough into additional occupations that traditionally were designated for men only. It touches the wider, more important issue of gender stratification of organizations and the division of resources in organizations and in the economy.

Despite the fact that today women are prominent at middle management levels more than in the past, occupational segregation, both horizontally and vertically, remains a major problem. More women now hold management positions, but they tend to be clustered at lower levels and in less vital areas. Their access to top managerial positions remains severely restricted.

Izraeli (1998) emphasizes that management is not a homogenous category. The realm is divided horizontally into realms of specialization and vertically into levels of authority and responsibility. Furthermore, entrance into a managerial function is not a guarantee for promotion up the ladder of managerial ranking.

Liberal feminism perceives the roots of the problem in the existence of stereotypes and prejudice pertaining to women. A stereotypical perception looks at people in a way that does not perceive them as individuals but judges them only on the basis of belonging to a certain group. Since (it) is so, it speaks about a superficial and one-sided perception. Stereotypes about women were meant to turn them into a different group. Liberal feminism believes that all that is needed is to correct the existing situation - to work within the existing system and to reform it (Not to separate the masculine method and to build a system for women only and also not to change entirely the existing social structure) (Rozin, 2000).

? what is
- 1/2?
quotes?

Liberal feminism sees all people as equal, therefore there should be equality for all. It focuses on gaining equal opportunity, equal pay for equal work, and equal protection under the law.

In the last 20 years women in Israel have entered into managerial functions in significant numbers but only a few of them have succeeded to breakthrough the “glass ceiling” (“a term that describes the artificial plateau, beyond which women and other minorities are denied the opportunity to advance to upper levels of executive management” (Hanik, 1995, p.38)).

(which?)

There are various factors contributing to the slow pace of change point to the maintenance of traditional views on men and women’s social and economic roles. 7/

Still (1995) divides the career barriers facing women into four groups:

- Cultural (e.g., stereotypes and attributes, domestic responsibilities, norms regarding cross-gender relationships).
- Organizational (e.g., masculine networks, tokenism, management as masculine domain, sex segregation, attitudes towards managerial style of women).
- Individual (e.g., lack of self confidence, unwilling to take risks, managerial style).
- Governmental (e.g., social policy, economic development, type of government).

(See table 4 on page p. 74).

Goldring & Chen (1994) mention two factors that are unique to Israel as a modern, industrialized and democratic society, in the structuring of women’s occupational opportunity: The role of a family centered culture and the role of the military in the reproduction of a managerial elite. /

It is also proposed that different management styles, specifically those associated with women, are likely to have links with limiting opportunities for promotion. |

Peters (2001) argues that although women’s management style (centered on communication and building positive relationship) are well suited to the management / 15

paradigm of the 90's, it still prevents them from breaking through the glass ceiling.

"In spite of excellent management and leadership skills, women contribute to their own inability to break through the glass ceiling in subtle ways stemming from personality attributes, social conditioning and learned management styles" (p.7).

Even in the teaching profession, which has a feminine image (defined as a feminine occupation), it has clearly savors of "ghettoism". Women and men deal in the same employment but in different jobs and specializations. This difference is expressed by status and payments, which are generally lower for women. The phenomenon of "ghettoism" is common in many countries including Israel (Blackmore, 1997) with ^(it) the number of women dealing with the teaching profession in the Jewish educational system in Israel is one of the highest in the world.

In the last decade there has been growing criticism of the fact that there is not any reference to gender in the study of the teaching and management profession on their different aspects (Schmuck, 1996; Shakeshaft, 1999; Mazawi, 2002.)

In the light of this fact, the researcher who works in the biggest educational-technological organization in Israel, which is almost 10% of the secondary education in Israel, and within ^{isn't it?} there is a salient fact that all the senior managerial positions performed by men, decided to examine the issue of gender in the teaching profession while the main focus is on management style as an influential factor on promotion to senior management positions.

The main purpose of the study is to identify what are the perceptions of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management of ORT (Israel), of the factors, particularly the perceived style of management, which affect the level of

promotion to senior management positions within the teaching profession at ORT Israel network.

Since the issue of sex differences in management style is controversial as will be reviewed in the theoretical background paragraph, this study will first examine two sub-questions relating to management style:

? paragraphs?

1. Is there a relationship between the sex of the secondary headteachers in ORT Israel and their perceptions of their gender identity?

2. In the perception of the secondary headteachers in ORT Israel, do ORT Israel female secondary headteachers tend to manage in a people-oriented management style, and men tend to manage in a task-oriented management style?

These questions, which constitute the preliminary research (the ground base for the research), try to examine what would be the answer to this controversial issue in the case of the research's population - secondary headteachers in ORT Israel.

It will examine if men are identified with masculine traits and women with feminine traits, and if there is a differences in their management styles, while the research focuses in two styles of management – people oriented management style and task-oriented management style.

In case that the finding will point out on "no differences" answer, there is not any reasonable justification to continue the research and examine the issue of management style as influential factor on promotion to senior management positions.

replace

To collect clear, and relatively easy to analyze data about sex-role identity and management styles, there will be use of questionnaires:

1. Sex role identity will be measured by the self-reporting BSRI questionnaire (Bem, 1974).
2. Management styles will be measured by the revised form of the SBDQ questionnaire (Fleishman, 1953).

This study also intends to examine the perceived barriers to ORT Israel headteachers' progress, and to identify to what extent their management style has impact on the promotion to senior management positions.

Sub-questions relating to barriers in promotion:

1. What are the perceptions of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management in ORT (Israel) of the barriers to the progress of ORT Israel secondary headteachers to senior management positions?

2. In the perception of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management in ORT (Israel) is there a relationship between the style of management of ORT Israel secondary headteachers and their promotion within the teaching profession?

Career progression will be measured by the BIM questionnaire (1992).

At the second phase this research will be supported by interviews with a representative sample of the research's population to get information about management style, discrimination tracks and their impact upon promotion within the teaching profession at ORT Israel.

Since the research took place in Israel, as background to the inequality between women and men in general and in senior management positions particularly (especially) in the teaching profession, this study will first review women's rights and status in Israel. Further it will identify factors unique to Israel, which influence women's occupational ^{teaching profession} ~~teaching profession~~ ^{including} Judaism attitudes, the historical attitude and statistical figures relating women in various areas.

The status of woman in Israel

The real question, today, regarding women's status is not a question of equality by the law, and even not of the laws' contents and of the settlements they fulfill, but its essence, is the inequality that rules in the society although and beside the laws that are basically egalitarian, Gabbison (1994).

"is the rule" >

"above + beyond" >

Rephrase

The Jewish attitude to woman

Judaism explicitly supposes that there is not equality between a woman and a man. As much as there is not equality between them in their physical traits, thus, their minds are built in different ways. Man's traits are different from woman's traits, since the roles imposed on man are different from the roles imposed on woman and Judaism has a special approach concerning the status of woman and of the different roles of men and woman.

Judaism claims that woman receive the most important role – to build the internal texture of the Jewish people. Woman form the character and education of the children, she determines the character of the house, and she actually creates the essence of life itself.

This is the big role that God awarded the woman and therefore gave her special sensitivities that men do not have, in order to fulfill this role.

It does not mean that woman cannot work outside the house. But she must know that her main role is to build a real Jewish home as much as the main role of man is to work outside and provide a living, Brod (2002).

Heller (1999) in a Jewish view on gender differences goes back to the Torah. She claims that men and women are fully equal – equal but different.

Adam was not split down the middle; rather, Eve was created from an internal organ; Adam's rib. By mentioning the rib, the Torah is teaching us a principle in understanding the nature of masculine and feminine strengths, namely that feminine

manifestation and strength is more internal, while the masculine focus and expression is more external.

Heller believes that by giving the women her tools to grow morally and spiritually while maximizing her unique strengths, the Torah frees a woman to be herself with self-esteem and joy – and no apologies.

The Israeli attitude to woman

The state of Israel was created on the basis of equality and the rejection of group discrimination based on the Jewish nation's historic experience as a victim of discrimination.

The Declaration of Independence was one of the first constitutional documents where sex was included as criteria that should not be used for group discrimination.

no
criteria

The assumption that stemmed from this was the promise of equality for women in the social, economic and political life of the state while creating the myth of actual equality. The pioneer nature of the society placed the image of the pioneer woman as a partner in the struggle. There were women in the Knesset and in the government immediately following the state's establishment.

The "Na'amat" organization (organization & a movement striving to enhance the equality of life for women, children and families) was established and the of Independence and in the Kibbutzim, women worked doing physical work and in empl self-defense. of Independence and in the Kibbutzim, women worked doing physical work and in self-defense.

During the formative years, those elements intensified the myth of equality between the sexes. Women were indeed involved but this was an illusion to think that equality had become a fact.

"The state of Israel seems to many around the world as a state where women have great opportunities for personal, political and professional expression,

and that it is possible to find in it, equality between men and women. Israel is one of few countries around the world where women undergo compulsory military service. It is one of few countries around the world where a woman served as a Prime Minister. It is one of the countries where in the struggle for its independence women played an active role and it is a state where there are no constitutional limitations on women. To the contrary, legislation for the advancement of equality between men and women is along the most advanced in the world" (Zidkiyahu, 2000, p.5).

should this
be
"among"?

The current status of women in Israel

There have been some positive developments in Israel in legislation and public awareness regarding the status of women and their role as equal members of society. However, there are also many areas where traditions, structures, religious rules, and some laws and political factors have kept women at a disadvantage, for example, in the labor force, in divorce proceedings and as victims of violence.

In the field of Education, there is no educational gap between Jewish men and women in Israel as measured by years of schooling. However, there is still a significant difference in the choices of scholastic tracks between the sexes, with far-reaching implications for future employment and earning potential (far more boys than girls study technical subjects) (Yaffe, 2000).

In higher education there is also no evidence of gender discrimination as far as achievement is concerned. In 2001, women earned 57% of academic degrees granted in Israel, up from 48% in 1987-88.

In the health field, although Israel ranks among the world's leading nations in terms of the health of its population, there are gaps between men and women's health that reflect women's disadvantaged status in Israeli society. In 2001, life expectancy at birth in Israel was 81.2 years for Jewish women and 77.3 years for Jewish men.

According to the law in Israel, each citizen is guaranteed health insurance based on a progressive pay system, and has the right to equal and adequate health services. The basic basket of health services does not include full coverage of various services that are related to women's health, such as pap-smears, mammography, contraceptives and bone density scans. In addition, supporting women in their choices to have children, the health system does not support them in their choices not to have children.

Regarding women and violence, as it has been for years, violence against women continues to be a serious problem in Israel. The problem includes several kinds of violence, such as: violence by partners (in 2001, 18 women were murdered by their husbands), sexual harassment (in 2001, 4,446 cases were opened), incest and trafficking in women for prostitution (a relatively new phenomenon in Israel - *reference?* hundreds of women from the former Soviet Union). There are 13 shelters for abused women (in 2001, 643 women and 884 children stayed at the shelters). According to assessments, there are approximately 200,000 abused women in Israel. *reference*

Within the military field, inequality of men and women in the military has had a marked impact on their inequality in other areas and positions of power. The centrality of the army in Israeli society is such that senior military officers feed into the top ranks of political life as a matter of course. In 2000 Israel's parliament adopted an amendment to the security service law, opening all military professions to women, including combat positions (0.9% in 2001).

In politics, a record number of women were elected to parliament (Knesset) in Israel's 2002 national elections 16 out of 120 members, up from previous parliament but that is still just 12%.

In the labor force in 2000, despite the trends in Israel's economy and employment point to narrowing of the inequality between men and women in certain areas, men

and women are still far from equal in their economic and employment status: The percent age of women in the labor force has increased impressively during the past 20 years: from 32% in 1976 it rose to 39% in 1986, to 44% in 1998 and to 45.65% in 2000, while the men's participation rate decreased; The percent of unemployed women (9.2%) was always higher than the percent of unemployed men (8.1%); The extent of part-time work among women in the labor force (36%) is more than double among men (16%); Out of all employed women about 40% work in the branches of Education, Health, Welfare and Social Work Services. Women also make up more than half workers (56%) in the banking field, insurance and finance (which in those fields employed only 5% of whole women). The "leading" branches among men, i.e. in which the greatest percent of employed men work, are: Agriculture, Industry, Electricity and Water, Construction, Transport and Communication, Business services, Public administration and Communal services; Despite a 1996 law mandating equal pay for men and women, there are significant wage gaps between the genders in Israel. In 2002, women's wages were only 63% of men's. Out of all employed persons in the occupation of manager women make up 22% (9% in 1978). Out of 26,000 women managers, 8% are C.E.O, 65% are senior managers and 27% are other managers. Out of 91,000 men managers third are C.E.O, 45% are senior managers and 21% are other managers. In all areas of the Israeli labor market, the higher the position the less women in it. Women comprise 62% of state workers but the higher the level the lower the representation of women.

1
? ed?

7
5

This study also considers the constraining impact of two factors that are unique to Israel as a modern, industrialized and democratic society in the structuring of women's occupational ~~Opportunity~~: a family centered culture and the military in the reproduction of managerial elite.

σ /

The family and the military in Israel

The role of a family centered culture

Israel is a family-centered society. The family is the focus of all-important national, religious, and personal celebrations.

Although valued by both sexes, the family impacts differently on men's and women's occupational roles.

Working women in Israel use a number of strategies to cope with the term "conflict of allegiance" that arises because there is a normative expectation that a woman will give priority to her family. They gravitate toward part-time jobs and jobs that are synchronized with the children's school. Schedule, such as teaching or that has flexible working hours, such as nursing or social work (Israeli, 1988). Even within the professions, women tend to concentrate on specializations

that permit control over timetable. Women cope by avoiding demanding or "greedy" occupations.

Management has none of the characteristics that make it easy for women to juggle her multiple roles. It is resistant to part-time work.

Although managers generally have more discretion in determining their work schedules than do lower-level employees, their work load is less predictable and more likely to expand beyond official work hours. In addition, working overtime has important symbolic value as an expression of one's commitment to the organization.

Although there appears to be growing awareness, especially among women in Israel, of the inequity of the division of labor in the family and of discrimination in the labor market, the absence of women from positions of power and prestige is still generally considered a personal rather than a political issue.

“The proportion of women in management, especially in more senior positions, however, is not likely to change significantly until women, with the assistance of the powerful women’s organizations, more beyond “treating the victim” and begin treating the social structure by transforming equal opportunity for promotion into a political issue” (Izraeli, 1988, p. 207-208). more?

The role of the military in the reproduction of managerial elite

The dominant elite-producing institution in Israel is the Israel Defense Force (IDF). The state of Israel is the only state in the world, in which women are obliged to military service by the force of law of security services. Thirty percent of the entire regular forces of the Israeli Defense forces are women serving in a wide variety of functions. The prominence of the Israeli Defense forces in the cultural Israeli experience makes it a powerful factor in designing social and economic patterns, norms and values. understand?

“The Israeli Defense forces influences in the most pragmatic way the course of life of the individual in a period of time that exceeds by far the duration of the determined service period. There is mutual affiliation between the Israeli Defense force and the society in Israel, which means that the status and situation of women who serve in the Army expands into of realms of life beyond the framework of service and vice versa” (Nevo & Shor, 2001, p.9). ?

It appears that the social phenomenon related to women is promotion in society in general is projected also into the army. The first phenomenon is occupational discrimination; also in the army, most of the women’s professions are “pink tinted” professions: teaching, training, communication, office work and paramedical professions. Then main purpose of the Israeli Defense force is combat; however it appears that in this central task there are almost no women. Women had no opportunity – despite the fact that in the recent two years important changes have

occurred - to develop on the main axis (combat in field units) – therefore they could not bring themselves to full self-expression so as to reach key positions in the Army.

A?
A? Similar phenomenon is called the “glass ceiling phenomenon”; this phenomenon represents a situation, in which women can look up and progress, apparently – to the top of the pyramid but in reality they encounter a hidden ceiling much before they reach the top. A chief women officer describes the situation in the Israeli defense force as a “concrete ceiling” i.e., a situation, according to which women climb up in the organization up to a certain point that is not to the top and do not succeed to climb over it. In the Israeli Defense force this top is the rank of brigadier -general.

? A?
i
h

An additional phenomenon is called the “glass elevator”; professions that are feminine and are traditionally identified as such; however when there are men in those pink tinted professions, ^{They?} succeed to ascend faster up the “elevator” and to reach the top of the pyramid. These two examples are the education force and the adjutancy (the force responsible for manpower and service conditions). The education force is a force based on women ^Q in the teaching functions are mostly women. When we examine the managerial rank we find that men are running the system. The adjutancy is not totally based on women, but the percentage of women in it is very significant; it appears that the two brigadiers - generals that are serving in this force are not an appropriate representation of women in the year 2000 in an organization based significantly on the population of women (Nevo & Shor, 2001).

]

Table 1: The division of officers in their professional military service in different ranks according to gender (updated 28/08/2000):

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Percentage of men</u>	<u>Percentage of women</u>
brigadier -generals and up	98%	2%
Lieutenant - Colonel	92%	8%
Major	81%	19%

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Percentage of men</u>	<u>Percentage of women</u>
Captain	82%	18%
Lieutenant	81%	19%
Second Lieutenant.	83%	17%

Source: Nevo & Shor, 2001, p.13

In the civilian sector we can, actually, find the same phenomenon and it is possible that there is mutual influence between the sectors. It was found that the army offers an important opportunity to develop social capital - access to information, support, positions and functions in the civilian society. Both men and women use these connections to obtain employment and other advantages but it appears that men have more numerous and more useful connections: the duration of their service is longer, the reserve service gathers people together from all strata of society; senior officers meet civilian elites and prepare a second career while still serving in the army. There are realms of occupation (pilots security etc.) military elites "glide" relatively easily into functions in civilian elite where they contribute to copying the lack of equality between genders and the perpetuation of the discriminating processes in the army.

Since the research of this study took place in an Israeli educational organization and will focus on women's promotion in the teaching profession, the study will review the status of women in educational management in Israel.

Women in Educational management

During the last decade, a phenomenon in Israel occurred in which although there has been a rapid feminization of the administrative labor force in the Israeli educational system (women's movement into and through the occupation of manager - the traditional male occupation) women are still under-represented at the senior levels.

"The story of Israel illustrates a case in which the numbers of women in the principalship have increased but the political, professional and bureaucratic power structures continue to be male – dominated" (Goldring & Chen 1994, p.175).

Addi-Racah (2001) emphasizes the phenomenon of intra-occupational segregation. While women enter to a variety of employments of mainly dominance (and so apparently the gender inequality is getting smaller), checking the intra-occupation situation reveals that women concentrated in fields and expertise that with low status in the same occupation. The complexity of the phenomenon is especially in occupations with multiple jobs such as the teaching profession, which has pedagogical and administrative jobs.

In Israel, women are most of the teaching force but it is not so in the senior executive ranks. Out of about 126,000 workers in the educational system 82.6% are women (Yaffe, 2000). Still, in the senior levels of managers and inspectors the rate of women is much smaller than the rate of men.

As opposed to most European countries and in the U.S.A where there is a predominance of male headteachers in secondary education (see table 2 on page 23), in Israel the number of women headteachers is higher than male headteachers.

Table 2: Percentage of women headteachers in the secondary education

	<u>1987-88</u>	<u>1990-91</u>	<u>1993-94</u>	<u>1999-2000</u>
<u>U.S.A</u>	9.4%	11.0%	13.8%	17.4%

Source: U.S Department of Education (1988, 1991, 1994, 2002)

	<u>1991</u>	<u>1994</u>	<u>1996</u>	<u>2001</u>
<u>U.K</u>	16%	21.9%	24%	32%

Source: DFEE (1993, 1996, 1997), DFES (2002)

	<u>1992/93</u>	<u>1997/98</u>
<u>ISRAEL</u>	39.8%	53.3%

Why no 2001 figures - explain

Source: Svirsky et al. (2001)

It is important to emphasize that the percentage of woman headteachers, in Israel (1998), is different in various fractions and levels:

- * In elementary Jewish schools - 89% - the highest rate of managers.
 - * In the secondary public education - 53.2%.
 - * In the religious public school fraction and in the Orthodox fraction - in the religious fraction – 20% and in the Orthodox fraction 14 %.
 - * In the Arab schools – 7.4 % - women managers rate is the lowest
- (Svirsky et al., 2001, p.93).

The data pertaining to women in the religious sector reflects the existence of traditional norms pertaining to the division of work between the genders.

The relative small integration of Arab women in the teaching profession relates to the traditional structure of the Arabic society. Gender segregation is seized as a normative

situation (Elor, 1995), and women are willing to give up their professional progression to men so that it will not conflict with the patriarchal structure of the society, and will not offend men's status (Abu-Baker, 1992).

In the senior positions, which are attractive in terms of wages, prestige, work's conditions, possibilities for promotion and stability in work, the situation is different. Men, as a "preferred group", are employed first, in those occupations and senior jobs. According to Maume (1999), as much as the rate of women raise in the work place, conflicts and stresses between the sexes come up, unsatisfaction of the workers and a tendency to exclude women from areas categorized by high prestige, authority and influence usually by invisible barriers.

In 1999, in Israel's six educational districts (Tel-Aviv, North, Haifa, Centre, Jerusalem, South); out of six district's inspectors six were men, out of six district's vice-managers three were men, and out of six district's managers five were men. The Director General of ministry of education for the first time there was a woman.

In 2002, there is an exceptional situation, due to the reforming preference of the Minister of Education and of the General Director (both of them are women), which give special emphasize to promoting women into senior jobs. During six months at the end of the year 2001 and the beginning of the year 2002, 65% of the appointed senior positions were of women. Out of 8 districts managers four are women (Choen, 2002).

It is important to emphasize, that this data (percentage of women in senior positions in the ministry of education in the year 2002) is not reliable and cannot be generalized in the teaching profession in Israel. It is par excellence consequence of reformer preference of political appointment, which could be changed due to new government.

ORT Israel – background

In ORT Israel network (2002), out of 7 regionals' managers four are women and three are men. The situation changed as climbing up the ladder.

Ort Israel senior management consists of six Deputy Director General and Director General – all of them are men.

Out of 15 Board members 4 are women. The Chair of Board and the president are both men.

The ORT Israel Network, which began in 1949, as a network of vocational schools is now a leading educational network of comprehensive schools and colleges geared to teaching advanced technology and sciences. ORT schools and colleges impart to its pupils and students knowledge, skills and values throughout the country, especially in the peripheral areas. This is done through innovative and cutting edge methodologies in the area of high-tech and science education, while also giving special emphasis to the development of social and human values.

The network operates some 150 educational institutions (with an enrolment of approximately 70,000 pupils) in over 70 localities throughout Israel. A substantial number of schools are located at the peripherals.

Academic tracks begin with lower secondary school, proceed to upper secondary school, and continue with colleges for technicians and practical engineers and ORT's academic engineering colleges.

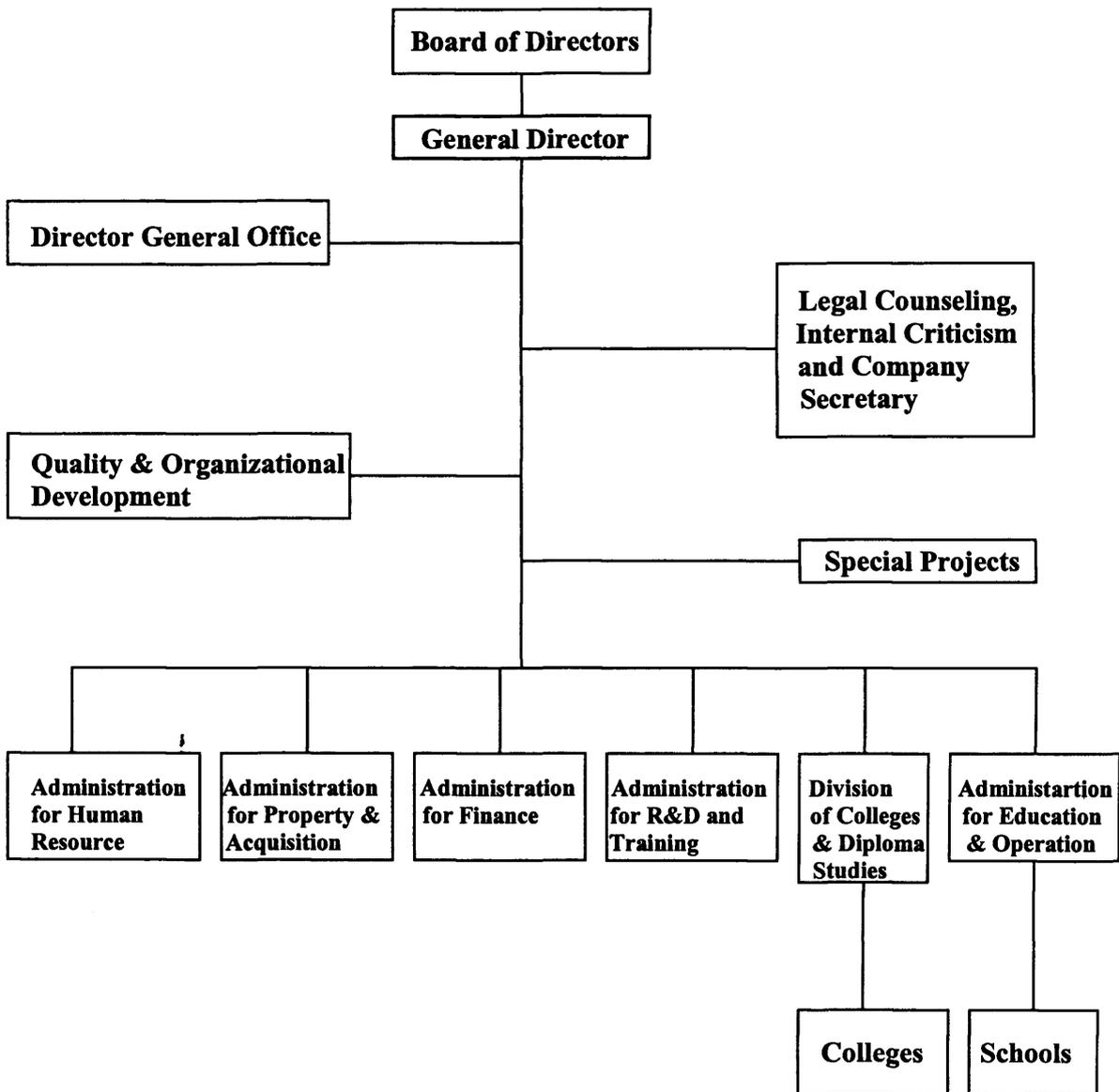
Students enjoy a variety of options in academic tracks, including the arts and social studies and, of course, advanced science-technology education, which helps prepare them for employment and long-life learning in a variety of fields, such as: computers, electronics, biotechnology, mechatronics, nano-biotechnology, environmental sciences, bio-medical engineering and a host of engineering tracks.

By recognizing the importance of the education system and in an effort to help shape the next generation, the ORT network emphasizes the development of programs whose goal is to help underprivileged populations (who lack equal opportunities), weaker populations, sectors with socio-economic difficulties, disabled populations (those with learning disabilities), new immigrants (many of whom live in peripheral regions) and residents of the periphery in general.

The ORT network also stresses the importance of teaching of Jewish, social and humanistic values, as well as of developing community intervention programs, with a view towards educating our young people to contribute to society and to become productive and effective citizens - for their own sake and for the sake of others, both now and in the future.

ORT Israel organizational structure is presented on figure 1 (see page 27).

Figure 1: ORT Israel – Organizational Structure



Israel's education system in 2002 composed of:

1. 1,876,000 students (69,700 in ORT Israel).
2. 50,000 classes (2,523 in ORT Israel).
3. 120,000 teachers + principals (5,500 in ORT Israel).
4. 3,700 schools (150 in ORT Israel).
5. Total students in junior-high schools – 243,000 (20,786 in ORT Israel – 8.5% of the total education system).
6. Total students in high schools – 331,000 (31,320 in ORT Israel – 9.5% of the total education system).

This research's population was selected due to four main reasons:

1. ORT Israel's secondary education constitutes about 10% of the whole secondary education in Israel.
2. There is a clear evident to the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon in ORT Israel Organization.
3. National spreading – ORT Israel's institutions are placed all over the country from north to south with significant number of them that are located in the periphery.
4. An easy accessibility to collecting data.

evidence
of

The research will be conducted on 73 secondary education headteachers and four senior management members of ORT Israel network.

Out of 73 headteachers that will participate in the research 67% are female and 33% are male. All of selected participants manage Jewish and secular schools in order to prevent biased data. As was mentioned before ~~in~~ the religious and Arab sectors reflect the existence of traditional norms and traditional structure of their society.

The research's questions that were detailed in this chapter relate to three main themes: gender, management styles and barriers to promotion. The following part of this chapter will briefly review the theories relating to these themes.

Theoretical background

Gender

The term “gender” is used to describe those characteristics of women and men that are socially constructed, in contrast to those that are biologically determined. People are born female or male, but learn to be girls and boys who grow into women and men. They are taught what the appropriate behavior and attitudes, roles and activities are for them, and how they should relate to other people. These learned attributes are what make up gender identity and determine gender roles.

“Gender refers to how social and cultural factors shape our reality and our sense of identity. In this view, gender is a social category of shared meanings about characteristics of maleness and femaleness and the behaviors, attitudes and feelings associated with those characteristics” (Anselmi & Law, 1998, p. 249).

Oakley (1985) defines gender identity as “the sense an individual has of himself or herself as male or female, of belonging to one or other group” (p.158).

Gender roles are the “social definition” of women and men, and vary among different societies and cultures, classes and ages, and during different periods. Distinguishing between male and female is a basic principle in the organization of every human culture.

In research literature (Constantinople, 1973), the bipolar approach to gender identity is common (“femininity” or “masculinity”), according to which, male and female characteristics are polarized opposites: femininity means the absence of masculinity and vice versa.

According to this assumption, boys and girls internalize in the course of socialization,

stereotypes typical of their gender, and later exhibit behaviors, which suit their gender role. The revelation of traits and behaviors, which are typical of the other gender (cross-sex), are considered pathological and have negative implications regarding the adjustment of the individual and his/her sexual behavior.

Even though a bipolar approach was dominant in the psychological literature, there was also a suggestion of a dualistic approach, according to which masculinity and femininity are independent dimensions, which exist to a certain degree in all people (Bem, 1974; Bakan, 1966).

According to the dualistic approach, the gender identity of a person is not the same as his/her internalized stereotypes, which fit his or her biological gender. In other words, women do not necessarily internalize "feminine" stereotypes and men "masculine" stereotypes.

Biological females and males may not necessarily manifest the expected traits, indeed they may manifest the opposite or may share many of the traits.

} one para

"Females and males can be brought up with the capacity to express a range of characteristics independently whether they have traditionally been viewed as 'masculine' or 'feminine'. For instance, men can be tender and women assertive" (Nelson-Jones, 1986, p.44).

Bem (1974) constructed a questionnaire for examining the gender identity (BSRI – Bem Sex Role Inventory) and with it, she found empirical evidence for the dualistic approach. In her theoretical arguments, she distinguished between three types of gender identity:

Sex-typed people – who had internalized especially the stereotypes appropriate for their gender ("masculine" men and "feminine" women).

Sex-reversed people – who had internalized mainly the stereotypes of the opposite gender ("feminine" men and "masculine" women).

Androgynous people – who had internalized to a great extent the stereotypes of both sexes (men and women of both “feminine” and “masculine”) traits.

There is often a recognition that feminine and masculine traits could exist in various mixes within the same individual. The situation in which the behavior integrates characteristics of feminine identification with characteristics of masculine identification is called “androgyny”.

In research literature, there is disagreement over the nature of androgynies and its implications for functioning. Out of the dualistic approach towards masculinity and femininity (and in contrast to the bipolar approach), the conclusion is that both of them – masculinity and femininity – contribute to social effectiveness and psychological adjustment.

This means that the most desirable and effective situation is androgynous, which includes both dimensions. And, indeed, Bem (1977) conducted a research series, which found that androgynous men and women do not limit themselves to behaviors typical to their gender, but rather choose the most suitable behavior for a given situation. It was also found that sex-typed people (men and women) avoid behaviors, which are not typical of their narrow self-definition – “feminine” or “masculine”. Regarding the group of sex-reversed people, it was found that “feminine” men tended towards expressive behaviors, while “masculine” women were not different from a group of androgynous women.

According to Bem, stereotypic behavior (sex-typed and sex-reversed) is defensive and by its merely being so, is limiting and inhibiting, while androgynous is flexible, adaptable and effective, And, indeed, during the 70’s, androgynosity was considered to be an index to psychological adjustment and health (Bem, 1974, 1977; Kaplan & Bean, 1976; Rawling & Carter, 1977; O’Connor et al., 1978).

Kaplan & Bean (1976) suggested psychotherapeutic techniques in order to change feminine and masculine gender identity to androgynies. The psychology literature related to androgynies as an “ideal situation psychologically” (Gilbert, 1981; Osofsky et al., 1972; Sturdevant, 1980; Rebecca et al., 1976).

Despite all the enthusiasm, there is empirical evidence (Lubinski et al., 1981), which does not justify the addition of androgynics as an additional dimension to femininity and masculinity. They are against the conceptual definition of Bem (1977), according to which: “Androgynics is not a simple or complex sum of femininity and masculinity, but rather an independent third dimension” (p.383); and the definition of Kaplan & Bean (1976), according to which: “Androgynies is the integration of femininity and masculinity in one person” (p.196).

Moreover, much empirical evidences (Kravetz, 1976; French & Lesser, 1964; Spence & Helmreich, 1979; Antill & Cunningham, 1979; Kelly & Worell, 1977; Jones et al., 1978) point to masculinity (and not to androgynous) as a predictor of psychological adjustment and health for both men and women’s population. *androgyny?*

Out of what had been said above, it is clear that there are contradicting empirical findings regarding androgynous identity, and it is therefore, difficult to derive a definite assumption on the subject. This research will not concentrate on people of androgynous identity but on feminine/ masculine identity.

Management styles

Managerial style is a profile of managerial behaviors expressed and visible to other people - directly or indirectly (Reddin, 1970).

Two centers of research, the University of Ohio and the University of Michigan focused on the research of styles of leadership. The research conducted in the

University of Ohio resulted in the typology of two types of leadership; leadership initiating structure and democratic leadership (Fleishman & Peters, 1957).

The structure of initiating leadership reflects the degree, to which the leader tends to define and to structure his functions and the functions of his employees towards obtaining the goals. High marks in this dimension characterizes a leader that fulfills a function in directing the group's activity by means of planning, transmitting information and trying out new ideas (Fleishman & Harris, 1962).

Democratic leadership reflects the manager's behavior characterized by friendship, mutual trust, respect and appreciation for employees and consideration of their feelings. High mark in this dimension characterizes a climate of agreement, mutual affiliation and bi-directional communication (Fleishman & Harris, 1962).

Many researchers who deal with managerial styles have researched the same two dimensions in managerial styles (Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; Fiedler, 1967; Reddin 1970).

Towards the end of the '60s Fiedler (1967) developed his dependency theory but he has also discerned between two types of leadership - the task-oriented leader and the relationship-oriented leader. Leadership style according to Fiedler is a one-dimensional variable i.e., if there it is too much task orientation - then the orientation to the led will be smaller and vice versa.

Blake & Mouton (1978) who developed the "Management Grid" have followed this line of research. Blake & Mouton have identified two main styles of leadership: a leader whose main concern is production and the leader whose main concern are people. These two styles, however, never appear isolated but always integrated. These are the dimensions of managerial styles. Certain styles can be found in certain places on both these dimensions. The location is determined quantifiably on the scale of 1 - 9. On this basis Blake & Mouton (1978) identify five main managerial styles:

whose
x
is

“task oriented leader”, “country club leader”, “depleting” leader, and the “middle of the road” leader and a leader who is highly marked in both dimensions.

Reddin (1970) has also developed a model based on contingency assumptions. His theory is based also on the two dimensions in managerial styles that are not interdependent - the dimension of task-orientation and the dimension of people orientation.

The dimension of task orientation includes: planning, organization, work division, issuing instructions and supervision orders.

The dimension of people-orientation includes: attentiveness, counseling, training, support, consideration, and encouragement etc.

The degree in which the manager uses this behavior that characterizes each one of the two dimensions defines his managerial style. According to Reddin every manager activates behaviors from the two dimensions and the extent of using those behaviors creates four basic managerial styles: participative, authoritative, relating, and aloof.

Reddin does not try to identify the most effective managerial style but the effectiveness and ineffectiveness of each and every style. When the styles are activated in the field, each one is discovered for its effectiveness or ineffectiveness according to the circumstances of activation. Thus, the model becomes three-dimensional.

According to Gray (1993) ^{is?} paradigms (see table 3 on page 35) and from what was said above, the similarity between the contents of the masculine stereotype and the task-oriented management style is obvious, and so do the feminine stereotype and the people-oriented style. Parsons (1955) as well, claims that task-oriented style is related to “masculine” behavior, and people-oriented style is related to “feminine” behavior.

Sentence structure?

Table 3: Gender paradigms of Gray (1993, p.111)

<u>Feminine paradigm</u>	<u>Masculine paradigm</u>
(Nurturing)	(Defensive/ Aggressive)
Aware of individual differences	Evaluative
Caring	Disciplined
Intuitive	Competitive
Tolerance	Objective
Creative	Formal
Informal	Highly regulated
Non-competitive	Conformist
Subjective	Normative

Gender differences in managerial behavior and management style

Rosner (1990) claims that the first generation of senior women managers who broke the “Glass Ceiling” which separates between low and middle management positions, and high and senior management positions, had to adopt a masculine management style the same style of “Command and Control”. But the younger generation of women already demonstrates the special feminine style of “Interaction and Transformation”.

finding
Rosner’s major find was that women manage differently than men. Rosner claims that men use structural power, i.e. the power given them by their job and position in the organizational hierarchy, while women make more use of a style that she calls ‘interactive’, i.e. motivating workers by sharing information and power with them.

supports?
Zilberg (2000) strength Rosner’s claim and argues that women considered to be more “strong” in cooperation, in understanding and fostering, in assistance and sharing

information and power, and also in their social sensitivity, while men, on the other hand, emphasize independence, assertiveness, competence and need to control.

Zilberg also conclude that it is completely obvious that the feminine style is closer to the people-oriented style, while the masculine style is closer to the task-oriented style.

Vinnicombe & Colwill (1995) represent two opposite views. The first view suggests that male and female management styles are very different.

“Men’s styles are seen to be more competitive, controlling, unemotional, analytical and hierarchical; women’s styles tend to be presented as more collaborative and co-operative” (p.32).

The second view claims that there are no consistent sex differences in management styles.

Based on these two conflicting views, Eagly & Johnson (1990) analyze the studies on men’s and women’s management styles and come to some conclusions that suggest that there are sex differences in management styles primarily in laboratory and assessment center research, but rarely in real organizations.

Powell (1990) in his review, supports the “no differences” view of sex differences in management:

“There is not much difference between the needs, values, and leadership styles of male and female managers. The sex differences that have been found are few, found in laboratory studies more than field studies, and tend to cancel each other out” (p.71).

The issue of sex differences in management styles is controversial.

Therefore, this study will first examine two sub-questions relating to management style:

1. Is there a relationship between the sex of the secondary headteachers in ORT Israel and their perceptions of their gender identity?

2. In the perception of the secondary headteachers in ORT Israel, do ORT Israel female secondary headteachers tend to manage in a people-oriented management style, and men tend to manage in a task-oriented management style?

Barriers to promotion

Despite the fact that the number of women in management is growing, still, there is a big difference in the percentages of men and women in their positions. The rate of progress for women achieving senior managerial positions is even slower. The glass ceiling; the barrier slowing the progress to the organization's highest ranks is a known phenomenon in many countries (Izraeli & Adler, 1994) and not very affected by the approach and by the increased commitment of women to higher education, managerial career or legislation pertaining to equal opportunities. When Izraeli and Adler look back on their previous book; the more optimistic one (Adler & Israeli 1988, "Women in Management Worldwide" they declare:

"In our previous work, like in the works of others, we did not appreciate the important distinction between entering into management and upward mobility in management. We have assumed that women's movement into the level of high manager or rank includes dynamics similar to those of primary entrance into management. Maybe we have too been impressed by the meager flow of exceptional women who operated in exceptional situations in every country that have succeeded to penetrate the glass ceiling and to reach senior managerial positions. Indeed, the reality is that senior managerial positions' chambers have remained consistently immune to women's entrance" (1994, p.7).

Many women who are capable, well educated and achievement oriented are stopped on their way to the top. Women are starting to move up into management positions, but they reach a certain point and do not seem to go any further.

According to Hanik (1995), the “glass ceiling” is no longer made of glass, but it is rather made of concrete.

Still (1994c) argues that despite two decades of legislation and social reform, organizations are still male formed, male organized and male led.

“Fundamentally, the glass ceiling remains impermeable because there are so many barriers to women’s progress. An examination of the literature reveals that these can be divided into four groups: cultural, organizational, individual and governmental” (Still, 1995, p.112).

Izraeli (1998) mentions three barriers for promotion of women in Israel:

- Centralized control in the economy.
- Exclusion of women: The importance of political nets.
- Advantage for men: Gender bias of the management in the family and in the organization.

Arnold & Shinew (1996) in their study of identifying actual and perceived barriers to promotion among middle managers asked the respondents the question: “To what extent do you perceive any of the following to be obstacles toward the advancement of your career? Three categories of responses were included: individual factors, organizational factors, and family factors. Although several similarities were found, some interesting differences were noted. Of the 17 factors listed under individual factors, males and females rated two significantly different. Women perceived that “gender” and “transportation” were obstacles more often than men. In terms of organizational factors, women perceived “gender discrimination” and “gender

differences in management style” as greater obstacles than men. Of the five family factors, men were more likely to perceive that an “unsupportive family” was an obstacle than were women. Comparisons were also made between the obstacle males and females have “actually encountered”. For individual factors, women were more likely to report that they had actually encountered “gender” and “lack of role models” as obstacles to promotion. Men were more likely to indicate that “lack of experience” had been an obstacle. For organizational factors, women were more likely to indicate that “gender differences in management style” and “gender discrimination” had been obstacles. No significant differences were detected regarding family factors.

Peters (2001) claims that the strategies used by women to reach mid-management levels as part of their management style are those who prevent them from climbing up the management ladder.

This study intends to examine the perceived barriers to ORT Israel headteachers’ progress, and to identify to what extent their management style has impact on the promotion to senior positions.

Sub-questions relating to barriers in promotion:

1. What are the perceptions of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management in ORT Israel of the barriers to the progress of ORT Israel secondary headteachers to senior management positions?

2. In the perception of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management in ORT Israel is there a relationship between the style of management of ORT Israel secondary headteachers and their promotion within the teaching profession?

Conclusion

The current chapter presented the background and the main reasons for examining the “glass ceiling” phenomenon in the teaching profession. It detailed the main purpose of the research, the research’s questions and the chosen tools for collecting the data.

In addition, it describes the research’s population and the reasons for choosing it. This chapter also briefly reviews (as preliminary theoretical background) the theories relating to the three main themes in this thesis: gender, management styles and barriers to promotion, including additional aspects relevant to the Israeli society. The next chapter will review these theories in detail.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Even though in practice there have been far-reaching changes in women's participation in the labor market (increasing movement into occupations, professions and managerial jobs previously held only by men), there is a continuation of traditional views regarding men and women's social and economic roles. Women continue to experience "glass ceilings" and "glass walls" as invisible barriers to positions of management, and are under represented at senior management levels.

"As long as we learned to understand better the differences between genders and the consequences of social expectations and predictions regarding the behavior, it can be seen that self accomplishment and success in roles considered to be "masculine" are actually social matter more than personal. Men and women are capable to perform many roles successfully, while those roles enable them to express the whole range of possibilities, without a limitation of stereotypes" (Hanik, 2001, p.2).

Reskin & Roos (1990) claim that employers prefer to hire first, men, and only afterwards, women. This preference is based on a variety of considerations, among them the feminine or masculine image of the occupation. For example, in occupations with masculine image, such as management jobs, the tendency will be to hire men, even though women can fulfill those jobs at a lower salary.

“A gender-specific demand for labor requires some degree of gender segregation that within each society at every point in time there are some task that are reserved predominantly for women and others for men”.

(Cotter, Hermsen & Vanneman, 2001, p.432).

Rozin (2000) claims that the low status of feminine professions in general, and the teaching profession in particular was on the agenda ^{of} the 18th century and is still evident to day. Men have generally abstained from that profession and today they return to it only for senior managerial positions. *(why underlined?)*

1 n
X
X

According to Coleman (1999), since women tend to operate in a collaborative manner that is likely to empower others and endorse values of educational leadership, their under-representation also indicates a loss of potentially effective leadership in schools. Coleman’s conclusions exemplify the differences in the context within ^{male} and female headteachers operate, indicating the relevance of gender to the study of leadership and management. *which?*

Rosner (1990) claims that women can be effective leaders in the work place by being themselves and not necessarily by imitating the ‘masculine model’. According to Rosner, female managers that broke the glass ceiling proved that managers do not ^{are?} created from one pattern. The first women in management attached to some of the behavioral norms/which were successful for men. She claims that today the second wave of women paved their way to senior management, not by adapting the style and habits which caused success with men, but by taking advantage of skills and attitudes which they developed in their experience as women. The second generation of women in managerial roles creates a model from another type: the successful, not in-spite of but by right of their feminine traits.

According to Rosner, women’s success in managerial roles proved that there is strength in different management types.

Hanik (2001) mentions several questions that arise while dealing with the fields of gender and management positions, such as: Are the traits required to perform successfully managerial jobs are “masculine” ~~traits~~ and if so, ^{do} Do women really “build differently” and are not capable of managing and commanding? Are there many differences between women and men? What are the acceptable traits in order to succeed in a managerial and organizational career?

X

This chapter will review the literature relevant to most of those questions by focusing on three main themes: Gender, Management Styles, Barriers to Promotion, and on the relationships between them, in order to clarify the influential factors on women’s promotion to senior management positions (especially style of management), within the teaching profession at ORT Israel network.

Gender

“ ‘Gender’ is now one of the busiest, most restless terms in the English language, a word that crops up everywhere, yet whose uses seem to be forever changing, always on the move, producing new and often surprising inflections of meaning”.

check

(Glover & Kaplan, 2000, p.ix)

Goodwin (1993) points out that gender has become a main focus in the field of sociology, mainly due to the efforts and questions of the feminist movement and women’s studies trying to define the sexist base of traditional sociology.

Till the second wave of feminism arrived, traditional curriculums tried to prove that the characteristics of male and female are biological and not social. The feminist sociology tried to show that what the Western society calls “ biological” or “natural” when relating to women are ~~actually~~ things that are created by means of educational systems and social pressure. Directing the attention to the question of gender definition as a place of power relations is the contribution of the feminists’ theory of the year 1970. Make clear

X no comma needed

Shulamith Firestone in her book "The Dialectic of Sex" (1979), claimed that the genderial observations assume a priori the framework of relations in which society examines men and women; therefore, they may be responsible for structuring every aspect of their lives. According to her, the genderial differences are actually, a sophisticated method of male dominance and the main political task of feminism is to bring an end to this domination. The terms sex and gender have come to be used as synonyms in the social sciences literature, which can lead to confusion (Lopata & Thorne, 1978; Stewart & Lykes, 1985; Duglas, 1998). Thus, it is important to begin the discussion with basic definitions.

no comma needed.

Sex and gender

Basow (1992) and Anselmi & Law (1998) define sex as a biological term. Chromosomes, organs and genes that causes differences in the physical appearance and create two categories of male and female.

cause?

In contrast, they define gender as a psychological and cultural term. A social category of shared meanings about characteristics of maleness and femaleness and the feeling, attitudes and behaviors associated with them.

No finite verb.

Lorber & Farrell (1991) also define sex as a determination of biological criteria for classifying persons as females or males. While gender is an "activity" influenced by normative conceptions of attitudes and activities suitable for one's sex category.

Gentile (1998) identifies five meanings for the use of the terms sex or gender. In order to avoid any confusion he proposes a distinct term for each of these five meanings:

- a. Sex – to refer to the biological function.
- b. Biologically sex linked – to refer to traits or conditions that are causally biologically related to being male or female.
- c. Gender – linked – to refer to the traits or conditions that are causally linked with maleness or femaleness but are culturally based as opposed to biologically based.

- d. Sex – and gender – linked – to refer to traits or conditions that are causally related to both biological component and a cultural component.
- e. Sex – correlated – to refer to traits or conditions that are related to being male or female without asserting a causal relation to either biology or culture (do not wish or can not do such an assertion).

“The major distinction I propose to make between sex and gender is one of biology versus culture. Thus, a person’s sex is a matter of biology fact. A person’s gender is a matter of cultural relativity” (p.16).

Glover & Kaplan (2000) argue that sex and gender are intimately related because both of them are cultural categories, which relate to the ways of describing and understanding human bodies and human relationships (to our selves and to others).

Culture does not reflect just race, nationality or ethnicity (including psychological and symbolic meanings), but also involves a system of shared meanings and ideas. It includes both public aspects, such as customs, institutions, and language, and private aspects, such as feelings and thoughts (Levin, 1984).

Basow (1992) emphasizes that gender may refer to individual’s subjective feelings of maleness or femaleness (gender identity), and may also refer to society’s evaluation of behavior as masculine or feminine (gender role).

Gender identity

“Gender identity is a psychological construct, referring to an individual’s phenomenological experience of being masculine and/or feminine”
(Katz, 1986, p.23).

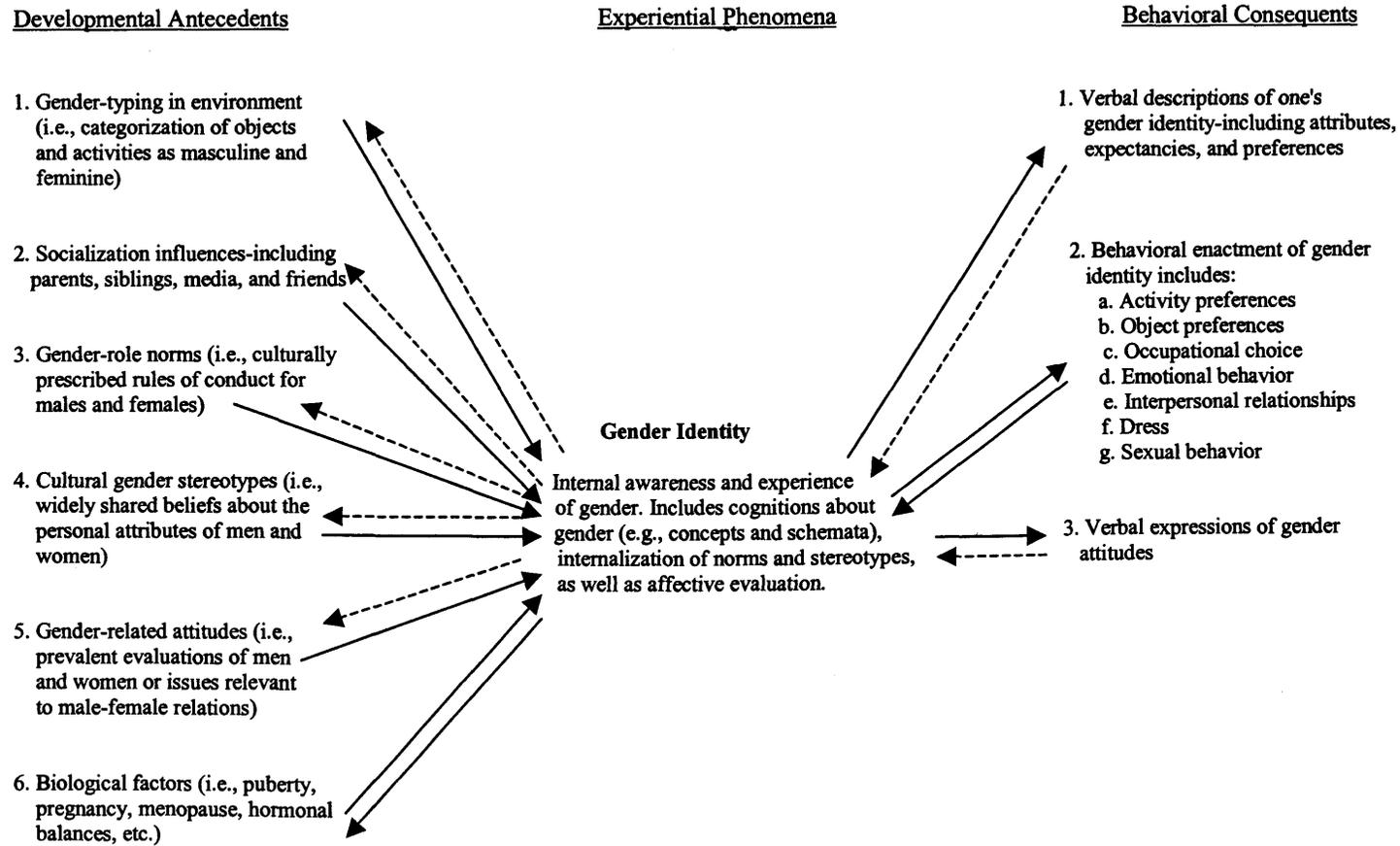
A schematic concept of gender identity's definition is viewed in Figure 2 (see page 47) – Relation of a gender identity construct to other gender-related constructs.

The solid arrows describe the typical developmental stages. The dotted arrows related to the column titled "Developmental antecedents" are more expressed when the individual becomes a parent. Namely, the individual's gender identity will influence the way of socializing his ^{other} descendant.

The biological factors have only one direction.

The dotted arrows related to the "behavioral consequents" column pointing on an interactive feedback.

Figure 2: Relation of gender identity construct to other gender-related constructs (Katz, 1986)



Deaux (1987) and Anselmi & Law (1998) relate to three influential perspectives in psychology, which have been used to explain gender identity development.

Each model assumes that the child acquires stable sense of gender identity at an early stage, but they are different in their concept of the acquisition process.

Psychoanalytic theory – masculinity and femininity are outcomes of biological factors. The sex role identity determined by events that occurring during the Oedipal period. It is believed that this identity remains stable throughout life. In order to understand the issue of gender identity, the psychoanalytic theories emphasize three aspects of development:

- a. Affective component of identity.
- b. Internalization of identity.
- c. Relationship between identity and sexuality.

Social learning theory – the gender identity determined by environment factors and not by biological ones. The gender identity formed relatively early in life stay^S stable. X
The social learning theory uses two main mechanisms. The first mechanism is punishment or reward for gender inappropriate or appropriate behavior. The second mechanism is the imitation of behavior shown by models of the same sex.

Cognitive developmental theory – Kohlberg (1966), in his cognitive developmental theory of gender divided the children's understanding of gender to three stages of cognitive change. To his claim at about age 2, children begin to use labels that indicate gender identity, they begin using gender labels to describe themselves and others. At about age 3, children move into a stage of gender stability, in which they realize that gender does not change over time. By about age 5, most children have acquired gender constancy, recognizing that gender is permanent and determined by genitals and not clothing, hairstyle, or activity. ?

Deaux (1987) claims that this theory suggests that the child first categorizes himself/herself as a boy or a girl and then behave^s consistently with that appropriate to this categorization. X

“Identification with same-sex parents is a consequence, not a cause, of gender identity” (p. 290).

Maccoby & Jacklin (1987) do not agree with Kohlberg’s theory relating to the timing of the acquired knowledge of gender. They claim it occurs earlier.

Bem’s (1985) analysis of the development of gender identity is different from those proposed by Kohlberg. Bem recognizes the importance of social and cultural factors, but she placed the child’s knowledge of gender in the center. ~~~~~

The structure that develops after processing information on the basis of the sex-linked associations is called a gender schema.

“A schema is a cognitive structure, a network of associations that organizes and guides an individual’s perception. A schema functions as an anticipatory structure, a readiness to search for and to assimilate incoming information in schema-relevant terms” (Bem, 1981, p.355).

A gender schema is a network of mental associations that organize and simplify the large amount of information about gender that a child receives. ~~~~~

As part of their gender schema, children categorize activities, objects, experiences, even themselves and others in terms of gender.

The culture provides the children information not only about sex differences, but also about the associative characteristics of masculinity and femininity, so they learn which attributes related to their sex and to them. Actually, the cultural stereotypes are those who affect the way we view ourselves and others – the gender identity comes from gender stereotypes.

The individual's acquisition level of gender schemas can vary on a scale from schematic to a schematic.

Schematic individuals use their well-developed gender schemas to interpret the information regarding gender. A schematic individuals use other types of schemas because they tend to have less well-developed schemas for gender.

Martin (1993) argues that gender schemas are not exactly hierarchically organized structures, but a loose organized cognitive components of information about maleness and femaleness. The information about gender comes from many sources and in different ways, so the cognitive schemas' job is to connect between the diverse information of gender stereotype in a wider way.

“Gender schema theory provides a useful framework from which to understand how individual and environmental factors interact to determine gender identity, gender typed behaviors, and gender roles” (Anselmi & Law, 1998, p.253).

Bem (1993) added on the relationship between the individual's cognitions (gender schemas) and the cultural construction of gender, and addressed the attention to three cultural forces, which spread and pervade the culture without awareness of its effects: biological essentialism, androcentrism (patriarchy), and gender polarization (maximization of gender differences).

Gender roles and stereotypes

Gender roles socially and culturally define shared beliefs and expectations about emotions, qualities and behaviors that relate to individuals on the basis of their identified gender (men or women) (Eagly, 1987; Anselmi & Law, 1998).

Gender roles are part of the information that individuals acquire about the world and their role in it. But, because gender roles are learned, and the expectations are not

always clear, not everyone adopts them at the same level. The gender roles can be sometimes unlearned, leading to their redefinition.

Anselmi & Law (1998) define stereotypes as “overgeneralized beliefs about people based on their membership in one of many social categories” (p.195).

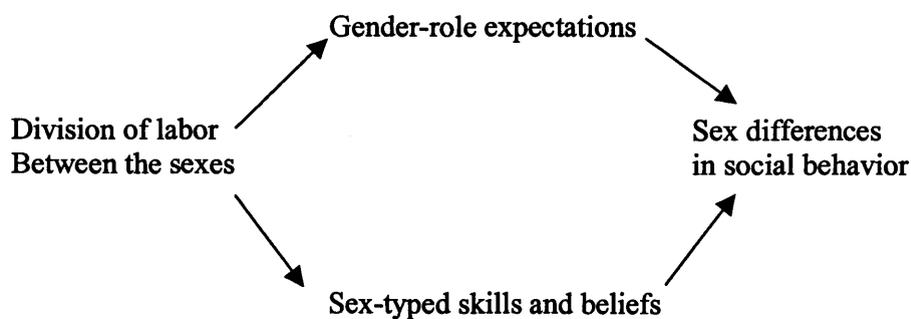
Deaux (1984) emphasizes that being a woman or a man is not the only explanation for the differences between them. The influence of stereotypes and expectations of the others on men and women behavior should be checked. These, in her opinion, have differential influence that can encourage coordinated behaviors in different situations.

Basow (1992) points out two basic theories regarding the source of gender stereotypes: the “kernel of truth” theory and the social-role theory.

The “Kernel of truth” theory claims that there is an empirical validity for the gender stereotypes. Thus, there are differences in behavior between the sexes, which exist, and the stereotypes just reflect them.

The Social-role theory argues that the origin of gender stereotypes is the different social roles typically held by men and women (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Steffen, 1984).

Figure 3 below summarizes the Social-role theory of gender stereotypes and gender differences in social behavior:



Deaux (1987) concludes that gender stereotypes are composed of four components. Each of them contains characteristics that are more likely to be associated with men and characteristics that are more likely to be associated with women:

1. Traits (e.g., independent, emotional).
2. Role behaviors (e.g., financial provider, care for children).
3. Physical characteristics (e.g., muscular, graceful).
4. Occupations (e.g., engineer, elementary school teacher).

Gender roles masculinity and femininity considered being personality traits. Men show masculinity (active-instrumental traits) and women show femininity (nurturing-expressive traits).

According to Ashmore (1990), masculinity and femininity, and the elements that contributed to each, where viewed as oppositional traits. *is this "were" — not clear.*

During the 1970s, Ashmore's view of the trait approach was criticized by the androgyny model proposed by Bem (1974), and the gender identity model of Spence (Spence & Helmreich, 1978):

- a. They claim that masculinity and femininity should be viewed as "opposite ends of a continuum", and not as separate and independent characteristics.
- b. They checked the thought of relating good psychological health to sex-typing. *meaning?*
- c. They define masculinity and femininity, in terms of cultural and social norms and not as sex differences in behavior.

Spence, Helmreich & Stapp (1975) also discuss the differences in the perception of women and men. They found that women and men perceived in different way according to feminine and masculine stereotypes. The man is described as a person of instrumental traits, such as: independent, activist and decision capability. Woman on the other hand is described as expressivist, sensitive, loving and soft. These traits *are* parallel to women ^{is} and men ^{is} traditional roles in society. *x*

The concept of androgyny was proposed by Bem (1974) in order to describe individuals who might have both masculine and feminine characteristics - high on both sets of traits.

Figure 4 below presents a fourfold classification, which separates biological sex from psychological sex typing:

		Masculinity	
		Low	High
Femininity	Low	Undifferentiated	Masculine
	High	Feminine	Androgynous

Being androgynous reflects a level of flexibility one's has regarding gender-stereotypic behaviors and does not imply on the individual's sexual orientation (Basow, 1992).

x
clarify!

Re-conceptualization of androgyny and sex typing was done by Bem (1981b, 1985), which relate to cognitive schemata and not to personality types.

?
test?

In Bem's introduction to the BSRI she states that her instrument allows individuals to be both feminine and masculine, unlike other tests, which are restrictive to only one. The items included in the list were selected on the basis of adjectives identified as masculine, feminine or neutral, and items are graded as desirable for a man or woman.

Hall and Southworth (1997) relate to the importance of the gender component in educational leadership:

"Using a gender perspective creates new possibilities for exploring the lines of men and women who teach, manage and lead in education. As researchers into

headship we have both concluded that educational leadership is firmly rooted in professional identity. Gender, in turn, is a crucial component of that identity” (p.167).

According to Bem (1974), human behavior does not determine only by sex but and mostly by the sexual role, that is, the extent of femininity and masculinity. That is to say, the differences in management style of male managers and female managers will be stick in the extent of masculinity and/ or femininity of the same male manager/ female manager and not in their sex. Therefore, it can be conceived that there is a relationship between management style and the level of masculinity/ femininity. ?

In order to find if there is a relationship between the sex of the secondary headteachers in ORT (Israel) and their perceptions of their gender identity, this study will first examine the way ORT’s headteachers rate themselves, using the BSRI, as possessing the “appropriate” characteristics (feminine or/and masculine) to their sex. According to the findings, if there is to be affinity between women headteachers and feminine traits and men headteachers and masculine traits, the study will be able to search for a connection between gender and management styles.

Management styles

Reddin (1970) defines management style as a profile of managerial behaviors, which externally being expressed and being revealed to other people directly or indirectly.

Management is commonly conceptualized as ‘masculine’, concerned with ‘male’ qualities of rationality and instrumentally (Blackmore, 1993; Blackmoore and Kenway, 1993; Weiner, 1995). This would suggest according to Reay & Ball (2000) that women, as well as men, promoted to senior management positions will aspire to ways of managing which draw on styles widely perceived to be masculine rather than feminine.

It seems that women need an excessive amount of experience before they reach management positions. They have to negotiate the right combination between career and family, and with the obvious stereotypes in the organizational and public talk regarding their role in the society. (Visel, 1996; Mala'ch-Feins, 1989).

Morrison (1987) found that the psychological profiles of women who succeed in positions of executive leadership might be more like those of their male counter parts than they are like those of women in general.

It seems that more attention given to monitoring of work, to speedy decision-making, to corporate culture and responsiveness to the customer; but arguably less to democratic decision-making, consultation and participation. Management goals are increasingly preoccupied with measured outcomes rather than organizational processes.

This study will review the different factors, which relate to gender and have an impact upon headteachers' progress, but mainly will examine the style of management as an influential factor, as Davies (1998) recommended and as Peters (2001) and Arnold & Shinew (1996) pointed out.

Types of management styles

The psychological literature (Hemphill, 1950; Flieshman, 1953; Blake & Mouton, 1978; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; House, 1971; Reddin, 1970) distinguishes between two major types of group managers or between two independent types of Management Styles: the task-oriented manager (instrumental) and the people-oriented manager (expressive).

The task-oriented manager, emphasize the task and the achievement of goal and objectives; he devotes most of his activities to areas of organization, supervision, control, initiative, distribution of assignments and direction.

Task-oriented behavior is directed toward subordinates' performance and includes initiating work, organizing it, and setting deadlines and standards.

The people-oriented manager concentrates first on the people in the group and their welfare; he dedicates his activities to areas of listening, encouragement, cooperation, understanding and inter-personal relations.

People-oriented behavior is directed toward subordinates' welfare and includes seeking to build their self-confidence, making them feel at ease, and soliciting their input about matters that affect them.

Stogdill (1974) summarizes research literature on the subject and claims that both dimensions – people oriented and task oriented – were found to be related to organizational productivity and group unity, when most of the time, productivity is more related to task-oriented style and employees' satisfaction is more related to people-oriented style.

Blake and Mouton (1978) developed their management theory based on previous research. In their outline they indicate the 'attitude to output' (tasks in the organization) on a horizontal axis and divide it into nine levels. The 'attitude to people' (human relationship) they indicate on a vertical axis and divide it also into nine levels. From these levels on the two axes they found five major different combinations that constitute five management styles (see figure 5 on page 57).

Figure 5 – The position of the five management styles

ATTITUDE
TO
PEOPLE

	1/9					9/9		
HIGH	Production is a result of a lack of conflict and therefore it is advisable to constantly preserve friendship with the underlings and satisfy their personal needs without emphasizing the need of the organization (the club approach)				Production stems from the complete integration of the individual with the needs of the organization.			
				5/5				
			Production is the most important thing but people's needs are not neglected, in the style of 'push enough to attain production and show enough of a human attitude to preserve the required work morale'					
	1/1					9/1		
LOW	It is hard to attain efficiency at work as the underlings are lazy and complacent. It is hard to attain normal work relations as conflict is unavoidable.				They treat people like machines the manager's main role is to plan for the workers and direct and supervise them			
	LOW							HIGH

Source: Blake & Mouton (1978)

Management style 9/1: a maximal attitude to output and a minimal attitude to people.

Management style 1/9: a minimal attitude to output and a maximal attitude to people.

Management style 1/1: a minimal attitude to output and to people.

Management style 5/5: an average attitude to output and to people.

Management style 9/9: a maximal attitude to output and to people.

The manager's characteristics with the different styles

9/1: The manager emphasizes output. He has little interest in people. He is ambitious, chases success, has compulsive power, demands complete obedience from his underlings and punishes them when they do not behave as expected. He believes in the philosophy that people are lazy by nature and hate work and therefore one should tell them exactly what to do and closely supervise their work. He plans the work for his underlings by himself and pushes them to attain the organizations' goals. He does not accept suggestions or criticism from his underlings. He treats conflict in the organization as a disruption of the system and acts with strictness to restore order. He regards his illness as a personal failure and ignores it even when there is clear medical proof of its existence. He often gets angry and suspects people and accuses others for every failure in the organization. He creates tension, frustration, bitterness and complacency among his underlings.

1/9: The manager considers the feelings, thoughts and wishes of his underlings and takes care that there should be a friendly atmosphere and pleasant work conditions. He does not impose tasks on his underlings and they often decide what to do. He seldom checks what is going on among the workers. He takes care of the underlings' personal problems and avoids all conflict in the organization as it disturbs the group's harmony and decreases its confidence. He does not express opinions opposed to those of his underlings so as not to hurt their feelings. He depends on others and concentrates a lot on himself. He is

exaggeratedly worried about his health and is often absent from work due to minor illnesses.

1/1: The manager shows no interest in the organization's output or in the personal needs of its members. His expectations are few and his contribution is little. He does the minimum required to stay in the organization and to reach the period of his pension. He avoids conflict with anyone in the organization and conveys information through messengers instead of speaking with people personally. He does not care that the underlings have no goal in their work. At meetings he listens well and pretends that he is honestly interested in the problems presented. He hides his lack of interest in what is going on the organization by appearing on time at meetings and by presenting orderly and exact reports on schedule. He usually speaks vaguely, generally and in a style that may be interpreted in many ways and uses abstract terms. Sometimes his answers are 'I wasn't there' or 'I am not an expert'. In general, we may say that he does not make a mark on the organization and that the organization does not make a mark on him.

5/5: The manager tries to divide his attitude between the organization's output and the workers' personal needs. He acts according to the decision of the majority and tends to support what others support and reject what others reject. When he loses the support of the majority, he feels isolated and unpopular. He avoids exposing himself. He tends to treat problems with the underlings informally while he emphasizes their positive actions, feelings and thoughts. He regards his role as helping others. He solves a conflict by compromise and relies a lot on tradition, laws and work rules. Before making an unpopular decision, he tends to examine the underlings' reactions by means of informal groping discussions. He seems elastic by adapting himself to people and the situation.

9/9: The manager believes that one may attain maximal achievements in the organization by showing a maximal attitude toward the organization's tasks and

its workers. He motivates the subordinates to become integrated with their jobs and involves them in processes of planning, organization, evaluation and other organizational activities. He tries together with the workers to locate difficulties and find solutions. He supervises the subordinates by discussion, clarifications and mutual conclusions to improve the situation in the future. He encourages teamwork, creates open discussion and encourages opposing opinions. He presents a reason or an explanation for the organization's tasks. He defines jobs clearly and trains the underlings to supervise themselves. He regards a conflict as a process that promotes the organization rather than one that holds it back. He believes in people and develops channels of mutual communication. He tries to involve the underlings in tasks that are complex and not simple or repetitive. He is not afraid of changes. He performs capably under pressure and is understanding, initiative and creative. He has patience and generosity for others. He has a sense of humor and is courageous, self-confident, devoted to his work and healthy physically and psychologically.

According to Blake's report, the 9/9 management styles are the most efficient of the five. When the workers are directly involved in the processes of the organization in all their phases, from planning to evaluation, their motivation is high, they have much more satisfaction and their efficiency is maximized. The teamwork, the workers' partnership in making decisions, the maximal care for their personal needs and the honest effort that they realize themselves maximally at work all increase their devotion and their regarding their work as a goal.

Relating to behavioral theories of leadership, Powell (1988) emphasizes the connection between gender stereotypes and behavioral theories of leadership.

“Task-oriented behaviors by the leader such as initiating structure, setting goals, and making decisions are those most associated with the masculine stereotypes. People-oriented behaviors by the leader such as showing consideration toward subordinates, soliciting of subordinates' ideas, and

demonstrating concern for subordinates' satisfaction are those most associated with the feminine stereotype" (p.167).

Advanced literature (Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Sashkin & Burke, 1990) defines the transactional and transformational leadership styles. The transactional style focuses on short periods goals and stability. Performance is reprisal. The transformational style advocates sharing, empowering and encouraging of subordinates and shows respect for individual differences among them.

The transformational leader prefers quality (effectiveness) to speed (efficiency).

Research considers the transformational leader as more successful (Kouzes & Posner, 1987) and suggests that female leaders tend to use transformational behaviors more than males (Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Druskat, 1994).

The main question those findings arise and which this study is based on is:

Do female and male managers differ in their management style?

Gender differences in managerial behavior

Powell (1988) claims that there is not an easy answer to this question.

The literature presents two different and conflicting positions of sex differences in management styles.

The first view claims that women and men differ in their management styles. In most studies one sex difference was prominent and repeated – women were found to adopt a more democratic or participative style, while men adopt a more autocratic or directive one.

“Men’s styles seem to be more competitive, controlling, unemotional, analytical and hierarchical. Women’s styles tend to be presented as more collaborative and co-operative”.

(Nissicombe & Colwill, 1995, p.32).

check spelling - see bibliography

The second view suggests that there are no consistent sex differences in management styles.

Powell (1988) concludes that in general there are few sex differences of managerial behaviors, which tend to cancel each other out.

“Sex differences have generally not been found in global measures of managerial behaviors. Specific behavioral differences such as response to poorly performing subordinates or influence strategies, tend to favor male managers... on the other hand, sex differences in motivational profiles consistently favor female managers...there is no clear-cut sex differences in managerial commitment or in symptoms of stress experienced...male and female also provoke similar responses in subordinates” (p.165).

Reviews that do find behavioral differences point out the results as being inconsistent (Leavitt, 1982; Powell, 1988,1990).

Eagly & Johnson (1990) found in their research on leadership styles of women and men evidence for both positions. In assessment and laboratory setting male managers tended to be more task-oriented than female, and female managers tended to be more interpersonally oriented than male managers. But, in organizational studies, female and male did not differ in these two styles.

Helgesen (1990) in her study, found differences in the way men and women managers operated. Her finding pointed out that women managers tended to be more nurturing and friendly, and give great importance to relationships.

According to Rosner (1990) women need to be “interactive” and encourage teamwork and participation in order to accomplish tasks, since they do not have the same access to formal power as men do.

Appelbaum & Shapiro (1993), Vokins (1993) and Shipper (1994) also found matching between interactive mode (sharing power and information, cooperative

stance, intuitive and subjective decision making, low emphasis on control and an emphatic culture) and women management style. ^{is} ? ?

Shemer (1992) explains the salient differences, in her opinion, between men and women - the masculine way of act that accepted, as correctly, is the one, which strives to victory and achieves the defined ahead goals and objectives, in other words "management to outcomes". On the other hand, women consider their contribution to the organization and the appreciation they receive from others as the most important components in their feeling of value. It is important to women to feel that they are part of a general effort, of teamwork and shared achievements.

Elavily

Tamelman and Sheinfield (1998, 2001) compare ~~between~~ the managerial style of women ^{and} compared to man and claim that, "Women have a calmer, more friendly and more cooperative managerial style; they employ more delegation of authority, they have much importance in interpersonal relationships, they are more practical and to the point; they manage better time and order of priorities; they withstand pressure better demand more from themselves and from others. They are more open, flexible sensitive and intuitive managers. They do not initiate their own promotion; they are not scheming and there are not bullying – they are less of a "politician".

On the other hand, Kruger (1996) concluded that female heads hardly differ from their male colleague in the way in which they experience power. Other authors also did not found any gender differences in management style (Dobbins and Platz, 1986; De Jong and van Doore-Huiskes, 1989; Ruijs, 1990).

Theoretical approaches of genderial differences

There are number of theoretical approaches, which explain the genderial differences in the management style:

The traits approach – in the base of this theory stands the assumption that leaders endowed with special talents, which qualified the individual to leadership are congenital (hereditary) and probably should be developed in suitable frames (Dobbins

et.al, 1999). There are eight traits, which make the differences between leaders and non-leaders: ambition, energy, the will to lead, sincerity, straightness, self-confidence, intelligence and relevant knowledge for the role. Namely, there are specific traits, which strengthen the chance to succeed as a leader, but none of them can ensure success. This is one of the traits approach's foibles, and it can pointed out on at least another four: the approach ignores the led needs, it does not explain the relative importance of certain traits, the approach does not separate between factor and result, the approach avoids environment factors (Robbins, 1996). The traits approach claims ~~to~~ congenital differences between men and women in their leadership style.

clarity?
?

Another perspective to explain the genderial differences is the biological approach, which claims that effective leaders have a rare biochemistry mixture of hormones and cerebral chemistry, which help them to build an excellent human relationship and deal with pressures. Two chemical materials – Testosterone and Serotonin – demanded a lot of attention, while high levels of the first probably strengthen sociability and rules aggression and high levels of the second material probably strengthen the urge for competitiveness. The problem is that these findings come from correlated researches and therefore it is hard to conclude on causality Robbins (1996). According to this perspective men have higher levels of Testosterone and Serotonin, and therefore they probably will be ~~the~~ better leaders (Hutt 1972 in Karakowsky and Siegel, 1999).

make this reference clear

This study will not be based on the previous theories because of the correlated finding of the biological approach (which prevents the possibility of concluding on causality) and because of the foibles of the traits approach, which are contradictory to the aims and intentions of this study.

"raised in interview"

Another approach, which tries to explain the sources of the genderial differences, is the behavioral approach that this research is based on. According to it there are specific behaviors, which identified with leaders and can be taught. Behavioral researches conducted in Michigan University found two behavioral dimensions of leaders, which seem connected to effective performance: orientation to the employee (people-oriented) and orientation to productivity (task-oriented). The people-oriented

15?
leaders described as emphasize inter-personal relationships and show interest in the subordinated needs, and accept with understanding difference and inter-personal differences. In contrast, the task-oriented leaders tend to emphasize the technical aspect of the task. Their main goal is to finish the task, while the team members are the means to achieve this goal. The researchers concluded that there is a clear preference to people-oriented leaders, while the productivity is also very high (Robbins, 1996). (Wood (1987 in Neubert, 1999)) found that in task-oriented activities men perform better, while in task with social orientation, women perform better. It might be happen because women tend to be less competitive and more focus in the group (Rogelberg & Rummery, 1996; Wood 1987 in Neubert, 1999). Also (Driskell 1993 (Karakowsky and Siegel, 1999) claims that women are usually seen as less competitive and operate as less authoritative in group tasks compared to men.

raised in interview

Refer in writing to Wood (1987)

The sociological perspective claims that components in the social structure including appointments of women and men in different social roles, encourages consistent patterns of behavioral differences between men and women (Karakowsky and Siegel, 1999). Two theories are included in this perspective: the Social role theory and the Expectation theory.

Another point of view on gender differences is the structural perspective of Kanter (1977 in Karakowsky and Siegel, 1999), which offers that the numerical representation of women and men can influence directly on the behavior in mixed groups. This approach claims that while a social category is in minority status, it could have several implications, which caused mainly in a group in it, specific social category constitute 15% or less from the whole group. According to this model, when a group member belongs to the minority group in the social category, he^{or she} will tend to present the position related to the group, without a deliberate choice to do so, and will still feel isolated from the majority in the group. As a result, the minority group behavior is delayed and passive. Accordingly, minority group members are hampered in achieving leadership roles in the group. Based on the social theory and the expectation theory claims, it can be argued that the minority group's status not necessarily caused

not clear

15?
see next page

to low levels of leadership behavior appearance, as opposed to what the structural approach will predict. These theories suggest that men and women will behave differently on the basis of different gender roles and perceived status, which could be influenced by the gender orientation of the task (Karakowsky and Siegel, 1999).

The structural perspective and the sociological perspective together offer then, in relation to the unfitness of group's member to the task gender orientation, numerical minority will be "insignificant" comparing to the dominant competitive, relating to the levels of presenting leadership behavior.

This sentence requires taking apart.

Gardiner and Tiggemann (1999) show in their research that women not only tend to adopt a democratic leadership style, but they also appreciate the importance of the inter-personal communication. Further, they are more oriented to human relationships and less to tasks. But, the orientation of women to emphasise human relationship is getting weaker when they work in a masculine work environments. According to researchers, women behave in this way in order to enhance their authority in the group. But, according to other contradictory findings, even in feminine work environment men and women adopt task-oriented leadership styles. A possible explanation of these findings is that there are dominant masculine stereotypes of leadership. Namely, a good leader is a leader who emphasizes achieving organizational goals, and leader who emphasise human relationship is considered to be less authoritative and influential. Maybe, because of this, a stereotypical masculine style is preferred in managerial positions.

The ^ecomplimentary model assumes that there is a difference between women and men. Women and men excel in different fields. Right treatment is not expressed by numerical representation but in equal acknowledgment of the different patterns' value in the contribution of women and men. The strategy is ^{one} of acknowledging the unique contribution of men and women and creating conditions which allow this contribution to be expressed, and finally, searching for synthesis – ways to connect between men and women's ways in order to create tougher and better management processes.

? right word ?

The Equity model is based on the assumption that there is an imagination between the sexes that women equal in all to men and capable ^{of doing} ~~to do~~ everything men do, and their contribution to the system is identical to ^{that} ~~this~~ of men. According to this approach there is one right way to manage, and women should perform the managerial role like men do (Etzion, 1984). The main problem according to this model is the absence of equal opportunities. Dealing with this inequity is through the law, affirmative action, equal rights, structural changes and training women to management skills, which were neglected during their formal and informal education (Etzion, 1984).

Women who entered the world of management had to deal with stereotypical concepts, which do not encourage their promotion. The concept was that in order to manage better, one should express force, influence, assertiveness and authority, traits ^{are} that considered traditionally as masculine traits.

Ronk (1993) claims that women who want to succeed in managerial roles must imitate the masculine model. Contrary to the Equity model, she believes that there are birth differences, unconscious between men and women, and women ⁱⁿ order to succeed and be effective manager ^s should learn and implement the managerial strategies of men. ×

This study will examine the teaching profession. It will consider aspects of the feminine work environment, and whether there are differences in school management. In this context it will particularly examine whether masculine styles of management are preferred in senior positions at ORT Israel.

Gender differences in educational management

According to Addi-Raccah (2001), in the education profession men are concentrated in the high ranks of the educational system, and in the senior positions, while women are found in the lower ranks, mainly in teaching jobs.

Although the teaching profession is defined as a feminine occupation, it seems that men are integrated into the senior positions, fulfilling administrative jobs, which require authority and power demonstration, and gaining a higher professional status comparing to women. These findings serve as an example ^{of} to the fact that even in the ✓ feminine occupations, where women have better opportunities ^{to} to promotion than those who are working in the masculine occupations, men's status remains higher (Hachen, 1988) and there is also encouragement of men to be promoted to senior positions, (Williams, 1992).

As Addi-Racah (2001) found in her research, the gender composition of teachers in schools does not have many connections to promotion. The influence of the gender composition is not necessarily a linear function (Stone, 1995). ~~~~~

Women, despite their numerical dominance, continue to be a minority group, who cannot succeed in converting numerical advantage into improved professional status. This might be described as a state of "Ghettoism".

Rakach also concludes that there might be alternative explanations, such as ✓ the existing of cultural mechanism like social norms relating to the status of women in the work place, which could be more significant than their relative number in the profession.

According to Reskin (1988) and Addi-Racah (2001), men resist women as equal partners in work situations because doing so undermines traditional occupational differentiations of male dominance. Thus, as superior partners in a female-dominated workplace, men can assert their status by holding leadership and administrative positions.

Rozin (2000) describes this situation as the "Glass Ceiling": "Glass ceiling" is a feminist term that comes to describe the barrier stopping women on their way up: to key positions, to power positions, influence, management and money.

"Ceiling" – a common image to describe the upper limit, peak or maximal position.

“Glass” – a barrier albeit transparent. When it is transparent it is misleading and awakes illusions. Everything seems possible. When the ceiling is made of glass we raise our eyes upwards; we can see the sky and forget that there is a ceiling and we think innocently that for women too the sky is the limit” (p. 289-290). *Rozin*

This glass ceiling that stops women in their progress is felt more acutely in the '90s. It exists in every realm, for example: medicine, academy and industry. In the realm of teaching in Israel there are more female teachers than male teachers. Teaching became quite a while ago a “feminine” profession rewarded accordingly. There are more female school managers than male school managers. It is almost an outcome of the multitude of female teachers (apart from military people who recently retire and who flow down in Israel into this system). The number of female supervisors compared to male supervisors, the number of department managers, division managers and the Director General in the Ministry of Education vs. female Director General's that manned that position. *Simple plural?*

Davies (1998) claims that in order to achieve a better gender 'balance' and a more feminized management of education the focus should be on the management issue (development and style), and not on gender (women).

“My argument is that the 'women problem' is a problem of democracy, and that a solution to gender and indeed other forms of inequity or injustice is to strive for more democratic educational institutions” (p.13).

Pinter's study (1981) showed that women are more close to their subordinates, spent more time with their colleagues, visited more classrooms, were more updated on issues and spent less time on desk work than ^rman. In addition, women define task differently than men. They give more importance to community and integration, controlling of anger and fewer conflicts, and much more teamwork. *X*

“Some of our understanding of individuals as school leaders must include an understanding of them as women or men. Understanding leaders and managers in education means understanding them as people. Understanding education management means appreciating the values that underpin management choices about goals and ways of behaving in the job” Hall (1997, pp.312-313).

Shakeshaft (1995) indicates the following gender differences for male and female managers in the teaching profession:

1. Relation – women are more interactive, communicative, motivate and more concern about individual differences than men.
2. Teaching and learning – women demonstrate a lot of knowledge regarding teaching methods and techniques. They are helping in instructional learning more than men and are more likely to create instructional programs. Achievement is important to women, they help new teachers and supervise all of them directly than men. The school climate that women create is more suitable for learning situation, it is more orderly, safer and quieter.
3. Community – women use a more democratic and participatory style of management, which encourages partnership.
4. Communication – women tend to focus on intimacy and community and create connection with people, while men most interest in status and hierarchy (Tannen, 1990).
5. Supervisory conferences – women give more instructional feedback including detailed recommendations for changes.
6. Delivery – women uses more collegial styles, sharing and interaction with questions.
7. Written evaluation – women look for the influence of teachers on the students’ lives, technical skills of teaching is important to them, they make remarks on

the content and quality on the educational program, give immediate feedback on performance and share the teacher in decision-making. Women are aware of the students' development (socially and emotionally) and focus on the student relationship. In their evaluation they use more 'facts'. Men on the other hand, avoid conflict and focus on organizational structure.

8. Critical feedback – women interact with their subordinates the same way, with no relation to gender. Men treat females and males differently.
9. Interpretation – women and men define trust differently and give a different priority to competence and trust. Women value competence as more important, while men identify trust as number one criteria.

Davies (1998) points out the most significant 'sex differences', which came out from his research on women and men in educational management:

- “ - men performed more of the administrative tasks in school in general.
- men assumed in particular more of the 'hard' and visible managerial tasks, which anticipate public decision-making.
- men were more confident (or arrogant?) about their capacity to do managerial tasks, whether or not they actually performed them.
- in some of the men, there was a dominant discourse which stressed competition, material reward, and status” (p.16).

Coleman (1996, 2000) concluded in her research on female secondary headteachers in England and Wales that most of them manage their schools in a people-oriented style. Their style was counseling, collaborative and people centered. In addition, they tended to focus on student learning rather than on the significance of administrative tasks. However, it was found that 15% of the heads might use a management style with traits of more “masculine” style, which include a more direct ways of operating.

Neville (1998) also claims that women use more democratic style of management and less hierarchical. Goldring & Chen (1994) relating to women principals in Israel claim that most of them emphasize a cooperative, calm, supportive organizational climate as a way of declaring leadership. Chen & Addi (1992) research conducted in Israel indicated that teachers with female principals testified on better cooperative relationships with the management, a stronger sense of collegiality and more job satisfaction than those with male principals.

Fuchs and Hertz-Lazarovitz (1991) indicate that male principals who discuss implementing change in schools are concerned with leadership and authority, while female principals emphasize the interpersonal side of implementing change, including feelings about the change, intrinsic motivation and readiness for change on the part of teachers, students and parents. Women principals are concerned with promoting a positive, supportive school atmosphere, one that leads to results but not at the expense of consideration and good human relations. The supportive work ethos is a reward in itself for principals and teachers.

The main question this study intends to examine is whether those differences in management styles have influence on ORT Israel's headteachers' promotion to senior management positions.

Barriers to promotion

During the last decade it may be deduced that there has been an increased number of women achieving management positions. On the surface, this is optimistic and encouraging data, but a deeper examination shows that only few of them succeeded in breaking the glass ceiling. A single and agreed explanation to the phenomenon can not be found in the literature. Some focus the problem with the women, some as a problem in men's attitudes, some focus the problem on the nature of constraints and some in structural and cultural factors.

Maume (1999) claims that some findings show that women dominance at the work place constitute a factor which threaten men's status and hegemony as the dominant

group. Therefore, as much as women's rate rise, in the work place, conflicts and stresses are being reviled between the sexes, unsatisfactory of the workers and a tendency to exclude women from fields which characterized by high prestige, authority and by influence of barriers that are usually invisible.

is this the right word

s .
L ?

Unclear
contents

It is reasonable to assume that the focus of the problem is on an interaction of all these factors. This study will review the identified factors, but will focus on management style as an influential factor on ORT Israel headteachers' promotion.

According to Still (1995), the glass ceiling remains un-breakable since there are many barriers which are also by nature multi-dimensional and multi-faceted, and once one barrier has been removed, another one appears.

Still divides the barriers to women's progress into four groups:

- Cultural
- Organizational
- Individual
- Governmental

(See table 4 on page 74).

Table 4: Summary of Career Barriers Facing Women (Still, 1995)

Cultural

Religion
 General perceptions that women are inferior
 Lack of family support
 'Culture of motherhood'
 Myth of women's weaker commitment to work
 Stereotypes and attributes
 Norms regarding cross-gender relationships
 Common misconceptions about appropriateness of women
 Domestic responsibilities
 Reliance on ineffective power bases
 Idea that there are 'respectable' industries
 Socialisation practices

Organizational

Inflexible
 Lack of close monitoring and planned job assignments
 Lack of child care
 Lack of training
 Common unawareness of EEO strategies by senior executives
 Masculine networks
 Organization's size equals organization's formality
 Unwillingness of men to give women opportunities to develop
 Positional specialization and firm specific skills
 Myth of women's weaker commitment to work
 Disinterest of women due to lack of opportunities
 Unions and formal bidding procedures
 Lack of female role models
 Tokenism
 Low pay rates in comparison to men
 Discriminatory policies
 Work 'too heavy' for women
 Socialisation practices
 Masculine traditions
 Lack of access to information networks
 Over dependence on mentor
 No opportunities to gain line experience
 Occupational sex segregation
 Discriminatory recruitment practices
 Lack of programs targeted at women
 Attitudes and values of senior executives
 Common unawareness of CEO's to the barriers and issues women face
 Masculine culture
 Common belief among CEO's that the company has no responsibility towards helping women
 Common lack of CEO support in giving women opportunities in areas such as line management
 Common lack of positive leadership from CEO's
 Management as masculine domain
 Cultural constraints
 Organisational context
 Sex segregation
 Concentration of women in service industries and departments
 Misconceptions and stereotypes
 Idea that time will bring change
 Few female applicants
 Biased staff selection, recruitment and performance appraisal procedures
 Value judgments during selection procedures
 Favoring of internal applicants
Attitudes towards managerial style of women
 Life experience not considered worth anything

Individual

Lack of self confidence
 Lack of ambition
 Lack of hard work
 Commitment to family
 Lack of experience
 Lack of education
 Failure to plan and monitor careers
 Lack of ability
 Unwilling to take risks
 Lowered aspirations
 Disinterest in career due to lack of opportunities
 Need more encouragement than men
 Higher education
 Lack of access to information
Managerial style
 Lack of experience

Governmental

Lack of education opportunities
 Economic organisation
 Higher education
 Type of government
 Lack of aggressive legislation
 Economic development
 Social policy

Other researchers claim that the slow movement of women into senior management positions can be explained in three different ways, ~~which~~ ^{which} none of ~~them~~ stands alone (Morrison and von Glinow, 1990; Van Vianen and Keizer, 1992; Gutek, 1993):

Structural barriers or discrimination – the structural barriers approach (Kanter, 1977) claims that members of minority group have difficulties in adjusting to the majority culture. They find it hard to cross boundaries of the occupational status between the groups and therefore they become ‘tokens’.

Gender roles and stereotypes – gender role stereotype have a lot of influence on promotion and evaluation of managerial performance. Typically a good manager is still described in traditionally masculine terms (Frank, 1988; Hellman et al., 1989; Schein and Mueller, 1992; Perry et al., 1994).

Individual differences or deficiencies – Tavis (1991) claims that relating to gender differences, authors base their views on one of three basic viewpoints:

- a. ‘Women are opposite and deficient’ - Women seem to be deficient if gender differences are found and men are considered as the norm. Women convinced to be less capable as manager.
- b. ‘Women are just like men’ - Powell (1988, 1990) suggests that there are ‘no differences’ and therefore there are no reasons why women who are qualified and want to be promoted to senior management positions be denied.
- c. ‘Women are opposite and superior’ - Since organizations become more team-structured, they should appreciate women behaviors of people-oriented, caring and nurturing and promote them into higher management positions. (Grant, 1988; Helgesen, 1990; Rosner, 1991, Thoof, 1994).

Izraeli & Adler (1994) strengthen the above claims and mention at least four perspectives that are required in order to understand the organizational reality that women in management must deal with and that hinder their progress, and the suggested solutions.

The differences between men and women on a personal level - women and men differ those from the others. The norms for effective managerial performance are based on features and behaviors of men. The limited representation of women in executive ranks is explained by their deviation (true or perceived) from those norms. The suggested “solution” - women must change; they must “adjust”.

The influence of power in organization - arrangements providing favorable advantages to men continue to exist since the individuals and the groups interested to preserve the existing situation have also the power to prevent the change. The suggested “solution” - the interest of power holders in the organization must be changed. They must acknowledge the advantages of the situation, in which there are more women in high executive ranks.

The organizational context - organizations are, in principle, neutral from the aspect of definition. Their features such as under-representation of women in management, unequal representation in other functions and more access of men to resources, power and rewards - shape stands and behaviors more than personal features. Tokenism explains the difficulties women experience in senior positions experience. The suggested “solution” – organizations must remove obstacles and provide incentives that would increase the number of women managers.

Institutionalized discrimination – definitive discrimination is rooted in the basic assumptions of managers pertaining to society and pertaining to organizational life. The self-explanatory understandings pertaining to organizations have rooted definition assumptions and those explain the under-representation and under utilization of women. The suggested “solution” – both women managers and men managers must admit to discrimination and the senior management must be committed to change the situation in the entire organization.

Israel - Cultural differences

“Israeli society is not egalitarian in relation to women in everything pertaining to their promotion to executive levels in various industrial realms estate. The similarity in the low equality indicators in all realms teaches that there is a problem to integrate women in the leadership of the Israeli society in general” (Jerby, 1996, p. 52).

The common belief is that there are no any barriers standing in the way of ambitious and talented women/willing to invest in their career. But the almost absolute absence of women from senior positions in the Israeli economy, as evidenced by the figures, points of the fact that the mechanisms which block the way for women are still well fixed and in their place (Izraeli, 1998).

Western society identifies “masculinity” as observed and sharp difference from women, by an obvious exclusion of women from different fields (professions, places, games), which are classified as masculine. In Israel, the military character of the society and gender roles, which derives from them, creates the infrastructure for class stratification, which placed men above women even in the absence of war. The militarization procedures act to preserve a status of masculine control.

“The issue of women’s military service in the IDF concerns almost directly each family in Israel. It has a lot of influence on the Israeli society’s image and on the development and exhaustion its human resources” (Jerby, 1996, abstract).

This seems paradoxical, in a militarized society (such the Israeli one) that citizenship is defined via the military. Education teaches girls to build “feminine” self-esteem, which answers the society’s expectations (beautiful, naive, sensitive/ sentimental). They learn to believe that power, defense and security matters are fields, which are suitable only for warrior boys/ men and strange to girls/ women.

Successful mobilization of women to preserve the existing order, although their systematic exclusion out of the force focus is an aspect of the militarization that rules in all life's fields in Israel.

Not clear.

Women react with concessions in advance of each attempt to staff roles, which are preserved for the masculine gender. There is the social pressure, which operates on women to stay in their traditional roles (mainly administration and officialdom). Additionally there is a lack of willingness to invest in the feminine work force because women are seen as threatening.

Another phenomenon is total adoption of the masculine identity, as a way of dealing with the difficulties and obstacles raised because of their being women. Their reaction, which is a trail of compromises on the existing tension between militantism and assertiveness that be sized as masculine trait, and femininity, actually is its loss.

Although the legitimate definition of compulsory service for women and even though there is a large number of women soldiers, they are not partners with equal rights and duties in the military lay-out. Women soldiers do not take significant part in the vital lay-outs, such as: the regular combat lay-out, the reserve lay-out and the technology lay-out, and actually, the decisive majority of women in the army fulfill rear, minor roles, ^{whose} ~~which their~~ value in the militarian ^{is significant} ~~significant~~ ladder ^{is significantly} ~~pretty~~ low. This is also the reason for significant barriers ^{to} in promoting women in the military career.

rephrase

Women's advance in "masculine" frames is much slower than those of men and their promotion options are restricted and limited. Women who choose a military or police career ~~know~~ know in advance, that their promotion is highly restricted, without any connection usually, to the quality of their performance.

x

"Women military service does not contribute to woman's equality and to a certain degree even harm this value. Women status in the IDF as a public and as individuals is inferior to the one of man both from the aspect of the function's nature and from the aspect of their status in the military hierarchy and their promotion potential (Jerby, 1996, p. 74).

"fairly" or "relatively"

The Israeli society is ~~pretty~~ conservative, and anyone who wants to succeed in it needs to be conformist and not unusual. This means for women that ~~she~~^{they} must fulfill ~~the~~ main role, which is raising children.

In Israel, children are not an issue open to negotiation. There are a lot of women in the U.S. (for example), who see children as a nuisance and as something/damaging their career. American society is a much more egocentric and narcissist society, and therefore it is more acceptable for women to give up on motherhood. [authority]

Answering the question why the family is so important in Israel, Meltz (2002) quotes Prof. Herzog:

"It is relates to the Jewish tradition, but it is not just a religious matter. The Israeli society is one which lives under a threat of a constant conflict, and such a condition strength the family cell, which is also see itself as committed to build the nation. The fear from destruction is still very perceptible for a lot of the Israelis, and not necessarily holocaust survivors and the second generation. This is an issue which cast a shadow on Israel and on all its residents" (p.1).

So far, woman's domestic role was perceived as barrier or obstacle to her professional progress, but innovative observation, which does not cancel woman's work due to her low status stresses the skills that woman develops while struggling with infinite roles at home.

Helgesen (1990) writes that motherhood can be seen as an excellent school for management, since the required skills with it, such as: organizing, rhythm and time division, finding balance of opposite demands, teaching, consultation, leadership, supervision and treating disturbances.

Maor (1998) describes the three main phenomena in Israel creating obstacles that prevent the promotion of women within the managerial ranks:

1. Centralistic control of economy – relatively to other western democratic countries, the Israeli economy is more centralistic, government regulated and characterized by a high level of governmental intervention in the country's economy. The main goals of the Israeli economic policy are national, political and social goals and not pure economic growth and efficiency. Market considerations (competition and profitability) are secondary. The secondary importance attributed to the market factors has slowed down the professional development among managers, a phenomenon that in other places helped women's entrance. In a situation, in which career routes are not institutionalized and promotion depends, to large degree, on connections - the weak group, including women, lose in the competition.
2. The exclusion of women: the importance of political networks to access senior positions in most economic sectors is carried out by means of networks of social connections and mutual commitments. Those include relations based on political affiliation, military service, and prior experience in work and family connections. In places, in which the access is affected very much by connections, women and other weak groups are in an inferior position. Political considerations have a strong influence on access to senior managerial position. The sponsorship system of political groups operate^s in favor of only a small cluster of women that are members in strong social networks or related to strong ^{powerful?} men. The Army is an important source for social networking that operates mainly in men's favor. Since men serve for a longer period of time and in a wider diversity of functions and locations - they have more opportunities to develop social connections and networks of mutual commitment. The civilian employer perceives in the army a valuable training both for the general characteristics and for specific skills. [To whoever served in combat functions or even in combat units and on whoever's shoulders is "flashing" the desired rank - it is customary to attribute to such people the

X

see overleaf

skills of leadership and organization that prepare them for managerial careers and those opportunities are open only to few women.

3. Advantage to men – gender bias of management in a family and in an organization. Until the end of the '80s there was almost no public interest in the absence of women from managerial position. Most of the public perceives in management a masculine occupation. Until the mid '90s this approach has changed to a significant degree.

"until" or "by"

Reorder this sentence
begin with "It is
customary to -"
--A

Gender bias of management: family influences

Women must compete today with the fact that management, as an occupation, relates closely to a masculine lifestyle. It provides an advantage to people who are free of family responsibility physically available during long daily hours. From people selected for managerial positions is expected also to manage a continuous career from the moment they enter the job market. This continuity is perceived as a symbol of a person's commitment to his job.

The more people rise up the hierarchical ladder of managerial ranks they must prove not only their efficiency and creativity, but in their willingness to sustain longer hours in the organization and to be available at all times. As opposed to this, the changes in approaches pertaining to work and family, Israeli women are still perceived as the main figures responsible for managing the family life. Actually, they, indeed, carry this responsibility. Only very few share the responsibly for family work together work with their spouses. In comparison to alternative career options management does not have the characteristics parallel to women in other professions to maneuver between functions such as the possibility to work in a part-time job. The managerial position of the woman creates "responsibility overload" that stems from the necessity to deal with two demanding functions with the responsibility for performance of others; however with a limited control. This characteristic of managerial responsibility in the

Not clear

spell check?

organization and in the family makes psychological exclusion difficult and creates a sense of impossible workload.

Braiker (1986) discusses the existing conflict between family and career and point on a symptom that she defines as “E type” – the achievement-oriented woman who is “Everything to everybody” in the private world and in the work world.

This achievement-oriented woman want to be everywhere in her best, living in two conflicted patterns of behaviors.

The first pattern is the feminine traditional one which being acquired during the socialization processes and serves the woman in her private life and in her intimate family environment. The second pattern is the professional one, the masculine pattern, usually type E, which based on the classic traditional managerial model.

The two patterns do not live in harmony since they have been developed from different valued points of departure. There is a difficulty in reaching interaction and in internalizing the behavioral pattern, which does not fit with her inner world.

Gender bias of the managerial sector: organization's influences

The metaphor of a glass ceiling used to describe an invisible but a most tangible obstacle deterring promotion of women's career relates to the gender bias. This bias relates understandable expectations and arrangements providing advantage to men. Hereby are several of the most characteristic deviation arenas, which women managers encounter:

Promotion - women progress into managerial positions by perseverance in the same organization. Men on other hand, progress by transition from one organization to another. Men have more opportunities and not only since they are free to accept jobs that are distanced from their homes. It is assumed that men have the required qualifications by being men, while women must prove their qualifications despite being women.

Blocking opportunities – many women and encounter a problem that despite their performance and their impressive titles they are overstepped in favor of men who have lesser qualifications. This phenomenon is sometimes explained by the fact that the man is providing for the family and sometimes is so self-explanatory that it is not explained at all. Another problem is reducing the value of the position when a woman is holding it.

Limited access to information – women find it harder to obtain information about new free jobs, in particular, in other organizations. Such information flows through social networks open to men. These networks are sometimes closed to women.

Decreased eligibility - women promoted to a position held prior by men do sometimes not receive all the benefits provided to their male predecessor.

Silencing - women managers that encounter discrimination hesitate whether to complain believing that the “complaint” will harm their reputation and that they will find it hard to prove what they believe is the truth. The cases of discrimination on a personal level we can always explain in terms justifying the act. *clarify please*

Informal culture - informal culture is one of the more elusive sources of gender bias that seep into daily activity and fail *damage or "cause woman to fail"* career women's success in the long-term. The informal culture relating to daily practices cultivate organizational frameworks that take different forms. For example, it might ^{be} in the form of excluding women from informal meetings in which updated information is exchanged and decisions are made.

Management style as an influential factor

Fondas (1997) describes a phenomenon called ‘the feminization of management’. It seems that management is more and more described in terms of feminine style, such as sharing responsibility, helping and developing others and building a connected network of relationships.

Directive, task-oriented and hierarchical management has to make way for managing high-involvement work teams with an emphasis on consensus decision-making and learning instead on control (Bohl et al., 1996).

In the 80's, researchers reported that women are more effective than men, and not only they are not short of leadership traits, on the contrary, their feminine traits suit an effective management style. Additional findings show that women have important values for effective management, such as: attitude to their fellow man and implementation of democratic and more sharing management style than men (Fuchs & Hertz – Lazarovitz, 1996).

According to Freidin (1995), the feminine advantage stays in a women's ability to adopt a strategy of "un defined forward goals". This advantage assists women to act and proceed in conditions of uncertainty. Their ability to identify the opportunities and take advantage of them led by realistic approach, which combine with intuition and which come out from their tolerant willing^{ness} to examine the events and act accordingly. This is contrary to the male attitude, which ask^s to control the events and direct them. The masculine way of action is the one that strive^s to victory and achieve all the defined ahead goals and targets – this is "management by consequences".

Women are currently being called 'the managers of the 21st century' (Rosen et al., 1989; Schwatz, 1992; Fisher, 1998). According to Peters (2001) research suggests that women are more successful as managers in day-to-day tasks. Their subordinates find women as better skilled in: hiring the right people for the job, developing and coaching subordinates, and organizing, monitoring and controlling the work of others. Co-workers also point out those women are better at creating a vision, planning clear direction and setting high standards of performance. Women understand the importance of teamwork, and the fact that personal success is dependent on the support of others. Therefore, they considered being team oriented.

Love?

In comparison ^{with} men, women are better at communicating and keeping people informed, and are better team players. They use their influence skills rather than authority to complete tasks, and are able to put the success of the team first. Women managers are less influenced by social norms and are more tolerant of differences. Managing diverse work force is easier and more natural to them. Women also succeed ✓
to motivate others. They are more expressive of their thoughts and feelings and show ✓
more appreciation to the others' efforts. Women managers are sized by their ? assessed ?
subordinates as more spiritual role models than men.

Peters (2001) raises the question: 'with all this going for them, why aren't women moving into the executive suite at a faster rate?' Peters answers the question by claiming that part of the problem is the discrimination and organizational obstacles supported by historical and cultural norms. However, she emphasizes that based on research it seems that basic personality characteristics combined with management behavior and strategies of women which enable them to reach mid-management levels are now preventing them from breaking through the glass ceiling.

"Recent research indicates women's management style, which is centered on communication and building positive relationships, is well suited to the leadership paradigm of the 90's. However, the strategies used by women to reach mid-management levels are preventing them from breaking through the glass ceiling. There are specific things women must start doing and stop doing if they want to move into the executive suite" (Peters, 2001, p.1).

Peters (2001) divided the obstacles women are creating for themselves into three major categories: risk, rescue and righteousness.

Risk – concern about striving out prevents women from hitting home runs – women are more cautious, thoughtful and dealing with details when problem solving is concerned. They tend to search for sharp perceptions and complexity in their environment. Women's personality assessments indicate that they have a higher tolerance for misting and uncertainty. Therefore, they take all the time needed to

collect data, consider several options and choose carefully the appropriate solution, an activity, which slow down the process of problem solving.

This conservative style of not taking risks without having covered all the options rewarded lower in task-oriented organizations and prevents women managers from being given line management opportunities and high-risk assignments.

Rescue – women need to create game plans, not worry about ironing team uniforms – the sense of responsibility, concern and loyalty to the team members which, women developed create the second obstacle. Women more aware of the need for group support to accomplish personal goals. They are team oriented what cause them to take too much responsibility and become rescuing and mothering. This situation prevents women to look at the whole picture and ‘keep the eye on the ball’.

looking

Righteousness – locking horns with umpires gets women thrown out of the game – women should learn to be more dispassionate and control their emotion when they present their ideas and proposals.

“Even though women’s decisions are of high quality, they continue to be viewed as less objective, less flexible, and lower in emotional control than man” (p.7).

Women appear to be less delicate and diplomatic than men when dealing with those above them in the hierarchy. Women tend to present issues in term of right or wrong. They forget the end goal and deal with the process. They must learn to present a case for co-operation rather than defending a private cause in order to end in win-win scenario.

Peters (2001) concludes that in spite of the excellent management and leadership skills women present, they contribute to their own inability to break through the glass ceiling in complex ways resulting from personality attributes, social conditioning and learned management styles.

Considering the arguments above the changes required from women in order to progress up the management ladder are:

- start focusing energy
- start taking risks
- stop getting mired in the details
- stop rescuing and mothering
- stop making things right or wrong

(Peters, 2001, p. 9).

Izraeli (1998) also claim that the low representation of women in management and especially in the senior levels still is sized as a women's fault and as their problem.

Women seldom reach organizations management and even then, not always, they have a real power. Most people's assumption is that women managers behave as they do, because they are women, instead of assuming that they behave in this way because of lack of power they feel in their position. When women have power, they behave in the way so-called typical to men. Just as, male managers have no power that behave in way so-called typical to women.

NOT
clear

Power in traditional way considered being "masculine" trait, while weakness is part of "feminine" definition. That is to say, in order to succeed in her role, the female manager must behave in "un feminine" way. On the other hand, women who behave in masculine way, raise objections. The proposed solution for female managers, in order to succeed at senior management positions, is to examine their behavior all the time, and make sure that they are not too much "masculine" and that they are not too much "feminine". Female managers are much like male managers psychologically, intellectually and emotionally. But they differ from them by dealing with two systems of opposed expectations, which reflect two opposed/different roles that they are fulfill as women in the business world and in the society. Women should be firm and independent, nevertheless know to trust the others. They must prove that they are different from the stereotype their boss and friends have relating to women.

In addition, women must be better in what they are doing and even more than men. Since women's number in management is so low, they ^{are} salient. Therefore they have lower range of making mistakes and weakness expressions than men. Women should be decisive, demand performances and avoid compromising in principled matters. Most important is the ability to face pressure without losing their temper, by taking initiative, doing all necessarily to the organization success and defending its resources. In addition, it is very important that women will be ambitious and will be willing to put work in the top of the priority ladder, before the family and before the personal life. ^{At} In the same time they should not lose their feminine appearance (Mala'ch- Fiens, 1989).

whose opinion?

Nicolson (1996) comments that:

“Much has been said in favor of women managers and female management style, relying on the assumption that it is fairer and more democratic” (p.84).

However, Reay & Ball (2000) suggest that despite the rhetoric of ‘new management’, in order to obtain professional success many women at ^y or near the top of institutional hierarchies have had to modify some, if not all, of the qualities traditionally associated with femininity.

According to Yona (1993), a lot of women managers design modernistic feminine management patterns: The woman manager is affable, adopts a sharing work style, gives reinforcement, identifies an attitude and educational way for the individual, awards security and supplies solutions. Women managers usually adopt terms, such as: ‘commitment’, ‘motivation’, ‘enterprise’, ‘avoidance from fixation’, ‘constant searching’ and avoid using forceful terms, such as: ‘ambitions’, ‘competitiveness’ and ‘control’.

Lately, the concept of managing school that was based in the past only on male models – had a lot of theoretical and practical changes. Today, the researchers in this field, focus on leadership from different types, ^{which} based on humanistic principles

with feminine characteristics. More and more researchers point out behaviors and attributes of women managers, contributing to effective management and approval of the school climate (Fuchs & Hertz – Lazarovitz, 1996).

According to Hods (1990), the main problem in the Israeli management is the decisive lack of democratic managers. In the wider world, this management issue is going through revolution.

According to Fridman (1990), in the second half of the 20th century, radical change can be seen in the labor work. Transfer from military management, authority-hierarchy to more human management ^{with} much more emphasize^s on human relationship ^s and on workers' involvement in decisions – softer management. The organizations today are less formal, less authorization and emphasize wide vision and the capacity to think creatively. There is a lot of emphasize^s on ecology and mutual dependence between all the organization's components. Women are stronger in expressing fillings and in human relationship. Those two parallel processes of massive entrance of women to the work cycle on one hand and the need in structural-organizational change of the work place on the other hand create a situation with it the skills which women are stronger in are not only recommended but necessary to the organization's development.

Naked power is out of fashion. In its place enters the ability and the skill to lead. Managers who used to command, to use authority and to silence criticism – belong to the past world. The manager of the 2000's, claims Hods (1990), is a partner of the workers, creates values, has passion for knowledge, inspires a vision and disperses influence. Such a manager will create an organized atmosphere, will determine strategy and will carry away the whole team. In order to deal with the changing world of management, a cardinal change must appear in the spirit of democracy and sharing. This, claims Hods, is replacing the man with a woman. Women, because of their multi-years responsibility for guarding, nurturing and carrying, designed a lot of

carrying?

Feelings?

where?

personal skills, which rooted in the base of the human-sharing style in managing in the 21st century.

Hengelsen (1990) claims that the feminine advantage is derived from thinking which based on the strategy of un defining goals ahead, that helps women to operate and promote in uncertainty conditions. Their ability to identify the opportunities and exploit them is guided by realistic approach combined with intuition and stems from their patient readiness to examine the occurrences and act accordingly.

According to the “feminine advantage” approach, women have the opportunity to contribute now to the change in the work place by giving expression to their personal values and not by giving up on them.

A concept change is needed.

is this a side-heading?

Krek (2003) presents two feminist approaches that give partial explanation to understanding the issue of management and gender and offer unique perspectives:

The reform approach – according to this approach if women will learn the skills and qualifications needed for management, they will fit the organizational, managerial and businesslike world, and could deal with men. The reform approach determine that women should worthy the same legal rights and the same opportunities at work as men, as well as having equal accessibility to representation at the public life. This concept expresses the idea of ‘fix the woman’. Based on this approach, if women first adopt codes which characterized men and will learn to be assertive and dominant and dealing in the hierarchical world, they will succeed in management not less and even more that men.

The resistance approach – according to this approach the best manager for the future is a female manager. This approach emphasizes the positive value of traits that identified as ‘feminine’, among them, sensitivity to others, expressing emotions, nurturing and growing. This approach resists the connection, which was made till recently between leadership and masculine traits (such as: dominance, security, assertiveness and aggressiveness), while the supporters of this approach claim that the suitable leadership and management model for the 2000’s, and modern organizations

is exactly the one that requires the feminine traits. The resistance approach advocates the 'feminine advantage'. To its supporters' claim, women pass socialization procedure in their childhood, which develop their ability to act differently from men. This way, which in the past perceived as disadvantage constitute today an advantage in organizations. These theories pointed on the advantages in women's way to know and their way to knowledge (for example: intuitive, un verbal and spiritual thinking), contrary to patriarchal ways of knowledge, which based on logic, cognition and knowledge that were acquired formally. This approach contributes to a change in the perception of women and femininity. From an approach which sees the disadvantage in behavior that perceived as 'feminine', this approach emphasize the values of the feminine traits and their unique and possible contribution of women in positions of authority and leadership.

Most important researchers say today that men and women "talk in a little different language one from another", and there is a need to understand each other, listen and take into consideration the possible contribution that women and men working together has.

Women's contribution according to these experts is mainly in developing an attitude of inclusive leadership, which take into consideration the worker's potential, and the ability to work and co-operate in a team. This approach proved itself as important not less than the concept of command- and control, which emphasize competition and organizational superiority, and might keep away the workers instead of bringing them closer and cause them having motivation and obligation.

It is worth trying to release some of the concepts relating to men and women traits at work, and enjoy the logic and differences between the genders-difference in thinking and in behavior, which can lead to effectiveness and success of men and women in leadership.

"Real obstacles remain and are often rooted in the way work itself is organized and the difficulties involved in reconciling work and family commitments. Current debates on managerial styles and approaches, together with the

importance an increasing number of enterprises attach to attracting and retaining women in order to benefit from their qualifications and talent in a competitive environment could provide positive perspectives for increasing women's share of managerial jobs" (International Labor Organization, 1998).

The research of this study will examine the perceptions of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management in ORT (Israel) to the barriers in the progress of ORT Israel secondary headteachers into senior management positions. But the main question and focus of the research will be on the relationship between the style of management of ORT Israel secondary headteachers and their promotion within the teaching profession.

Conclusion

This chapter reviewed in detail the relevant theories to the main three themes of this research: gender, management styles and barriers to promotion and described the relations between them. The next chapter will describe the research objectives, the research questions and the existing paradigms of research that have been used in this study. It will also describe research methods and tools used in collecting the data relevant to the study and details how this data were analyzed. It will examine issues of approach, validity, trustworthiness and ethics relevant to methods adopted during the study, limitations of the study, and a generalization is made regarding the importance of the findings provided.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The previous chapter focused on definitions, theories and studies that examining^e three main themes: gender, management style and barriers to promotion, each serving as the theoretical background for this study. This chapter on methodology describes the research objectives, the research questions and the existing paradigms of research that have been used in this study. It lists the methods of research offering explanations justifying the use of each and relating to the theoretical context provided in the previous chapter. x

This chapter also describes research methods and tools used in collecting the data relevant to the study and details how this data was analyzed.

Later in the chapter, the researcher explains and examines issues of approach, validity, trustworthiness and ethics relevant to methods adopted during the study. Finally, this chapter details the limitations of the study, and a generalization is made regarding the importance of the findings provided.

The research's questions and conceptual framework

Gender inequality regarding appointments to major managerial positions in organizations is a well-known phenomenon. Women are entrusted with less authority, autonomy and control in their places of work and their options to advance are different than those of men who have equal education and similar status. This situation exists even in professions that are considered feminine, as is the situation among teachers in the educational system.

“In many countries (e.g. the US, England, and Australia), the percentage of male

teachers is relatively small, but they are highly represented in administrative positions in the education system” (Lortie, 1975; Schmuck, 1987; Oritz & Marshall, 1988; Bell & Chase, 1993; Acker, 1994).

Addi-Racah and Ayalon (2002) say that men are promoted to senior positions such as high school managers, inspectors and heads of regional Departments of Education more often than women who are at the most advanced administrative positions in elementary schools. Gender differences in promotion paradigms can be explained by the combined effects of personal and contextual factors. Reilh & Byrd (1997) point to three sources of gender-inequality in educational administration.

“The first relates to the individual level, such as ambitious, ability or concurrent responsibilities, the second to the organizational or occupational context in which a person works, and the third source is related to the wider social context such as labor-market structure or sex-role stereotype” (p.46).

Peters (2001) says that some of the problems stem from discrimination and organizational obstacles supported by historical and cultural norms, but she emphasizes that according to a study she conducted it seems that basic personal characteristics combined with managerial behavior and strategy of women that enables them to attain medium positions of management, prevents their breaking the glass ceiling into higher positions.

Izraeli (1998) also blames women themselves for attempting to imitate the style of men in management in order to gain a sense of the power within their hands.

Studies which found differences in styles of management of women and men describe the feminine style of management as people-oriented, democratic collegial and sharing attitudes. Women are more emotional, and often have a greater sense of responsibility. They are likely to be more loyal and more careful as they tend to avoid taking risks.

The present study attempts to explain the above mentioned phenomenon by examining the relationships between gender and management style and the extent to which management style impact on gender inequality in senior management positions, in the teaching profession at ORT Israel network.

The importance of this study is its attempt to investigate objectively. If we find a correlation between the managerial style of women and their promotion to senior positions of management, we can “begin to do certain things and stop doing other things” as Peters puts it (2001) so that more women can advance to senior managerial positions in a profession that is considered feminine, such as teaching.

Therefore this study relies on the bases of theories offered by feminist research.

Feminist research

Feminist research has tended to reject positivist methodology, which is seen as part of “patriarchal dominance”, (Atkinson et al, 1993, p.25). Objectivity may be “equated with masculinity” (Robson, 1993, p.65). As such, feminist methodology has tended to be clearly identified within the qualitative, interpretive, phenomenological research approach. Feminist methodology places emphasis on the importance of the individual voice:

“The distinction between ‘objective’ and ‘subjective’ knowledge is frequently criticized as being an arbitrary distinction that is based on male standards”
(Purvis, 1985, p.183),

Acker (1994) has identified a number of basic assumptions in feminist research:

- “ 1. Feminist research involves an acute state of awareness of the injustice women suffer because of their sex.
2. The purpose of this research is to improve women’s lives.

3. Feminist research asserts the centrality of women and of gender to all aspects of human existence.
4. It rests on the belief that existing knowledge and techniques are deficient and need revision and replacing.
5. Women's experience in patriarchal society is the starting point for research: the personal is political and valid.
6. The researcher should enter into the same space as her subject, rather than taking up a powerful or detached position." (p. 57).

This is the context which informs the Research's question:

Research's questions

The main research's question is:

What are the perceptions of the secondary headteaches and of the senior management in ORT Israel, of factors, particularly the perceived style of management, which affect the level of promotion to senior management positions within the teaching profession at ORT Israel network?

Sub questions relating to Management Style:

1. Is there a relationship between the sex of the secondary headteaches in ORT Israel and their perceptions of their gender identity? x
2. In the perception of the secondary headteaches in ORT Israel, do ORT Israel female secondary headteaches tend to manage in a people oriented management style, and men tend to manage in a task oriented management style? x

Sub questions relating to Barriers in Promotion:

1. What are the perceptions of the secondary headteaches and of the senior management in ORT Israel of the barriers to the progress of ORT Israel secondary headteaches to senior management positions?

2. In the perception of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management in ORT Israel is there a relationship between the style of management of ORT Israel secondary headteachers and their promotion within the teaching profession?

Methodological tradition

What is educational research?

“The term educational research is best preserved for work in which the central organizing feature is a dominant commitment to the field of education. If the research is the concerns of a discipline, the work ought to be seen as related to that discipline and so named. The research may be relevant to education but still not be educational research” (McGaw, 1997, p.62).

Educational research falls within the range of social science. Within social science there are two distinct traditions (or paradigms) of research:

Positivism

In this approach, positivist, quantitative methods are likely to be used. Positivist methodology is based on the use of the scientific methods and, its most extreme, seeks to “discover” general laws explaining the nature of reality that the researcher is observing and recording. The key idea of positivism is that the researched world exists externally and aspects of it can be measured through objective methods.

“Knowledge is only of significance if it is based on observations of this external reality” (Easterby-Smith et al, 1994, p.77).

In positivist thinking, a social reality exists and it is possible through empirical research to establish sets of social “facts”. There will be an attempt to identify causality. The implications are that the observer is independent of what is observed and that the research is free value.

Interpretive

The interpretive research approach may be used where complex issues are involved. E.g. in research where the interplay of social, cultural and political factors has meant that methods such as life history, interview and observation have been judged the most appropriate methods of research. The stress has been on the subjective reality for individuals. In this approach:

“The principal concern is with an understanding of the way in which the individual creates, modifies and interprets the world in which he or she finds himself or herself” (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.8).

Through a variety of qualitative methods it is considered possible to build up a picture of a social “reality”. Such a view is opposed to a strictly positivist view, which is more often associated with purely quantitative methods. In interpretive research:

“The task of the social scientist should not be to gather facts and measure how often certain patterns occur, but to appreciate the different constructions and meanings that people place upon their experience” (Easterby-Smith et al, 1994, p.78).

The worldview of the researcher is based on assumptions regarding the character of our reality and our ability to know it, the relations between the researcher and the participant in the study and the criteria for the reliability of the research. In the positivist paradigm, the assumptions regarding reality are different from those of the naturalistic paradigm and are based on the belief in the existence of one absolute reality. Such reality has external status and is not dependent on time or context and can be reduced to simple components

connected by statistical correlation. This is the reality the researcher strives to expose with tools that are considered objective. In this approach the subject as a social agent is neutralized and shaped and activated as an object in a social structure determined by the bigger social structures that are the concern of the positivist paradigm. Therefore a quantitative research that is based on this approach opens all the questions of research, the setting of the research and its tools, prior to the researcher's setting out to the field (Shelsky and Arieli, 2001).

In contrast, the naturalistic paradigm perceives reality as a human structure shaped by the cultural and personal conditions of the investigated persons that does not exist without them, since the investigated are part of reality, and reality is built out of interpretations made both by the investigator and the investigated. According to the naturalistic logic there is no one absolute and correct reality that exists somewhere. Rather, that one must investigate many interpretations of the same reality to form several points of view. Due to the multitude of points of view one needs to adopt a holistic approach. Isolating single variables from the whole is not sufficient. Also, this paradigm emphasizes reciprocity between human beings as individuals who shape social order between them on the basis of meaning they assign to their activities and to the activities of others, and focuses on understanding the complex world of experience of human beings from a close point of view of those who live it. (Zabar Ben-Yehoshua, 2001).

These naturalistic conceptions make the issue of information and its connection to reality the central issue. From an epistemological point of view they emphasize the fact that human knowledge is that knowledge which is actively accumulated by human beings. Even when existing knowledge is adopted and no new knowledge is invented or created, it is an active decision of people who prefer to adopt this particular knowledge and not another. Our knowledge of reality is not knowledge of discovery of phenomena but rather knowledge of structuring them. According to Rorty (1988), we shall never know if we know the phenomenon as they really are. We can know them in the way we perceive them. This means that reality can be perceived in a subjective way, according to the terms

and perceptions of the person who investigates this world and experiences it on the basis of a particular culture, its terminology and its values. This is a relativist attitude to reality that argues that no one absolute truth about the world exists. What is considered as truth is a function of internal criteria and therefore relative to local cultures. From this point of view one can interpret the world in several ways.

Table 5: Differing approaches to the study of behavior

<u>Positivist/ Normative</u>	<u>Interpretive</u>
Society and the social system	The individual
Medium. Large-scale research	Small-scale research
Impersonal, anonymous forces regulating behavior	Human actions continuously recreating social life
Model of natural sciences	Non-statistical
'Objectivity'	'Subjectivity'
Research conducted 'from the outside'	Personal involvement of the specific
Generalizing from the specific	Understanding actions/ meanings rather than causes
Explaining behavior/ seeking causes	Investigating the taken-for granted
Assuming the taken-for-granted	Micro-concepts: individual, perspective, personal constructs, negotiated meanings, definitions of situations
Macro-concepts: society, institutions, norms, positions, roles, expectation	Phenomenologists, symbolic interactionists, ethnomethodologists,
Structuralists	Practical interest
Technical interest	

Source: Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2000, p.35).

From the point of view of methodology, the researcher acting on the basis of the interpretive paradigm, seeks to construct the investigated reality by contact and interpretive dialogue with the investigated, from which she eventually emerges with richer knowledge than he has had previously (Shelsky and Ariely, 2001).

According to Yin (1989) the decision of the researcher to use one strategy or another stems from several reasons among which are the worldview of the investigator and the paradigms he applies to the investigated reality.

Patton (1990) says that the paradigm the researcher believes in regarding perceiving reality and man, is the paradigm that determines the methodology the researcher uses. A researcher who adopts an interpretive worldview usually adopts an inductive and holistic attitude since he prefers to consider human experience in its unique whole context.

Reality teaches that there is no substitute for reliable information on processes, views, attitudes, opinions and perceptions, collected in meeting with the investigated and talking directly with them behind a closed door. There is a difficulty in setting the limits to the phenomenon of gender inequality in the advancement of major managerial positions in the teaching profession. Finding the reasons for this (when one focuses mainly on the style of management) in a rational way, by analyzing it and logically sorting it or measuring it in an empiric way by use of the recommended method and means called for by the scientific method. From here, the investigator would find it hard to construct an organized research setting that investigates firm assumptions, let alone build conditions of governing and control over the process of investigation. Therefore, the character of this research and the fields of interest of the subject matter suit a research whose character is naturalistic (interpretative), namely, that of learning situations in the “real world” with no conditions of governing and control in the process of investigation. This characterization is fundamental in qualitative research made from a holistic point of view that expresses processes that take place in dynamic systems (Patton, 1990). The basic assumption of this study is that research objectivity is not possible for this subject of

investigation and that the investigator himself is one of the major tools of investigation. Support of this assumption one can be found in Fuchs (1999) who notes the need to adopt the subjectivist-experiential point of view of the individual in order to understand the term "Change."

According to Cohen, ^αM~~inn~~ion and Morrison (2000), the feminist researcher endeavors to ignore and replace the agenda of positive research that works in the service of relations of power and usually fortifies the white and male community governed by men at the expense of other groups whose voice has been silenced, by a different agenda. This alternative agenda is based on empowerment, change, equality and the representation of repressed groups. X

"Feminist research seeks to demolish and replace this with a different substantive agenda – of empowerment, voice, emancipation, equality and representation for oppressed groups" (p.35).

Research design and strategies for data collection and researching

Phase A

In order to collect the data relevant to the sub-questions relating to the style of management and career of a manager, use was made of a quantitative research by sending a postal questionnaire.

Those questions, which constitute a ground base for the research, try to examine what would be the answer to this controversial issue in the case of the research's population - secondary headteachers in ORT Israel network.

It will examine if male heads are identified with masculine traits and female heads with feminine traits, and if there is a differences in their management styles, while the research focuses in two styles of management: people oriented style of management and task oriented style of management.

In case that the finding will point out on “no differences” answer, there is not any reasonable justification to continue the research and examine the issue of management style as influential factor on promotion to senior management positions.

^athe " or "a"
h

The questionnaire is the most common tool in collecting data in a survey.

The structured questionnaire is the most common in surveys due to the following advantages:

- i. Uniformity – all the interviewees are asked the same questions and in the same order. This uniformity leads to the following results:
 - The researcher can make sure in advance that the questionnaire covers the contents he/she wishes to investigate.
 - The interview is repeatable in additional samples.
 - There is minimal dependence on the quality of reactions of the interviewee and his/her character, behavior or personality.
- ii. The use of a structured questionnaire requires relatively small resources of time and money.
- iii. Analysis of the data collected by the structured questionnaire is relatively simple and therefore also quick. The interpretation of the results is almost self-explanatory and is not dependent on the attitudes and perceptions of the researcher.
- iv. It is easy to compare between the reactions of different interviewees.
- v. One does not need interviewees who are exceptional in any way.

(Ashkenazi, 1986).

The questionnaire used in the present research contains three parts (see appendix A):

Gender (Sexual) identity – in order to verify that men are identified with male characteristics and women with female characteristics use was made of a

questionnaire designed to test sexual identity. It is the BSRI questionnaire (Bem Sex Inventory, see appendix A). The uniqueness of this questionnaire is that it is not based on an assumption of reversed correlation between masculinity and femininity. The original questionnaire (Bem, 1974) is made of a list of 60 characteristics. The interviewee is requested to rate the extent these characteristics describe him/her. The characteristics are sorted on three scales:

1. A scale of stereotypic masculine characteristics (total 20 characteristics).
2. A scale of stereotypic feminine characteristics (total 20 characteristics).
3. A world of social wishes or filler items (total 20 characteristics).

In order to build the masculine and feminine scales, a list of 200 positive masculine or feminine characteristics was assembled (based on the impression of the composers of the questionnaire). This list served as a reservoir of items from which the questionnaire was constructed. An additional list of 200 neutral characteristics (that were estimated as neither masculine nor feminine) half of them positive (adjectives that describe characteristics considered desirable) and half of them negative (adjectives that describe characteristics considered undesirable), was made in order to build a scale of social desirability. Fifty judges (men and women) were asked to rate each of the 400 characteristics for their desirability in American society for men. Additionally fifty judges (men and women) were asked to do a similar rating for women. A characteristic was defined as masculine if it was rated by the judges as desirable for men in American society, significantly more than it was for women. In a similar way the feminine characteristics were determined. For the scale of social desirability 10 positive characteristics and 10 negative characteristics were chosen. These were rated by the judges (men and women) as desirable equally for men and women.

The scale of social desirability was constructed originally by Bem (1974) for measuring the general tendency of the interviewee to answer in accordance with social desirability. However, Bem (1981) changed her questionnaire in light of research finding like those of Walkup & Abbot (1978) that doubted the validity of the social

desirability scale and suggested to use the items of this scale as filler items only for a scale of masculine and feminine desirability. The 60 items of the questionnaire are arranged in trios where the internal order of each trio is always: male, female and neutral. In the present research use was made of the long version of the Bem questionnaire (1974) and not the short one (1981).

Management style - in order to investigate if there was a connection between the gender of the headteacher and his/her style of management, and whether women tended to manage in a style that was oriented more to people whereas men tended to manage in a style oriented more on the accomplishment of tasks. Use was made of the revised form of the SBDQ questionnaire (Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire).

The questionnaire is made up of 35 items taken from the original SBDQ questionnaire of Fleishman (1953). The questionnaire measures frequency of various behaviors in a manager. It has two main dimensions: consideration and structure that are independent.

The dimension of consideration measures behavior of a manager characterized by friendship, mutual trust, respect and appreciation of the subordinates and making allowance for their feelings. A particularly high rate in this dimension expresses an atmosphere of mutuality and good bi-directional communication.

The structure dimension indicates the extent to which the manager shows a behavior of leadership by actions of organization, criticism, definition of relations inside the group and decisions about modes of implementations, supervision and planning of timetables.

A particular high rate in this dimension characterizes managers who are active in setting the direction of the group.

The interviewee (the headteacher) is asked to note the frequency of each of these behaviors in a five degrees scale. The SBDQ Questionnaire constitutes an industrial version of LBDQ (Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire). In professional

literature there is much data on the validity and reliability of the two questionnaires – LBDQ and SBDQ (Korman, 1966; Weissenberg & Kavanagh, 1972; Schriesheim & Kerr, 1974).

check spelling

The average rate in the dimension of *structure* and average in the dimension of *consideration* of each interviewee were sorted as managerial styles according to a method suggested by Reddin (1970) and by Black & Mouton (1980).

The career of a headteacher - A general picture regarding demographic data and the path of headteachers in the ORT Israel was network investigated by the BIM questionnaire (British Institute of Management, 1992).

The questions in this questionnaire are divided into several types. Answering each of these questions has implications that in certain cases are advantageous and in other cases are disadvantageous.

In the BSRI and SBQD questionnaires, each questionnaire is made up of rating scale questions (Likert scales).

“Rating scales are very useful devices for the researcher, as they build in a degree of sensitivity and differentiation of response whilst still generating numbers” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2000, p.253).

A Likert scale (named after its deviser, Rensis Likert, 1932) provides a range of responses to a given question or statement. This kind of questions ^{are} widely used in research because they combine the possibility for flexible reaction with the ability to determine frequency, correlations and other forms of quantitative analysis. They enable the investigator freedom on unifying measurement with opinion, quantity with quality.

not in bibliography - does it need to be?

In the BIM questionnaire all the questions are closed questions.

“To try to gain some purchase on complexity, the researcher can move towards multiple choice questions, where the range of choices is designated to capture the likely range of responses to given statements” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison ,2000, p.251)

In such questions the investigator accumulates relevant data because the questions were carefully formulated, all the interviewees related to the same variables, the analysis of answers is fast, it is easy to answer the questions and the percentage of interviewee who do not answer is relatively small.

Phase B

In order to collect data relevant to the sub-questions relating to styles of management and barriers in promotion, use was made of a method of investigation by which the investigator collects the information through direct interrogation of the investigated persons, usually in a face-to-face discussion. The anthropological interview has two objectives:

1. To obtain a complementing data to that received through observations.
2. To obtain data on subject one cannot observe.

The questions, their formulation and order, define to what extent the planned interview was structured. In a structured interview the formulation and order of the questions posed are supposed to be identical and same to each interviewee. This is done to ensure that when differences between the reactions appear, these differences would not be assigned to differences in the formulation of questions or the order of presenting them in the interview. The researcher attempts to minimize the risk that differences in formulation of the questions, for example might cause differences in the reactions.

Use of a planned and structured interview as followed in the present research, provides greater assurance that differences in reactions are caused only by real differences between the givers of answers. This entails that the same time the researcher takes a risk of losing

enlightenment he/she could obtain through unstructured interviews. If the investigator endeavors to collect the same amount of information from all the interviewees, then the scheduled-structured interview is mandatory.

The method of collection of data through an interview is highly reactive because it underlines the different status of the interviewer and the interviewee. Countering this disadvantage, this method has two important advantages: the first – that the interview enables extracting information on topics that there is no other way to investigate; the second – the raw materials received in this way are easily given to processing and statistical analysis.

Since the official interview is exposed and takes place when the interviewee is ready to cooperate, one can obtain much (and) organized information from a large number of interviewees. Such an interview can be organized and preplanned in a way that its results would either support or refute existing assumptions or primary generalizations the investigator has made on the basis of information collected by different methods. To the extent that the participants are chosen by a certain method of sampling, the interview becomes a survey and can be easily summed up and processed statistically. By use of an interview one can attain deeper understanding of attitudes and opinions and greater exposure of the culture of the world investigated.

In contrast to these advantages, the outstanding disadvantage of the official interview is the extent or amount of responses it generates. In such an interview, the gap between the status of the interviewer and the interviewee is clearly marked (the interviewer poses a series of questions to the interviewee) and the situation is not natural. There is high likelihood that the answers of the interviewee will be affected by the position of the interviewer so that the validity of these questions is doubted (Nachmias, 1986). The results of the interview might be affected by the extent of privacy achieved during conducting the interview. When sensitive issues are under examination, closeting of the interviewer with the interviewee might awaken suspicions in both of them. On the other

hand, if the interview is conducted in public, the presence of other members of the group might bias the answers of the interviewee.

In the present study, the interviewees agreed to cooperate in order to help a colleague in collecting the relevant data for her study (some even expressed interest in the investigated subject – especially female headteachers) and ^{she's knew} knowing that the study was anonymous so that no negative effect of the presence of the interviewer would be generated. Also, the interview was held in the mode of a personal meeting with the managers behind a closed door so that no interviewee had information regarding meetings with other (interviewed) managers.

The basis of all these interviews was the questions. According to Kahn and Cannal (1957) the questionnaire must serve two objectives:

- It must translate research objectives to specific questions the answers for which would provide data required for examination of the assumptions.
- It must help the interviewer to motivate the interviewee in a way that the necessary information is received. These are the objectives for which the question is formulated and becomes a focus around which the interview is developed. Four major considerations are involved: (a) formulation of the questions; (b) open or closed questions; (c) leading questions; (d) order of the questions.

*The
question
or the
objectives
become(s)?*

Formulation of the question - the question must be formulated so that it is understood by the interviewee in the way the interviewer wished it to be understood.

Open or closed questions - the questions asked are diverse not only in their content but also in the way they are structured. Structured questions are preplanned and these the researcher tries to formulate in as clear and as unambiguous way as possible. It is customary to distinguish between two types of structured questions: closed and open questions. In a closed question the interviewee is offered a list of possible answers from

which he/she can select one. Such questions are asked usually in official interviews and thus they are subject to effects of reactions that such an interview might generate. Closed questions require great preparation of work and require their composer to know very well the investigated community and its language. Random answers (those that are not understood by the interviewee or perceived as non relevant to the question) might damage the results of the research. They also might enter biases, by forcing the responder to choose from given options or by causing the person to think about an option that did not occur to the investigator. The advantage of closed questions is the ease with which one can process the data extracted from them. Closed questions are easy to ask and quick to answer: they do not require any writing by the interviewee or the interviewer.

The second type of structured questions is open questions. These are common when one wishes to obtain basic information about numbers and quantities. The open questions do not have ready answers one chooses from and the replies of the interviewees are written down in full. Planning of structured questions in advance enables to formulate them in a way that they ensure answers that are convenient for statistical processing so that the answers will be diagnostic, namely that they either confirm or refute the assumptions. The main disadvantage of structured questions is the amount of effect the interviewer has on the interviewee and the amount of validity of the replies given. It is important to note, however, that it is difficult to obtain new and surprising information from such questions. Open questions are harder to reply to and are even harder to analyze. The merit of open questions is in not compelling the interviewee to adjust to predetermined answers: once the person has understood the intention of the question, everyone can express his/her thoughts freely, spontaneously and in his/her language. If the replies to open questions are not clear, the interviewer can ask the interviewee for more information or explanation of something mentioned previously. Open questions are then flexible, enable expansion and clarification and encourage a living connection. However, the investigator must plan a mode of coding by which the answers would be sorted and in such process some details provided by the interviewee are bound to be lost.

Leading questions - the term “a leading question” regards a question that is formulated in such a way that it seems to the interviewee as if the interviewer expects a particular answer. One should avoid leading questions if one looks for non-biased answers. However, under certain circumstances leading questions might serve the purposes of the research.

Order of the questions - in an interview a series of questions are presented to the interviewee. One can offer the questions in a random way or a systematic way. Two main patterns of interrogation were found to be best suited in achieving the cooperation of interviewee and in obtaining information in a more fruitful way. They are the funnel succession and the upside-down funnel succession. In the funnel succession each additional questions is connected to the previous question so that the scope covered becomes gradually more limited and focused. When the objective of the interview is to obtain detailed information and the interviewee is motivated to supply the information, the funnel approach helps the interviewee to better and more efficiently recall details. In introducing the more general questions first, the interviewer might avoid imposing a mode of reference before he obtains the perspective of the interviewee. When the objective is to find unexpected reactions one offers in the beginning the wider questions. In the upside-down funnel succession the wider questions follow the limited and focused ones. When the topic of the interview does not create great motivation in the interviewees or because the topic is not important to them or because the experiences are not so fresh and clear in their mind, introducing limited questions might help because they are easier to answer whereas the wider questions are harder to answer and can be presented later. If the objective of the research is to obtain generalizations in the form of judgments relating to a concrete situation and the interviewer is not versed in the facts that the interviewee speaks about, one begins with the limited scope questions that establish specific facts for those questions that require an overall judgment.

“ Questions should avoid technical language and be clear and unambiguous. Certain types of question should be avoided:

- Leading questions, which suggest the preferred answer.
- Double questions, which include two separate issues.
- Presuming questions, which make assumptions about the attitude of respondents.
- Hypothetical questions”

(Bell, 1987, pp. 62-63).

In the present study use was made in a scheduled-structured interview made up of open questions. The interview was made of two parts (see appendix B):

- i. Information – the investigated were asked basic informative questions regarding personal details, path of advancement in their career, style of management and barriers to promotion.
- ii. Opinions, attitudes and perceptions – the interviewees were asked to express their opinions and attitudes regarding the way they perceived in the widest possible way the subject regarding to all issues relating to the path of career, the style of management and barriers to promotion. These questions required more thought and explanation according to the personal experience and perception of the subject. Therefore the order of the questions was the upside-down funnel succession.)

Data Collection

Collection of data relating to the sub-questions on gender identity, style of management and the connection between “masculinity” and “femininity” and the style of management of male heads and female heads was undertaken by a postal questionnaire.

One of the advantages of sending a questionnaire in the mail is that it is cheaper than a personal interview. The mailed questionnaire does not need to employ a number of accomplished interviewers: all that is needed is the price of planning, sampling,

duplicating, sending and enclosing a stamped envelope with your own address for the answers to be sent back. Also the processing and analysis are simpler and cheaper than those of personal interviews. The second main advantage of sending the questionnaire is the minimizing of bias errors that can stem from the personal characteristics of interviewer and differences in their interviewing skills. One uses mail when the questions require an answer that might involve some thinking about it (rather than answering immediately) or when the answers requires consulting personal papers or asking advice of other people or when the questions are embarrassing. In such cases, the questionnaire that is sent on the mail might produce a higher rate of response than would do a personal interview.

The main problem with mailed questionnaires is receiving adequate number of answers. In surveys conducted through the mail the number of reported answers is much lower than when personal interviews are conducted. The researcher who uses mailed questionnaires often faces the problem of how to evaluate the effect of those who did not reply on his findings. Four additional limitation involve postal questionnaires:

- It is possible to use such questionnaires when the required answers are simple and rather clear, so that they are understood with the help of the instructions and definitions printed on the questionnaire.
- The answers must be received as final. There would not be another opportunity to investigate beyond the answer that has been given and there would not be an opportunity to clarify blurred answers or assess the non-verbal behavior of the responder.
- The investigator cannot be sure that the correct person filled the questionnaire and not a different person than the one the investigator meant to query.
- The responder can see all the questions before answering even one of them, therefore the various answers cannot be considered independent.

“A questionnaire empowers the respondent, who may read all the questions before completing any, may complete and return the questionnaire at a time convenient to themselves, or fail to complete the questionnaire at all” (Johnson, 1994, p.37).

To the postal questionnaire a letter was appended serving as an introduction and including the following items (see appendix C):

- i. Introducing the interviewer.
- ii. Presenting the body that was conducting the research.
- iii. Presenting the objectives of the research and its importance (general objective in order to avoid biased answers).
- iv. Emphasizing the value of the contribution of the interviewee rather than noting the sacrifice required of him.
- v. Ensuring full confidentiality of the data provided by the interviewee.
- vi. Expressing gratitude for one’s cooperation.

The researcher also appended to the questionnaire a stamped envelope bearing her address in order to make it easier to the interviewee to send the filled questionnaire back to him.

The envelopes sent to the interviewee were marked in a code known only to the researcher in order to enable the researcher to know who has returned the questionnaire (and avoid unnecessary bothering with reminders to those who had already sent in the questionnaires). Those who did not send their questionnaires received a reminder with a repeated request two month and a half after sending the questionnaire (see appendix D).

Collection of the data related to the sub-questions regarding management style and barriers in promotion was done by holding an official scheduled-structured interview. The researcher coordinated personal meetings with the interviewees. The meetings were held in the room of the interviewee behind a closed door. The documentation of the answers was undertaken in writing by the interviewer on an identical structured form

where the questions, their formulation and order were identical and equal to all interviewees.

Despite the common concern that the researcher might “translate” the answers and bias the results by her prejudices, it seems that even if the interviews were recorded and the researcher had to transfer the recording to written documents, the “translation” could occur at a later phase when the responses would be discussed. The fact that the interviews were not recorded enabled avoidance of unpleasant situations of having to provide a “recorded proof” about things that were said.

The research sample

“Judgments have to be made about four key factors in sampling: the sample size; the representativeness and parameters of the sample; access to the sample; the sampling strategy to be used. The decisions here will determine the sampling strategy to be used” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison ,2000, p.92).

In the present study, the size of sampling was determined by the style of the research. In the survey done by a postal questionnaire analyzed by statistics to draw conclusions, the size of the sample was big whereas in the qualitative style, the ethnographic research in the form of interviews, the sample was small.

In the quantitative research the sample is actually all the investigated population and therefore it represents this population. In the qualitative research, the sample was chosen as representing this population by selecting people who “covered” the type of population from the point of view of their attributes like age, seniority, geographic area, education and position.

The position of the researcher in the organization: in the headquarters of ORT Israel network directly answering to one of the deputies’ director general. Direct connection exists between the investigator and the investigated (in 98% the connection is in telephone conversations or in writing) therefore no problem of accessibility to the sample arose. Also the researcher received formal confirmation from the management of the

ORT network to conduct the research and she signed a contract with the organization through the offices of the legal advisor of the organization.

The sampling strategy to be used

In the case of the quantitative research (the postal questionnaire) the sampling strategy to be used was a probability sample (random sample). The questionnaire was sent to all the managers and all had equal and known opportunities to participate in the sample. In fact, participation was dependent on the interviewee alone whether to return or not to return the questionnaire.

In the case of the qualitative research (the interview) the sampling strategy to be used was a non-probability sample (purposive sample). The chance to be included in the sample in this case is not known. Certain parts of the general population could not be included in the sample and another part would be.

The research's population

This research's population was selected due to four main reasons:

- ORT Israel's secondary education constitutes about 10% of the whole secondary education in Israel.
- There is a clear evidence^{of} to the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon in ORT Israel organization.
- National spreading – ORT Israel's institutions are placed all over the country from north to south with significant number of them that are located in the periphery.
- An easy accessibility to collecting data.

The first phase of the research (the quantitative) was conducted on 73 secondary education headteachers of the ORT Israel network.

Out of 73 headteachers who will participate in the research 67% are female and 33%

are male. All of selected participants manage Jewish and secular schools in order to prevent biased data. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, religious and Arab sectors reflect the existence of traditional norms and traditional structure of their society.

In the second phase of the research (the qualitative) a sample was chosen that would be representative of the entire population of managers according to the following parameters: age, geographic location, seniority, gender and education.

In addition the researcher interviewed some representatives of the senior management of the ORT Israel network – two male deputy director generals who had direct influence on the choice and promotion of managers in the net and two regional managers – one man and one woman – who were less personally known to the researcher.

Validity and reliability

Questions regarding the validity and reliability of the research apply to the ability of the researcher to bring to the research the facts she means to collect and investigate in the subject planned. This validity exists when conditions are created to collect reliable information. The two basic conditions for collecting information are relationships of friendship and trust between the researcher and the investigated persons and regular presence of the researcher in the site of research for prolonged time and in diverse situations. Maintaining contacts with people in all positions, and the fact that the researcher could introduce him self directly and describe the objective of the research in a clear language to the interviewees as well as showing interest in them, are trust creating elements. The longer the research lasts, the more it is possible to assume that the researcher would better analyze the meaning of the findings and would be able to examine his conclusions many times and in various ways (Zabar Ben Yehoshua, 1990).

According to Nachmias (1986) the problem of validity arises because measurement in the Social Sciences is, with very few exceptions, indirect. In such situations researchers do not enjoy full certainty that they are measuring exactly those characteristic they intend to measure. Face validity relies on subjective assessment of the researcher regarding the validity of the tool of measurement. In fact, validity observed is not connected to the

exists?

question whether the measuring tool measures that which it seems to be measuring according to the subjective assessment of the researcher.

“The instrument must show that it fairly and comprehensively covers the domain or items that it purports to cover” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000, p.107).

The method of assessment, or the tool that is often used, is the degree of its validity. The validity is an indication of the number of variable errors that are included in the measurement, namely, the errors that occurred between an individual (or another object) to another during one sampling of a measurement that change from time to time regarding a single datum that was measured twice by the same tool.

“Reliability is a measure of consistency over time and over similar samples. A reliable instrument for a piece of research will yield similar data from similar respondents over time” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000, p.117).

The term trustworthiness is suggested as a substitute to validity and reliability required in quantitative studies. In an overview of this issue, Alpert (2001) and Zeichner & Noffke (2001) offer different approaches to determination of reliability of qualitative research, as follows:

- Multitude sources of data (triangulation) in order to verify the phenomenon.
- Establishment of arguments – each observation is done by more than one investigator.
- Making a convincing argument that the data deserves attention and the interpretation of that data is acceptable by those who have provided it.
- Meticulousness in conducting the research and the form of its presentation.
- Self-criticism of the researcher that refers to the researcher’s early assumptions that could affect the research.

Validity and reliability in questionnaires

According to Belson (1986) the validity of a postal questionnaire can be examined from two points of view. First, is whether the interviewee completed the questionnaire in a correct, honest and precise way. Secondly, whether those who did not return the questionnaires would have given the same distribution of answers as those received from the questionnaires that were returned.

Hudson & Miller (1997) suggest a number of strategies in order to increase the number of people who would answer the mailed questionnaires, so that the validity of research is increased. Most of their suggestions were used in the conduction of this research.

For example:

- Including stamped addressed envelopes
- Multiple rounds of follow-up to request returns
- Stressing the importance and benefits of the questionnaire
- Features of the questionnaire itself (ease of completion, time to be spent, sensitivity of the questions asked, length of the questionnaire).

In order to increase the validity and reliability of the questionnaire and ensure that the questionnaire suited the sample chosen from the point of view of clarity of the items in the questionnaire, the instructions provided and the form of the questionnaire, the language, the type of questions, the time it would take to fill it up, the length of the questionnaire, the degree of difficulty of the questions, and so on, a pilot was run. The questionnaire was first sent to 7 heads. According to the questionnaires returned we learned that there were no problems in answering the questions except for one topic.

In the BSDQ the grading directions of the categories where checked before analyzing the data. In the questions where the evaluation variables where graded in opposite order related to the general direction of the other evaluation variables, a recoding was performed in order to calculate the needed averages. For example: 'Treats people under you without considering their feelings'.

- i. In the BSRI questionnaire reliability was tested by Bem (1974) of the three scales – masculine, feminine and social desirability – that provided a reliability coefficient that ranged between 0.80 and 0.86. In a repeated test after 4 weeks the rating proved even more reliable $\alpha = 0.89 - 0.93$ regarding the various scales. Also a statistical confirmation was found (low correlations) to the fact that the masculine and feminine scales were not dependent on each other. Bem (1974) even checked the correlations of masculine and feminine scales of BSRI with similar scales like CPI and GZT where no correlation was found. The conclusion of Bem from these findings was that the BSRI checked for the aspect of sex-role that was not directly measured by any of the other questionnaires. The reliability of the questionnaire was also examined in the present study. In the masculinity scale the alpha coefficient was 0.9054 for the 20 items. In the feminine scale the alpha coefficient was 0.9138 for the 20 items. Confirmation to the validity of the questionnaire was obtained by testing the rating of the female heads and the male heads in the scales of femininity and masculinity. In a T-test a significant difference was found between the average rating of male heads and female heads in the two scales (see the chapter on findings p.).
- ii. In the SBDQ questionnaire – as noted previously, in professional literature there is much data on the validity and reliability of the questionnaire (Korman, 1966; Weissenberg & Kavanagh, 1972; Schriesheim & Kerr, 1974). In the present research the reliability of the questionnaire was re-examined. Regarding the items of structure we found an alpha coefficient of 0.9324 and alpha coefficient of 0.8437 regarding the items belonging to the dimension of consideration. In the T-test, a significant difference was found between the average rating of male heads and female heads in the two dimensions (see the chapter on findings p.). The size of sample (73 heads) that was the main subject when we take into account validity and reliability in this research was big enough but not exaggerated in order to constitute a representation and enable statistical analysis.

Check with bibliography

Validity and reliability in interviews

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), the most practical way of attaining high validity is to reduce, as much as possible, prejudices. They argue that the source of these opinions is to be found in the character of the interviewer, the personalities of the interviewees and the formulation of the questions. Both interviewers and interviewees bring into the interview personal factors.

Silverman (1993) says that one way to control reliability is to use a scheduled-structured interview with an identical structure and identical succession of questions for each interviewee. He says that it is important that each of the interviewees understands the question in the same way. He suggests that reliability of questionnaires would be obtained by conducting a careful pilot of the timetable of the interview, training of the interviewers, internal assessment of reliability in coding the answers and considerable use of closed questions. On the other hand, according to Silverman (1993) there is importance in using open questions in the interviews. In this way the researcher enables interviewees to demonstrate their unique observation of the world and their definition of the situation. Also one must acknowledge the fact that a succession of questions that suits one interviewee might suit another less well but that open questions enable the researcher to explore important and unexpected topics.

Another subject we must relate to, and try to avoid, is asking leading questions. A leading question is a question that contains assumptions regarding the interviewees and “put words in their mouths,” namely, that the question itself affects the answer in an unjustified way.

In the present study use was made of a scheduled-structured interview where all the questions were open, and all the interviewees were asked the same questions in the same order. The interviewer attempted to avoid expressing any prejudices or led the answers of the interviewees in a direction that seemed to her correct by the assumptions she made in her research. A pilot was run for the interview to confirm that the questions were sufficiently clear, their order and distribution was logical and suitable and that the

interviewees (3 heads) were able to answer them and that the questions were collecting the data required by the researcher and defined by the researcher to be collected by these questions. In order to avoid leading questions the researcher investigated the heads regarding their own experience and perception as female/ male heads and (not asked for example male heads ^{were not asked} about the barrier encountered by women heads during their career. There is not doubt that such a question would affect their answers in an unjustified way.

Triangulation

“Triangulation may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behavior” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000, p.112).

Triangulations allow the researcher to examine one source of information in comparison with another source of information and remove interpretations for which not enough triangulated data was found for validating them. In this method one can find additional data that would not have been collected without the pedantic requirement of validation. However, the process of using diverse sources and different methods is intended to show that a certain phenomenon is indeed taking place whose nature is clarified and increases the quality and preciseness of the collection of data (Stake, 2000).

In the present study use was made of two methods, one qualitative (the interview) and the other quantitative (the questionnaire). The triangulation in this case was a methodological triangulation since verification was achieved by attacking the same object (the interviewee) in two ways. The questionnaires were sent to 73 managers of 48 of whom responded. Parallel to that the managers interviewed were chosen from the 48 managers who answered the questionnaire. Triangulation of data was done with reference to two major topics: style of management and barriers to promotion.

The style of management of women and men was analyzed by a questionnaire SBDQ and according to the definition of the interviewees regarding their behavior as managers. In

the interviews the managers were asked also directly regarding the way they viewed and defined their style of management in order to triangulate the data collected in the questionnaire and validate it.

Regarding information about career path, use was made of the BIM questionnaire in order to examine the topic of career versus family in order to see to what extent various types of responsibility a manager who has a family had and whether these served as barrier to promotion especially in Israel where considerable significance is assigned to having a family. The extent of the effect can fortify or weaken the other blockages that affect advancement in career, especially the barrier emphasized in this study that is the style of management of the headteacher.

Procedure

Analysis of the quantitative data (the questionnaire)

Creating new variables:

The grading directions of the categories were checked before analyzing the data.

In the questions where the evaluation variables were graded in opposite order related to the general direction of the other evaluation variables, a **recoding** was performed in order to calculate the required averages.

T1121/25 masculine traits variable (combined variable)

T1127/31 feminine traits variable (combined variable)

T1133/37 neutral traits variable (combined variable)

T1139/43 task oriented management variable (combined variable)

T1145/49 people oriented management variable (combined variable)

General statistical tools: Marginal frequencies

The marginal frequencies include frequencies in absolute values, in percentage, histograms, averages, medians and standard deviations.

Frequencies are provided in three columns, the first of which indicates the marginal frequencies from all queried persons. The second indicates the frequencies of only those who answered, namely that it does not contain the missing values. The third column indicates the accumulated frequency of those who answered.

All variables used in this study are presented by this tool in order to provide maximum information on each of them. In addition to tables of the various frequencies, use was made of a concentrating table of findings that includes findings of averages, medians and standard deviations for each of the variables.

Statistical tests and testing of the assumptions

For examination of the assumption the researcher used the following analyzing tests:

1. T-Test: to compare 2 averages. The variables of assessment are analyzed by control variables. In this test, like in all analysis of variability, one must use one continuous variable throughout the test that is compared to interval (non continuous) variables.
2. ANOVA – One way: To compare a number of averages. In this case the variables of assessment are analyzed by control variables where each of the control variables has more than 2 categories. In this test, like in the T-test, one must use at least one continuous variables compared to an interval (non continuous) variable.  ?

Analysis of the qualitative data (interview)

The main tool of analysis was analysis of the contents that is defined as a research technique for producing repeatable deductions out of communication presented in any contents in a particular context. In using this tool we can present various components of

the contents and offer correlations between variables of the analyzed material (Krippendorff, 1980; Guba & Lincoln, 1981).

The process of analyzing includes the extraction of outstanding, important, interesting and repeating components from the data collected. These components are defined as categories for analysis and labels that are emphasizing their essence are attached to them. In addition to determination of the set of categories, **we** also determine the units of analysis that are based on appearance of a certain word or belonging to a shared theme according to which various questions and statements are analyzed.

The analysis of the findings was achieved at two levels: the first level of analysis and interpretation in which the researcher analyzed the observable and invisible contents according to the categories determined and deductions that have been extracted. In the second level of interpretation, the researcher uses his/her intuition in interpreting the deductions received and indicating observable and invisible meanings that come up in the findings.

In the present research the answers to the interview were analyzed according to a division into categories according to the theme the questions raised (path of career, style of management and signs of discrimination). Each of these categories concentrated on the relevant information relating to the questions in the research. Following analysis of data and receipt of the findings, an examination of the findings was undertaken to check the assumptions of the research and the theories and studies mentioned in the literature review chapter in this thesis.

Also, no quantification of findings was done, because as argued by Zabbar Ben-Yehoshua (1990) and Guba & Lincoln (1981) analysis of contents does not require exact quantification because this might be at the expense of reaching deeper layers of conclusions.

Generalizability and significance of findings

This study contributes to an expansion of existing knowledge in the field of styles of management in general and management by women in particular. It expands the knowledge in the field of the role of gender and its connection to styles of management, and the connection between the style of management and the ability of women to reach senior management positions, especially in the teaching profession at ORT Israel.

This study emphasizes the need for awareness in building programs of development for managers that would be unique to women. One of the assumptions of the research is that women behave differently from men in the field of management and therefore it might be that special training programs need to be developed that would be adjusted to the unique style of management of women. Further, these complements the skills required in order to succeed in major positions of management. Moreover, programs that may be developed for female heads should enable women to express their unique style and encourage them to stop imitating the masculine model. In this stress may be prevented and greater enjoyment could be achieved in materializing the feminine potential in an organization. Women who recognize their potential would be able to make use of it, to channel it for the benefit of the organization and their own benefit instead of investing their energies in imitating the masculine style or in blocking their uniqueness because it might not be acknowledged or accepted.

Limitations of the study

The present study has several limitations. The first limitation regards the postal questionnaire. Postal questionnaires are known to have a disadvantage in receipt of adequate rate of answers. A month and a half after distribution of the questionnaire the rate of response was 40%, therefore a reminder was sent to those managers who did not send the questionnaire back. This caused the rate of response to grow to 66%, which constituted an adequate rate of response.

Another limitation of the research was that the questionnaires were designed to be filled by the responder so that diagnosing gender identity and the style of management relied on self-reporting. In self-reporting the examined persons tend to give “good” or “accepted” answers that not always correspond to natural behavior or to the real perceptions of the examined person and therefore do not reflect the precise managerial behavior or the real attitude of the person regarding the gender of the headteacher.

Another limitation was the use of structured and open questions in the interview. The disadvantage of these questions is the extent the interviewer affects the interviewee and the extent of validity of the answers given. Open questions are hard to answer and are even harder to analyze. Therefore the researcher planned a mode of coding by which she was able to sort the various answers according to subjects that were relevant to the questions of the research. In addition the researcher made sure that the interviews would be held in the privacy of a closed office and tried as much as possible to give the interviewee a sense of ease and peace and remove any feelings of threat that could be caused due to the gap between the status of the investigator and the investigated.

Additional limitation was the lacuna in the literature on the ‘glass ceiling’ phenomenon in the teaching profession (presented only as an example for the phenomenon in a feminine occupation) especially statistical data on headteachers. For this reason the researcher drew upon literature from other disciplines. It would have been possible to read more broadly within the business literature, which gives considerable attention to the ‘glass ceiling’ phenomenon.

Also, on Bem’s theory there is a criticism. The first criticism relates to the argument that sex-roles do not take into account situation variables, such as: managerial situation or masculine environment as opposed to feminine environment, Mills & Tyrell (1983). The second criticism relates to the diagnostic tool. Sex roles are multi dimensional and there is not any possibility to get the most out of them in a single scale of personality traits.

Moreover, not in all researches that used the sex role scale there was evident to sex roles, (Edwards & Spence, 1987).

Another factor that affected the objectivity of the research is the sex of the researcher. Since the researcher in this study is a woman, it is logical to assume that her opinions, thoughts and approach affected to a certain extent (despite a professed attempt to avoid it as much as possible) the choice of topic, the analysis of the data and interpretation of the findings.

Ethics

Issues concerning ethics can arise from the type of problems investigated by social researchers and by the methods they use in their quest for obtaining valid and reliable data. Therefore:

“Researchers need to consider whether they will be granted access to the social situations they wish to investigate and the circumstances in which it is appropriate to conduct research. In considering these issues, it is not only important for researchers to assess the situation that is to be researched, but also to assess their own skills, experiences and expertise to conduct the investigation” (Burgess, 1993, p.119).

In educational research ethical topics might arise in any phase in the process of investigation. Some can be expected while others might arise unexpectedly due to a particular course the study adopts or due to unexpected circumstances. Therefore one must take into account possible ethical issues in each phase of the research.

A difficult dilemma for researchers is that between the search for truth and the effects to that search on their subjects and others' lives. The notion of the costs-benefit ratio might be used to help resolve this dilemma: essentially the researcher weighs up the benefits of

the findings of the research to society as a whole against the costs to any individual involved.

“One such dilemma is that which requires researchers to strike a balance between the demands placed on them as professional scientists in pursuit of truth, and their subjects’ rights and values potentially threatened by the research” Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2000, p.49).

Another fundamental concept, which contributes to the ground of ethical procedure, is informed consent. An idea which according to Burgess (1993) developed within the Nuremberg Code (following World War Two), which discussed the voluntary consent of human subjects.

Diener and Crandall (1978) defined informed consent as ‘the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions’.

This is the right of participants to an explanation of the aims, procedures, purpose, likely publication of, findings and methods of dissemination of results, and potential consequences of the research and the right to refuse to take part or to withdraw at any stage.

Diener and Crandall (1978) definition involves four elements:

- Competence: are participants capable of making a choice?
- Voluntarism: are participants free to choose and do they also undergo exposure to risks knowingly?
- Full information: are participants given full information about the proposed research?
- Comprehensive: do participants fully understand the nature of the research project?

By these four elements the researchers can be assured that the rights of the subjects were adequately considered. However, as Nehemias and Nehemias pointed (1992), the principle of informed consent need not be absolutely mandatory in each social science. Despite the existing general wish, it is not needed in researches where no danger or risk is involved. The higher risk the participants of the research have, the greater is the obligation to receive informed consent from them.

In the present study no such risk was threatening the participants, nevertheless. characteristics were taken into account. The investigated population was old enough (headteachers, regional managers, deputy director managers) and was able to make decisions without fearing deterioration of their mental condition that would cause them undue anxiety. The headteachers received questionnaires and voluntarily answered them. Those who were not interested had an option of not responding and not sending them back. Also, the interviews were coordinated and were held by the consent of the interviewee to be interviewed.

The investigated received general information about the research (since practically it is not possible to provide full information on the research) and also the nature of research and processes that were not complicated and did not pose any risk to the investigated were made clear to the participants.

Access and acceptance

This subject regards ensuring receipt of permission to hold the research and receipt of participants' acceptance. Investigators do not necessarily have permission to approach an educational institution. They must produce letters of accreditation (commitment) of serious researchers who formulated an ethical code in order to conduct the research. Receipt of justified access might change depending on local protocol. It is possible that explanations would have to be made. Receipt of permission can be done in different levels in different countries in different contexts and a research must comply with acceptable channels. In several places the researcher must receive permission from the

Ministry of Education, in other places one needs permission from regional or local authorities whereas in other places permission of the manager will suffice. In some places one must have permission to distribute questionnaires. Many universities and bodies that finance research have ethical committees that must be consulted before embarking on the research and who must approve detailed research proposals.

Bell (1987) offers the following advice in this connection:

“Permission to carry out an investigation must always be sought at an early stage. As soon as you have agreed project outline and have read enough to convince yourself that the topic is feasible, it is advisable to make a formal, written approach to the individuals and organization concerned, outlining your plans” (p. 42).

In order to conduct the present research, the researcher applied to the Pedagogic Forum of the ORT Israel’s management that is headed by the general director of the network. The application included a detailed research proposal with general details on the research and the mode of conducting it, like the subject of the research, the questions of the research, the importance of the research, and the population of the research, the modes of data collection and more.

Following discussion on the application and receipt of approval, the researcher had to sign a contract with the ORT Israel’s management formulated by the legal advisor of the network in which the researcher vowed to maintain anonymity of the investigated, secrecy of the information and obligation to present a copy of the final report to the management of ORT as well as being obliged to receive permission to publish the data in the future in any other form.

Conclusion

This chapter sums up the methodology of the research reported in this study. The objective of the research was to investigate possible connection (and to what extent) between the style of management of the headteacher and promotion to senior management positions in the teaching profession at ORT Israel network. The research was limited to the population of headteachers in Jewish, secular schools in the junior and high schools of the ORT Israel net. In focusing the research on terms of gender differences in style of management and discrimination in promotion to senior management positions, the decision implied limiting the research to social theory of feminist research. The research made use of both quantitative and qualitative modes of collecting data. In the quantitative mode use was made of postal questionnaires, whereas in the qualitative mode a series of scheduled- structured interviews was conducted. The information of the questionnaire was analyzed by 48 questionnaires that were returned to the sender among which there were 6 headteachers, 2 regional managers and 2 deputy director generals. The researcher enjoyed full cooperation of the investigated during the interviews, and the percentage of responses to the questionnaire was relatively high since 66% responded fully. The investigated expressed their opinions regarding the theme queried and shared their personal experience with the researcher. The analysis of the data was undertaken by using statistical tools. In the case of the questionnaires and in analysis and sorting into categories of the material collected in the interviews. A detailed presentation of the findings and its analysis according to theories surveyed above are provided in the next two chapters of this thesis.

Not a
sentence

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

Introduction

The previous chapter described the research methods and tools used in collecting the data relevant for this study. Additionally this data has been analyzed and analysis of the data undertaken by using statistical tools. These tools are questionnaires and interviews.

This chapter examines the findings according to collected and analyzed data, literally and graphically.

Phase A – postal questionnaire

The first phase of the research (the quantitative) was conducted on 73 secondary education headteachers of the ORT Israel network.

Out of 73 headteachers who participated in the research 67% are female and 33% are male. All of selected participants manage Jewish and secular schools in order to prevent sectional data. As mentioned before (in the literature review chapter), the religious and Arab sectors reflect the existence of traditional norms and traditional structures of their society.

Out of 73 questionnaires 48 were returned = 66% response
(31.7% men, 68.3% women).

Out of 27 men 16 reply = 59%

Out of 46 women 32 reply = 70%

The postal questionnaire (the quantitative research) composed of three parts:

The BSRI Questionnaire:

The questionnaire consists of 60 items, which arranged in triplet. The internal order of each triplet is always: masculine, feminine and neutral.

The SBDO Questionnaire:

The questionnaire has two main dimensions:

The consideration dimension indicates behavior by a headteacher characterized by friendship, mutual trust, respect and appreciation of the subordinates and consideration of their feelings.

The structure dimension, points to the extent to which a headteacher presents behavior of a leader by activities of organizing, criticism, definition of relationship in the team and determination of ways to perform tasks by supervision and planning a timetable.

The BIM Questionnaire:

The questionnaire consisted of 14 demographic and career progress questions.

Creating new variables:

The grading directions of the categories where checked before analyzing the data. In the questions where the evaluation variables where graded in opposite order related to the general direction of the other evaluation variables, a **recoding** was preformed in order to calculate the needed averages.

where or were X

- T1121/25 masculine traits variable (combined variable)
- T1127/31 feminine traits variable (combined variable)
- T1133/37 neutral traits variable (combined variable)
- T1139/43 task oriented management variable (combined variable)
- T1145/49 people oriented management variable (combined variable)

Marginal Frequencies:

The marginal frequencies include frequencies in absolute values, frequencies in percentage, histograms, means, medians and standard deviations.

Statistical tests and hypothesis checking:

For examination of the assumption the researcher used the following analyzing tests:

T-Test: to compare 2 averages. The variables of assessment are analyzed by control variables. In this test, like in all analysis of variability, one must use one continuous variable throughout the test that is compared to interval (non continuous) variables.

ANOVA – One way: To compare a number of averages. In this case the variables of assessment are analyzed by control variables where each of the control variables has more than 2 categories. In this test, like in the T-test, one must use at least one continuous variables compared to an interval (non continuous) variable.

Following the tests results:

Table 6: T-test results

Control variables (Independent)	The test variables (Dependent)	Significance Level	Variable	Degree of freedom
Gender	Masculine traits variable	0.000	09.70	39
Gender	Feminine traits variable	0.000	-11.8	39
Gender	Neutral traits variable	0.423	-00.81	39
Gender	Task oriented management variable	0.000	18.41	39
Gender	People oriented management variable	0.000	-06.36	39

Career & Responsibility	Masculine traits variable	0.232	01.21	38
Career & Responsibility	Feminine traits variable	0.395	-00.86	38
Career & Responsibility	Neutral traits variable	0.399	00.85	38
Career & Responsibility	Task oriented management variable	0.168	01.41	38
Career & Responsibility	People oriented management variable	0.339	-00.97	38

Table 7: ANOVA One Way results

Control variables (Independent)	The test variables (Dependent)	Significance Level
Professional qualification	Masculine traits variable	.2062
	Feminine traits variable	.3489
	Neutral traits variable	.1906
	Task oriented management variable	.0912
	People oriented management variable	.3509
Age groups	Masculine traits variable	.8840
	Feminine traits variable	.8916
	Neutral traits variable	.7669
	Task oriented management variable	.9370
	People oriented management variable	.3440
Salary status in family	Masculine traits variable	.0099

	Feminine traits variable	.0016
	Neutral traits variable	.4162
	Task oriented management variable	.0001
	People oriented management variable	.0487
Responsibility's affect career	Masculine traits variable	.3202
	Feminine traits variable	.3151
	Neutral traits variable	.1111
	Task oriented management variable	.2633
	People oriented management variable	.3677
Career break	Masculine traits variable	.4928
	Feminine traits variable	.1421
	Neutral traits variable	.0545
	Task oriented management variable	.2430
	People oriented management variable	.5770
To what status you came back?	Masculine traits variable	.1918
	Feminine traits variable	.1842
	Neutral traits variable	.5681
	Task oriented management variable	.2589
	People oriented management variable	.2311
Period of the break	Masculine traits variable	.8318

	Feminine traits variable	.3549
	Neutral traits variable	.3436
	Task oriented management variable	.5464
	People oriented management variable	.1121

Final conclusions:

1. There is a significant difference between male heads and female heads in their identification with the masculine traits variables. Male heads identify in average grade of 5.7692 against female heads in grade of 4.1429. (T-TEST).
2. There is a significant difference between male heads and female heads in their identification with the feminine traits variables. . Male heads identify in average grade of 3.9231 against female heads in grade of 5.6429. (T-TEST).
3. There is not a significant difference between male heads and female heads in their identification with the neutral traits variables. (T-TEST).
4. There is a significant difference between male heads and female heads in their identification with the task oriented management variables. Male heads identify in average grade of 4.0538 against female heads in grade of 2.5821. (T-TEST).
5. There is a significant difference between male heads and female heads in their identification with the people oriented management variables. Male heads identify in average grade of 3.5077 against female heads in grade of 4.1786. (T-TEST).
6. There is not a significant difference between the question of possible combination of career and caring personal responsibility and the combined variables. (Variance analysis).

7. There is no a significant difference between the personal variables such as: professional qualification, age, responsibilities affect career, career break, period out of the employment market, status he/she came back and between the combined variables. (Variance analysis).

8. There is a significant difference between the Salary status in family (principal salary or secondary salary) and the masculine traits variables. Those with the principal salary identified in average grade of 5.1 against those with secondary salary in grade of 4.3. (Variance analysis-Scheffe Procedure).

9. There is a significant difference between the Salary status in family (principal salary or secondary salary) and the feminine traits variables. Those with the principal salary identified in average grade of 4.6 against those with secondary salary in grade of 5.5. (Variance analysis-Scheffe Procedure).

10. There is a significant difference between the Salary status in family (principal salary or secondary salary) and the task oriented management variables. Those with the principal salary identified in average grade of 3.5 against those with secondary salary in grade of 2.7. (Variance analysis-Scheffe Procedure).

11. There is a significant difference between the Salary status in family (principal salary or secondary salary) and the people oriented management variables. Those with the principal salary identified in average grade of 3.8 against those with secondary salary in grade of 4.2. (Variance analysis-Scheffe Procedure).

Reliability Analysis-Scale (ALFA):

Masculine traits variables

N of Items = 20
Alpha = .9054

Feminine traits variables

N of Items = 20
Alpha = .9138

Neutral traits variables

N of Items = 20
Alpha = .6237

Task oriented management variables

N of Items = 20
Alpha = .9324

People oriented management variables

N of Items = 16
Alpha = .8437

Masculine Traits:

	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Men	5.754	5.800	0.343
Women	4.164	4.200	0.477

Feminine Traits:

	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Men	3.908	4.000	0.377
Women	5.664	5.600	0.282

Natural Traits:

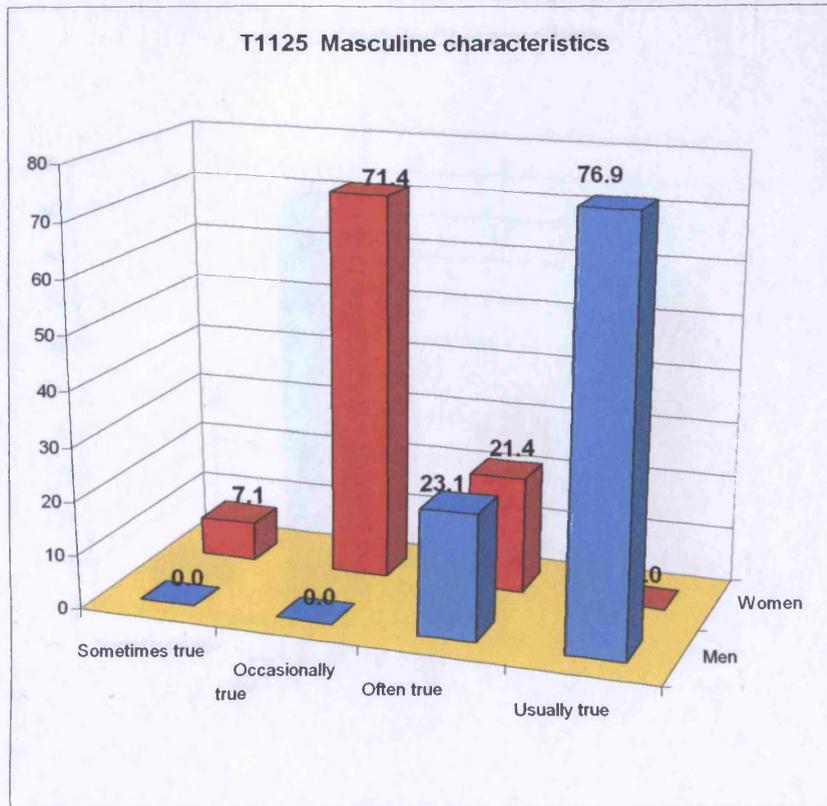
	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Men	4.608	4.500	0.494
Women	4.550	4.550	0.298

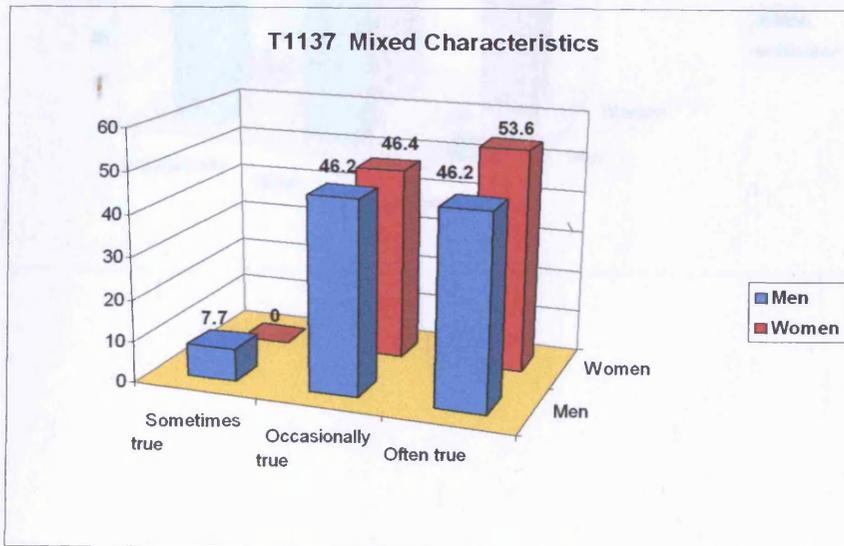
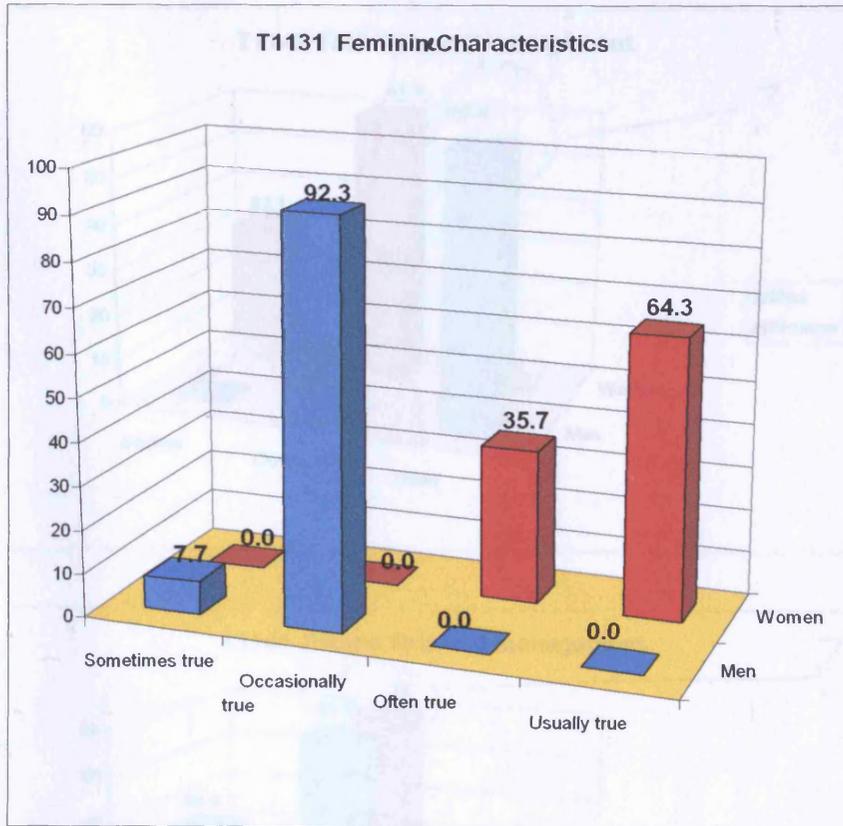
Task oriented management style:

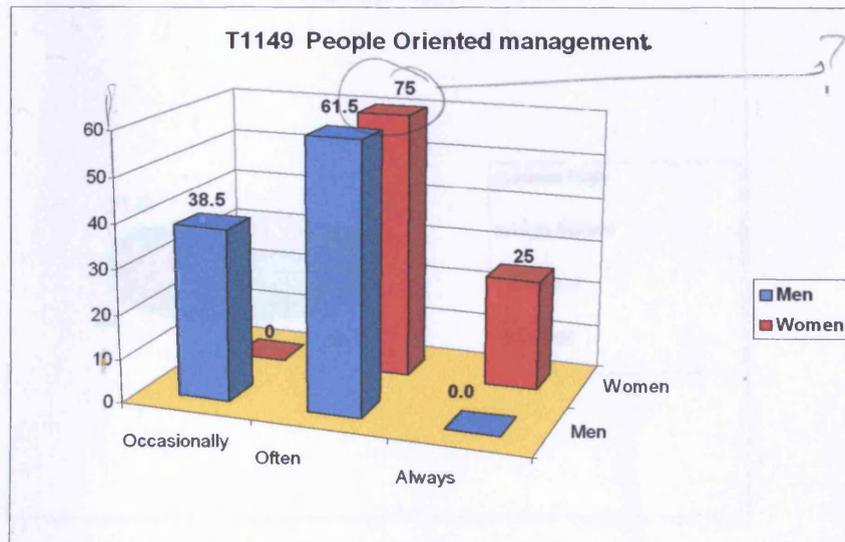
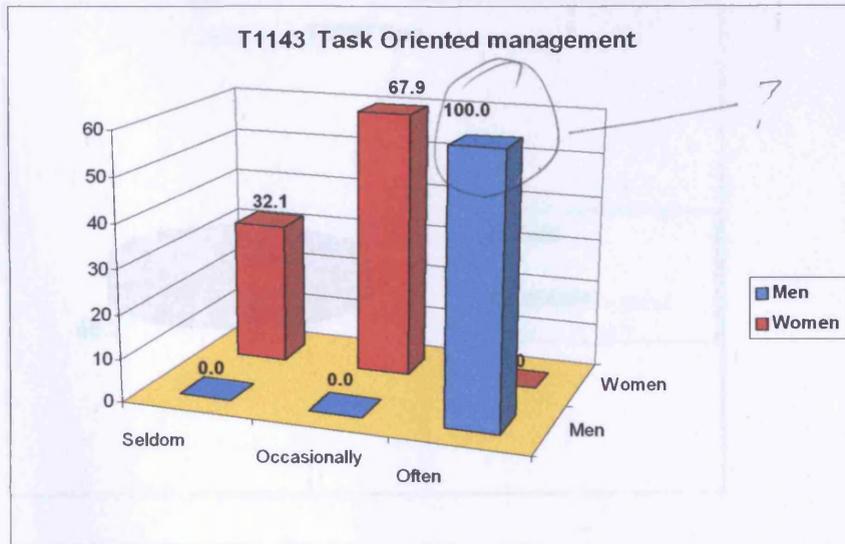
	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Men	4.054	4.000	0.230
Women	2.582	2.600	0.242

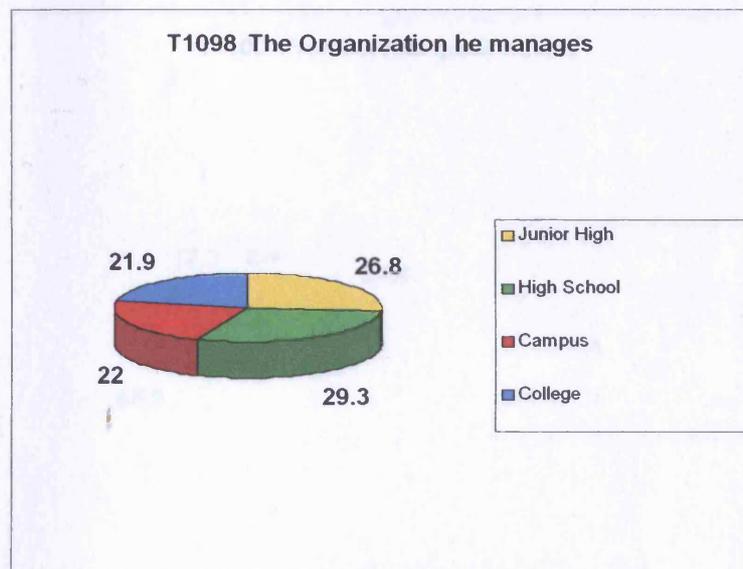
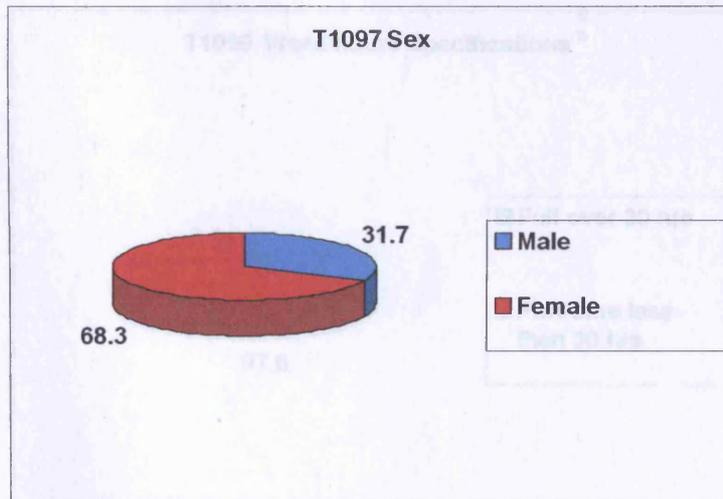
People oriented management style:

	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Men	3.508	3.500	0.171
Women	4.179	4.200	0.360

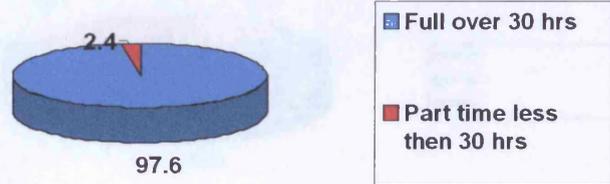




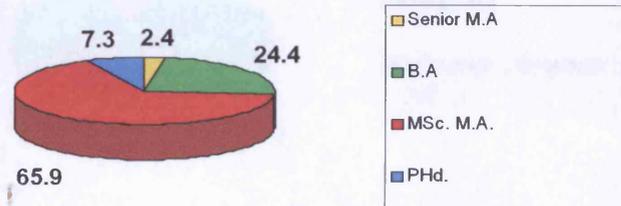




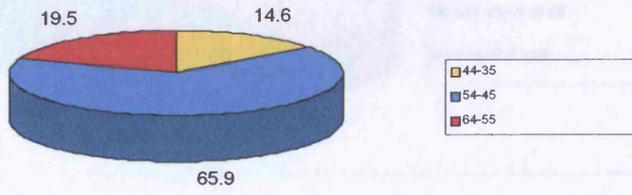
T1099 Work hours specifications



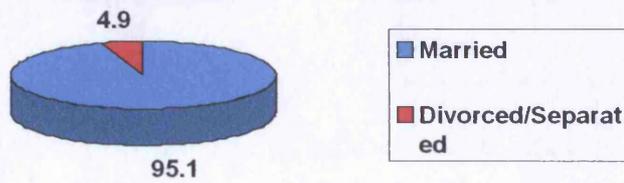
T1100 Professional qualification



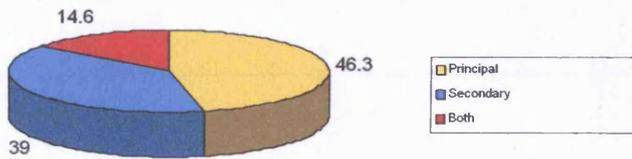
T1101 Age group

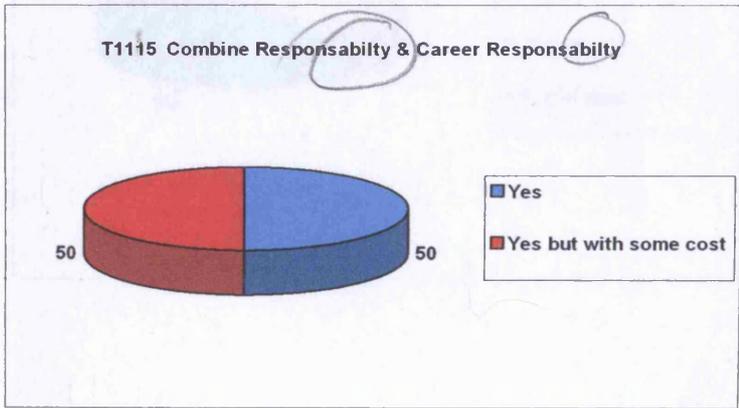
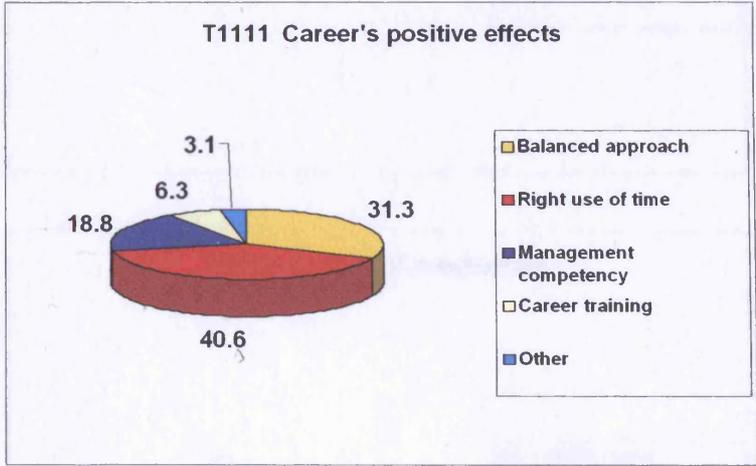
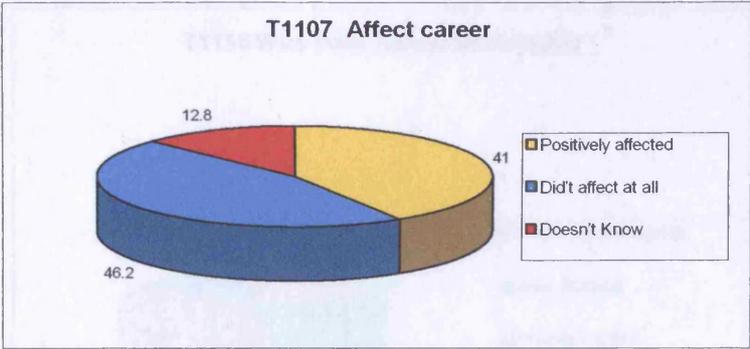


T1102 Family Status

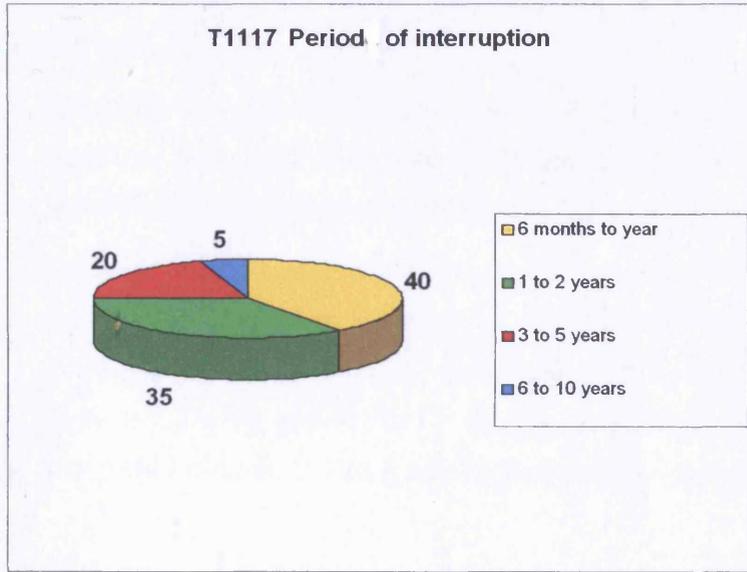
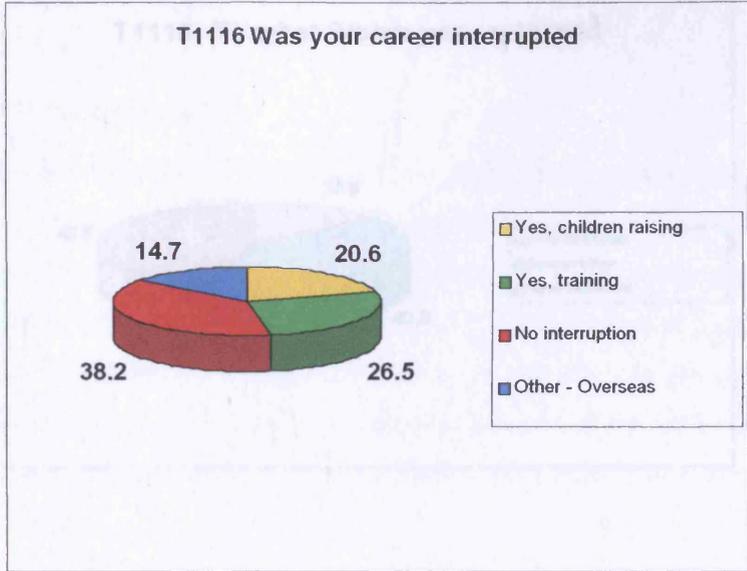


T1103 Salary Status in Family





7



T1118 To what Status you returned

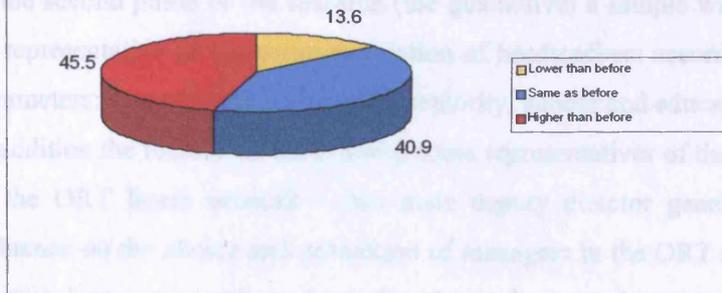


Table B - Interview

In the second phase of the study, the qualitative sample was chosen that would be representative of the population of interest according to the following circumstances: (1) the status of the respondents, (2) the level of education, (3) the location of the respondents, (4) the representation of the senior management of the ORT, (5) the gender, (6) the rank, (7) the duty station, (8) the age, (9) the marital status, (10) the number of dependents, (11) the ORT set and two regional headquarters, (12) the type of assignment, (13) the length of service, and (14) the gender. The researcher was personally known to the researcher.

The structured-interview was made up of open questions. The interview was divided into two parts.

1. Background: These investigated was asked basic information questions regarding personal details, path of advancement in their career, type of assignment, and signs of discrimination.
2. Current attitude and perception: the interviewees were asked to express their attitude and perception regarding the way they perceived the effect of the ORT on their career path, type of assignment, and signs of discrimination. These questions required their thought and explanation according to the personal experience and perception of the ORT.

Table C - Part 1 - Information

Personal Details

- In answer to the question whether the interviewees served in the army, it was possible to discern a significant difference between male heads and female heads. 100% of male heads testified that they served in the army, while only 25% of female heads testified that they served in the army.

Phase B – interview

In the second phase of the research (the qualitative) a sample was chosen that would be representative of the entire population of headteachers according to the following parameters: age, geographic location, seniority, gender and education.

In addition the researcher interviewed some representatives of the senior management of the ORT Israel network – two male deputy director generals who had direct influence on the choice and promotion of managers in the ORT net and two regional headteachers – one male and one female – who were less personally known to the researcher.

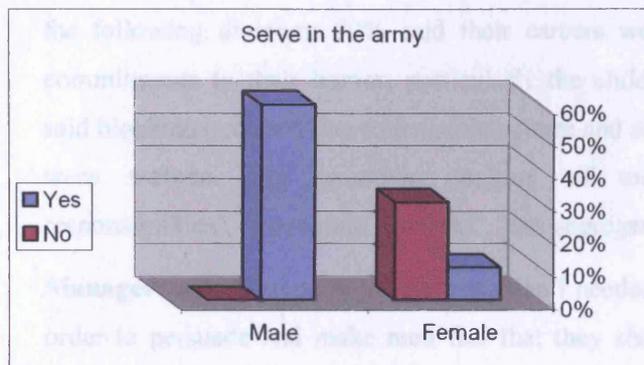
The scheduled-structured interview was made up of open questions. The interview was divided into two parts:

- i. Information – those investigated were asked basic informative questions regarding personal details, path of advancement in their career, style of management and signs of discrimination.
- ii. Opinions, attitudes and perceptions – the interviewees were asked to express their opinions and attitudes regarding the way they perceived the subject relating to all issues concerning their career path, styles of management and signs of discrimination. These questions required more thought and explanation according to the personal experience and perception of the theme.

Findings – part 1 – Information

Personal details:

- In answer to the question whether the interviewees served in the army, it was possible to discern a significant difference between male heads and female heads. 100% of male heads testified that they served in the army, while only 25% of female heads testified that they served in the army.



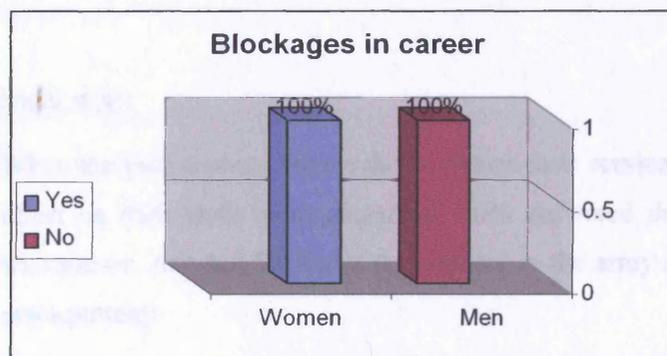
Career course:

- In answer to the question about what roles the interviewees had before the present one, the outstanding fact was that all male heads held most of their career positions in management, such as department managers, track managers, supervisors or members of the board. However, female heads held mostly positions of teachers, counselors, heads of discipline or heads of age level (responsible organizationally to all classes of the same grade in school). This means that throughout the history of careers the difference between levels of roles between female heads and male heads in the organization has been maintained.
- The factors impacting on the personal careers of male heads and female heads were mostly identical: personal traits, family, self-materialization, motivation, boss, experience and education.
- When the interviewees were asked if they had found any blockages during their careers until now, it was possible to discern a significant difference between male heads and female heads. All the men said they did not encounter any blockages except for one comment of a headteacher who encountered a barrier of age. On the other hand, all female heads, answered positively to this

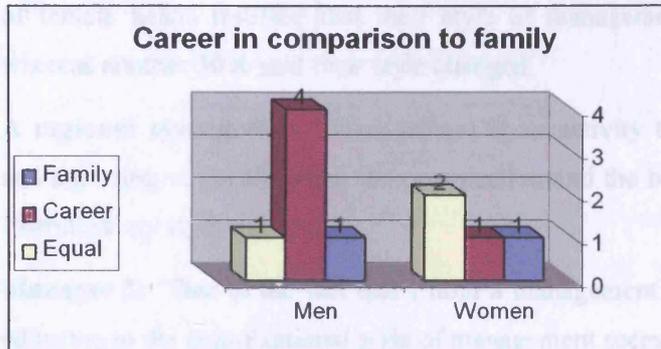
question assigning the blockages to the fact of their being women according to the following division: 50% said their careers were thwarted due to their commitments to their homes, particularly the children and the family. 50% said blocking occurred due to the male culture and simply by the fact that they were women. For example: ‘culture of motherhood’, ‘domestic responsibilities’, ‘masculine networks’, ‘sex segregation’, ‘social policy’.

Manageress 1: “Due to my being a woman I needed to invest extra energy in order to persuade and make men feel that they should accept my authority. There were also pressures and demands of the home – involvement in the life of the children.”

Manageress 2: “In each open tender I applied to I found a man who took the position.” “I was asked how I could be in charge of grown up students when I was such a small woman.”



- On the topic of importance of a personal career in comparison to family:
Four out of six of the men preferred their career.
One out of four women preferred their career.
The division is detailed in the following diagram:



- Regarding development of career in the long run we can see that aspirations of female heads to advance to higher positions is identical to that of male heads. Most of them are interested in occupying high positions in the Ministry of Education, opting to leave the system and build private businesses of education, combining their present position with additional roles in the educational system.

Management style:

- When the interviewees were asked whether their service in the army had any effect on their style of management, 50% answered that this had no effect whatsoever. Another 50% said that service in the army affected their style of management:

Deputy director 2: “The effect was in the following: professional attitude, assuming responsibility, planning and organizing.”

Manager 1: “I gained experience, maturity, ‘know how’ in managing teams of staff and supervising their work.”

- 100% of the male heads testified that their style of management was not changed in order to adjust to the style of management of the organization. 50%

of female heads testified that their style of management was not changed whereas another 50% said their style changed.

A regional manageress: “Management is an activity that requires learning and adjusting to the situation, the organization and the bodies you work with. Therefore my style changed.”

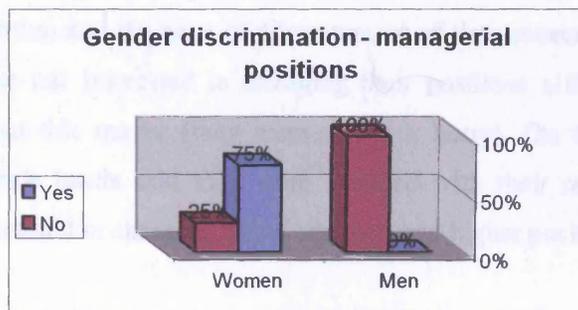
Manager 2: “Due to the fact that I hold a management position, the need in adjusting to the organizational style of management seemed to be obvious”.

Discrimination tracks:

- When the interviewees were asked if they were aware or exposed to gender discrimination in getting advancement to managerial positions, 100% of the male heads said “No”. Also 25% of female heads said “No” but 75% of the women said “Yes” and some of them mentioned that this was done in an indirect and implicit way.

Regional manageress: “There is no demonstrated or declared discrimination yet to this day all senior managers in ORT – an educational system whose employees are mostly women – are men. Also in all forums where decisions are taken there is a majority of men.”

Why in Bold?



- To the question, how you ensure that women in your organization receive encouragement to advance, the researcher paid particular attention in listening to the answers of senior managers (deputy directors and region managers). Below there are quotes of some of the answers:

Deputy director 1: “There is no discrimination in the organization – neither in the way it is practically run nor in the procedures of work. Most of the advancements for managers of schools are women.

Deputy director 2: “I am looking into the matter of integration and advancement of women to high positions in my organization although there is a lot to be done in that matter.”

Regional manager: “The encouragement is identical and we do not make a distinction or take a special attitude regarding women.”

Regional manageress: “ I employ personal encouragement to convince the woman to dare and advance.”

Findings – part 2 – Opinions, attitudes and perceptions

Career course:

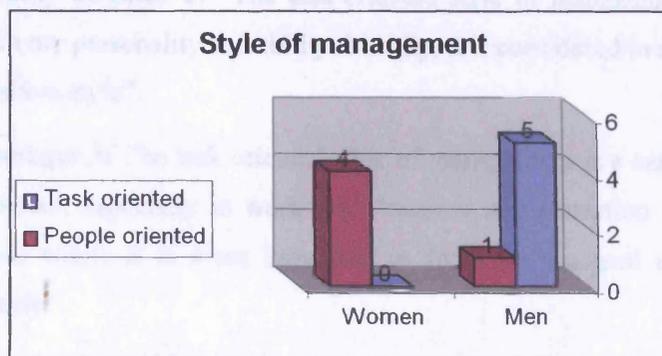
- 100% of the male heads argued that they were very satisfied with their present position and the pace of advancement of their career. For the short term they were not interested in changing their positions although they had thoughts about this matter (they were not in a hurry). On the other hand, 100% of female heads said they were satisfied with their present position but were interested in changing it and advancing to higher positions.

Style of management:

- Five out of six of the men defined their style of management as task oriented and one as people oriented. 4 out of 4 women defined their style of management as people oriented.

Regional manageress: “I believe that with happy people it is possible to attain more. Therefore, all my efforts focus on advancing this objective, making happiness in the work role possible.

Manageress 2: “ It is based on proper human relations, namely, less encounters and less initiatives for advancements. The interpersonal interaction is very important.”



- Male heads defined the following characteristics needed for success in a managerial career: hard-work, willingness to work hard, fairness, professionalism, leadership, commitment, insistence on quality, output, ability to manage a team, ability to adjust, personal example, diligence, motivation, skills, serious and deep judgment, education, patience and tolerance.
- Female heads defined the following factors and characteristics needed for success in a managerial career: integrity, devotion, perseverance, showing true interest in people, adjusting tasks to the potential ability of people in the field, orientation on people, organizational ability, assertivity, charisma, knowledge in the relevant fields, good interaction, dedication to work, personal example,

? assertion?

ability to take an overview of the situation, dividing one's attention, love of people, openness and tolerance, organizing one's time, ability to work in a team, ability to delegate power, assuming responsibility.

- To the question whether the style of management of the interviewees were catalysts or obstacles in advancement of one's career, all men supported a task-oriented style of management. They thought this was a catalyst in advancing their career.

Deputy director 1: "The task oriented style of management is perceived in the organization as positive, particularly in the Israeli culture where the common style of management is the military style."

Deputy director 2: "The task-oriented style of management is coordinated with my personality and ability. Luckily, it is considered in my organization as positive style".

Manager 3: The task oriented style of management is a catalyst in advancing a career, especially in work with teachers and education in underprivileged areas where it is more important to focus on the goal rather than on the people."

Fifty percent of female heads supported a management style that focused on people as a catalyst since they thought it was a more effective style of management. The other 50% thought it was a hindrance.

Manageress 2: "This style of management does not encourage initiatives."

Manageress 3: "Not so much the style of management as the declared feminist stand, and the consistent way by which I raise issues that relate to gender."

Discrimination tracks:

- When the interviewees were asked if there was a difference between their style of management and that of their men or women peers, 2 of the male heads said

there was no difference whereas the 4 others argued that there was probably a difference.

Deputy director 1: “They are more pedantic. Usually, they check all the possible options before they made any decision”.

Manager 2: “In certain cases the style of management directs a task and does not shy away from hurting people. This would not happen when the manager is a woman.”

Manager 3: “There is a difference. Some of my women deputies place an emphasis on human interaction.”

One hundred percent of the women said there was a difference.

Manageress 1: “ My style of management is more people oriented. It is less so in male peers.”

Manageress 3: “There are differences between the managerial styles of men and women that can be found in testimonies of the subordinates. The difference is in the ability and willingness to listen and a willingness to be critical of procedures and view the personal lives of the subordinates important, not merely their achievements.”

- To the question whether a woman needed to “prove her worth” in a managerial position, 5 of the 6 male heads said “No.” “She is like any other person and must prove to the same extent a man must.”

One said that certainly they needed to prove it “and they can.”

Three out of the four female heads said that “Yes” “a woman still needs to prove her worth in any field.”

One manageress said “No” – “If she is good she is worth it.”

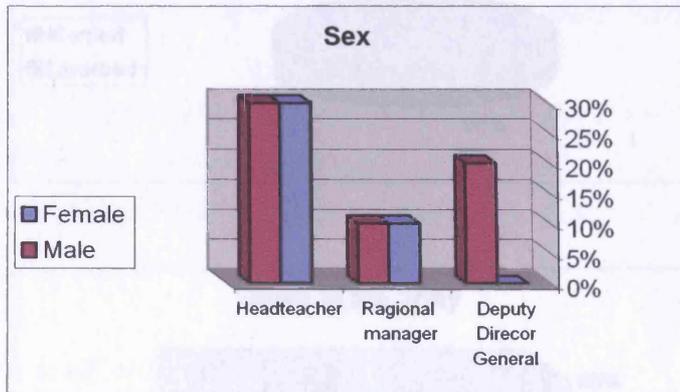
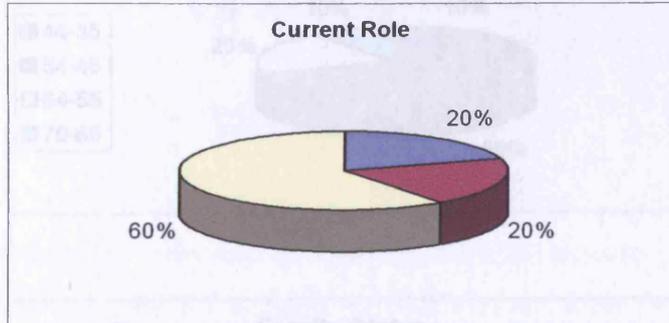
- To the statement that women in management were not different from men, the male heads said that women were more pedantic. Some added that it depended on the character of the manageress and her managerial style.

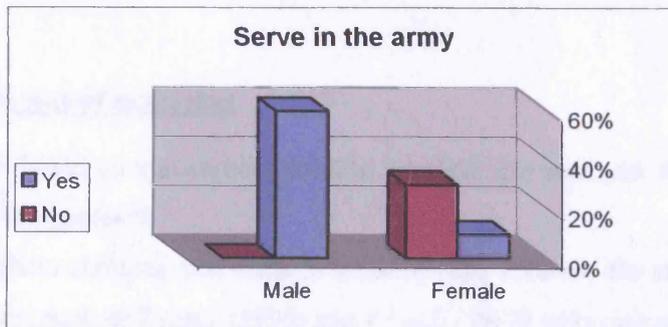
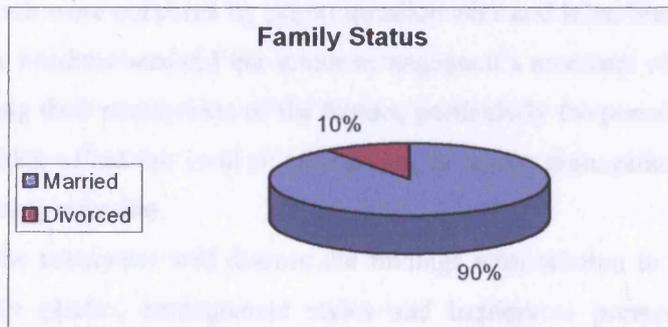
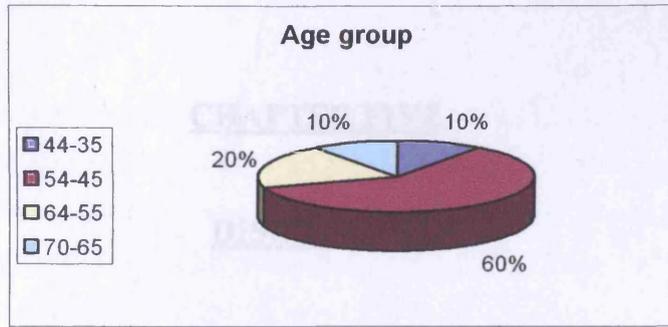
Female heads, on the other hand, gave two different answers that pointed to women being different from men in their behaviour and in their style of management:

Manageress 1: “They are different when the environment forces them to be different. They need to justify their existence and prove their abilities.”

Manageress 2: “Women are different when they allow themselves to forget about the attempt to prove that they are the same as men.”

Personal details





CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Introduction

In the previous chapter the researcher presented the research's findings (literally and graphically), which were collected by postal questionnaire and interviews conducted on the secondary headteachers and the senior management's members of ORT Israel network, regarding their perceptions of the factors, particularly the perceived style of management, which affect the level of promotion, to senior management positions within the teaching profession.

In this chapter the researcher will discuss the findings with relation to the relevant literature, namely gender, management styles and barriers to promotion that is presented in the literature review chapter, and with relation to the research's questions.

Women's/ Men's way of managing

The current study based on a main controversial question: Do men and women differ in their style of management?

There are researchers claiming that there is no difference between the sexes in their management styles, such as Kruger (1996) and Powell (1988) who claim that women heads hardly differ from their male colleagues in the way they manage, and that the few ones tend to cancel each other out. *differences?*

As opposed to them, there are researchers who identify differences between the 'masculine' style of management and the 'feminine' style of management *men* such as Gardiner & Tiggemann (1999) who show in their research that women not only tend to adopt a democratic leadership style, but they also appreciate the importance of the inter-personal communication. Further, they are more oriented to human relationships and less to tasks.

Moreover, differences were found in the management style of men heads and women heads in the teaching profession in areas, such as: relation, teaching and learning, community, communication, supervisory conferences, delivery, written evaluation, critical feedback and interpretation (Shakeshaft, 1995; Davis, 1998).

Coleman (1996) also concluded that there are differences in the context within male and female headteachers manage and pointed on the relevance of gender to the study of management. *which?*

As a preliminary phase the researcher had to examine this issue relating to the research's population, secondary headteachers in ORT Israel, in order to have a reasonable justification to continue the research and examine the issue of management style as influential factor on promotion to senior management positions. This issue was examined in the current study by two sub-questions relating to management style. The first question was: Is there a relationship between the sex of the secondary headteachers in ORT Israel and their perceptions of their gender identity?

Gender identity – evaluation of self perception

The research attempts to distinguish between *two* main types of management: the 'masculine' style of management and the 'feminine' style of management. Therefore, the researcher first examined the way ORT's headteachers rate themselves regarding their gender identity, as possessing the 'appropriate' characteristics (feminine and/or masculine) to their sex, by using the BSRI questionnaire (Bem, 1974).

According to the findings it was found that there is a significant difference between men and women in their identification with the masculine traits, such as: self-reliant, independent, assertive, strong personality and in their identification with the feminine traits, such as: cheerful, shy, loyal and sympathetic. Men heads identify in higher average from women heads with the masculine traits, while women heads identify in higher average from men heads with the feminine traits. Regarding the neutral traits,

such as: helpful, moody, happy, reliable, it was found that there is not a significant difference connecting men and women.

The findings showed affinity between women heads and the feminine traits and between men heads and the masculine traits, which point on the sex-typed people who according to Bem (1974) had internalized especially the stereotypes appropriate for their gender ('masculine' – men and 'feminine' – women). These findings allowed the researcher to continue the preliminary phase of the research and checked the relation between gender and management style, referring to two types of management styles: the task-oriented (instrumental) management style and the people-oriented (expressive) management style (Flieshman, 1953; Reddin, 1970; Blake & Mouton, 1978) and according to the second sub-question relating to management style:

Task-oriented or people-oriented style of management? Women and men tendencies

In the perceptions of the secondary headteachers in ORT Israel, do ORT Israel female secondary headteachers tend to manage in a people-oriented management style, and male tend to manage in a task-oriented management style?

Analyzing the findings of the revised version of the SBDQ questionnaire (Flieshman, 1953), it was found that there is a significant difference between men heads and women heads in the way they identify their style of management. Men identify in higher average from women with the task-oriented management style, while women identify in higher average from men with the people-oriented management style, as Powell (1988) emphasizes:

“Task-oriented behaviors by the leader such as initiating structure, setting goals, and making decisions are those most associated with the masculine stereotypes. People-oriented behaviors by the leader such as showing consideration toward subordinates, soliciting of subordinates' ideas, and

demonstrating concern for subordinates' satisfaction are those most associated with the feminine stereotype" (p.167).

The findings of the interviews strengthen the questionnaires' findings regarding the headteachers' identification of their style of management. 83% of men heads identified their style of management as task-oriented, while 100% of women heads identified their style of management as people-oriented. Women heads testified that they focus more on inter-personal interaction and human relationships and less on performing the task. In their perceptions of the traits/ factors which are most important in terms of management career success, men heads specified traits which characterized the task-oriented management style, such as: hard work, output, insistence on quality, serious and deep judgment, and that identified in Blake & Mouton (1978) theory as 9/1 style of management with it the manager emphasizes output and has little interest in people. Compared to them women heads specified traits which characterized more the people-oriented style of management, such as: orientation on people, ability to work in team, good interaction, showing true interests in people, and that identified in Blake & Mouton (1978) theory as 1/9 style with it the manager considers the feelings, thoughts and wishes of his underlings and take care that there should be a friendly atmosphere and pleasant work conditions.

To the question whether in their opinion there is a difference in management style between them and their colleagues, the headteachers testified that indeed there is a difference while they are strengthen the diagnosis between the two types of management styles:

Man head 2: "In certain cases the style of management directs a task and does not shy away from hurting people. This would not happen when the manager is a woman".

Women head 1: "My style of management is more people-oriented. It is less so in male peers".

The findings that came up from the sub-questions relating to management style pointed on difference in style of management of men heads and women heads in ORT Israel network, and on the statement that men tend to manage in task-oriented style while women tend to manage in people-oriented style. It was also found that male heads are higher in task orientation than female heads and that female heads are higher in people orientation from male heads. This finding contradicts the equity model (Etzion, 1984) which, assumes that there are not any differences between men and women's style of management, and strengthens the complimentary model (Etzion, 1984) which assumes that there are differences between men and women in their style of management attributed to their different gender.

From these findings it can be summarized that task-orientation has significant relationship with masculinity (with male heads) and people-orientation has significant relationship with femininity (with female heads).

These findings strengthen Bem's (1974) claim that genderial orientation has unique influence on people behavior, that is to say, that variance in the managerial behavior can be explained by variance in the genderial orientation 'masculinity' and 'femininity'.

It was also implied from the interviewees' testimonies that the preferred style of management in the organization is the task-oriented style, namely, a good leader is a leader who emphasizes achieving organizational goals, as Ronk (1993) and Reay & Ball (2000) claim that woman who want to succeed in managerial roles must imitate the masculine style of management, especially in a society where the military-security system (which is unequal by nature) is central and projects on the public life. In light of this finding, examining the influence of style of management on promotion to senior positions at ORT Israel became more important and essential in order to

prevent the loss of valuable human capital and potentially effective leadership as Hall (2000) and Coleman (1996) emphasized.

can you check this spelling?
The justification to proceed with the research was found while receiving an answer supporting the complimentary model presented by Etzion (1984) relating to the controversial question of differences in management styles between the genders of the research's population. Therefore, the researcher proceeded to the second phase of the research, which attempted to examine the barriers to the progress of ORT Israel secondary headteachers, and especially the influence of the style of management as a factor on promotion to senior management positions.

Glass ceiling: barriers to women heads' promotion

The premise of this study is the fact that many women who are capable, well educated and achievement oriented are stopped on their way to the top. Women are starting to move up into management positions, but they reach a certain point and do not seem to go any further. It seems that the 'glass ceiling' is no longer made of glass, but it is rather made of concrete as Hanik (1995) claims. (It is also based on the liberal feminism, which sees all people as equal therefore there should be equality for all in gaining equal opportunity, equal pay for equal work, and equal protection under the law.

*what is "it"
(glass ceiling
or the premise
of this study?)*

According to the literature, the reason for the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon is not single and unequivocal. There is variety of barriers that Still (1995) divides into four groups: cultural, organizational, individual and governmental. Some of the researchers focus the problem with the women, some as a problem in men's attitudes, some focus the problem on the nature of constraints and some ^{on} structural and cultural factors.

In the first sub-question relating to barriers in promotion the researcher examined what are the perceptions of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management

in ORT Israel of the barriers to the progress of ORT Israel secondary headteachers to senior management positions?

The findings raised a prominent and unequivocal answer. Male heads did not encounter any barriers to promotion during their career while women heads testified that they encountered various barriers.

Male heads testified that they did not encounter any barriers to promotion during their career (accept one manager who claimed that he encountered barrier due to his advanced age). In addition, men heads testified that during their whole career they held managerial positions, such as: department manager, track manager, supervisors or member of the board, and that they are very satisfied with their present position and with the pace of advancement of their career, so that for the short term they were not interested in changing their positions. Women heads testified on opposite situation. All of them claimed that they encountered barriers during their career due to the fact they are women with all its implications, starting with barriers relating to 'culture of motherhood', 'domestic responsibilities' through 'masculine networks', 'sex segregation' until 'social policy'.

Woman head 1: "Due to my being a woman I needed to invest extra energy in order to persuade and make men feel that they should accept my authority. There were also pressures and demands of the home – involvement in the life of the children".

Woman head 2: "In each open tender I applied to I found a man who took the position. I was asked how I could be in charge of grown up students when I was such a small women".

Although they all seem to be satisfied with their managerial position they expressed un-satisfaction with the pace of their career progress. Women heads during their career as opposed to men heads held low positions, such as: teachers, counselors,

heads of discipline or heads of age level, and all of them expressed interest in changing their current position and advance to senior positions.

It seems according to women heads' testimonies that gender role and stereotypes have a lot of influence on promotion and evaluation of managerial performance. Typically a good manager is still described in traditionally masculine terms (Frank, 1988; Hellman et al., 1989; Schein & Mueller, 1992; Perry et al., 1994). Women seem to be deficient and men are considered as the norm as Travis (1991) claims, and as the liberal feminism, ^[claims or argues] which perceives the roots of the problem in the existence of stereotypes and prejudice pertaining women. The stereotype perception is looking at people in a way that does not perceive in them individuals but judges them only on the basis of belonging to a certain group.

The general perception of women heads is that there is an indirect and inexplicit discrimination in promotion to senior positions.

Regional manageress: "There is no demonstrated or declared discrimination. Yet to this day all senior management in ORT – an educational system whose employees are mostly women – are men. Also in all forums where decisions are taken there is a majority of men".

Since women are members of minority group at senior management they find it hard to cross boundaries of the occupational status between the groups and therefore they become 'tokens' as Kantor (1977) defines.

Regional manageress: "I employ personal encouragement to convince women to dare and advance".

One of the deputy directors also strengthens the above mention findings unconsciously by claiming to un-discrimination in the ORT organization.

“There is no discrimination in the organization – neither in the way it is practically run nor in the procedures of work. Most of the advancement for managers of schools are women”.

It seems that women heads need to deal with several factors that hinder their progress and which are in line with Izraeli & Adler (1994) four perspectives: the differences between men and women on a personal level, the influence of power in the organization, the organization context and institutionalized discrimination.

Since the research was undertaken at ORT Israel, the researcher related in this study to two additional unique factors which characterized the Israeli society and considered to be a cultural-social barriers to promotion – the military service and the family.

Israeli society's unique barriers

In Israel, the military character of the society and gender roles, which derives from them, creates the infrastructure for class stratification, which placed men above women even in the absence of war. The militarization procedures act to preserve a status of masculine control and citizenship is defined by it. It appears that the social phenomenon related to women in promotion in society in general is projected also into the army, such as: ‘occupational discrimination’, also in the army, most of the women’s professions are ‘pink tinted’ professions: teaching, training, communication, office work and paramedical professions; ‘glass ceiling phenomenon’, women can look up and progress, apparently to the top of the pyramid but in reality they encounter a hidden ceiling much before they reach the top and ‘glass elevator’, professions that are feminine and are traditionally identified as such, however when there are men in those pink tinted professions they succeed to ascend faster in the ‘elevator’ and to reach the top of the pyramid.

it?

Punctuation?
Would be
better as 2
sentences.

It was also found that the army is an important opportunity to develop social capital access to information, support, positions and functions in the civilian society (Nevo & Shor, 2001). Both men and women use these connections to obtain employment and other advantages but it appears that men have more numerous and more useful connections: the duration of their service is longer, the reserve service gathers people from all strata of society, senior officers meet civilian elites and prepare a second career while still serving in the army. One of the evidences to this claim is a phenomenon in Israel of military people who recently retire and flow down into managerial positions in the educational system. There is no doubt that the army service ^{is} considered to be a necessary stage in each Israeli citizen's life (which able him/ her to acquire a professional experience) and in the opportunities it obtains in the civilian sector.

Data regarding the secondary headteachers in ORT Israel showed that 100% of men heads served in the army in management and operational positions. Some of them also testified that their service in the army affected their style of management.

Deputy director 2: "The effect was in the following: professional attitude, assuming responsibility, planning and organizing".

Man head 1: "I gained experience, maturity, 'know-how' in managing teams of staff and supervising their work".

Compared to them 75% of women heads did not serve the army at all and the only manager who served hold an official position. In this case, it seems that also the 'few opportunities' that women heads could use namely, acquiring professional experience and trying to make connections during the army service in order to 'open doors' to senior managerial positions at the public sector were irrelevant.

Israel is also a family-centered society. Working women in Israel use a number of strategies to cope with the term 'conflict of allegiance' that arises because there is a normative expectation that a woman will give priority to her family (Izraeli, 1998). In Israel, children are not an issue open to negotiation. Izraeli (1998) also claims that one of the strategies women use is avoiding demanding or 'greedy' occupations. They gravitate toward part-time jobs and jobs that are synchronized with the children's school, such as teaching, nursing or social work. Management has none of the characteristics that make it easy for women to juggle her multiple roles. Management is resistant to part-time work and even demands much beyond official work hours.

The findings regarding the importance of the personal career compared to home life showed that 66% men heads preferred their career to the family, while only 25% of women heads preferred their career to the family. The women heads also testified that one of the barriers that they encountered during their career was their commitment to home especially to the children and the family. The commitment and choice of women to work in roles or occupations that enabled them to control their schedules and flexible working hours help them to cope indeed by choice but necessarily by the Israeli society's definition to their main private role which is raising children. Therefore, they have a problem to compete with the fact that management, as an occupation, relates closely to a masculine lifestyle (people who free of family responsibility are physically available during long daily hours). They live in two conflicted patterns of behaviors, a symptom that Braiker (1986) defines as 'E type' – the achievement-oriented woman who is 'Everything to Everybody' in the private world and in the work world.

According to Herzog (1999) the genderial settlement, which distinguish between the private field and the public field constitute a main cultural pattern of thinking in the Israeli society. Based on this distinction gender roles and their preferences are being

see over

designed, their promotional choices to positions in the public field and their bargaining ability in the political arena.

Can you reshape this sentence to make it clear?

It must be emphasize^d that although^a women's domestic role is perceived as barrier or obstacle to her professional progress, it enables her to develop managerial skills, such as: organizing, rhythm and time division, finding balance of opposite demands, teaching, consultation, leadership, supervision and treating disturbances as Helgesen (1990) argues.

Peters (2001) claims that part of the problem (why women are not moving into the executive suite at a faster rate) is the discrimination and organizational obstacles supported by historical and cultural norms, which seem to be obvious, common and visible as was raised from the findings. However, as was mentioned, it is only part of the problem. It seems that as much as the rate of women in the work place is higher, conflicts and tensions are revealed between the sexes, un satisfaction of the workers and a tendency to exclude women from fields which^{are} characterized by high prestige, authority and influence by barriers that are usually invisible (Maume, 1999).

Feminine style of management: an influential barrier to promotion?

Fondas (1997) described a phenomenon called 'the feminization of management' which described management more and more in terms of feminine style, such as sharing responsibility, helping and developing others and building a connected network of relationships (people-oriented style). Although it^{is} considered^{as} being an effective management style and women are currently being called 'the managers of the 21st century' (Rosen et al., 1989; Schwartz, 1992; Fisher, 1998), it is perceived as barrier to promotion among middle managers (Izraeli, 1988; Arnold & Shinew, 1996; Reay & Ball, 2000; Peters, 2001).

Rosner (1990) claims that the first generation of senior women managers who broke the 'glass ceiling' had to adopt a masculine management style the same style of

'Command and Control'. But the younger generation of women already demonstrates the special feminine style of 'Interaction and Transformation', which according to Peters (2001) enabled women to reach mid-management levels but preventing them from breaking through the glass ceiling.

In order to examine the feminine style of management as a barrier to promotion, the researcher presented the second sub-question relating to barriers in promotion:

In the perception of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management in ORT Israel is there a relationship between the style of management of ORT Israel secondary headteachers and their promotion within the teaching profession?

As was already presented in analyzing the findings relating to style of management, it was found that women heads identified with the people-oriented style of management, while men heads identified with the task-oriented style of management. In addition, evidences of the interviewees showed that women have a 'feminine style'. They emphasize the importance of human relationships and creating a supportive and co-operative climate that making the team members satisfied and happy.

According to Peters (2001) women understand the importance of teamwork and the fact that personal success is dependent on the support of others. Therefore, they considered being team-oriented.

Regional manageress: "I believe that with happy people it is possible to attain more. Therefore, all my efforts focus on advancing this objective, making happiness in the work role possible".

Woman head 2: "It is based on proper human relations, namely, less encounters and less initiatives for advancements. The interpersonal interaction is very important".

Women heads also testified that according to the testimonies of their subordinates, women heads have the ability and willingness to listen and a willingness to be critical of procedures and view the personal lives of the subordinates important, not merely, their achievements. Male heads also testified in the interviews that there are differences between their style of management (task-oriented) and women heads' style, while they are emphasizing that women heads are more people-oriented. To their claim women will never hurt people while performing a task (^{which?} what could happen when the manager is a man), they are more pedantic, checking all possible options before they make a decision and they put more emphasis on human relations.

put this word in quotes because one of your respondents used it.

Male head 2: "In certain cases the style of management directs a task and does not shy away from hurting people. This would not happen when the manager is a woman".

Male head 3: "There is a difference. Some of my women deputies place an emphasis on human interaction".

Deputy director 1: "They are more pedantic. Usually they check all the possible options before they make a decision".

Since management is commonly conceptualized as 'masculine', concerned with 'male' qualities of rationality and instrumentally (Blackmore, 1993; Blackmore & Kenway, 1993; Weiner, 1995), it should be suggested that women, as well as men, promoted to senior management positions will aspire to ways of managing which draw on styles widely perceived to be masculine rather than feminine (Reay & Ball, 2000).

Peters (2001) also suggests that in order to progress up the management ladder there are some changes required from women that would help them to overcome the obstacles (basic personality characteristics combined with management behavior and

strategies) they create for themselves. They should start focusing energy, start taking risks, stop getting mired in details, stop rescuing and mothering and stop making things right or wrong. Although she supports the feminine style of management, which considered being more effective, she recommends (on) adjusting and adapting senior male behaviors. ?

Male heads testified that their style of management was not changed in order to adjust the ORT organizational style of management. The only manager that identify his style of management as people oriented claimed that he had to modify his style and forced to use more authority that is “decented” by his position. Fifty percent of women heads testified that their style of management was not changed whereas the other 50% claimed that their style was changed.

Regional manageress: “Management is an activity that requires learning and adjusting to the situation, the organization and the bodies you work with. Therefore, my style was changed”.

Woman head 1: “Due to the fact that I hold a management position, the need in adjustment to the organizational style of management seemed to be obvious”.

It is evidenced from the findings that those women heads acknowledged the need in changing and adjusting their style of management to the organizational style of management which focus on measured outcomes rather than organizational processes as implied from all the findings, and as Reay & Ball (2000) argue, that the major transformation that has taken place in educational and other public sector organizations, that is, the introduction of the market form, has had the effect of legitimating and encouraging assertive, instrumental and competitive behavior.

To the question whether the style of management of the heads was catalyst or obstacle in advancement of their career, all men heads supported that task-oriented style of management and perceived it as a catalyst in advancing their career.

Male head 3 (people-oriented): “The task-oriented style of management is a catalyst in advancing a career, especially in work with teachers and education in underprivileged areas where it is more important to focus on the goal rather than on the people”.

Deputy director 1: “The task-oriented style of management is perceived in the organization as positive, particularly in Israeli culture where the common style of management is the military style”.

Deputy director 2: “The task oriented style of management is coordinated with my personality and ability. Luckily, it is considered in the organization as positive style”.

Fifty percent of women heads supported their management style that focuses on people oriented style of management as a catalyst. The other 50% perceived it as a hindrance.

Woman head 2: “This style of management does not encourage initiatives”.

Woman head 3: “Not so much the style of management as the declared feminist stand, and the consistent way by which I raise issues that relate to gender”.

According to the secondary headteachers and senior management in ORT Israel (although they did not perceived it as a barrier they encountered during there career),

there is a relationship between style of management of ORT Israel secondary headteachers and their promotion. All male heads perceived the task-oriented management style as catalyst to promotion in their career, especially in the ORT Israel organization with its task-oriented management style considered to be positive, there is more attention given to monitoring of work, to speedy decision-making, to corporate culture and responsiveness to the customer, but arguably less to democratic decision-making, consultation and participation, and in militarized society of command and control. Fifty percent of women heads perceived their feminine style of management (people-oriented) as a barrier, according to the almost absolute absence of women from senior positions in the ORT Israel organization, no matter how much they are ambitious, talented and willing to invest in their career. The other 50% interpret the advantages and effectiveness of the feminine style as catalyst for promotion. A transfer from military management, authority-hierarchy to more human management – much more emphasize on human relationship and on workers' involvement in decisions – softer management as Fridman (1990) defines.

X

All women heads have the feeling that they need to prove themselves and their worth in order to be recognized as good managers. All of them testified that women are different from men in management presenting two main explanations:

- It seems that women are different when the environment forces them to be different. They should justify their existence and prove their abilities (behave like men and not like themselves – like women) as the reform approach emphasizes, Krek (2003).
- Women are different when they allow themselves to forget about the attempt to prove that they are the same as men as the resistance approach argues, Krek (2003).

A concept change is needed. Jerby (1996) believes that the way to liberate woman is not by comparing her to man, but by getting social acknowledgement in her unique traits and her unique contribution to human society.

It is worth trying to release some of the concepts relating to men and women traits at work, and enjoy the logic and differences between the gender difference in thinking and in behavior, which can lead to effectiveness and success of men and women in leadership.

Conclusion

This chapter presents the answers to the research's questions of this study, according to the findings and the relevant theories. At the preliminary stage, the researcher examined the way ORT Israel's headteachers rate themselves regarding their gender identity, by using the BSRI questionnaire and found affinity between women heads and the feminine traits and between men heads and the masculine traits. He also checked the relation between gender and management styles by using the SBDQ questionnaire and interviews (the findings of the questionnaire were triangulated with the findings of the interviews) and found that ORT female secondary headteachers tend to manage in a people-oriented management style and men tend to manage in a task-oriented management style.

In the second phase of the research, the participants expressed their perceptions of the barriers to progress to senior management positions. Women heads' testimonies showed that gender role, stereotypes and cultural-social barriers such as family have a lot of influence on promotion and evaluation of managerial performance. The participants' perceptions regarding the relationship between styles of management and promotion pointed on the style of management as an influential factor implying that task-oriented style considered to be catalyst, while people-oriented style apparently is a barrier but an invisible one.

The conclusions and recommendations of this study are provided in the next chapter of this thesis.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This chapter will provide conclusions relating to research in this study. It will restate the purpose of the research showing how the findings and the answers to the research's questions contribute to knowledge and the ORT Israel network. A critique of the research and a possible research agenda offer further perspectives. Thus, these conclusions and recommendations relate directly to the reasons (including professional reasons), which the researcher had for choosing this topic for doctoral study.

Aim of research

This research attempted to explain the phenomenon of 'Glass Ceiling' in the teaching profession at ORT Israel organization in order to prevent the loss of valuable human capital and potentially effective leadership as Hall (2000) and Coleman (1996) emphasize. It identified the perceptions of the secondary headteachers and of the senior management of ORT Israel, of the factors, particularly the perceived style of management, which affect the level of promotion to senior management positions within the teaching profession in ORT Israel network.

The research was undertaken on 73 secondary headteachers and four senior management members of ORT Israel. All of selected headteachers manage Jewish and secular schools in order to prevent biased data. The research did not concentrated on people of androgynous identity due to the complexity of this type of gender identity, but on feminine/ masculine identity according to Bem (1974). It related to Blake & Mouton (1978) theory of two-dimensional division of management according to task-orientation (tasks in the organization) and people-orientation (human relationship), which succeeds to describe men and women managerial behavior. The research

presents various factors and barriers influencing on promotion to senior management positions with special emphasize on style of management. It also considered the constraining impact of two factors that are unique to Israel as modern, industrialized and democratic society: family centered-culture and the military service. The research based on the liberal feminism, which perceived the roots of the problem in the existence of stereotypes and prejudice pertaining to women and believes that all that is needed is to correct the existing situation – to work within the existing system and to reform it.

Factual conclusions

There are four main conclusions respectively dealing with gender identity, management styles and barriers to promotion to senior management positions of senior headteachers in ORT Israel.

- Female heads relate to a higher average of feminine traits, while male heads identify to a higher average with masculine traits.
- Women heads differ from male heads in their management style. While women heads tend to manage in a people-oriented style of management, male heads tend to manage in a task-oriented style of management.
- There are various common and visible barriers, perceived by ORT Israel's management to women heads' promotion to senior management positions, such as discrimination and organizational obstacles supported by historical and cultural norms.
- Management style is perceived by ORT Israel's management as a factor, which affects the level of promotion to senior management positions, but it seems to be an invisible factor.

These findings form the basis ^{from} from which conceptual conclusions are drawn.

Conceptual conclusions

Drawing upon the conceptual framework for the research, the evidences allow the researcher to advance the following conceptual conclusions:

The research shows that there is interaction between biological sex (men/ women) and gender identity (masculinity/ femininity). Male heads are higher in masculinity (active-instrumental traits) and women heads are higher in femininity (nurturing-expressive traits). Moreover, it appears that there is a connection between masculinity and task-orientation with male heads. The biological sex, masculinity and the interaction between them has a unique influence on task-orientation, namely, men heads are higher ~~from~~ women heads in their tendency to the task-oriented style of management. There is also positive connection between femininity and people-orientation with female heads. Female differ from male heads in their tendency to be people-oriented in their style of management. This confirms Bem's (1974) claim that sexual orientation has unique influence on people behavior, namely, variance in managerial behavior can be explained by variance in sexual orientation. These findings contradict the equity model (Etzion, 1984), which assumes that there are no differences between men and women in their style of management and that there is one way to manage, and women should perform the managerial role like men do. Rather, the findings strengthen the complimentary model, which assumes that there are differences between men and women in their style of management. To its claim women and men excel in different fields and there is a different patterns' value in the contribution of each one of them. The research also shows that women heads encountered various barriers during their career: cultural barriers, organizational barriers, individual barriers and governmental barriers as mentioned by Still (1995). The research was undertaken within a different national culture (the Israeli culture) therefore, it expands the vision and the investigation of the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon in ORT Israel beyond the common barriers, Still (1995). The research emphasizes the cultural dimensions of family centered-culture and the army service that are considered to be hindering factors for women progressing into senior

than?

e

Not clear

management positions. The current study is the first research that ^{has} examined in Israel the style of management as an influential factor on the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon in the teaching profession. Evidence shows ^s that style of management is perceived by ORT Israel's management as an influential factor on promotion to senior management positions, which confirm Peters ⁱ (2001) theory regarding women's style of management. Moreover it appears to be an invisible factor.

Recommendations

Although and because women are currently being called 'the managers of the 21st century and considered to have behaviors and attributes which contribute to effective management, a change is needed in order to help them break through the 'glass ceiling' in the teaching profession in ORT Israel network.

- As proposed by Izraeli (1988) and Peters (2001), women heads have to examine their behavior all the time and make sure that they are not too much 'masculine' and that they are not too much 'feminine'. This study emphasizes the need for awareness in building programs of development for headteachers unique to women. The research findings show that women heads behave differently from male heads in the field of management and therefore, it might be that special training programs need to be developed that would strengthen the unique style of women heads and complement the 'required skills' in order to succeed in senior management positions. Jerby (1996) believes that the way to liberate woman is not by comparing her to man, but by getting social acknowledgment in her unique traits and her unique contribution to human society. Moreover, programs that may be developed for women heads should enable women to express their special style and encourage them to stop imitating the masculine model (task-oriented style), which blurs their identity. If this happened, stress might be prevented. Greater numbers of women heads might be recruited into senior positions in ORT Israel organization. Women

who recognize their potential would be able to make use of it, to channel it for the benefit of the organization and to their own benefit, instead of investing their energies in imitating the masculine style or in blocking their uniqueness because it might not be acknowledged or accepted.

This recommendation contrasting the reform approach presented by Krek (2003), which expresses the idea of 'fix the woman' – teaching her the skills and qualifications needed for management according to the masculine model as fit to the organizational, managerial and businesslike world.

- It is worth trying to release some of the concepts relating to men and women traits at work, and enjoy the logic and differences between genders – differences in thinking and in behavior, which can lead to effectiveness and success of men and women in educational management. As recommended by the complimentary model presented by Etzion (1984) that the unique contribution of men and women must be expressed and acknowledged in order to search for synthesis between them and by that create tougher and better management processes. Shakeshaft (1999) appeals to accept women's work as part of the society by creating a combined perception of human experience, which, based on variance and differences and not on generalization of the experience and values of the dominant group. Acknowledging women's work as equal to this of men and giving the appropriate appreciation to their style of management and work which based on norms that considered to be attributed to women, might contribute to reinforcement of democratization procedures in ORT Israel network.

ORT Israel network, which is the biggest educational-technological network in Israel and is approximately 10% of the senior education of the education system in Israel, has a majority of women headteachers but all its senior management are men. Because of this it loses valuable human capital (well educated, highly skilled and with

an open-minded and intelligent management approach) and potentially effective leadership as Hall (2000) Coleman (1996) claim. There is actually institutionalized discrimination due to various barriers including style of management that should be admitted and be committed to change in order to avoid ignoring women heads' contribution to the organization and to themselves.

Critique of the research

This research was intended to provide richly textured descriptions of ORT Israel's secondary headteachers and senior management perceptions regarding the style of management as an influential factor on promotion to senior management positions within the teaching profession in ORT Israel. Adopting an ethnographic approach allowed the research to achieve this. Whilst this ^{is the} strength of this thesis, a limitation of ethnographic research is that generalization cannot be offered due to the inductive form of research that considers human experience in its unique whole context. However, this choice of research approach was appropriate to achieve specified but limited aims.

The interpretive paradigm in which the researcher located her research topic, saw style of management as an influential factor on promotion, but ^{an} invisible one, as emerging from individualistic experience and perception. The reality was built out of interpretations made both by the researcher and the investigated. The research approach followed from this point.

Had the researcher assumed that style of management is an influential factor on promotion as a fact, this paradigm would have directed her towards different issues in research design. As a result, the methodology, methods, framework and conclusions would all have been different.

Moreover, the researcher could have chosen to design the research within a positivistic paradigm in order to ensure that her conclusions were generalizable. If the

approach would have been followed then the conclusions would have been reliable but that would have lacked the high validity attempted in this thesis.

The researcher believes that this research could have been performed by in depth research by observations on headteachers and on management's members over period of several years (multi-years research). This could have identified the headteachers style of management and reflect the influence of the management style of their career's progress.

This research acknowledges the lacuna in the literature on the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon in the teaching profession (presented only as an example for the phenomenon in a feminine occupation) including statistical data on managers. For this reason the researcher drew upon literature from other disciplines. It would have been possible to read more broadly within the business literature, which gives considerable attention to the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon. This would have allowed the researcher to design her research with different parameters.

Research agenda

The current study dealt with the issue of style of management ('masculine style' and 'feminine style') as an influential factor on the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon within the teaching profession. It is recommended in future studies to perform a diagnostic qualitative research on feminine style of management beyond the main characteristics and existing styles. This would expand the existing knowledge in the field of feminine management. Women leaders and successful women managers can be researched by in depth researches and by observations on successful models in management. Moreover, research in this direction will enable the development of new theories in the field of management, based on feminine management. Possibly, while masculine management was investigated, some of the characteristics were not taken into account

since it perceived as feminine characteristics, which are not suitable to masculine managers and masculine organizations.

Recent research concluded that women have a unique influence on organizations and report on the feminization of management. Possibly researching feminine management will lead to innovative discoveries in the field of leadership and management for all. Future research which will focus on studying the influence of women managers on organizations and on their units might discover interesting differences between them and men managers and acknowledge the uniqueness of each one of these styles. Moreover, organizations in the future will know not only how to extract in a better way the feminine potential of women managers, but will also know how to insert manager, man and woman in a wiser way according to the organization's needs and to the management abilities. In future research it is also important to focus on managerial and leadership characteristics which are unique to the Israeli women in the Israeli managerial reality. No doubt, the Israeli culture, military culture and a culture which encourages family values, creates a unique environment for woman manager and leads her to different behaviors from these of women managers in the rest of the world.

Contribution to knowledge

This research has provided evidence, which contributes to the expansion of the existing knowledge in the field of management styles at all and of women managers particularly. The current study is the first research which checked in Israel the influence of management style on the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon in the teaching profession. It was found, according to the perceptions of ORT Israel's headteachers and of senior management that style of management is an influential factor on headteachers' promotion to senior management positions in ORT Israel. Moreover, it was found that style of management seems to be an invisible factor.

what is "it"?

Due to the fact that a lot of research has been based on masculine population Alper (1974) and it was generalized to women managers' population, there are doubts regarding the adaptation of existing management theories and their generalization to feminine management styles. Therefore, it encourages the acknowledgement in the unique characteristics of women and in (reserving) the variance in their managerial behavior in order to extract the potential concealed in women and in this to increase their contribution to the organization and to themselves.

the research?
> meaning of "reserving"

The research gives prominence to the need in building programs of development for managers that would be unique for women, which will enable them to express their unique style, the successful style according to Rosner (1990) not in spite of but by right of their feminine traits, and encourage them to stop imitating the masculine style. This contradicts the reform approach presented by Krek (2003) and Reay & Ball's (2000) suggestion of modifying some if not all of the qualities traditionally associated with femininity and aspire to ways of masculine managing in order to promote to senior management positions.

The research exposes the fact that even in the 21st century, in a modernistic, industrialized, democratic but military society such as the Israeli society, there are biases in ORT Israel in the gender field. It emphasizes the importance of training programs for managers which will be released of genderial biases and that the content of the courses will be adjusted to the unique population, which will take into account the feminine components in management.

The research also expands the existing knowledge in the field of barriers to promotion relating to the unique factors of the Israeli society: family centered-culture and army service, which seem to be barriers to promotion in the management field including in the teaching profession.

Exposing style of management as an influential barrier on promotion to senior management position within the teaching profession provided a new lens to understand and explain the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon in ORT Israel network.

This para could be longer
This is an important summary.

The main findings link closely with the views of the liberal feminism, which believes that all that is needed is to correct the existing situation – to work within the existing system and to reform if (not to separate the masculine method and to build a system for women only, but to enable gaining equality for all).

Punctuation:
Do you need parentheses?

To conclude, this research ^{as} the resistance approach presented by Krek (2003) advocates the 'feminine advantage', the feminine way, which in the past perceived as disadvantage constitute today an advantage in organizations. It contributes to a change in the perception of women and femininity, emphasizing the values of the feminine traits and their unique contribution ^{of} women in positions of authority and leadership to the organizations and to themselves.

Do you mean "like" ?
"as" by ?

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ORT ISRAEL HEADTEACHERS

Part A

Before you a list of traits and adjectives, which are used to describe people.

You are asked to determine for each of these characteristics the extent to which it is describe you.

To perform this determination, note an 'X' in the appropriate column.

The purpose is to know how people really feel, therefore try to answer in accurate and honest way.

	Never or almost true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually True	Always or almost always true
Self-reliant							
Yielding							
Helpful							
Defends own beliefs							
Cheerful							
Moody							
Independent							
Shy							
Conscientious							
Athletic							
Affectionate							
Theatrical							
Assertive							
Flatterable							
Happy							
Strong personality							
Loyal							

	Never or almost true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually True	Always or almost always true
Unpredictable							
Forceful							
Feminine							
Reliable							
Analytical							
Sympathetic							
Jealous							
Has leadership abilities							
Sensitive to the needs of others							
Truthful							
Willing to take risks							
Understanding							
Secretive							
Makes decisions easily							
Compassionate							
Sincere							
Self-Sufficient							
Eager to smooth hurt feelings							
Conceited							

	Never or almost true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually True	Always or almost always true
Dominant							
Soft spoken							
Likeable							
Masculine							
Warm							
Solemn							
Willing to take a stand							
Tender							
Friendly							
Aggressive							
Gullible							
Inefficient							
Acts as a leader							
Childlike							
Adaptable							
Individualistic							
Does not use harsh language							
Unsystematic							
Competitive							

	Never or almost true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually True	Always or almost always true
Loves children							
Tactful							
Ambitious							
Gentle							
conventional							

Adapted from Bem (1974)

Part B

Before you a list of patterns of behaviors. You are asked to note the appropriate column the extent to which each of the behaviors describes you as a manager.

	Always	often	occasionally	seldom	Never
Refuses to give in when people disagree with you					
Expresses appreciation when one of your foremen does a good job					
Easy to understand you					
Stands up for your foremen even though it makes you unpopular.					
Sees that a foreman rewarded for a job well done					
Treats people under you without considering their feelings					
Tries to keep the foremen under you in good standing with those in higher authority					
Resists changes in ways of doing things					
Slow to accept new ideas					
Treats all your foremen as your equal					
Criticizes a specific act rather than a particular individual					
Willing to make changes					
Makes those under you feel at ease when talking with you					
Puts suggestions that are made by foremen under you into operation					

	Always	often	occasionally	seldom	Never
Gets the approval of your foremen on important matters before going ahead					
Rules with an iron hand					
Criticizes poor work					
Waits for your foremen to push new ideas before you do					
Assigns people under you to particular tasks					
Asks for sacrifices from your foremen for the good of the entire organization					
Demands more than your foremen can do					
Lets your foremen do their work the way they think best					
Insists that you be informed on decisions made by foreman under you					
Helps your foremen with their personal problems					
Criticizes your foremen in front of others					
Changes the duties of people under you without first talking it over with them					
"rides" the foreman who makes a mistake					
Refuses to explain your actions					
Acts without consulting your foremen first					
Tries out your new ideas					

	Always	often	occasionally	seldom	Never
Encourages slow-working foremen to greater effort					
Offers new approaches to problems					
Stresses the importance of high morale among those under you					
Encourages overtime work					
Talks about how much should be done					

Adapted from Fleishman (1953)

Part C

**Before you a personal questions and questions about your personal career as a manager.
You are asked to mark with a circle the appropriate answer.**

Gender

1. Male
2. Female

About you

1. Which organization do you manage ?

- One. junior-high school
- Two. high school
- Three. campus (junior-high school + high school)
- Four. college

2. Do you work:

- One. full time (over 30 hours per week)
- Two. part time (under 30 hours per week)
- Three. other (please specify)

3. What is your highest qualification ?

- One. qualified-senior-teacher
- Two. B.A
- Three. M.A or M.Sc
- Four. P.hd
- Five. Other (please specify)

4. Which age group are you in ?

- One. under 24
- Two. 25-34
- Three. 35-44
- Four. 45-54
- Five. 55-64
- Six. over 65

5. Are you:

- One. married / living with partner
- Two. divorced / separated
- Three. single
- Four. widow / widower

6. Is your salary the principal or secondary income in your household ?

- One. principal
- Two. secondary

7. Do you currently have any caring responsibilities ?

- One. no
- Two. children under 2 years
- Three. children 2-5 years
- Four. children 6-10 years
- Five. children 11-16 years
- Six. children over 16 years
- Seven. elderly dependent
- Eight. disabled dependent
- Nine. other (please specify)

About your career as a manager

8. If you have, or had, a caring responsibility, how do you feel that this has affected your career ?

- One. it has adversely affected your career
- Two. it has benefited my career
- Three. it has never affected my career
- Four. don't know

9. What were the main reasons why caring adversely affected your career ?
(please pick up 3 reasons)

- One. difficulty in working long hours
- Two. difficulty in working standard office hours
- Three. unable to travel
- Four. need to work locally
- Five. need to take frequent time off
- Six. considered potentially unreliable
- Seven. considered not to be a 'career person'.
- Eight. Other (please specify)

10. What were the main benefits to your career as a result of a caring responsibility ?

- One. able to adopt a more balanced attitude to work
- Two. better time management skills
- Three. acquired new management skills
- Four. able to re-focus career through training/ career break
- Five. other (specify)

11. Do you believe that it is possible successfully to combine a career in management and a caring responsibility ?

- One. yes
- Two. yes, but only at considerable personal cost
- Three. no, it is not possible
- Four. don't know

12. Have you ever taken a career break/s ?

- One. yes, for childcare
- Two. yes, for eldercare
- Three. yes, for care of disabled
- Four. yes, for training
- Five. other (please specify)

13. If yes, how long, in total, were you out of the employment market ?

- One. under 6 months
- Two. 6 months - 1 year
- Three. 1-2 years
- Four. 3-5 years
- Five. 6-10 years
- Six. over 10 years

14. Upon returning to work, after your career break, at what level did you return ?

- One. lower
- Two. same
- Three. higher

Adapted from British Institute of Management (1992)

APPENDIX B

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR USE WITH
ORT ISRAEL SENIOR MANAGEMENT AND
HEADTEACHERS**

Interview Schedule for use with the secondary headteachers and with the senior management in ORT (Israel)

Section A: Information

Personal details

1. Are you male/ female?
2. What is your highest qualification (degree)?
3. Which age group are you?
4. What is your marital status?
5. Do you have any (domestic) caring responsibilities/ commitments (children, elderly dependent)?
6. Who undertakes the main responsibilities, such as: shopping, cleaning, cooking, household finances, etc., at home?
7. Did you serve in the army? In which role (official, managerial, combat)?

Career course

8. What is your current role?
9. What is your current management level?
10. Which posts (in the education field) you have held before your current role?
11. What factors were influential in forming your career?
12. Have you encountered any barriers in your career to date? Please specify.
13. How important would you say your career is to you compared to your home life?
14. How do you see your career developing in the long term?

Management style

15. Does your army service have any influence on your management style and/ or your career progress?
16. Has your own management style had to be modified to “fit” that of the organization?

Discrimination tracks

17. Have you ever been aware of sex discrimination in connection with managerial job application or promotion?

18. How do you ensure that women in your organization are encouraged to seek promotion?

Section B: Opinions, Views and Perceptions

Career course

19. How satisfied are you with your current role?
20. Have you ever had thoughts of changing your current role?
21. How satisfied are you with the progress of your career to date?

Management style

22. How would you describe your own management style (people/ task oriented)?
23. In your opinion, which traits/ factors are most important in terms of management career success?
24. To what extent do you perceive your management style as a barrier/ catalyze to your career progress?

Discrimination tracks

25. Do you think there is a difference in management style between yours and your male/ female colleagues?
26. Do you think that a woman has to “prove her worth” in a management position?
27. As a manager, have you ever perceived it an advantage or disadvantage to be a woman?
28. How far do you agree with the following statements? Explain.
- All managers should receive equal treatment, irrespective of family responsibilities.
 - I do find/ would find it difficult to work for senior woman manager.
 - Women managers are no different to men in the work place.

APPENDIX C

AN INTRODUCTION LETTER OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE



Colleges & Schools for Advanced Technologies & Sciences

Administration for R&D and Training

13/02/2001

Dear Manager !!!

My name is Sharona Kalderon and I am the Director of P.R & Development of the Administration for R&D and Training of ORT Israel.

Within the framework of my studies for PhD degree in Educational Management in the subject of gender and management styles, examining the "the glass ceiling" phenomenon in the teaching profession at ORT Israel , I have to conduct a survey between the Junior high and Secondary Schools headteachers of ORT Israel.

I would like to emphasize that the survey is absolutely anonymous and was approved by the pedagogical forum of ORT Israel management.

The questionnaire composed of closed questions and although it seems long, I assure you that filling the questionnaire will not consume more than 10 minutes of your time.

I will appreciate if you could fill the questionnaire as soon as possible and send it back in the attached envelope.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Best regards.

Sharona Kalderon



28, Hatayassim Rd., Tel-Aviv 67299 Israel Tel: 03-6301310 Fax: 03-6301338
e-mail: kaldero@ort.org.il

Sharona Kalderon -Director of P.R & Development of the Administration for R&D and Training
www.ort.org.il

APPENDIX D

A REMINDER LETTER OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE



Colleges & Schools for Advanced Technologies & Sciences

Administration for R&D and Training

01/05/2001

REMINDER !!!

Dear Manager !!!

Following my previous letter, with it my request for your help of filling a questionnaire for a survey between the Junior high and Secondary Schools headteachers of ORT Israel, I will appreciate if you could fill the questionnaire as soon as possible and send it back.

The questionnaire composed of closed questions and although it seems long, I assure you that filling the questionnaire will not consume more than 10 minutes of your time.

Since the survey is absolutely anonymous, it was beyond my possibility to know if you are between those managers that already fill and sent me back the questionnaire, therefore please accept my apology for sending the reminder.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Best regards.

Sharon Kalderon



28, Hatayassim Rd., Tel-Aviv 67299 Israel Tel: 03-6301310 Fax: 03-6301338
e-mail: skaldero@ort.org.il
Sharon Kalderon- Director of P.R & Development of the Administration for R&D and Training
www.ort.org.il

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abu-Baker, H. (1992), 'The Arab school – a pioneer for equality or not', *Every Man*, vol. 7, pp. 12-13.

Acker, S. (1994), *Gendered Education*, Buckingham, Open University Press.

Addi-Raccah, A. (2001), 'Interior occupational segregation according to gender: the case of the teaching profession', *Megamot 2001*, vol. 31, no. 3, pp. 349-372 (Translated from Hebrew).

Addi-Raccah, A., Ayalon, H. (2002), 'Gender inequality in Leadership Positions of Teachers', *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 157-177.

Adler, N., & Izraeli, D. (1988), *Women in Management Worldwide*, M.E., New York, Sharpe Inc.

Alper, T. G. (1974), 'Achievement Motivation in College Women: A now you see it, now you don't (Phoneme)', *American Psychologist*, vol. 29, pp. 194-203.

should this be 'phenomenon' 11

Alpert, B. (2001), 'Writing in the qualitative research', in Zabar Ben Yehushua, N. (ed.), *Reviews of Traditions and Streams in the Qualitative Research*, Lod, Dvir Pub., pp. 369-405 (Translated from Hebrew).

Anselmi, D. L., & Law, A. L. (1998), *Questions of Gender, Perspectives and Paradoxes*, McGraw-Hill/Companies.

Antill, J. K., Cunningham, J. D. (1979), 'Self esteem as a function of masculinity in both sexes', *Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, vol. 47, pp. 783-785.

Appelbaum, S., & Shapiro, B. (1993), 'Why can't men lead like women?', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, vol. 14, no. 7, pp. 28-34.

Arnold, M. L., & Shinew, K. J. (1996), 'Perceived barriers to promotion: A comparison between Females and Males, The 1996 Leisure Research Symposium, October, Kansas City, MO (ONLINE – <http://www.indiana.edu/~lrs/lrs96/marnold96.html>).

- Ashkenazi, M. (1986), Unit 4: Ethnographic research in anthropology, in *Research Methods in Social Sciences: The Research's Principles and its Styles*, Open University, pp. 1-108 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Ashmore, R. D. (1990), 'Sex, gender and the individual', in Pervin, L. A. (ed.), *Handbook of personality*, New York, Guilford Press, pp. 468-525.
- Atkinson, P., Delamont, S. and Hammersley, M. (1993), 'Qualitative research traditions', in Hammersley, M. (ed.), *Educational Research: current issues*, London, Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Bakan, D. (1966), *The duality of human existence*, Chicago, Rand McNally.
- Basow, S. A. (1992), *Gender Stereotypes and Roles (3rd edition)*, California, Brooks/ Cole Publication.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B.J. and Atwater, L. (1996), 'The transformational and transactional leadership of men and women', *Applied Psychology: an International Review*, vol. 45, no. 1, pp. 5-34.
- Bell, C., & Chase, S. (1993), 'The under-representation of women in school leadership', in Marshall, C. (ed.), *The New Politics of Race and Gender*, Washington, DC & London, The Falmer Press.
- Bell, J. (1987), *Doing Your Research Project*, Milton, Keynes, Open University.
- Belson, W. A. (1986), *Validity in Survey Research*, Aldershot, Gower.
- Bem, S. L. (1974), 'The measurement of psychological androgyny', *Clinical and Consulting Psychology*, vol. 42, no. 2, pp. 155-62.
- Bem, S. L. (1977), 'On the Utility of Alternative Procedures for Assessing Psychological Androgyny', *Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, vol. 45, no. 2, pp. 196-205.
- Bem, S. L. (1978), 'Beyond androgyny: presumptuous prescriptions for a liberated sexual identity', in Sherman, I., & Denmark, F. (eds.), *The Future of Women, Issues in Psychology*, New York, Psychological Dimensions.
- Bem, S. L. (1981), *Bem Sex Role Inventory: Professional manual*, Palo Alto, California, Consulting Psychologist Press.
- Bem, S. L. (1981b), *Bem Sex Role Inventory: Professional manual*, Palo Alto, California, Consulting Psychologist Press.

- Bem, S. L. (1985), 'Androgyny and gender schema theory: A conceptual and empirical integration', in Sonderegger, T. (ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, 1984: Psychology and gender*, Lincoln, University of Nebraska Press, pp. 179-226.
- Bem, S. L. (1993), *The Lenses of Gender: Transforming the Debate on sexual Inequality*, New Haven,  Yale University Press.
- Black, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. (1980), *The versatile manager: A grid profile*, Homewood, Ill, Dow-Jones-Irwin.
- Blackmore, J. (1993), 'In the Shadow of Men: An Historical Construction of Administration as a "Masculinist" Enterprise', in Blackmore, J., & Kenway, J. (eds.), *Gender Matters in Educational Administration and Policy: A Feminist Introduction*, London, Falmer Press, pp. 27-48.
- Blackmore, J. (1997), 'Level playing field? Feminist observations on global/local articulations of the re-gendering and restructuring of educational work', *International Review of Education*, vol. 43, pp. 439-461.
- Blackmore, J., & Kenway, J. (1993), *Gender Matters in Educational Administration and Policy: A Feminist Introduction*, London, Falmer Press, pp. 27-48.
- Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. (1978), *The New Managerial Grid*, Houston, Texas, Gulf Publishing Co.
- Blanchard, K. (1988), 'Mr. & Mrs.: How Different are they Leadership Styled?', *Today's Office*, vol. 22, no. 10, pp. 30-31.
- Bohl, D. L., Luthans, F., Slocum, J. W. Jr. and Hodgetts, R. M. (1996), 'Ideas that will shape the future of management practice', *Organizational Dynamics*, vol. 25, no. 1, pp. 7-14.
- Braiker, H. (1986), *The Type E Women*,  Angus & Robertson Publishers,  Australia & United Kingdom.
- British Institute of Management (1992), *Women in Management*, Management House.
- Brod, M. (2002), Judaism in our days – Women's status according to the Judaism view (ONLINE – <http://www.chabad.org.il/eyun/esha/me-2.htm>) (Translated from Hebrew).

London

Burgess, R. G. (1993), *Research Methods*, Thomas Nelson and Sons publication.

Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D. and Allen, J. S. (1995), 'Further assessment of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership', *Applied Psychology*, vol. 80, no. 4, pp. 468-478.

Chen, M., & Addi, A. (1992), 'Principals' Gender and Work Orientation of Male and Female Teachers', *Transformations*, vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 5-14.

Choen, O. (2002), A woman of valour who will find, Behavioral Sciences Department, Ben Gurion University, Israel (ONLINE – <http://www.bgu.ac.il/~bobbie/sites2002/oshrit/index.htm>) (Translated from Hebrew).

Cohen, L., & Manion, L. (1994), *Research Methods in Education (4th edition)*, London, Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2000), *Research Methods in Education (5th edition)*, Routledge Falmer.

Coleman, M. (1996), 'The Management Style of Female Headteachers', in Ribbins, P. (ed.), *Educational Management Administration*, vol. 24, no. 2, pp. 163-174.

Coleman, M. (1999), 'The Female Secondary Headteacher in England and Wales: Leadership and Management Styles', *Educational Management*, Leicester, University of Leicester, School of Education (EMDU).

Coleman, M. (2000), 'The female secondary headteacher in England and Wales: leadership and management styles', *Educational Research*, vol. 42, no. 1, pp. 13-27.

Constantinople, A. (1973), 'Masculinity-femininity: An exception to a famous dictum', *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 28, pp. 512-526.

Cotter, D. A., Hermsen, J. M., & Vanneman, R. (2001), 'Women's Work and Working Women: The Demand for Female Labor', *Gender & Society*, vol. 15, no. 3, pp. 429-451.

Davies, L. (1998), 'Democratic practice, gender and school management', in Drake, P., & Owen, P. (eds.), *Gender and Management issues in Education*, Trentham Books.

? Stafford?

- De Jong, A., & Van Doore-Huiskes, A. (1989), 'Stijl van leidinggeven van vrouwen en mannen', *Rapport Bureau Voorlichting no. 33*, Ministerie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid (The Sophists).
- Deaux, K. (1984), 'From Individual Differences to Social Categories: Analysis of a Decade's Research on Gender', *American Psychologist*, vol. 39, pp. 16-105.
- Deaux, K. (1987), 'Psychological constructions of masculinity and femininity', in Reinisch, J., Rosenblum, L., and Sanders, S. (eds.), *Masculinity/Femininity: Basic perspectives*, New York, Oxford University Press, pp. 289-303.
- DFEE (1993), *Statistics of Education Teachers in England and Wales 1991*, London, HMSO.
- DFEE (1996), *Statistics of Education Teachers in England and Wales 1994*, London, HMSO.
- DFEE (1997), *Statistics of Education Teachers in England and Wales 1996*, London, Government Statistical Service.
- DFES (2002), School Workforce in England 2002 Edition, *Statistical Bulletin*, (ONLINE – <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB/VOL/v000380/456-t25.htm>)
- Diener, E., & Crandall, R. (1978), *Ethics in social and behavioral research*, London, The University of Chicago Press Ltd.
- Dobbins, G. H., & Platz, S. J. (1986), 'Sex differences in leadership: how real they are?', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 11, no. 1, pp. 118-127.
- Dobbins, G. H., Long, W. S., Dedrick, E. J. and Clemons, T. C. (1999), 'The role of the self-monitoring & gender on leader emergence: a laboratory & field study', *Management*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 609-618.
- Druskat, V. U. (1994), 'Gender and leadership style: Transformational and transactional leadership in the Roman Catholic Church', *Leadership Quarterly*, vol. 6, pp. 413-450.
- Eagly, A. H. (1987), *Sex differences in social behavior: A social-role interpretation*, Hillsdale, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990), 'Gender and leadership style: a meta-analysis', *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 108, no. 2, pp. 233-256.
- Eagly, A. H., Steffen, V. J. (1984), 'Gender stereotypes stem from the distribution of women and men into social roles', *Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 46, pp. 735-754.
- Easterby-Smith, M. Thorpe, R. and Lowe, A. (1994), 'The Philosophy of Research Design', in Bennett, N., Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (eds.), *Improving Educational Management through research and consultancy*, London, Paul Chapman.
- Edwards, J.J., & Spence J.T. (1987), 'Gender-Related Traits, Stereotypes and Schemata', *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, vol. 53, pp. 146-154.
- Elor, T. (1995), 'Teachers' status in Israel in the pass from the social connection to the community one', in Shapira, R., & Shavit, R. (eds.), *The school and its communities*, Tel Aviv, Ramot Publication, Tel Aviv University, pp. 69-82 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Etzion, D. (1984), 'Burning out in Management: A Comparison of Women and Men in Matched Organizational Position', Paper Presented at the Second Congress on Women, Holland.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967), *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*, New York, McGraw-Hill.
- Firestone, S. (1979), *The dialectic of sex: the case for feminist revolution*, New York, Bantam Books.
- Fisher, A. H. (1998), 'De top (m/v): de paradox van emoties', *Gedrag en Organisatie*, vol. 11, no. 4, pp. 203-214 (The Sophists).
- Fleishman, E. A., & Harris, E. F. (1962), 'Patterns of Leadership Behavior Related to Employee Grievances and Turnover', *Personnel Psychology*, vol. 15, pp. 43-56.
- Fleishman, E. A., & Peters, D. R. (1957), 'Interpersonal Values Leadership Attitudes and Managerial Success', *Personnel Psychology*, vol. 15, pp. 127-143.
- Fleishman, E. A. (1953), 'The description of supervisory behavior', *Applied Psychology*, vol. 37, no. 1, pp. 1-6.

- Fondas, N. (1997), 'Feminization Unveiled: Management Qualities in Contemporary Writings', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 22, no. 1, pp. 257-282.
- Frank, E. J. (1988), 'Business students' perceptions of women in management', *Sex Role*, vol. 19 (1/2), pp. 107-118.
- Freidin, H. (1995), 'Women and Management', *Ha'Mifal*, vol. 412, pp. 6-8 (Translated from Hebrew).
- French, E., & Lesser, G. S. (1964), 'Some characteristics of the achievement motive in women', *Abnormal and Social Psychology*, vol. 68, pp. 119-128.
- Fridman, A. (1990), 'Women on the Way to Top Management', unpublished paper for a lecture in the 'Wisozky Award for women managers in the industry and business' Ceremony (Translated from Hebrew).
- Fuchs, I., & Hertz-Lazarovitz, R. (1996), 'Being woman manager in school in Israel: Women write their life story', *Megamot*, vol. 37, pp. 292-313 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Fuchs, I., Hertz-Lazarovitz, R. (1991), 'Principals thinking about change', *Studies in the Educational Administration and Organization*, vol. 17, pp. 75-104 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Fuchs, S. (1999), *The Psychology of the Resistant to a Change*, Ramat-Gan, Bar Ilan University Publishing (Translated from Hebrew).
- Gabbison, R. (1994), *Human Rights in Israel*, Ministry of Defense Publication, Tel-Aviv, pp. 160-161 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Gardiner, M., & Tiggemann, M. (1999), 'Gender differences in Leadership style, job stress and mental health in male and female dominated industries', *Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, vol. 72, pp. 301-315.
- Gentile, D. A. (1998), 'Just What Are Sex and Gender, Anyway? A Call for a New Terminological Standard', in Anselmi, D. L., & Law, A. L. (eds.), *Questions of Gender, Perspectives and Paradoxes*, McGraw-Hills Companies.
- Gilbert, L. A. (1981), 'Toward mental health: The benefits of psychological androgyny', *Professional Psychology*, vol. 12, pp. 29-38.

- Glover, D., & Kaplan, C. (2000), *Genders*, London, Routledge.
- Goldring, E., & Chen, M. (1994), 'The feminization of the principalship in Israel: The trade-off between political power and cooperative leadership', in Marshall, C. (ed.), *The New Politics of Race and Gender, The 1992 Yearbook of the Politics of Education Association*, Falmer Press, pp. 175-181.
- Goodwin, J. (1993), Gender studies and the critique of men, *Faculty of Social Sciences*, July, University of Leicester.
- Grant, J. (1988), 'Women as managers: what they can offer organizations', *Organizational Dynamics*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 56-63.
- Gray, H. L. (1993), 'Gender issues in management training', in Ogza, J. (ed.), *Women in Educational Management*, Buckingham, Open University Press. ?
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1981), *Effective Evaluation*, San Francisco, Jossey – Bass.
- Gutek, B. A. (1993), 'Changing the status of women in management', *Applied Psychology: an International Review*, vol. 42, no. 4, pp. 301-311.
- Hachen, D. S. (1988), 'Gender differences in job mobility rates in the U.S.A.', *Social Science Research*, vol. 17, pp. 93-116.
- Hall, L. A. (2000), *Sex, Gender and Social change in Britain since 1880*, ~~Macmillan Press LTD~~ ^{Basingstoke}
- Hall, V. (1997), 'Dusting off the phoenix: gender and educational leadership revisited', *Educational Management and Administration*, vol. 25, no. 3, pp. 309-325.
- Hall, V., & Southworth, G. (1997), 'Headship', *School Leadership and Management*, vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 151-170.
- Hanik, M. (1995), 'The Glass Ceiling is made of concrete', *Na'amat: Journal for woman and for the family*, November-December, pp. 38-39 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Hanik, M. (2001), 'Long live the Little Difference', *Women and Career* (ONLINE – <http://www.bsh.co.il/ShowArticle.asp?ArticleId=207&CategoryId=32>) (Translated from Hebrew).

- Helgesen, S. (1990), *The Female Advantage: Women's Ways of Leadership*,
~~Doubleday Currency, New York.~~
 Doubleday Currency, New York.
- Heller, R. T. (1999), 'Men and Women: A Jewish view on Gender Differences',
 Copyright 1999 (ONLINE -
 wysiwyg://525/http://aish.com/issue...wish_view_on_gender_
 differences.asp).
- Hellman, M. E., Block, C. J., Martell, R. F. and Simon, M. C. (1989), 'Has
 anything changed? Current characterizations of men, women and
 managers', *Applied Psychology*, vol. 74, no. 6, pp. 935-942.
- Hemphill, J. K. (1950), 'Leader behavior description', *Personnel Research
 Board*, Ohio State University.
- Hersey, P. G., & Blanchard, K. H. (1969), 'Life cycle theory of leadership',
Training and Development, May.
- Hersey, R., & Blanchard, R. H. (1972), *Management of Organizational
 Behavior*, Prentice Hall International Inc. (NJ).
- Herzog, H. (1999), 'Women in Politics and Politics of Women', in Izraeli, D. N. et al.
 (eds.), *Sex, Gender and Politics*, Kav Adom Pub., Tel-Aviv, The United Kibutz,
 pp. 307-356 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Hods, B. (1990), 'The best person for management in the 2000's is a woman',
Minhalton, pp. 38-40 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Holahan, C. K., & Spence, J. T. (1980), 'Desirability and undesirable masculine
 and feminine traits in counseling clients and unselected students',
Consulting and Clinical Psychology, vol. 48, pp. 300-302.
- House, R. J. (1971), 'A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness', *Administrative
 Science*, Quarterly, September.
- Hudson, P., & Miller, C. (1997), 'The treasure hunt: Strategies for obtaining
 maximum response to a postal survey', *Evaluation and Research in Education*,
 vol. 11 (2), pp. 12-102.
- International Labour Organization (1998), 'Breaking through the glass ceiling:
 Women in management – Summary', (ONLINE –
[http://www.ilo.org/public/english/dialouge/sector/techmeet/tmwm97
 /tmwm- sum.htm](http://www.ilo.org/public/english/dialouge/sector/techmeet/tmwm97/tmwm-sum.htm)).

- Izraeli, D. N. (1988), 'Women's Movement into Management in Israel, in Adler, N. J. and Izraeli, D. N. (eds.), *Women in Management Worldwide*, M.E. Sharpe Pub., N. Y., pp. 186-212.
- Izraeli, D. N. (1998), 'Women Managers', in Maor, A. (2nd ed.), *Women – The Rising Force – Shattering the 'Glass Ceiling'*, Hapoalim Library Publication (Translated from Hebrew).
- Izraeli, D., & Adler, N. (1994), 'Competitive frontiers: Women managers in a global economy', in Adler, N., & Izraeli, D. (eds.), *Competitive Frontiers: Women Managers in a Global Economy*, Cambridge, MA: Basil Blackwell, pp. 3-21.
- Jerby, I. (1996), *The Double Price: Women Status and Military Service in Israel*, Ramot, Tel-Aviv University.
- Johnson, D. (1994), *Research Methods in Educational Management*, Educational Management Development Unit, University of Leicester.
- Jones, W. H., Chernovetz, M. E. and Hansson, R. O. (1978), 'The enigma of androgyny: Differential implications for males and females', *Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, vol. 46, pp. 298-313.
- Kahn, R. L., & Cannel, C. F. (1958), *The Dynamics of Interviewing*, John Wiley, N. Y. New York.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977), *Men and Women of the corporation*, New York, Basic Books.
- Kaplan, A. G., & Bean, J. B. (1976), *Beyond sex-role stereotypes: Readings toward a psychology of androgyny*, Boston: Little, Brown.
- Karakowsky, L., & Siegel, J. P. (1999), 'The effects of proportional representation & gender orientation of the task on emergent leadership behavior in mixed-gender groups', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, vol. 84, no.4, pp. 620-631.
- Katz, P. A. (1986), 'Gender Identity, Development and Consequences', in Ashmore, R. D., & Del Boca, F. K. (eds.), *The Social Psychology of female-male Relations*, Academic Press, pp. 21-32.
- Kelly, J. A., & Worell, J. (1977), 'New formulations of sex roles and androgyny: A critical review', *Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, vol. 45, pp. 1101-1115.

Kohlberg, L. (1966), 'A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex role concepts and attitudes', in Maccoby, E. E. (ed.), *The development of sex differences*, Stanford, CA, Stanford University Press, pp. 52-173.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1987), *The leadership challenge*, New York, Jossey-Bass Inc.

check you
write "kouzes"
on P. 61

Korman, A. K. (1966), 'Consideration, initiating structure and organizational inertia', *Personnel Psychology*, vol. 18, pp. 349-360.

Kravetz, D. F. (1976), 'Sex role concepts of women', *Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, vol. 44, pp. 437-443.

Krek, R. (2003), 'Which kind of a leader?', *Status – journal for managerial thinking*, vol. 143, May, p. 28-33 (Translated from Hebrew).

Krippendorff, K. (1980), *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology*, Beverly Hills, Sage Publication.

Kruger, M. L. (1996), 'Gender Issues in school Headship: quality versus power?', *European Journal of Education*, vol. 31, no. 4, pp. 447-461.

Leavitt, J. A. (1982), 'Comparisons of men and women managers', in *Women in Management: an Annotated Bibliography and Source List*, Oryx Press, Phoenix, AZ.

Lewin, W. (1984), *Sociological ideas*, Belmont, CA, Wadsworth.

Lopata, H. Z., & Thorne, B. (1978), 'On the Term "Sex Roles"', *Signs*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 718-721.

Lorber, S., & Farrell, S. A. (1991), *The Social Construction of Gender*, Newbury Park, Sage.

Lortie, D. (1975), *School teachers: A sociological study*, Chicago, The University of Chicago Press.

Lubinski, D., Tellegen, A. and Butcher, J. N. (1981), 'The relationship between androgyny and subjective indicators of emotional well-being', *Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 40, pp. 722-730.

Maccoby, E. E., & Jacklin, C. N. (1987), 'Gender segregation in childhood', in Reese, E. H. (ed.), *Advances in child development and behavior*, vol. 20, New York, Academic Press.

- Mala'ch-Feins, A. (1989), *The women juggler*, People and Work, Tel Aviv, Am Oved, pp. 133-134 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Maor, A. (1998), 'Women's success – worthy and worthwhile to all of us!', in Maor, A. (2nd ed.), *Women – The Rising Force – Shattering the 'Glass Ceiling'*, Hapoalim Library Publication (Translated from Hebrew).
- Martin, C. L. (1993), 'New directors for investigating children's gender knowledge', *Developmental Review*, vol. 13, pp. 184-204.
- Maume, D. J. (1999), 'Glass ceiling and glass escalators', *Work and Occupations*, vol. 26, pp. 483-509.
- Mazawi, A. (2002), 'The Arabic Education in Israel: Gender, teaching staff and school as a social field', in Zelmayer, M., & Perry, P. (eds.), *Women teachers in Israel: A Feminist Look*, Tel-Aviv, Kav Adom, pp. 240-252 (Translated from Hebrew).
- McGaw, B. (1997), 'Nature and function of educational research', in Hegarty, S. (ed.), *The Role of Research in Mature Education Systems*, Slough, NFER. pp 89-86
- Meltz, J. (2002), 'The Career's Mother', *Globes*, April 19th (ONLINE – <http://www.globes.co.il/serve/globes/pringWindow.asp?did=578541&fid=1227>)
- Mills, C.J., & Tyrell, D. J. (1983), 'Sex Stereotypic Encoding and Release from Proactive Interface', *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, vol. 45, pp. 772-781.
- Morrison, A. (1987), *Breaking the Glass Ceiling*, Reading, MA, Addison Wesley.
- Morrison, A. M., & Von Glinow, M. A. (1990), 'Women and minorities in management', *America Psychologist*, vol. 45, no. 2, pp. 200-208.
- Nachmias, D., & Nachmias, C. (1986), *Research Methods in the Social Sciences*, Israel, Am Oved Publishers (Translated from Hebrew).
- Nachmias, D., & Nachmias, C. (1992), *Research Methods in the Social Sciences*, Israel, Am Oved Publishers (Translated from Hebrew).
- Nelson-Jones, R. (1986), *Human Relationship Skills*, London, Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

- Neubert, M. J. (1999), 'Too much of a good thing or the more the merrier? Exploring the Dispersion and Gender Composition of Informal Leadership in Manufacturing Teams', *Small Groups Research*, vol. 30, no. 5, pp. 635-646.
- Neville, M. (1998), *Promoting Women: Successful Women in Educational Management*, New Zealand, Longman Paul.
- Nevo, B., & Shor, Y. (2001), *Women in Israel Defense Forces*, Israel, The Israel Democracy Institute (Translated from Hebrew).
- Nicolson, P. (1996), *Gender, Power and Organisation*, London, Routledge.
- O'Connor, K., Mann, D. W. and Bardwick, J. M. (1978), 'Androgyny and self-esteem in the upper-middle class: A replication of Spence', *Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, vol. 46, pp. 1168-1169.
- Oakley, A. (1985), *Sex, Gender & Society*, Gower Publishing Company Limited, England.
- Ortiz, F. I., & Marshall, C. (1988), 'Women in Educational Administration', in Boyan, N. (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Educational Administration*, N. Y. and London, Longman, pp. 123-142.
- Osofsky, J. K., & Osofsky, H. J. (1972), 'Androgyny as a life style', *Family Coordinator*, vol. 21, pp. 411-419.
- Parsons, T., & Bales, R. F. (1955), *Family socialization and interaction process*, New York: Free Press.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990), *Qualitative evaluation and research methods (2nd ed.)*, Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.
- Perry, E. L., Davis-Blake, A. and Kulik, C. T. (1994), 'Explaining gender-based selection decisions: a synthesis of contextual and cognitive approaches', *Academy of Management Review*, vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 786-820.
- Peters, H. (2001), 'Risk, Rescue and Righteousness: How Women Prevent Themselves From Breaking Through the Glass Ceiling', Female Executives and the Glass Ceiling, Hagberg Consulting Group (ONLINE – <http://www.hcgnet.com/html/articles/female-executives.html>).

Check
I have seen
London, Temple
Smith (not
an earlier
edition)

- Pitner, N. (1981), 'Hormones and Harems: are the activities of superintending different for women?', in Schmuck, P. A. and others (eds.), *Education Policy and Management: Sex Differentials*, NY, Academic Press.
- Powell, G. N. (1988), *Women & Men in Management*, London - California, SAGE Publications Inc.
- Powell, G. N. (1990), 'One more time: do female and male managers differ?', *Academy of Management Executive*, vol. 4, no. 3, pp. 68-75.
- Purvis, J. (1985), 'Reflections Upon Doing Historical Documentary Research From a Feminist Perspective', in Burgess, R. (ed.), *Strategies of Educational Research: Qualitative Methods*, London, The Falmer Press.
- Rawling, E. I., & Carter, D. K. (1977), *Psychotherapy for women: Toward equality*, Chicago, Charles C. Thomas.
- Reay, D., & Ball, S. J. (2000), 'Essentials of Female Management: Women's Ways of Working in the Education Market Place?', *Educational Management & Administration*, Sage Publication, vol. 28, no. 2, pp. 145-159.
- Rebecca, M., Hefner, R. and Oleshansky, B. (1976), 'A model of sex-role transcendence', *Social Issues*, vol. 32, pp. 197-202.
- Reddin, W. J. (1970), *Managerial effectiveness*, New York, McGraw-Hill.
- Reihl, C., & Byrd, M. (1997), 'Gender differences among new recruits to school administration: cautionary footnotes to an optimistic tale', *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, vol. 19, pp. 45-64.
- Reskin, B. (1988), 'Bringing the Men Back In: Sex Differentiation and the Devaluation of Women's Work', *Gender & Society*, vol. 2, pp. 58-81.
- Reskin, B. F., & Roos, P. A. (1990), *Job queues, gender queues: Explaining women's inroad into male occupation*, Philadelphia, Temple.
- Robbins, S. P. (1996), *Organizational Behavior: Concepts, controversies, applications (7 ed.)*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice Hall International.
- Robson, C. (1993), *Real World Research*, Oxford, Blackwell.
- Ronk, L. (1993), 'Gender Gaps Within Management', *Nursing Management*, vol. 24, Iss:5, pp. 65-67.

- Rorty, R. (1988), 'The Chance of Language', *Educating Thinking*, vol. 13, pp. 6-15 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Rosen, B. Miguel, M. and Peirde, E. (1989), 'Stemming the exodus of women managers', *Human Resource Management*, vol. 28, no. 4, pp. 475-491.
- Rosner, J. B. (1990), 'Ways women lead', *Harvard Business Review*, November-December, pp. 119-125.
- Rosner, J. B. (1991), 'The valued ways men and women lead', *HR Magazine*, vol. 36 (June), pp. 147-149.
- Rozin, T. (2000), *What is feminism anyway? And why don't we know anything about it*, Israel, Zmora Bitan Publishers (Translated from Hebrew).
- Ruijs, A. (1990), *Vrouwen en school management*, Swets & Zeitlinger, Amsterdam (The Sophists).
- Sashkin, M., & Burke, W. W. (1990), 'Understanding and assessing organizational leadership, in Clark, K. E., & Clark, M. B. (eds.), *Measures of leadership*, West Orange, NJ, Leadership Library of America, pp. 297-325.
- Schein, V. E., & Mueller, R. (1992), 'Sex role stereotyping and requisite management characteristics: a cross-cultural look', *Organizational Behavior*, vol. 13, pp. 439-447.
- Schmuck, P. A. (1987), 'Women school employees in United States, in Schmuck, P. A. (ed.), *Women Educators Employees of Schools in Western Countries*, New York, State University Press of New York.
- Schreisheim, C. A., & Kerr, S. (1974), 'Psychometric properties of the Ohio State Leadership Scales', *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 81, pp. 756-765.
- Schumuch, P. A. (1996), 'Women's Place in Educational Administration: Past, Present and Future', in Leithwood, K., Chapman, J., Corson, D., Hallinger, P. and Hart, A. (eds.), *International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration*, Boston, Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Schwartz, F. N. (1992), 'Women as a business imperative', *Harvard Business Review*, vol. 70, pp. 105-113.

- Shakeshaft, C. (1995), 'Gendered Leadership Styles in Educational Organizations, in Limerick, B., & Lingard, B. (eds.), *Gender and Changing Educational Management*, Hodder Education, Australia, pp. 12-22.
- Shakeshaft, C. (1999), 'The struggle to create a more gender-inclusive profession', in Murphy, J., & Louis, K. S. (eds.), *Handbook of research on educational administration*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, pp. 99-118.
- Shemer, S. (1992), *Intimate report: on women in Israel*, Ma'ariv library Pub., Tel-Aviv (Translated from Hebrew).
- Shipper, F. (1994), 'A study of managerial skills of women and men and their impact on employee's attitudes and career success in a nontraditional organization' [Abstract], in Moore, D. P. (ed.), *Academy of Management Best Papers Proceedings*, Madison, WI, OmniPress, vol. 54, p. 471.
- Shlesky, S., & Arieli, M. (2001), 'From the Interpretive Approach to the Post Modernistic Approaches in the Education Study', in Zabar Ben Yehushua, N. (ed.), *Reviews of Traditions and Streams in the Qualitative Research*, Lod, Dvir Pub., pp. 31-77 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Silverman, D. (1993), *Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods for Analysing Text, Talk and Interaction*, Sage, London.
- Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L. (1979), 'On assessing androgyny', *Sex Role*, vol. 5, pp. 721-738.
- Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R. and Stapp, J. (1975), 'Rating of Self and Peers on Sex Role Attributes and Their Relation to Self Esteem and Conceptions of Masculinity and Femininity', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 32, pp. 29-39.
- Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R. L. (1978), *Masculinity and femininity: Their psychological dimensions, correlates, and antecedents*, Austin, TX, University of Texas Press.
- Stake, R. E. (2000), 'Case Studies', in Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln (eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research (2nd ed.)*, Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.
- Stewart, A. J., & Lykes, M. B. (1985), *Gender and Personality: Current Perspectives on Theory and Research*, Durham, NC, Duke University Press.

- Still, L. (1994c), 'Women in management: organizational futures', Paper presented at Australian Institute of Training and Development Annual Conference, Adelaide, 20 October.
- Still, L. (1995), 'Women in management: glass ceiling or slippery poles?' in Limerick, B., & Lingard, B. (eds.), *Gender and Changing Educational Management*, Rydalmere, NSW, Hodder Education, pp. 106-120.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1974), *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*, New York, The Free Press.
- Stone, P. (1995), 'Assessing gender at work: Evidence and issues', in Jacobs, J. A. (ed.), *Gender in inequality at work*, Newbury Park, CA, Sage, pp. 408-422.
- Sturdevant, S. (1980), *Therapy with women: A feminist philosophy of treatment*, New York: Springer Publishing.
- Svirsky, S., Connor, E., Svirsky, B. and Yechezkel, Y. (2001), *Women in the Labor Force of the Welfare State in Israel*, Edva Center, Tel-Aviv, July.
- Tamelman, L., & Sheinfeld, S. (2001), 'Women managers – The continuous road of barriers and staying at the top', (ONLINE – <http://www.bgu.ac.il/%7Ebobbie/opwebold/wommanage/home.htm>) (Translated from Hebrew).
- Tamelman, L., & Shenfield, S. (1998), Women managers – The road full of obstacles and staying at the top (ONLINE – <http://www.bgu.ac.il/%7Ebobbie/opwebold/wommanage/home.htm>) (Translated from Hebrew).
- Tannen, D. (1990), *You just don't understand*, Ballantine, New York. *(A woman's publication)*
- Tavris, C. (1991), 'The mismeasure of women: paradoxes and perspectives in the study of gender', in Goodchilds, J. D. (ed.), *Psychological Perspectives on Human Diversity in America*, APA, Washington, DC.
- Thooft, L. (1994), 'De manager van de jaren '90 is een vrouw', *Marie Claire*, 3 (Maart), pp. 77-82 (The Sophists).
- U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Schools and Staffing Survey* (ONLINE – <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/sass>).

- Van Vianen, A. E. M., & Keizer, W. A. J. (1992), 'De ambitie van mannen en vrouwen voor een leidinggerende functie in traditioneel door mannen beheerste werkomgevingen', *Gedrag en Organisatie*, vol. 5, no. 6, pp. 382-402 (The Sophists).
- Vinnicombe, S., & Colwill, N.L. (1995), *The Essence of Women in Management*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Limited.
- Visel, V. (1996), 'Building 'new' woman: researching the talk of organizations that would like to promote women's career in management and in business entrepreneurship', *M.A. dissertation*, Bar Ilan University (Translated from Hebrew).
- Vokins, N. (1993), 'The minerva matrix women entrepreneurs', in Allen, S., & Truman, C. (eds.), *Women in business: Perspectives on female entrepreneurs*, New York, Routledge, pp. 46-56.
- Walkup, H., & Abbot, R. D. (1978), 'Cross-validation of item selection on the Bem Sex Role Inventory', *Applied Psychological Measurement*, vol. 2, pp. 63-71.
- Weiner, G. (1995), 'A Question of Style or Value? Contrasting Perceptions of Women as Educational Leaders', in Limerick, B., & Lingard, B. (eds.), *Gender and Changing Educational Management*, Ryalmen, NSU, Hodder & Stoughton.
- Weissenberg, P. & Kavanagh, M. J. (1972), 'The independence of initiating structure and consideration: A review of the evidence', *Personnel Psychology*, vol. 25, pp. 119-130.
- Williams, C. L. (1992), 'The glass escalator: Hidden advantages for man in the female profession', *Social Problems*, vol. 39, pp. 253-267.
- Woods, P. (1987), 'Life histories and teacher knowledge', in Smyth, J. (ed.), *Educating Teachers: Changing the Nature of Pedagogical Knowledge*, London, Falmer Press.
- Yaffe, N. (2000), *Women and men in the mirror of statistics*, Israel Central Bureau of Statistics.
- Yin, R. K. (1989), *Case study research – Design and methods (2nd ed.)*, Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

- Yona, Y. (1993), 'The inner world of new managers', Paper for M.A., School of Education, Haifa University, Israel (Translated from Hebrew).
- Zabar Ben Yehoshua, N. (1990), *The Qualitative Research in Teaching and in Learning*, Tel-Aviv, Modan Publishing (Translated from Hebrew).
- Zabar Ben Yehoshua, N. (2001), 'Ethnography in Education', in Zabar Ben Yehoshua, N. (ed.), *Reviews of Traditions and Streams in the Qualitative Research*, Lod, Dvir Pub., pp. 101-141 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Zeichner, K., & Noffke, S. (2001), 'Practitioner research', in Richardson, V. (ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching*, Washington DC, AERA.
- Zidkiyahu, S. (2000), 'Women in Israel in the year 2000 in comparison to year 1948', *Panim Le'chan U Le'chan*, vol. 64, pp.5-8 (Translated from Hebrew).
- Zilberg, T. (2000), 'The millennium of the feminine management', *Status – journal for managerial thinking*, vol. 110, August, p. 37 (Translated from Hebrew).